

Australian Social Trends 2007



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Australian Social Trends 2007

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Contents

	Page
Preface	v
Introduction	vi
Population	1
National and state summary.....	2
Recent increases in Australia's fertility.....	9
International fertility comparison.....	13
Australia's babies.....	18
Migration: permanent additions to Australia's population.....	24
Family and community	31
National and state summary.....	32
Lifetime marriage and divorce trends.....	43
One-parent families.....	48
Before and/or after school care.....	54
Health	59
National and state summary.....	60
Overweight and obesity.....	71
Diabetes mellitus.....	76
Selected chronic conditions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.....	82
Education and training	89
National and state summary.....	90
Qualification profile of Australians.....	99
Training for a trade.....	105
International students in Australia.....	109
Work	115
National and state summary.....	116
Labour force participation – an international comparison.....	125
Maternity leave arrangements.....	132
Work-related injuries.....	137
Economic resources	143
National and state summary.....	144
Purchasing power.....	153
Trends in household consumption.....	158
Low income low wealth households.....	164

	Page
Housing	171
National and state summary.....	172
Wealth in homes of owner-occupier households.....	179
Larger dwellings, smaller households.....	184
Other areas of social concern	189
National and state summary.....	190
Interpersonal violence.....	195
Women's experience of partner violence.....	200
Participation in sports and physical recreation.....	205
Household waste.....	208
International comparisons	213
Population.....	214
Health.....	217
Education.....	219
Work.....	223
Cumulative topic list	225
ABS information services	234

Preface

Australian Social Trends 2007 is the 14th edition of an annual series that presents information on contemporary social issues and areas of public policy concern. By drawing primarily on a wide range of ABS statistics, and statistics from other official sources, *Australian Social Trends* describes aspects of Australian society, and how these are changing over time. It is designed to assist and encourage informed decision-making, and to be of value to a wide audience including those engaged in research, journalism, marketing, teaching and social policy, as well as anyone interested in how we live today and how we've changed over recent decades.

The material presented in *Australian Social Trends 2007* is organised into nine chapters. As in previous editions, each of the first seven chapters represents a major area of social concern (i.e. population, family and community, health, education and training, work, economic resources, and housing), with an eighth chapter covering other areas of concern (e.g. crime and justice, culture and leisure, and the environment). The ninth chapter provides international comparisons for a number of these areas. *Australian Social Trends* also contains an introduction which is designed to further explain the rationale behind the publication and describe its main aims and features.

In this edition there are a number of articles focusing on fertility, maternity and babies (such as recent increases in Australia's fertility and maternity leave arrangements), as well as a number of articles presenting international comparisons of issues (such as fertility and labour force participation). The opportunity has been taken to present some articles which expand and update analysis of topics examined in previous editions using the most recently available data. For example, in this edition, such articles cover one-parent families, international students and wealth in housing. There are also articles on topics of interest not previously examined, such as overweight and obesity, trends in household consumption and women's experience of partner violence. The number of articles listed in the cumulative index now comes to over 400, published across all 14 editions.

The national and state summary tables which present key social indicators in each of the seven major areas of social concern have been updated. Each set of tables now includes a summary of key points and graphs for selected indicators. Also updated are the set of tables comparing Australia with major OECD countries, our closest neighbours, and our trading partners.

In addition to thanking the people throughout the ABS who compiled, wrote and edited *Australian Social Trends 2007*, I would like to thank Dr Shail Jain of the Australian National University for his contribution in writing an article for the Family and community chapter. I would also like to thank various organisations that assisted by providing data and advice, in particular the Department of Immigration and Citizenship.

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

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August 2007

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Introduction

ABS framework for social statistics

The broad framework ABS uses to develop and organise its social statistics program was published in *Measuring Wellbeing: Frameworks for Australian Social Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 4160.0) in 2001. This framework describes the scope of social statistics and the linkages both within this field of statistics and with economic statistics. It also describes commonly used definitions, classifications and counting rules and, where relevant, is consistent with national accounting standards. Its systematic approach supports the identification and analysis of data needs and helps to ensure that a comprehensive and well balanced array of data items are collected across the social statistics program. It also facilitates integration across the social and economic fields, particularly in areas such as economic resources and work.

The concept of wellbeing is central to the framework. This multifaceted concept recognises a range of fundamental human needs and aspirations, each of which can be linked to an area of social concern. These needs and aspirations are the focus of government social policy and service delivery, and are reflected in many of the structures of government.

...key dimensions

A number of key areas of social concern form one dimension of the framework. The areas identified are: population; family and community; health; education and training; work; economic resources; housing; crime and justice; and culture and leisure. Each of these areas has its own more detailed framework, or set of frameworks, and is explored through a series of questions:

- ◆ How does this area relate to the wellbeing of both individuals and society?
- ◆ What are the key social issues that need to be informed in this area?
- ◆ What groups are at risk of disadvantage?
- ◆ What are the social and economic transactions that affect individual wellbeing?
- ◆ What detailed frameworks relate to this area?
- ◆ What definitions, classifications and units of measurement will result in effective social indicators for the area?
- ◆ What data sources relate to this area?

Selected population groups	Areas of social concern								
	Population	Family and community	Health	Education and training	Work	Economic resources	Housing	Crime and justice	Culture and leisure
Unemployed people	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Retirees	✓					✓			
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Lone parents	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓
Children	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	
Migrants	✓	✓		✓	✓				✓
Older people	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		
People with low income	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
People with a disability	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓		
Crime victims	✓		✓					✓	

Another dimension of the framework focuses on a variety of population groups which are of special interest to the community and to governments. These groups include, for example, older people, children, youth, families with children, the unemployed, lone parents, people with disabilities, carers, recipients of various government benefits, low income earners, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, and people whose language background is other than English.

These two basic dimensions of the framework are brought together in the form of a matrix showing areas of social concern by population groups. The diagram on the previous page illustrates this matrix, showing how each area of concern can be related to selected population groups and how different areas of concern can be interconnected. The scope of social statistics in Australia is broadly defined by reference to this matrix and the relationship of its elements to various aspects of human wellbeing, both at the level of the individual and for society as a whole. The ABS aims to provide information about the elements of this matrix over time through its work program activities.

...application of the framework in *Australian Social Trends*

Australian Social Trends (AST) is structured according to the framework's areas of concern. It draws on a wide range of data, sourced both from ABS and other agencies, to present a contemporary picture of Australian society. For each area of concern it provides a set of national and state/territory indicators which describe how key aspects of wellbeing in that area have been changing over time and how circumstances differ between states/territories. It also provides comparisons with other countries.

Aims of *Australian Social Trends*

AST aims to:

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

Each year, the selection of topics for the articles aims to address the current or perennial social issues which may be informed using recent data, and to provide answers to key social questions across the range of areas of concern. The suite of articles changes each year, with some topics refreshed as new data become available. The aim of this approach is for each edition to remain responsive to contemporary concerns, while accumulating a more comprehensive picture of Australian social conditions across editions. To enhance this objective, articles often include cross references to other relevant articles in the current edition, and in previous editions.

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

In keeping with these aims, AST articles focus strongly on people and social issues. Each article aims to tell a story, providing a sense of the social and historical context in which a particular issue is embedded, moving from the general to the specific, and using statistics to bring light to the issue. Articles aim to balance 'what' analysis (relating the relevant statistical facts surrounding the issue, e.g. number, characteristics, change over time, sex, age and other

differences), with 'why' analysis (providing context and explanation through highlighting relevant social changes and events and the chronologies of these). For example, each article may examine current circumstances, how circumstances have changed over time, how different groups of people have been affected, and how various factors may be linked to observed trends.

Social indicators and progress

AST complements the three-yearly ABS publication, *Measures of Australia's Progress* (MAP) (ABS cat. no. 1370.0), and the annual electronic publication, *Measures of Australia's Progress: Summary Indicators* (ABS cat. no. 1383.0.55.001). MAP presents a suite of indicators for reporting on economic, social and environmental progress and considers the interrelationships between these aspects of life. Three headline dimensions are used to discuss progress in the wellbeing of individuals: health; education and training; and work. Three further headline dimensions are used to measure progress in the way we live together as a society: family, community and social cohesion; crime; and democracy, governance and citizenship. Headline dimensions in the economy and economic resources domain include national income, national wealth, productivity, economic hardship and housing. The national income and wealth dimensions include information on the distribution of economic resources across households, while the economic hardship dimension includes information about people living in households with low economic resources. MAP focuses on progress, while AST presents a detailed set of social indicators and profiles diverse aspects of society in short articles.

Features of Australian Social Trends

Structure

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

Chapters

Summary tables — The summary tables at the beginning of each chapter are a fundamental element of AST. They present a range of statistics that summarise the key aspects of each area. They show at a glance changes that have taken place at a national level over a decade, and differences across states and territories for the most recent year. Each set of tables is accompanied by a summary of key points and graphs for selected indicators. AST on the ABS website contains spreadsheets of national as well as state and territory data for a 10 year period.

Articles — Each chapter contains several articles, each 3–7 pages long. The articles focus on specific social issues or population subgroups. They are designed to stand alone, while complementing one another in terms of content. Most articles contain references to other AST articles that provide more background or in-depth discussion of a topic. Endnotes at the end of each article direct readers to further Australian and international references on specific issues.

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

Other features

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

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

AST seminars — The dissemination of AST includes two-yearly seminars held in most states and territories (next planned for 2008). These are based on articles from the most recent edition supported by related statistics, with a state or territory focus where feasible. For information contact the client liaison area in ABS Regional Offices.

Access — All editions of AST can be accessed via the ABS website. The website version includes Excel spreadsheet versions of the summary tables. Hard copies of the publication are available from ABS state and territory offices. For more information, see p. 234 of this edition.

Inquiries about these statistics

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

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Inquiries about the availability of more recent data from the ABS should be directed to the National Information and Referral Service on 1300 135 070, or email client.services@abs.gov.au. A great deal of information can be found on the ABS website <<http://www.abs.gov.au>>.

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations have been used in this publication.

Australia, states and territories of Australia

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

Other abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ABSCQ	ABS Classification of Qualifications
AEI	Australian Education International
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ANU	Australian National University
ANZDATA	Australian and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant Registry
ANZSIC	Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
ART	Assisted Reproduction Technology
ASCED	Australian Standard Classification of Education
ASCO	Australian Standard Classification of Occupations
ASFR	Age-Specific Fertility Rate
AST	Australian Social Trends
B/ASC	Before and/or after school care
BMI	Body Mass Index
CCB	Child Care Benefit
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CPI	Consumer Price Index
DEH	Department of Environment and Heritage
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DIAC	Department of Immigration and Citizenship
DoHA	Department of Health and Ageing
DSP	Disability Support Pension
EACH	Extended Aged Care at Home
EHPI	Established House Price Index
ELICOS	English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students
ERP	Estimated Resident Population
FaCSIA	Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs
FCA	Family Court of Australia
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GL	Gigalitre
HECS	Higher Education Contribution Scheme
HES	Household Expenditure Survey
HILDA	Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia
ICD	International Classification of Diseases
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MAP	Measures of Australia's Progress
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
ML	Megalitre
NATSIHS	National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey 2004–2005
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research
NHPA	National Health Priority Area
NHS	National Health Survey
NOHSC	National Occupational Health and Safety Commission
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PSS	Personal Safety Survey

Other abbreviations continued

SAR	Special Administrative Region
SEIFA	Socio Economic Indexes for Areas
SEW	Survey of Education and Work
SIDS	Sudden Infant Death Syndrome
SIH	Survey of Income and Housing
SLA	Statistical Local Area
TAFE	Technical and Further Education
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VTE	Vocational and Technical Education
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSS	Women's Safety Survey

Symbols and usages

The following symbols and usages mean:

billion	1,000 million
kg	kilogram
m	metre
n.a.	not available
n.e.c.	not elsewhere classified
n.f.d.	not further defined
n.p.	not published
n.y.a.	not yet available
no.	number
r	figures or series revised since previous edition
'000	thousand
'000m	thousand million
\$	dollar
\$m	million dollars
\$b	billion dollars
\$US	American dollar
%	per cent
*	estimate has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution
**	estimate has a relative standard error of greater than 50% and is considered too unreliable for general use
..	not applicable
—	nil or rounded to zero (including null cells)

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

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

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

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

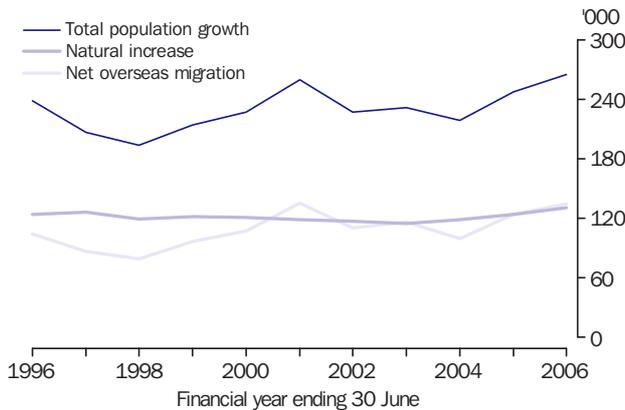
Unless otherwise stated, all data from the Census of Population and Housing exclude overseas visitors.

Population

	Page
National and state summary	2
Recent increases in Australia's fertility	9
<p>In 2001, Australia's fertility reached a historic low of 1.73 babies per woman. Since then, the total fertility rate has increased to 1.81 in 2005. This article shows that the recent increase is a result of higher fertility among women aged 30 years and over. Additionally, women in more advantaged areas, while having fewer babies than those in less advantaged areas, have had the greatest increase in fertility between 2001 and 2005.</p>	
International fertility comparison	13
<p>Low fertility is a concern for many OECD countries as they face the prospect of population ageing. This article makes comparisons between Australia and seven other OECD countries in fertility rates between 1970 and 2004. Changing age patterns of fertility are also compared and show that for most of the countries, women are postponing childbirth and having fewer babies. The associations of women's education levels and rates of employment with fertility are also explored.</p>	
Australia's babies	18
<p>Good infant and maternal health can have a significant positive impact on the future health and wellbeing of individuals. This article focuses on factors affecting the health of the more than a quarter of a million babies born in Australia each year, such as their gestation, birthweight, breastfeeding status and immunisation. Infant mortality and illness rates are also examined, as are some maternal factors associated with the health outcomes of infants.</p>	
Migration: permanent additions to Australia's population	24
<p>Since 1996–97, the annual numbers of permanent additions to Australia's population through migration have grown considerably. This article examines changes in the composition of visa categories of migrants, particularly the continued focus on skilled migration, and explores how the region of birth composition of migrants has changed over the past decade. The article also looks at the age profile of migrants and their intended state and territory destinations.</p>	

Population: national summary — key points

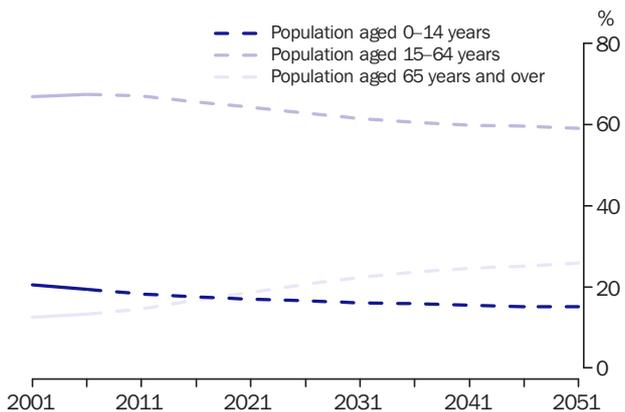
Components of Australia's population growth



- Australia's total population grew by 2.3 million people in the 10 years from June 1996 to be 20.6 million people at June 2006.
- Annual growth fluctuated during this period with the lowest increase in 1997–98 (193,700 persons) and the greatest increase in 2005–06 (265,700 persons).
- Natural increase contributed 53% to total population growth over the 10 years to June 2006. In 2005–06, natural increase contributed 131,200 people, which is 7,100 more than in 1995–96 (124,000 people).
- Net overseas migration fluctuated over the ten year period to June 2006. In 2005–06, net overseas migration added 134,600 people to the population, compared with 104,100 in 1995–96 with a peak of 135,700 people in 2000–01.

Source: Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).
 For further information see *Population: national summary*, page 4, indicators 18 and 21–22.

Australian population projections(a)(b)(c) by age



- In 2006, the estimated population was 20.6 million people which is projected to increase to 27.1 million people by 2011 and 30.6 million people by 2051.
- The age composition of Australia's population is projected to change considerably as a result of population ageing.
- In 2006, people aged 65 years and over made up 13% of Australia's population. By 2051 this proportion is projected to double to 26%.
- In 2006, those aged under 15 years made up 19% of Australia's population. This is projected to decrease to 15% by 2051.
- In 2051, the proportion of Australia's population aged 15–64 years is expected to be 59%, a decrease from 67% in 2006.

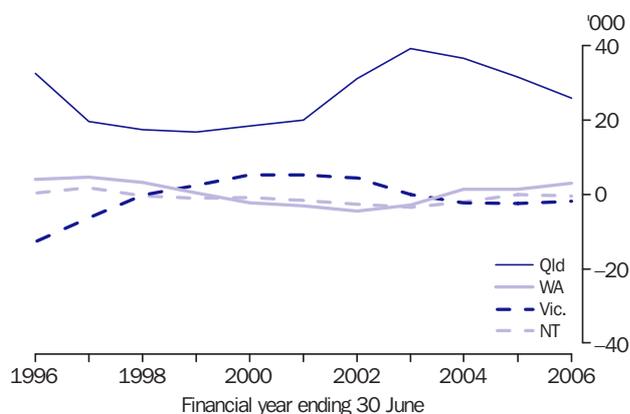
(a) At 30 June.
 (b) Series B projection.
 (c) Data for 2001 and 2006 based on estimated resident population. Data from 2007 onwards based on population projections.

Source: *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories* (ABS cat. no. 3201.0) and *Population Projections, Australia, 2004 to 2101* (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).
 For further information see *Population: national summary*, page 4, indicators 10–12 and 32–34.

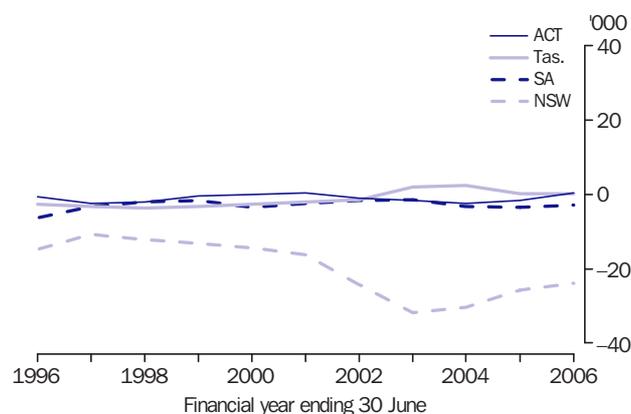
Population: state summary — key points

Interstate migration

HIGHEST AVERAGE INTERSTATE MIGRATION



LOWEST AVERAGE INTERSTATE MIGRATION



Source: Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

For further information see Australian Social Trends: Population, 2007, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 23 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

- Between 1995–96 and 2005–06, Queensland consistently experienced the highest net interstate migration, with the greatest net increase occurring in 2002–03 (39,200 persons). In 2005–06, the net interstate gain for Queensland (25,800 persons), was lower than for 1995–96 (32,600 persons).
- New South Wales consistently experienced the greatest net population losses due to interstate migration during the period 1995–96 to 2005–06, with net losses of 14,800 persons in 1995–96 and 24,000 persons in 2005–06. The greatest net loss for New South Wales was in 2002–03 (31,800 persons).

Population: national summary(a)

COMPOSITION		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	Total population	'000	18 311	18 518	18 711	18 926	19 153	19 413	19 641	19 873	20 092	r20 340	20 605
2	Male population	'000	9 108	9 203	9 295	9 397	9 505	9 631	9 753	9 873	9 991	r10 121	10 257
3	Female population	'000	9 203	9 314	9 417	9 529	9 648	9 783	9 888	9 999	10 101	10 218	10 348
4	Indigenous population(b)	'000	414.4	423.4	432.2	441.1	449.9	458.5	466.9	475.4	484.0	492.7	501.5
5	Born overseas(c)	%	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.2	23.4	23.6	23.8	24.1
6	Born in United Kingdom	%	6.4	6.2	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.6
7	Born in Europe	%	13.2	13.0	12.8	12.5	12.3	12.0	11.9	11.7	11.6	11.4	11.3
8	Born in East, Central or Southern Asia	%	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.4
9	Population living in capital cities(d)	%	r63.6	r63.5	r63.6	63.5							
10	Population aged 0–14 years	%	21.4	21.2	21.0	20.9	20.7	20.5	20.3	20.0	19.8	19.6	19.3
11	Population aged 15–64	%	66.6	66.7	66.7	66.8	66.9	66.9	67.0	67.2	67.2	67.3	67.4
12	Population aged 65 and over	%	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	12.7	12.8	13.0	13.1	13.3
13	Population aged 80 and over	%	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6
14	Median age of total population	years	34.0	34.4	34.8	35.1	35.4	35.7	36.0	36.2	36.4	r36.7	36.9
15	Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.4	20.4	20.5	20.6	20.7	20.8	21.0	21.1
16	Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	102.4	102.2	102.0	101.8	101.7	101.5	101.7	101.8	101.9	r102.0	102.0
17	Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	77.1	77.5	77.9	78.4	78.7	79.2	79.8	80.4	81.0	81.6	82.2
POPULATION GROWTH		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
18	Total population growth	'000	239.0	206.9	193.7	214.6	227.5	259.9	227.7	231.7	218.9	r248.3	265.7
19	Births(e)	'000	250.4	253.7	249.1	250.0	249.3	247.5	247.4	247.4	252.1	r255.8	264.3
20	Deaths(e)	'000	126.4	127.3	129.3	128.3	128.4	128.9	130.3	132.2	133.2	r131.4	133.1
21	Natural increase(e)	'000	124.0	126.4	119.9	121.7	120.9	118.6	117.2	115.2	118.9	r124.5	131.2
22	Net overseas migration	'000	104.1	87.1	79.2	96.5	107.3	135.7	110.6	116.5	100.0	r123.8	134.6
24	Population growth rate	%	1.32	1.13	1.05	1.15	1.20	1.36	1.17	1.18	1.10	r1.24	1.31
25	Net overseas migration to total growth	%	43.6	42.1	40.9	45.0	47.1	52.2	48.5	50.3	45.7	r49.9	50.6
MIGRATION		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
27	Total settler arrivals(f)	'000	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	92.3	107.4	88.9	93.9	111.6	123.4	131.6
28	Skilled settler arrivals	%	20.2	23.0	33.6	33.2	35.1	33.3	40.5	41.0	46.2	43.0	45.2
29	Family settler arrivals	%	46.9	42.6	27.3	25.6	21.6	18.8	26.3	29.9	26.5	26.9	26.4
30	Humanitarian settler arrivals	%	13.9	11.5	11.4	10.4	7.9	7.1	7.6	10.2	9.3	10.7	9.2
PROJECTIONS — SERIES B		Units	2011	2016	2021	2026	2031	2036	2041	2046	2051	2101	
31	Total population	'000	21 699	22 808	23 871	24 873	25 773	26 536	27 169	27 704	28 170	30 595	
32	Population aged 0–14 years	%	18.3	17.5	16.9	16.5	16.1	15.8	15.5	15.2	15.1	14.8	
33	Population aged 15–64	%	67.1	65.7	64.3	62.8	61.5	60.5	59.9	59.6	59.1	57.8	
34	Population aged 65 and over	%	14.6	16.8	18.7	20.7	22.4	23.7	24.6	25.2	25.8	27.4	
35	Population aged 80 and over	%	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.7	6.9	7.9	8.8	9.5	10.0	11.0	
36	Median age of total population	years	38.5	39.6	40.7	41.8	42.8	43.7	44.4	44.9	45.2	46.1	
37	Population living in capital cities	%	63.9	64.1	64.3	64.4	64.7	64.9	65.2	65.4	65.7	n.a.	

(a) Includes Other Territories.

(b) Based on 2001 Census data. From 2002, figures are low series population projections.

(c) Includes country of birth not stated.

(d) Data for 1996 are based on the 1996 Census and data for 1997 onwards are based on the 2001 Census. All data are based on 2006 Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) boundaries.

(e) Data are based on year of occurrence up to 2005. Data for 2006 are based on year of registration.

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

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–17 and 31–37 are at 30 June.

Data for indicators 18–30 are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Population: state summary

COMPOSITION		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.(a)
1	Total population	'000	2006	6 828	5 092	4 053	1 555	2 051	489	207	329	20 605
2	Male population	'000	2006	3 398	2 515	2 029	771	1 030	241	109	163	10 257
3	Female population	'000	2006	3 430	2 577	2 024	784	1 021	248	97	166	10 348
4	Indigenous population(b)	'000	2006	146.2	31.0	139.5	28.1	72.2	18.6	61.2	4.4	501.5
5	Born overseas(c)(d)	%	2001	24.8	24.6	18.0	21.2	28.5	10.8	16.1	22.9	23.1
6	Born in United Kingdom(c)	%	2001	4.6	4.7	5.3	8.9	11.6	5.0	3.9	5.8	5.8
7	Born in Europe(c)	%	2001	10.7	13.7	8.7	16.0	17.4	7.7	7.4	12.4	12.0
8	Born in East, Central or Southern Asia(c)	%	2001	7.4	6.3	2.9	2.9	5.4	1.1	4.4	5.8	5.5
9	Population living in capital cities(e)	%	2006	62.9	72.4	44.9	73.3	73.5	42.0	55.1	99.9	63.5
10	Population aged 0–14 years	%	2006	19.2	18.9	20.1	18.3	19.7	19.7	24.5	19.0	19.3
11	Population aged 15–64	%	2006	67.0	67.5	67.6	66.4	68.3	65.6	70.5	71.2	67.4
12	Population aged 65 and over	%	2006	13.9	13.6	12.2	15.3	11.9	14.7	4.9	9.8	13.3
13	Population aged 80 and over	%	2006	3.9	3.8	3.2	4.5	3.1	4.0	0.8	2.5	3.6
14	Median age of total population	years	2006	37.1	37.0	36.1	39.0	36.4	39.0	31.0	34.7	36.9
15	Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	2006	20.7	21.7	20.6	21.6	21.4	20.4	22.7	21.2	21.1
16	Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	2006	102.2	100.6	102.3	102.3	103.4	100.4	111.7	100.4	102.0
17	Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	2006	81.5	80.3	86.5	79.0	83.9	82.0	118.4	80.8	82.2
POPULATION GROWTH		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.(a)
18	Total population growth	'000	2006	58.8	68.5	76.4	12.6	39.9	3.3	3.3	3.0	265.7
19	Births(f)	'000	2006	86.8	64.1	53.5	18.1	27.2	6.5	3.8	4.4	264.3
20	Deaths(f)	'000	2006	46.3	32.2	24.2	12.2	11.8	3.9	1.0	1.5	133.1
21	Natural increase(f)	'000	2006	40.5	31.9	29.2	5.9	15.4	2.5	2.8	2.9	131.2
22	Net overseas migration	'000	2006	42.2	38.6	21.4	9.5	21.5	0.7	0.8	-0.1	134.6
23	Net interstate migration	'000	2006	-24.0	-1.9	25.8	-2.9	3.1	0.1	-0.4	0.3	..
24	Population growth rate	%	2006	0.87	1.36	1.92	0.81	1.99	0.67	1.61	0.93	1.31
26	Net interstate migration rate	%	2006	-0.35	-0.04	0.65	-0.19	0.15	0.01	-0.19	0.08	..
MIGRATION		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
27	Total settler arrivals(g)	'000	2006	44.7	32.3	24.9	9.1	17.6	0.9	0.8	1.4	131.6
28	Skilled settler arrivals	%	2006	41.7	47.0	32.6	65.8	59.3	36.1	35.1	41.2	45.2
29	Family settler arrivals	%	2006	34.1	28.5	18.1	16.5	19.1	29.2	29.4	34.5	26.4
30	Humanitarian settler arrivals	%	2006	9.6	10.6	5.8	11.8	7.8	22.8	19.5	13.7	9.2
PROJECTIONS — SERIES B		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
31	Total population	'000	2051	8 743	6 574	6 899	1 581	3 165	453	350	402	28 170
32	Population aged 0–14 years	%	2051	15.3	14.6	15.3	13.8	14.9	14.8	21.5	15.3	15.1
33	Population aged 15–64	%	2051	59.0	59.1	59.4	56.3	59.5	53.9	66.9	61.9	59.1
34	Population aged 65 and over	%	2051	25.7	26.3	25.4	29.9	25.6	31.3	11.6	22.8	25.8
35	Population aged 80 and over	%	2051	9.9	10.3	9.4	12.4	9.9	12.9	2.9	9.0	10.0
36	Median age of total population	years	2051	44.9	45.5	45.2	48.5	45.3	49.8	35.0	42.4	45.2
37	Population living in capital cities	%	2051	64.2	76.7	48.6	76.2	77.5	48.5	66.4	n.a.	65.7

(a) Includes Other Territories.

(b) Low series population projections based on 2001 Census data.

(c) State and territory data only available in census years.

(d) Includes country of birth not stated.

(e) Data for 2006 are based on the 2001 Census and 2006 Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) boundaries.

(f) Data for 2006 are based on year of registration.

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

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–17 and 31–37 are at 30 June.
Data for indicators 18–30 are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Population: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1–3, 18–26	<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).
4, 15	<i>Experimental Estimates and Projections, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population</i> (ABS cat. no. 3238.0).
5–8	<i>Migration, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).
9	<i>Regional Population Growth</i> (ABS cat. no. 3218.0)
10–14, 16–17	<i>Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories</i> (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).
27–30	Department of Immigration and Citizenship, <i>Settler Arrivals 1995–96 to 2005–06, Australia, States and Territories</i> .
31–37	<i>Population Projections, Australia, 2004 to 2101</i> (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).

Population: definitions

Births

live births occurring in that year. A live birth is the delivery of a child irrespective of the duration of pregnancy who, after being born, breathes or shows any evidence of life such as a heartbeat. Estimates for 1996 to 2005 may differ from estimates given in the Family and Community chapter of this publication, which are based on the year in which the birth was registered. 2006 estimates in this chapter are based on the year in which the birth was registered.

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

Deaths

based on the year in which the death occurred. Death is the permanent disappearance of all evidence of life after birth has taken place. The definition excludes deaths prior to live birth. Estimates for 1996 to 2005 may differ from estimates given in the Health chapter of this publication, which are based on the year in which the death was registered. 2006 estimates in this chapter are based on the year in which the death was registered.

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

East, Central and Southern Asia

includes the countries of North-East, South-East and Southern and Central Asia.

Reference: *Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC)* (ABS cat. no. 1269.0).

Estimated resident population (ERP)

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

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

Europe

includes the countries of North-West, Southern and Eastern Europe.

Reference: *Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC)* (ABS cat. no. 1269.0).

Family settler arrivals

migrants who have been sponsored by a relative who is an Australian citizen, or permanent resident of Australia, under the family stream of the migration program.

Reference: Department of Immigration and Citizenship, *Settler Arrivals 1995–96 to 2005–06, Australia, States and Territories*.

Humanitarian settler arrivals

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

Reference: Department of Immigration and Citizenship, *Settler Arrivals 1995–96 to 2005–06, Australia, States and Territories*.

Indigenous population

people who identify, or were identified by another household member, as Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin or both. Data referring to the size of the Indigenous population are experimental estimates in that the standard approach to population estimation is not possible because satisfactory data on births, deaths and migration are not generally available. Furthermore, there is significant intercensal volatility in census counts of the Indigenous population due in part to unexplained growth in the number of people identifying as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin or both.

Reference: *Experimental Estimates and Projections, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians* (ABS cat. no. 3238.0).

Long-term arrivals and departures

long-term arrivals comprise overseas visitors who intend to stay in Australia for one year or more (but not permanently) and Australian residents returning after an absence of one year or more overseas. Long-term departures comprise Australian residents who intend to stay abroad for one year or more (but not permanently), and overseas visitors departing who stayed one year or more in Australia.

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

Median age

for any distribution the median value is that which divides the relevant population into two equal parts, half falling below the value, and half exceeding it. Thus, the median age is the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.

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

Natural increase

the excess of births over deaths during the year.

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

Population: definitions continued

Net interstate migration

the difference between the number of persons who have changed their place of usual residence by moving into a given state or territory and the number who have changed their place of usual residence by moving out of that state or territory during a specified time period. The difference can be either positive or negative. Net interstate migration rate expresses this as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

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

Net overseas migration

is net permanent and long-term overseas migration, adjusted for change in traveller duration intention and multiple movements.

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

Other territories

includes Jervis Bay Territory, Christmas Island and the Cocos (Keeling) Islands.

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

Permanent arrivals

comprise travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle, and those who are otherwise eligible to settle.

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

Permanent departures

are Australian residents (including former settlers) who on departure state that they are departing permanently.

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

Population growth

for Australia, is the sum of natural increase and net overseas migration. For states and territories, population growth also includes net interstate migration. After the census, intercensal population growth also includes an allowance for intercensal discrepancy.

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

Population projections

the ABS uses the cohort-component method for producing population projections of Australia, the states, territories, capital cities and balances of state. This method begins with a base population for each sex by single year of age and advances it year by year, for each year in the projection period, by applying assumptions regarding future fertility, mortality and migration. The assumptions are based on demographic trends over the past decade and longer, both in Australia and overseas. The projections are not predictions or forecasts, but are simply illustrations of the change in population which would occur if the assumptions were to prevail over the projection period. A number of projections are produced by the ABS to show a range of possible future outcomes. The base year for these projections is 2004.

Reference: *Population Projections, Australia, 2004 to 2101* (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).

Sex ratio

the number of males per 100 females.

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

Skilled settler arrivals

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

Reference: Department of Immigration and Citizenship, *Settler Arrivals 1995–96 to 2005–06, Australia, States and Territories*.

Total settler arrivals

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

Reference: Department of Immigration and Citizenship, *Settler Arrivals 1995–96 to 2005–06, Australia, States and Territories*.

Recent increases in Australia's fertility

Australia's total fertility rate increased from 1.73 to 1.81 babies per woman between 2001 and 2005, with the largest increases in fertility occurring in the most advantaged areas of Australia.

In the 40 years from the peak of the baby boom in 1961, Australia's total fertility rate (TFR) declined from 3.55 babies per woman to the historic low of 1.73 in 2001. Sustained periods of fertility well below the replacement level of 2.1 babies per woman leads to a decline in population growth and is one of the drivers of population ageing. Given the potential economic impacts of an ageing population, fertility is of particular interest to policy makers as well as demographers.¹

Since 2001, the TFR has trended upwards, reaching 1.81 babies per woman in 2005, the highest level recorded since 1995. This recent upswing has been one of very few periods of increase in the TFR since the peak of the baby boom in 1961.²

In Australia, fertility levels vary between areas with different socioeconomic conditions, between metropolitan and regional areas and among the states and territories. Differences may exist for a variety of reasons, such as culture, social norms, employment, the economy, and socioeconomic status.^{3,4} This article examines the recent increase in Australia's TFR with regard to age of mother, socioeconomic conditions and place of usual residence (state/territory, capital city and balance of state) to provide some insight into changes in fertility in Australia.

Age of mother

Over the past few decades, the decline in Australia's TFR has been closely associated with the tendency for women to have their

Data sources and definitions

Data in this article have been sourced from the ABS Births collection.

State and territory Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages are responsible for administering the registration of births in Australia based on information provided on the birth registration form by the parent(s) of the child.

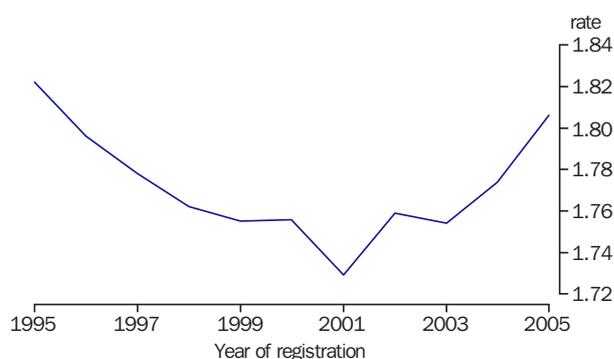
The *total fertility rate* (TFR) for any given year is the sum of the age-specific fertility rates for that year. It is a hypothetical measure which represents the average number of babies a woman would give birth to during her lifetime if she experienced the current age-specific fertility rates at each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

Age-specific fertility rates (ASFR) are the number of live births in a year to mothers at each age per 1,000 of the female population of the same age.

Replacement level fertility is the value of the total fertility rate which is sufficient to replace a mother and her partner, taking into account those women who do not survive through reproductive ages. At current levels of mortality, replacement level is around 2.1 babies per woman.

babies at older ages. The median age of all women who gave birth in 1995 was 29.1 years; by 2005 this had increased to 30.7 years. When women delay childbearing it reduces the remaining length of time in which they can have babies, generally leading to fewer babies than those who started earlier, and an increased level of childlessness.⁵

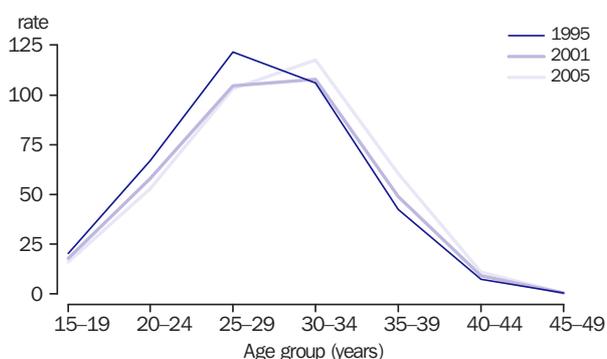
Total fertility rate(a)



(a) Babies per woman.

Source: Births, Australia, 2005 (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

Age-specific fertility rates(a)



(a) Babies per 1,000 women.

Source: Births, Australia, 2005 (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

Changes in the age pattern of fertility between 1995 and 2005 also show a shift to women having fewer babies at younger ages (less than 30 years) and more at older ages (30 years and over). Between 1995 and 2001, this transition occurred mostly in the younger age groups, with the fertility declines of women aged less than 30 years acting to reduce the 2001 TFR by around 8% on the 1995 level. However, minor increases in fertility from the older age groups provided a 3% offset, resulting in an overall 5% decline in the TFR between 1995 (1.82) and 2001 (1.73).

Between 2001 and 2005, the majority of change in the ASFRs occurred in the older age groups. Increases in the fertility of women aged 30 years and over (assuming no change in other ages) would have had the effect of lifting the 2005 TFR by around 7% on the 2001 level. However, slight declines in fertility of women aged under 30 years had the equivalent effect of reducing the TFR by 2%, resulting in the overall TFR increase of 4% in 2005 (to 1.81 babies per woman from 1.73 in 2001).

The transition to an older age-specific fertility pattern is also illustrated by the shift in peak fertility from women aged 25–29 years in 1995 (with 122 babies per 1,000 women) to 30–34 years in both 2001 and 2005 (108 and 117 babies per 1,000 women respectively).

The consequence of the shift to an older age-specific fertility pattern is a change in the proportion of TFR that can be attributed to different age groups. In 1995, 43% of the TFR could be attributed to fertility of women aged 30 years and over; by 2001 this proportion had increased to 48% and by 2005 it had further increased to 52%.

Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA)

The ABS has developed summary measures, or indexes, derived from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing to measure different aspects of socioeconomic conditions by geographic areas. One of these indexes (the Index of Relative Socio-Economic Advantage/Disadvantage) has been used in this article to investigate the relationship between fertility and socioeconomic conditions in different regions of Australia.

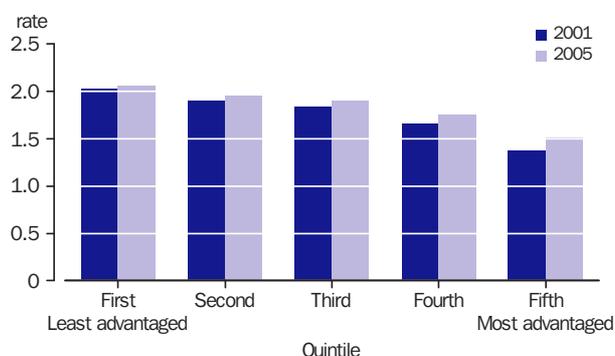
Statistical Local Areas (SLAs) within Australia were divided into quintiles (five groups, each containing around 20% of the population) based on their Index of Relative Socio-Economic Advantage/Disadvantage scores. The first quintile includes SLAs in Australia with the lowest index scores; that is, areas in Australia with the lowest proportions of people with high incomes or in skilled occupations, the highest proportions of people with low incomes, more employees in unskilled occupations, etc. In this article this group has been referred to as being 'least advantaged'.

Conversely, the fifth quintile represents areas with the highest index scores; that is, areas with the highest proportions of people with high incomes or in skilled occupations, the lowest proportions of people with low incomes and relatively few people in unskilled occupations, etc. This group has been referred to as being 'most advantaged'.

Socioeconomic status and changes in fertility

Levels of fertility in both 2001 and 2005 can be seen to vary according to the socioeconomic conditions of geographic areas. Areas of most advantage are associated with lower TFRs, that is, areas with higher proportions of people with high incomes or skilled occupations tend to have lower TFRs.

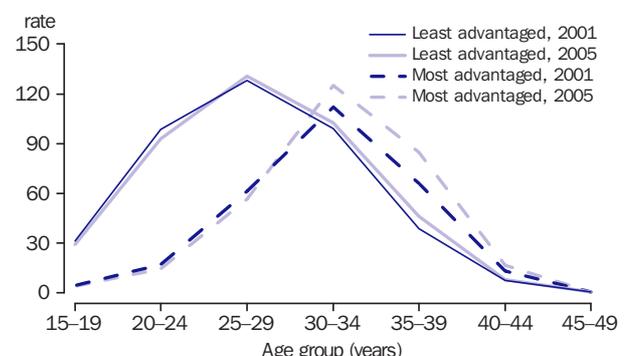
Total fertility rate(a), SEIFA quintiles(b)



(a) Babies per woman.
(b) SEIFA Index of Relative Socio-Economic Advantage/Disadvantage.

Source: ABS data available on request, Births Collection.

Age-specific fertility rates(a), most advantaged and least advantaged SEIFA quintiles(b)



(a) Babies per 1,000 women.
(b) SEIFA Index of Relative Socio-Economic Advantage/Disadvantage.

Source: ABS data available on request, Births Collection.

However, the TFR gradient across quintiles of advantage has decreased between 2001 and 2005 due to fertility increasing in the most advantaged areas. The TFR for the most advantaged (fifth) quintile increased by 10% between 2001 and 2005, from 1.37 to 1.51 babies per woman.

Over the same period the fourth quintile's TFR increased by 6% (from 1.66 to 1.75). The combined increase from the fourth and fifth quintiles accounted for 59% of the overall increase in Australia's TFR between 2001 and 2005.

While there were increases in the TFRs of each of the quintiles over the 2001 to 2005 period, the gains tended to be smaller in the least advantaged quintile. The smallest change occurred in the quintile with the least advantage (up 1%, from 2.02 to 2.05 babies per woman).

The age-specific fertility patterns of the most and least advantaged quintiles in 2001 and 2005 highlight two features: firstly, the younger age profile of mothers in the least advantaged areas of Australia, and secondly, the increases in fertility of women aged 30 years and over in the most advantaged areas.

In 2005, the fertility of young women (under 30 years) contributed 62% of the TFR in the least advantaged quintile, but only 25% in the most advantaged quintile. Teenage fertility (women aged 15–19 years) in the least advantaged quintile was over seven times greater than in the most advantaged quintile (29 babies compared to only 4 babies per

1,000 women aged 15–19 years, respectively). For women aged 20–24 years the fertility difference was six-fold (93 and 14 babies per 1,000 women respectively), while among women aged 25–29 years, the least advantaged quintile recorded a fertility rate more than double that of the most advantaged quintile (131 and 57 babies per 1,000 women respectively).

Between 2001 and 2005, there were significant increases in age-specific fertility rates of women aged 30 years and over in the most advantaged quintile. The fertility rate for women in the peak fertility age group of 30–34 years increased from 112 babies per 1,000 women in 2001 to 125 in 2005, while women aged 35–39 years recorded an increase from 66 to 85 babies per 1,000 women over the same period.

State and territory trends

Between 2001 and 2005, all states and territories except the Northern Territory recorded increases in TFRs. The Australian Capital Territory recorded the greatest proportional increase (up 9%), followed by Western Australia (8%), and Victoria and South Australia (both 7%), while the Northern Territory recorded a marginal decrease (down 0.2%).

Despite these increases, TFRs for both the Australian Capital Territory (1.65 babies per woman in 2005) and Victoria (1.72) remained lower than the national rate of 1.81. The TFRs for the ACT and Victoria are notable for the

Total fertility rate(a): states and territories

	Total fertility rate			% change 2001 to 2005	Proportion of TFR from mothers aged 30 years and over, 2005	Total births 2005
	1995	2001	2005			
	rate	rate	rate	%	%	'000
New South Wales	1.86	1.76	1.81	2.6	53.7	86.6
Victoria	1.75	1.61	1.72	7.0	58.4	63.3
Queensland	1.83	1.80	1.85	2.8	47.4	51.7
South Australia	1.76	1.68	1.79	6.9	48.6	17.8
Western Australia	1.85	1.73	1.86	7.8	50.4	26.3
Tasmania	1.89	2.08	2.10	1.1	43.5	6.3
Northern Territory	2.35	2.30	2.29	-0.2	36.1	3.7
Australian Capital Territory	1.68	1.52	1.65	8.8	61.1	4.2
Australia	1.82	1.73	1.81	4.5	52.5	259.8

(a) Babies per woman.

Source: *Births, Australia, 2005* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

high contributions made by women aged 30 years and over (61% and 58% respectively) compared to Australia overall (52%) in 2005.

The Northern Territory (2.29 babies per woman) and Tasmania (2.10 babies per woman) recorded the highest TFRs of the states and territories in 2005, equalling or exceeding replacement level fertility (2.1). In 2005, around 64% of the Northern Territory's TFR and 56% of Tasmania's TFR was attributable to births to mothers aged less than 30 years, compared to 48% for Australia overall.

...capital cities and state balances

In both 2001 and 2005, the TFR of the eight capital cities combined was lower than for the combined state balances. In 2005, the capital city aggregate TFR was 1.74 babies per woman compared with 1.95 for the state balances. The capital city aggregate TFR grew 6% between 2001 and 2005, compared with 1% for the combined state balances. This faster growth, combined with the weight of having 64% of Australia's population living in the capital cities has resulted in capital cities being responsible for the vast majority (87%) of the increase in TFR since 2001.

The pattern of fertility for capital city compared with balance of state is similar to the pattern of fertility for the most advantaged SEIFA quintile compared with the least advantaged group. This is not surprising as capital cities have a higher proportion of their population (31%) in the most advantaged SEIFA quintile compared with the state balances (1%).

For both the capital cities and state balances, all of the increases in age-specific rates between 2001 and 2005 occurred for women aged 30 years and over.

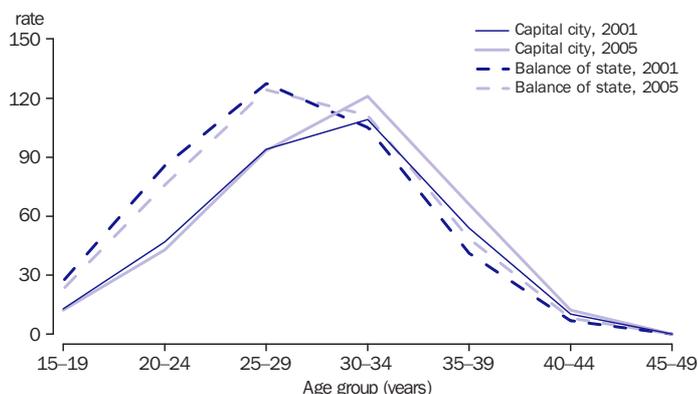
In the aggregate of capital cities, women aged 30–34 years recorded the highest fertility (121 babies per 1,000 women) in 2005, followed by women aged 25–29 years (93). For the state balances, women aged 25–29 years recorded the highest fertility (124), followed by women aged 30–34 years (111). This pattern was consistent with that in 2001.

In 2001, women aged 30 years and over contributed 53% to the TFR of the capital cities aggregate, and 39% of the TFR of the balances of state. These proportions had increased by 2005, with women aged 30 years and over accounting for 57% of the TFR in the capital cities and 43% in the balances of the states.

Endnotes

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Age-specific fertility rates(a), capital city and balance of state



(a) Babies per 1,000 women.

Source: *Births, Australia, 2005* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

International fertility comparison

Between 1970 and 2004, the average total fertility rate across OECD countries declined by one baby per woman from 2.6 to 1.6.

Fertility has been in decline globally for many decades. In the five years to 2005, the world average total fertility rate (TFR) was projected to be 2.7 babies per woman, a reduction of nearly two babies per woman on average from the rate in the 1970s (4.5 babies per woman). While the relatively more developed countries of the OECD tend to have significantly lower fertility than most non-OECD countries, the falls in TFR across the OECD have been dramatic. Between 1970 and 2004, the average TFR of the OECD declined by one baby per woman from 2.6 to 1.6.

The transition to low fertility coupled with low mortality has resulted in an ageing of many countries' populations that is projected to continue throughout this century. This presents economic and social challenges due to declining labour force participation and increasing fiscal pressures.¹ In response to sustained low fertility and population ageing, many OECD governments have changed their views concerning fertility levels. Thirty years ago, four OECD governments considered their own country's fertility level to be too low; by 2003, more than half (16) of OECD country governments considered their country's fertility to be too low.²

This article compares Australian fertility rates with those in selected OECD countries. It also looks at some of the factors that influence women's fertility such as education and participation in the labour force.

Data sources and definitions

Data in this article are drawn from a number of sources, including the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the statistical agencies of a number of countries. Comparisons are made with several OECD countries, chosen for their cultural and/or economic similarities to Australia, including Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and United States of America. Italy is included as an example of Southern European countries which typically have very low fertility. Japan is chosen as an example of developed East Asian countries and Sweden is included as an example of the Nordic states which tend to have a history of investing in 'family friendly' social policies.

Age-specific fertility rates (ASFR) are the number of live births in a year to mothers at each age per 1,000 of the female population of the same age.

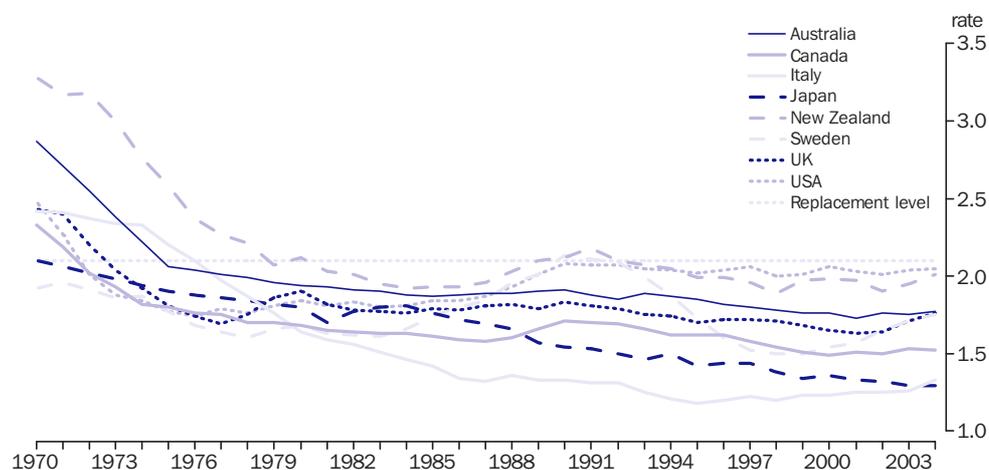
The *total fertility rate (TFR)* for any given year is the sum of the age-specific fertility rates for that year. It is a hypothetical measure which represents the average number of babies a woman would give birth to during her lifetime if she experienced the current age-specific fertility rates at each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

Replacement level fertility is the number of babies a woman would need to have to replace herself and her partner, and is currently around 2.1 babies per woman.

Trends in the total fertility rate

Following the Second World War, many developed countries experienced a baby boom. This was marked by record numbers of

Total fertility rate, selected OECD countries



Source: OECD, Society at a Glance, 2006.



women having a high average number of babies. After the baby booms, fertility levels generally declined rapidly and the TFRs of many developed countries decreased to below the replacement level of 2.1 babies per woman. The transition to below replacement level fertility occurred in the late 1950s in Japan, the late 1960s in Sweden and around the early 1970s for the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. Australia's and Italy's TFR fell below replacement level in the mid 1970s, while New Zealand's TFR did not fall below replacement level until around the early 1980s.

Sweden, New Zealand and the United States all underwent a brief recovery to replacement level fertility around the early 1990s. While the period during which these countries were at replacement level was short lived, the TFRs of New Zealand and the United States have remained relatively high compared to the

comparison countries since that time. In 2004, the United States had the highest TFR in the comparison countries (2.05), followed by New Zealand (2.01). Sweden had a TFR of 1.75 babies per woman in 2004, which was a recovery from the late 1990s when it dipped to 1.5. Japan and Italy had the two lowest TFRs among the comparison countries in 2004 with 1.29 and 1.33 babies per woman respectively. Australia was ranked around the middle of the comparison countries with 1.77 babies per woman.

Fewer babies, older mothers

Underlying the declines in TFRs over past decades have been considerable changes in the age specific fertility rates (ASFRs) for each of the selected OECD countries. In the more recent period from 1990 and 2004, ASFRs have generally decreased in mothers aged less than 30 years and increased in the older age groups reflecting the delayed childbearing of women.

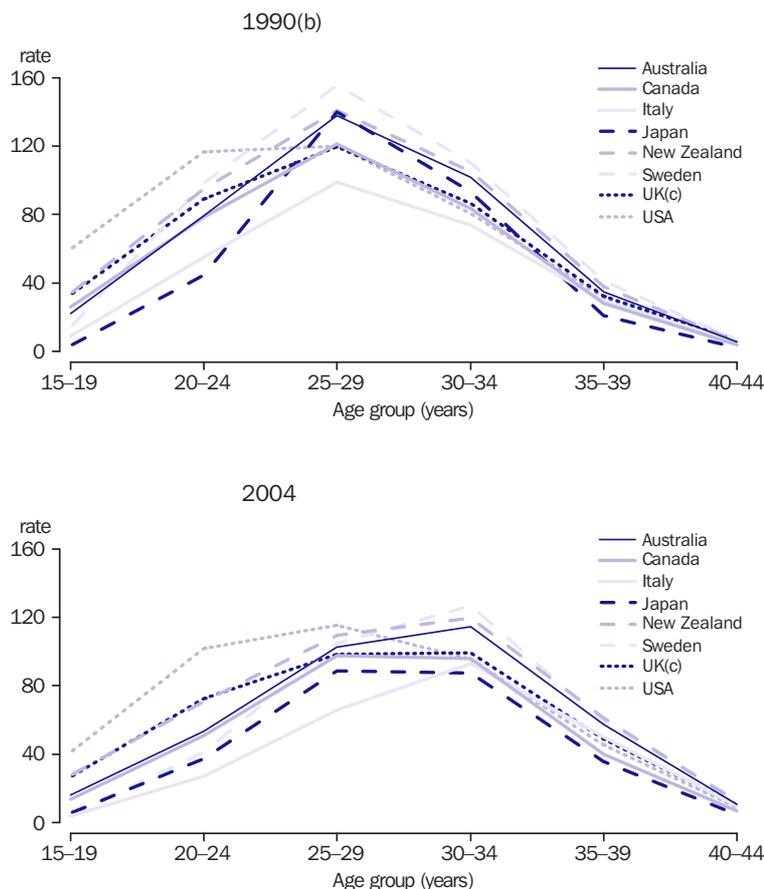
The postponement of childbirth is a widespread and significant phenomenon in OECD countries. When women delay childbearing it reduces the remaining time in which women can have babies. Such women tend to have fewer babies than those who started earlier, and there is an increased risk of childlessness (see *Australian Social Trends 2005*, Recent fertility trends, pp. 23–27).

The shift to older childbearing between 1990 and 2004 is highlighted by the change in the age group with peak fertility. In 1990, women aged 25–29 years experienced the highest fertility of all age groups; by 2004, women aged 30–34 years had the highest age-specific fertility rates for all countries in the comparison group, with the exceptions of the United States, Canada and Japan.

However, the increases in fertility of women aged 30 years and over have not fully offset the decreases in fertility at the younger age groups, leading to declines in the TFRs of all countries over the 1990–2004 period. The most dramatic example was seen in Sweden where the increase in fertility from women aged 30 years and over would have increased the TFR by 10%, had the fertility of women aged less than 30 years remained at the 1990 level. However, the reduction in fertility for women aged less than 30 years was large enough to produce an overall 18% decline in the TFR between 1990 (2.13) and 2004 (1.75).

Although the ASFR declined for United States women aged less than 30 years between 1990 and 2004, the United States is exceptional for its relatively high fertility among younger

Age-specific fertility rates(a)

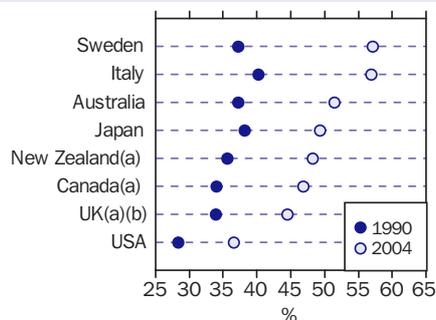


(a) Births per 1,000 women.
(b) 1991 in Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.
(c) Data are for England and Wales only.

Source: ABS Births collection³; Statistics Canada (cat. no. 84F0210 and 91209XIE)⁴; Annuario Statistico Italiano 2006⁵; Statistics Bureau, Japan⁶; Statistical Yearbook of Sweden 1992 and 2006⁷; Statistics New Zealand⁸; Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom⁹; National Center for Health Statistics, United States.¹⁰



Proportion of total fertility rate contributed by mothers aged 30 years and over

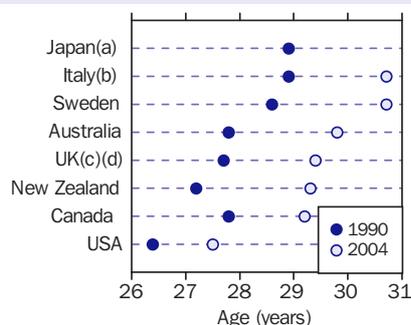


(a) 1991 in Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.
(b) Data are for England and Wales only.

Source: Derived from individual country data: Statistical Yearbook of Sweden 1992 and 2006⁷; Annuario Statistics Italiano 2006⁸; ABS Births collection⁹; Statistics Bureau, Japan⁶; Statistics New Zealand⁸; Statistics Canada (cat. no. 91209XIE and 84F0210)⁴; Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom⁹; National Center for Health Statistics, United States.¹⁰

women. In 2004, the fertility of women aged 20–24 years in the United States (102 births per 1,000 women) was around twice that of women in Canada and Australia (51 and 53 babies per 1,000 women respectively), and considerably more than the countries with the nearest rates, the United Kingdom and New Zealand with 73 and 71 babies per 1,000 women respectively. The high fertility of this age group in the United States is driven in part by the high fertility among young Hispanic women. For example, the fertility of Hispanic women aged 20–24 years was 63% higher than for the total United States population of those aged 20–24 years.¹²

Average age of mother at childbirth



(a) Data for 2004 not available for Japan.
(b) 2003 for Italy.
(c) 1991 for the United Kingdom.
(d) Data are for England and Wales only.

Source: Eurostat Yearbook¹¹; Statistics Sweden⁷; ABS Births collection⁹; Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom⁹; Statistics New Zealand⁸; Statistics Canada (cat. no. 91209XIE and 84F0210)⁴; National Center for Health Statistics, United States.¹⁰

Low fertility

The United Nations defines low fertility countries as those countries with a total fertility rate at or below 2.1 (replacement level fertility). In 2000–05, 65 countries were classed as having low fertility while 127 countries had above replacement level fertility. Approximately two-fifths of the world's population lived in a low fertility country in 2000–05.¹³ Persistent low fertility was a concern for many countries. In 2005, 46 countries viewed their fertility to be too low. Of these countries, more than three-quarters had government policies intended to boost fertility.¹³

Countries with low fertility can be further defined by how far below replacement level their TFR is. Very low fertility countries have total fertility rates below 1.3 babies per woman. In 1993, Italy (1.25), Spain (1.27) and Germany (1.28) were the first OECD countries to record very low fertility. United Nations data estimate that in 2000–05, 18 countries had very low fertility, all of which were located in Southern Europe, Eastern Europe and Eastern Asia.¹³

Total fertility rate — selected countries

Country	1950–55	1970–75	2000–05
	rate	rate	rate (a)
Australia	3.2	2.5	1.8
Canada	3.7	2.0	1.5
China	6.2	4.9	1.7
France	2.7	2.3	1.9
Hong Kong	4.4	2.9	0.9
Indonesia	5.5	5.3	2.4
Italy	2.3	2.3	1.3
Japan	2.8	2.1	1.3
Malaysia	6.8	5.2	2.9
New Zealand	3.7	2.8	2.0
Singapore	6.4	2.6	1.4
Sweden	2.2	1.9	1.7
United Kingdom	2.2	2.0	1.7
United States	3.5	2.0	2.0
Viet Nam	5.8	6.7	2.3
World	5.0	4.5	2.7

(a) Medium variant projections.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat 2007, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision*, viewed 27 March 2007, <<http://esa.un.org/unpp>>.



A consequence of the shift in fertility to older ages is that today, a much larger proportion of the TFR comes from women who are in their 30s and 40s compared with fifteen years ago. Younger mothers (aged under 30 years) accounted for the majority of the TFR in each of the selected countries in 1990. In 2004, mothers aged 30 years and over were responsible for over half the TFR in Italy (57%), Sweden (57%) and Australia (52%), while in Japan (49%), New Zealand (48%), Canada (47%) and the United Kingdom (44%), they accounted for just under half. Consistent with the younger fertility pattern in the United States, the proportion of TFR attributable to women aged 30 years and over (37%) was lower than all other comparison countries and showed the least change over the period.

A further indication of the postponed fertility is an increase in the average age of mothers at childbirth. As would be expected, the shift in childbearing to older age groups is reflected in an increase in the average age of mothers when they have their children. In 1990, the average age of mothers at childbirth for all comparison countries ranged between 26 and 29 years. By 2004, the average age of mothers had increased by around two years for most countries, except for the United States which increased by one year.

In 2004, the oldest average age of mothers at childbirth was in Sweden (30.7 years in 2004), the same as in Italy in 2003. The average age of Australian women who gave birth was around one year younger (29.8 years), while the youngest age of the comparison countries was the United States (27.5 years).

Socioeconomic factors and fertility within countries

The number of children women have in developed countries is largely determined by their (and their partners') preferences, taking into account the relative costs and benefits of having children.¹⁴ Women who wish to have children and pursue a career are faced with challenges in reconciling the two aspirations. Time spent in education and a career can mean less time for partnering and having children as a greater proportion of a woman's childbearing years may be taken up with study and work.

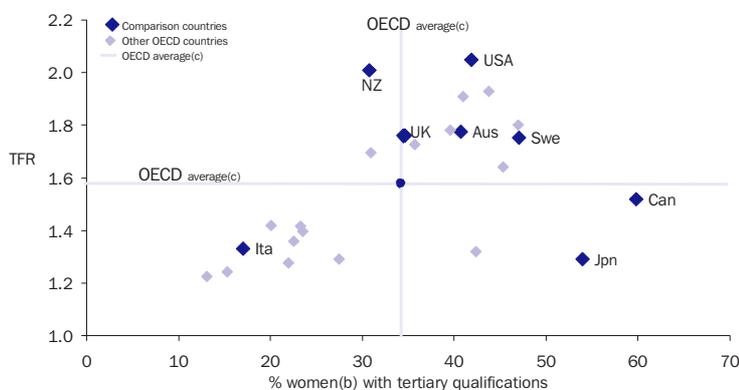
Differences in the way countries are organised with respect to facilitating a balance between women's employment and family responsibilities provide part of the explanation for the gap between the very low fertility countries of Southern Europe and the more moderate fertility countries of the OECD.¹⁵ The lowering of costs of having children (both direct and indirect) through family friendly policies such as those promoting flexible work arrangements, child care subsidies and paid parental leave may all contribute to higher fertility.^{2,15} In addition, cultural and economic factors such as the presence of strong family ties, the level of unemployment and relative ease of the transitions from education to labour market may also impact on women's fertility.¹⁶

...education

Women in all OECD countries are more educated today than those in previous generations.² The relationship between education and fertility among women within individual OECD countries shows that higher levels of qualifications are associated with lower fertility. Spending longer in education tends to delay women's age at first birth, and women with high levels of skill may be less inclined than less educated women to interrupt their careers to have children.²

However, the relationship between the tertiary qualification level of women aged 25–34 years and the TFR across countries of the OECD in 2004 is quite different. Most countries tended to either have low levels of qualification with low TFR or relatively higher levels of qualifications with relatively higher TFRs. For example, Italy had a lower proportion of women with tertiary qualifications (17%) compared with the OECD average (34%), as well as a lower TFR. On the other hand, Australia (41%), the United States (42%) and Sweden (47%) all had higher tertiary qualification levels and higher TFRs.

Total fertility rate by tertiary qualifications(a) of women(b) — 2004



(a) Includes Tertiary-type A, Tertiary-type B and Advanced Research Qualifications, according to ISCED-97 levels 5A, 5B and 6.

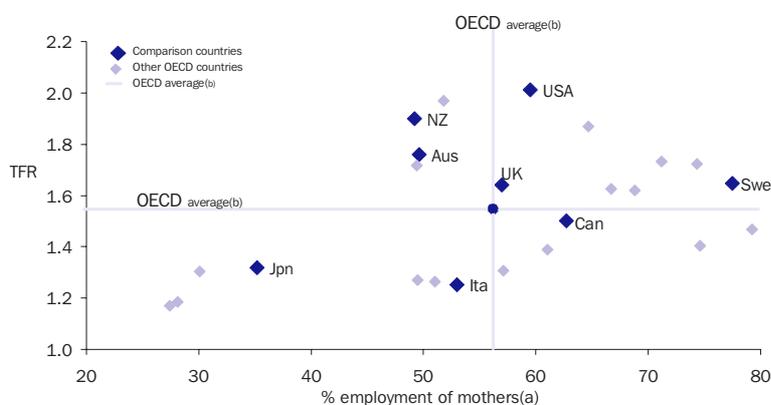
(b) Women aged 25–34 years.

(c) Average of 24 OECD countries.

Source: OECD, Education at a Glance, 2006 and OECD, Society at a Glance, 2006.



Total fertility rate by employment of mothers(a) — 2002



(a) For mothers with youngest child aged under 6 years.
 (b) Average of 24 OECD countries.

Source: ABS 2003 Family Characteristics Survey; OECD, *Society at a Glance*, 2005.

...employment

The relation between women's employment and their fertility is complex and differs markedly between countries.² The constraints that mothers experience are influenced by their countries' specific social and economic factors.¹⁶

The 2002 inter-country comparison of employment of mothers with a child aged less than 6 years reveals a pattern of lower participation being generally associated with lower TFRs.

While some countries with lower employment rates for mothers did show lower fertility (e.g. Japan and Italy), others did not. For example, both Australia and New Zealand had lower rates of employment for mothers with the youngest child under 6 years (50% and 49% respectively) compared with the 2002 OECD average rate of 56%; however, both had higher TFRs than the OECD average (1.8 and 1.9 respectively compared with an average of 1.5). Sweden had one of the highest levels of employment among mothers (78%) and moderate TFR (1.7), while the United States with the highest TFR (2.0) had only a slightly higher rate of employment among mothers than the OECD average.

Endnotes

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Australia's babies

Over the past twenty years, the infant mortality rate has halved, from 9.9 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1985, to 5.0 in 2005.

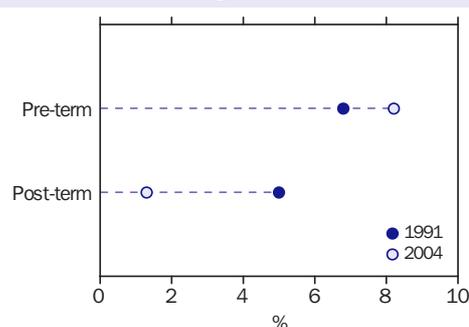
Australian babies today have better health prospects for their first year of life than any previous generation. Over the past century, improved sanitation and hygiene, better ante and post-natal care, greater parental education, the introduction of universal immunisation programs and improved medical technology have all contributed to both dramatically reducing the infant mortality rate and preventing the development of long term health problems in infants. However, despite great improvements to infant health over recent decades, there remain a range of interventions and behaviours that can affect health outcomes for babies.

It is acknowledged that the biological, social, family, community and economic conditions of children are important predictors of their future health, educational, behavioural, criminal and psycho-social outcomes.¹ The Australian Government has recognised the importance of early childhood health and wellbeing in ensuring improved outcomes for Australian children in the development of a National Agenda for Early Childhood.² This article examines the general characteristics of Australian babies aged under one year, with a particular focus on factors affecting, and improvements to, infant health.

Babies: selected characteristics

Over the last two decades, the number of babies born each year has averaged around a quarter of a million. In 2005 there were 259,800 births, compared with 247,300 in 1985. The age of the mothers of these babies has been steadily increasing over the past two decades, from a median age of 27.3 years in

Gestation of baby



Source: Australia's mothers and babies 1991 and Australia's mothers and babies 2004 (AIHW cat. no. PER 34).

Data sources and definitions

Data used in this article are drawn from multiple sources, with the main data sources being the ABS Births, Deaths and Health collections, the Australian Childhood Immunisation Register, and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare's (AIHW) National Perinatal Data Collection.

A *confinement* is a pregnancy which results in at least one live birth.

A *multiple birth* is a confinement which results in two or more babies, at least one of which is live-born.

Gestation refers to the duration of pregnancy in completed weeks:

- ◆ *Pre-term* refers to babies born at less than 37 weeks gestation.
- ◆ *At term* refers to babies born between 37 and 41 weeks gestation.
- ◆ *Post-term* refers to babies born at or after 42 weeks gestation.

A *caesarean section* is an operative birth through an abdominal incision.

A *separation* is an episode of care for a patient admitted to hospital.

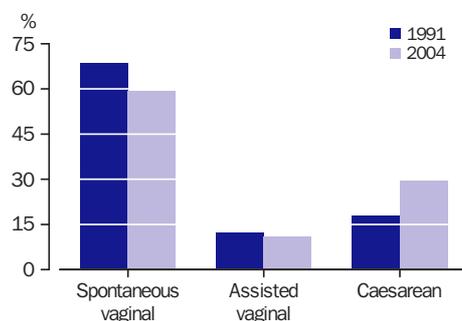
1985 to 30.7 in 2005 (for more information on recent fertility trends, refer to *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Recent increases in Australia's fertility, pp. 9–12).

The ratio of male to female births has remained stable over this period, with 105.6 male births recorded for every 100 female births in 2005, compared to 105.2 for every 100 births in 1985.

...gestation

The length of gestation is considered to be a key indicator of infant health, with pre-term birth being associated with poorer health outcomes in babies. Over the thirteen years to 2004 a decrease in the number of post-term births (from 5% in 1991 to 1% in 2004) and a marginal increase in the percentage of pre-term births (from 7% in 1991 to 8% in 2004) have contributed to a shorter average length of gestation. In 2004 the average gestation period was 38.8 weeks, a decrease from 39.2 weeks in 1991. The percentage of babies born at term increased, from 88% in 1991 to 91% in 2004.

Birth method



Source: *Australia's mothers and babies 1991 and Australia's mothers and babies 2004* (AIHW cat. no. PER 34).

...birth method

Most babies born in Australia are born by spontaneous vaginal birth. In 2004, 59% of women gave birth in this way, a fall from 68% in 1991. Much of this decline can be explained by the increasing use of caesarean section for delivery, with 29% of women giving birth by caesarean section in 2004, a substantial increase from 18% in 1991. Factors associated with increased caesarean rates are advancing maternal age, multiple pregnancy, low birthweight, breech presentation and private accommodation status in hospital.³ Around one in nine mothers (11%) had an assisted vaginal delivery, with forceps or vacuum extraction being used to assist the birth, a decrease from 13% in 1991.

...birthweight

The birthweight of a child is widely accepted as a key indicator of infant health and can be affected by a number of factors, including the age, size, health and nutritional status of the mother, pre-term birth, and tobacco smoking during pregnancy.^{4,5} In 2004 the average birthweight for babies born in Australia was 3,370 grams, similar to the average of 3,350 grams recorded in 1991.

Low birthweight is generally associated with poorer health outcomes, including increased risk of illness and death, longer periods of hospitalisation after birth, and increased risk of developing significant disabilities.⁵ A baby is defined as having a low birthweight if they are born weighing less than 2,500 grams.⁵ Low birthweight occurred in 6% of liveborn babies born in both 1991 and 2004.

...assisted fertility

An increasing number of babies today are being born with the aid of assisted reproduction technology (ART), which uses

Indigenous babies

Health outcomes for Indigenous babies remain significantly poorer than those experienced by the general Australian population.

Adverse health outcomes are far more prevalent, with infant mortality nearly triple the non-Indigenous rate. Indigenous babies are also more likely to have a lower birthweight, be born prematurely, and are less likely to be fully immunised, or breastfed past 6 months of age.

Mothers of Indigenous babies have a median age that is 6 years younger than mothers of non-Indigenous babies, and are more than twice as likely to smoke during pregnancy.⁶

Babies: selected indicators

	Units	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous
Median age of mother(a) – 2005	years	24.5	30.9
Average birthweight(b) – 2004	grams	3,160	3,380
Average gestation(b) – 2004	weeks	38.3	38.9
Pre-term birth(b) – 2004	%	14.3	7.9
Infant mortality rate (a)(c)(d) – 2005	rate	12.7	4.5
Babies fully immunised at 6 to 12 months of age – 2001	%	84.0(e)	94.8
Babies breastfed for 6 months or more – 2004–05	%	24.2(e)	29.8

(a) Some Indigenous births and deaths are not identified as such when they are registered. Caution should therefore be exercised when undertaking analysis of Indigenous fertility and mortality. For further information see *Births, Australia 2005* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0) and *Deaths, Australia 2005* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

(b) Data for Tasmania are not available and have not been included.

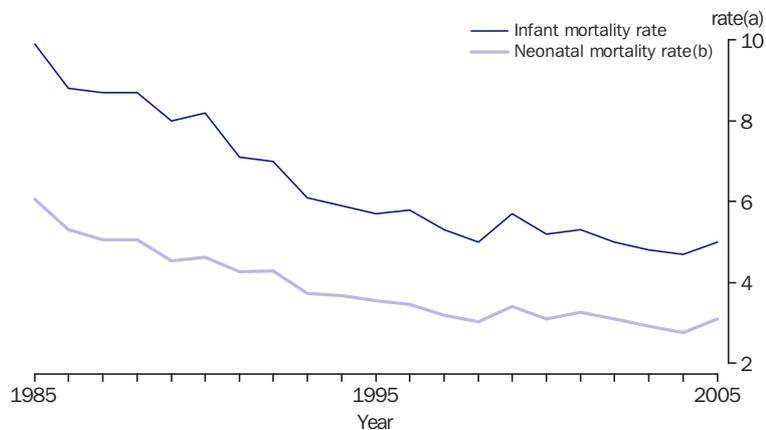
(c) Infant deaths per 1,000 live births.

(d) Data for Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory combined.

(e) For Indigenous persons in non-remote areas only.

Source: ABS Births and Deaths collections; 2001 and 2004–05 National Health Survey; 2001 National Health Survey (Indigenous); 2004–05 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey; *Australia's mothers and babies 2004* (AIHW cat. no. PER 34); AIHW 2007 National Perinatal Data Collection.

Infant and neonatal mortality rates(a)(b)



(a) Deaths per 1,000 live births.

(b) The neonatal mortality rate measures the number of deaths for infants within the first 28 days of life (that weigh at least 400 grams or have a gestational age of 20 weeks or more) per 1,000 live births.

Source: ABS Births collection, ABS Deaths collection.

medical technology such as in-vitro fertilisation or other fertility treatments to assist in the conception of a child. In 2004, an estimated 2.5% of all births in Australia were the result of ART treatment. Between 1989 and 2004, the number of live births occurring in Australia and New Zealand as a result of ART treatment increased by 74%.^{7,8}

Mothers in Australia and New Zealand who conceive in this way tend to be older than mothers in general, with an average age at delivery of 34.5 years in 2004, compared with

an average age of 29.7 years for all Australian mothers in 2004.⁷ Pregnancies commenced using ART are also substantially more likely to result in a multiple birth, with 16% of all deliveries resulting in a multiple birth.⁷

...multiple births

The percentage of confinements that result in multiple births has increased over the past 20 years, from 1.1% in 1985 to 1.7% in 2005. The increased use of ART is a major factor in the higher rate of multiple births observed during this period. Babies born as the result of a multiple birth are more likely to have a low birthweight and short gestation, and experience an increased risk of illness, mortality and longer periods of hospitalisation.^{9,10} Twins born in 2004 weighed on average one kilogram less than their singleton counterparts, with an average weight of 2,410 grams, compared with 3,410 grams for singleton babies. Low birthweight occurred in half (50%) of all twin births and nearly all (95%) triplet and higher order multiple births in 2004, compared with just 5% of singleton births.

Infant mortality and illness

...infant and neonatal mortality

Infant mortality refers to the deaths of children before their first birthday and is a key indicator of infant health, in addition to providing insight into the broader social conditions of the population. Over the past twenty years, the infant mortality rate (the number of infant deaths per 1,000 live births) has halved, from 9.9 in 1985 to 5.0 in 2005. The neonatal mortality rate (the death of a child during their first 28 days of life, per 1,000 live births) has also halved during this period, from 6.1 in 1985 to 3.1 in 2005. Factors that have contributed to these declines include improved medical care and technology, such as developments in neonatal intensive care, and a major reduction in the number of deaths from Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS).

Between 1985 and 2005, deaths from SIDS declined by 83%, from 523 deaths in 1985 to 87 in 2005. The decline in SIDS deaths in Australia during this period is strongly associated with a public health campaign launched by SIDS and Kids (formerly the National SIDS Council of Australia).¹¹ The campaign raised awareness of the risk factors which increased the likelihood of sudden infant death and promoted the importance of safer practices (such as placing the baby to sleep on their back) in reducing the risk of SIDS.

Infant mortality: main causes — 2005

Cause of death	no.	rate(a)	%
Fetus and newborn affected by maternal factors and by complications of pregnancy, labour and delivery	356	1.4	27.3
Disorders related to short gestation and low birthweight, not elsewhere classified	90	0.3	6.9
Respiratory and cardiovascular disorders specific to the perinatal period	104	0.4	8.0
Infections specific to the perinatal period	35	0.1	2.7
Haemorrhagic and haematological disorders of fetus and newborn	27	0.1	2.1
Congenital malformations of the nervous system	47	0.2	3.6
Congenital malformations of the circulatory system	86	0.3	6.6
Congenital malformations of the respiratory system	23	0.1	1.8
Sudden Infant Death Syndrome	87	0.3	6.7
Total infant mortality rate(b)	1 302	5.0	100.0

(a) Infant deaths per 1,000 live births.

(b) This table presents data for selected main causes only, therefore components do not add to the total.

Source: Causes of Death, Australia, 2005 (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

The actual birth itself can be a mortality risk for babies, with fatalities caused by complications of pregnancy, labour and delivery and maternal factors being a major cause of infant death, accounting for 27% of deaths. Respiratory and cardiovascular disorders are also a major cause of infant death, causing 8% of deaths. In addition, conditions related to low birthweight and short gestation, congenital and genetic conditions, communicable diseases, accidents and injury, infections and SIDS are significant causes of death and ill health in infants.

...infant illness

An analysis of data from the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare's National Hospital Morbidity Database shows that disorders relating to the length of gestation and fetal growth were the most common cause of hospital separations for infants in 2004–05. This cause accounted for 15% of hospital separations for infants in 2004–05, an increase from 11% in 1994–95.

Respiratory conditions, most commonly acute bronchiolitis, were the next most common cause of hospitalisation, responsible for 13% of separations in 2004–05, down from 14% in 1994–95. Infectious and parasitic diseases accounted for 6% of separations, unchanged from 1994–95. Hospital separations relating to injuries and poisoning also did not change during this period, accounting for 2% of separations in both 2004–05 and 1994–95.

Breastfeeding

Breastfeeding has been shown to provide significant health benefits for both mother and child. For babies, breastfeeding increases resistance to infection and disease, reduces the likelihood of allergic diseases such as asthma and eczema, and is also associated with higher IQ scores.^{13, 14} Mothers who breastfeed tend to experience a quicker recovery from childbirth and reduced risk of breast cancer before menopause.¹³ For these reasons both the Australian Government and the World Health Organisation recommend that babies are fed only breastmilk until 6 months of age.¹³

At the beginning of the previous century before the widespread use of infant formula, breastfeeding or the use of a wet nurse was the most common way to feed an infant. There is evidence that most Australian newborns were breastfed before the 1940's. However, by the 1970's only 40–50% of babies were breastfed.¹⁴

Infant mortality: an international perspective



Considerable variation exists in infant mortality rates internationally. In the developing world, where infant mortality rates are high, infectious diseases, diarrhoea and malnutrition are still common causes of infant death. In developed countries, where infant mortality rates are low, illnesses relating to preterm birth and congenital causes are more likely to be major causes of infant death.

Significant differences also exist in neonatal mortality rates: the chances of a woman (during her childbearing years) losing a baby during its first 28 days of life is 1 in 5 in Africa, compared with 1 in 125 in more developed countries.¹²

Infant mortality rates, selected countries — 2004

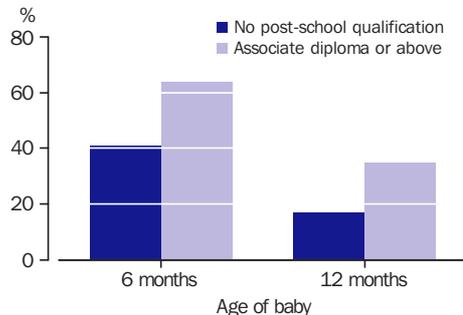
Country	Infant mortality rate(a)
Australia	5
Canada	5
China	26
France	4
India	62
Japan	3
New Zealand	5
Sweden	3
Switzerland	4
United Kingdom	5
United States of America	6
African Region	100
Region of the Americas	21
South-East Asia Region	56
European Region	18
Eastern Mediterranean Region	69
Western Pacific Region	25

(a) Infant deaths per 1,000 live births.

Source: World Health Organisation, *World Health Statistics 2006*, viewed 30 April 2007, <http://www.who.int/whosis/whostat2006_mortality.pdf>.

Since then the prevalence of breastfeeding has increased along with growing public awareness of the importance of breastfeeding. In 2004–05, 88% of children aged under 3 years had ever been breastfed, receiving breastmilk either exclusively, or as part of their diet in combination with breastmilk substitutes and/or solid food.

Breastfeeding rates(a) by education level of mother — 2001



(a) Includes babies breastfed exclusively, babies receiving breastmilk in combination with breastmilk substitutes, and babies receiving breastmilk in combination with solid food.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Some population groups are more likely to continue with breastfeeding than others, with older and more educated mothers being more likely to still be breastfeeding their children (either exclusively or in combination with breastmilk substitutes and/or solid food) at 6 and 12 months of age in 2001. For mothers aged 30 years or over, 54% were still breastfeeding their baby at 6 months of age, compared with 38% for mothers aged 18–29 years. Mothers aged 30 years or over were also twice as likely to be breastfeeding their babies at 12 months of age (28%) compared with mothers aged 18–29 years (14%).

In 2001, almost two-thirds (64%) of mothers with a post-school qualification at the level of associate diploma or above were breastfeeding their babies at 6 months of age, compared with 41% of those with no post-school qualification. By the time their babies were 12 months old, nearly twice as many mothers with an associate diploma or

above (35%) were still breastfeeding their child compared with women with no post-school qualification (17%).

Immunisation

Immunisation programs for children are recognised as a highly effective public health intervention, greatly reducing the incidence of epidemics of infectious diseases. As a result of widespread vaccination programs, many once common childhood illnesses such as polio and diphtheria are no longer major causes of death and disability for Australian children.

Babies aged under 12 months currently experience high rates of vaccination, although overall vaccination coverage has declined marginally in recent years. In 2006, 91% of children in this age group were fully immunised, compared with 92% in 2002.

An analysis of vaccines administered under the National Immunisation Program Schedule reveals that 92% of children at 12 months of age in 2006 had received the DTP vaccine, which provides immunisation against diphtheria, tetanus and pertussis (whooping cough), compared with 93% in 2002. For individual vaccines, 92% were immunised against polio (93% in 2002), 94% against Haemophilus influenzae type B (HIB), slightly less than in 2002 (95%), and 94% were immunised against Hepatitis B (95% in 2002).

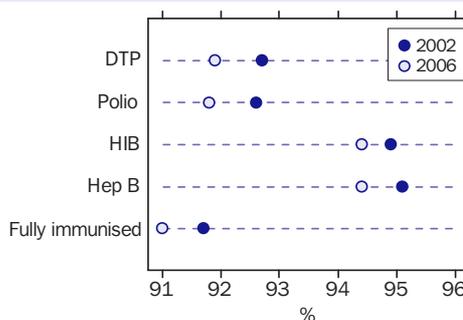
Mothers

As discussed above, the health of the mother can affect infant health both during gestation and after birth. A mother who is healthy, receives good nutrition and does not smoke or drink at risky levels, is more likely to give birth to a healthy child.

...risk factors

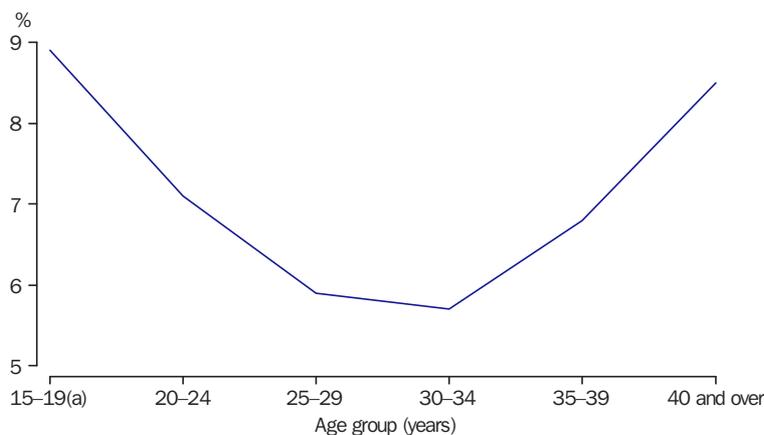
Smoking is one major risk factor that can adversely affect infant health, increasing the likelihood of low birthweight, pre-term birth, fetal and neonatal death and SIDS.⁶ Women are less likely to smoke during pregnancy than women of the same age in the general population, with 17% of women giving birth in 2003 (excluding Victoria, Tasmania and Queensland) smoking during their pregnancy, compared with 25% of women in the childbearing age group of 15–44 years in 2004. Younger women are more likely to smoke during pregnancy, with 42% of mothers aged under 20 reporting smoking during pregnancy, compared with 11% of mothers aged over 40 years.

Vaccination coverage for Australian babies at 12 months of age



Source: Australian Childhood Immunisation Register, viewed 3 May 2007, <http://www.medicareaustralia.gov.au/providers/health_statistics/statistical_reporting.acir.htm>.

Percentage of babies born with low birthweight by age of mother — 2004



(a) Includes liveborn babies born to women aged less than 15 years.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2007 National Perinatal Data Collection.

Drug taking and excessive use of alcohol are also associated with poorer infant outcomes. Illicit drug taking during pregnancy is associated with increased risk of low birthweight, prematurity, growth retardation and birth defects, while heavy drinking during pregnancy is associated with fetal alcohol syndrome.^{15, 16} In 2004, 6% of women who were pregnant and/or breastfeeding in the past 12 months reported using an illicit drug whilst pregnant and/or breastfeeding, and 47% reported having used alcohol whilst pregnant and/or breastfeeding. The proportion of women who drink at risky levels during pregnancy is not known.

The age of mother at birth can also affect health outcomes. Very young and older mothers are more likely to give birth to babies with shorter gestation times and lower birthweights than the average. In 2004, 6% of babies were born with a low birthweight. The percentage of babies born with a low birthweight rose to 9% both for babies born to mothers aged 15–19 years and mothers aged 40 years and over. The risk of low birthweight increased substantially for babies born to mothers aged over 45 years, with 16% of babies in this category being born with a low birthweight (although this is based on a relatively small number of births).

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Migration: permanent additions to Australia's population

In 2005–06, skilled migrants made up more than half (51%) of all permanent additions to Australia's population through migration.

Australian society has been shaped by a long history of immigration. Since 1945 around 6.5 million people have arrived as new settlers and in 2006, nearly one in four (24%) Australian residents were born overseas.^{1,2,3}

Some people arrive from overseas and are entitled to stay permanently in Australia (settler arrivals). Others apply for and gain permanent residency while already in Australia on temporary visas (permanent onshore visa grants). With an increasing emphasis on skilled migration in recent years, permanent onshore visa grants have become an increasingly important aspect of the Australian Government's Migration Program. Permanent additions (that is, the sum of the settler arrivals and those who gain permanent residency onshore) provide a better picture of the contribution of migration to our permanent resident population than settler arrivals alone.

Over time, changes in government immigration policy, as well as national and international events, have influenced the number and types of permanent additions to Australia. This article looks at recent trends in permanent additions, focusing on the type of migration and the characteristics of the migrants.

Trends in permanent additions

In 2005–06, there were 180,000 permanent additions of migrants, 72% more than the number in 1996–97 (105,000). The upward

Data sources and definitions

Data for this article have been obtained primarily from the *Immigration Update* publications produced by the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC).

Settler arrivals are persons arriving in Australia who hold permanent visas, regardless of their intended period of stay, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle, and other people who are otherwise eligible to settle such as overseas born children of Australian citizens.

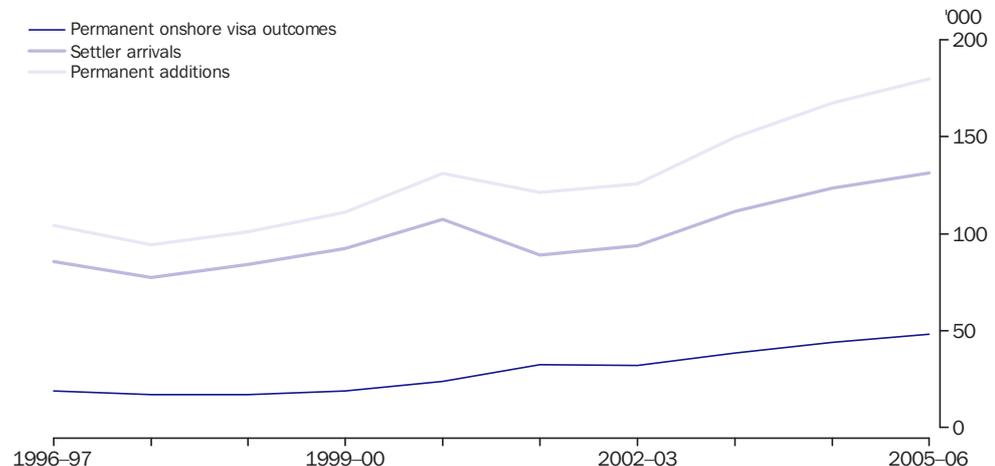
Permanent onshore visa outcomes are the number of visas granting permanent residence status to temporary entrants, less any permanent onshore visas that are cancelled.

Permanent additions comprise people arriving permanently to Australia (settler arrivals) plus people who gain permanent residency while here on temporary visas (permanent onshore visa outcomes).

trend largely reflects prevailing economic conditions, and changes in the Government's immigration targets.

These changes have also affected the relative contribution of settler arrivals and permanent onshore visa outcomes over the period. In 1996–97, settler arrivals contributed 82% (85,800) of permanent additions of migrants, with onshore visa outcomes making up the balance (18% or 18,800). While the number of settler arrivals increased by an average 4.9% per year to be 132,000 in 2005–06, the relative contribution of settler arrivals to

Permanent additions



Source: DIAC, *Immigration Updates* 2002–03 to 2005–06, and DIAC unpublished data (1997–2001).

permanent additions was reduced to 73%. This was due to the faster growth (11% per annum on average) of onshore visa grants, which numbered 48,200 and accounted for 27% of permanent additions in 2005–06.

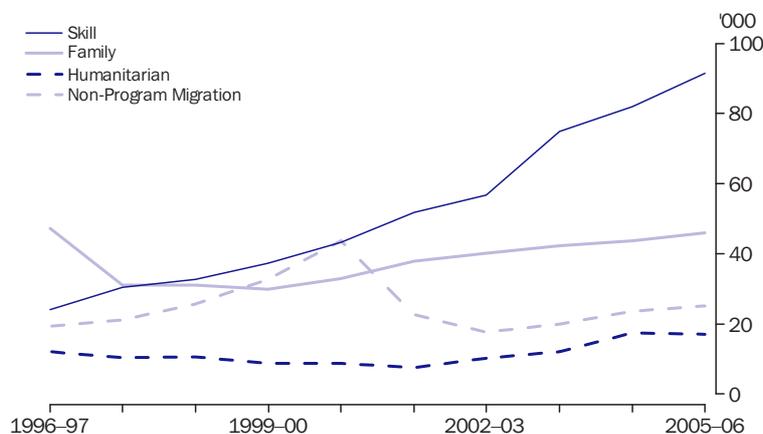
The increase in onshore migration reflects the increased propensity for temporary entrants to be granted permanent onshore visas on the basis of their skills.⁴ These people include overseas students, working holiday makers and business visitors.

Eligibility categories of permanent additions

Non-residents can obtain permanent residency in Australia via the Migration Program, the Humanitarian Program or through Non-Program Migration. In 2005–06, most (77%) permanent additions entered through the Migration Program, which comprises the Family and Skill Streams. The Humanitarian Program contributed 9% of all additions in the same year, while the remainder (14%) were Non-Program Migrations, nearly all of whom were New Zealand citizens.

Over the past two decades, the proportion of migrants arriving to Australia within each eligibility category has changed. The Family Stream was the largest eligibility category until it was overtaken by the Skill Stream after 1997–98. This was partly due to a shift in emphasis of the migration program onto the Skill Stream and also due in part to a change in classification of the former Concessional Family visa category into the Skilled-Australian Linked visa category for skilled migrants with a relative in Australia to sponsor them.

Permanent additions by eligibility category



Source: DIAC, *Immigration Updates 2002–03 to 2005–06*, and DIAC unpublished data (1997–2001).

Migration Program – Skill Stream

Migrants of the *Skill Stream* are selected on their ability to contribute to the Australian economy. This stream consists of a number of categories including:

- ◆ *Independent* is for unsponsored applicants whose education, skills, English language ability and ready employability will contribute to the Australian economy.
- ◆ *Skilled-Australian Linked* (sponsored) category. Skilled persons who have an eligible relative living in Australia to sponsor them may migrate via this category. (Note: from 1997, includes the former Concessional category comprising non-dependent relatives from the Family stream.)
- ◆ *Employer nomination* is for highly skilled people nominated by employers in Australia who have been unable to find or train skilled workers in Australia for the position.
- ◆ *Business skills* is for persons with established skills in business and who have a genuine commitment to owning and managing a business in Australia.

Migration Program – Family Stream

Family Stream migration enables the immigration of immediate family members and certain other extended family members of permanent Australian residents. It consists of these main categories:

- ◆ *Partner* includes spouse, prospective marriage and interdependants.
- ◆ *Child* includes dependent child, adopted child or orphan relative.
- ◆ *Parent* category applicants must be the parent of a child who is a settled Australian citizen, permanent resident or eligible New Zealand citizen.
- ◆ *Other family* includes aged dependent relatives, remaining relatives or carers.

Humanitarian Program

The Humanitarian Program aims to resettle refugees based on an assessment of worldwide need. The program assists people from overseas who have suffered substantial discrimination, amounting to a gross violation of their human rights. It includes the following categories:

- ◆ *Refugee Program* provides resettlement for people overseas who are subject to persecution in their home country.
- ◆ *Special Humanitarian Program* assists people who have suffered substantial discrimination amounting to a gross violation of human rights in their home country. To be granted this visa, applicants must be sponsored by an Australian resident, citizen or organisation operating in Australia.
- ◆ *Special Assistance Category* includes groups considered to be of special concern to Australia and in real need, but who do not fit within other humanitarian categories. This program was created in 1991 and closed during the 2000–01 financial year.⁴

Source: DIAC, viewed 9 July 2007, <<http://www.immigration.gov.au/media/fact-sheets/#skilled>>.

...Skill Stream

The Skill Stream of Australia's Migration Program is designed to assist national economic development by attracting highly skilled immigrants to live and work in Australia, bringing with them skills, business expertise and capital.⁵

Since the late 1990s, the Skill Stream has been the largest and fastest growing Migration Program stream. Between 1996–97 and 2005–06, the annual number of Skill Stream migrants (including dependants) increased from around 24,000 to 92,000 people, resulting in an increase in

the proportion of total permanent additions in this category from 23% in 1996–97 to 51% in 2005–06.

The proportion of permanent migrants entering with an Independent visa (a sub-class of the Skill Stream) has increased over the period, from 11% of total permanent additions (11,700 people) in 1996–97 to 27% (49,000 people) in 2005–06. This group comprises people with skills and qualifications in an occupation required in Australia and who do not require sponsorship by a relative living in Australia or an Australian employer. Independent visa holders made up over one quarter of total permanent additions at every year between 2002–03 and 2005–06 and this group was the largest single component of permanent additions in 2005–06.

The proportion of people entering under the Employer nomination category increased from 5% (5,500 people) in 1996–97 to 8% in 2005–06 (15,100 people).

The Australian sponsored categories allow skilled migrants to be sponsored by a family member who already resides in Australia. In 2005–06, 10% (around 17,900 people) of total permanent additions were sponsored by non-dependent family members.

In 2005–06, Skill Stream permanent additions who were employed at the time of their visa application were mostly concentrated in Professional occupations (53%). Other common occupations were Tradespersons (14%), Managers and Administrators (10%) and Associate Professionals (10%).

...Family Stream

The Family Stream is designed to facilitate the reunion of close family members. To be granted a permanent visa, immigrants must be sponsored by a close family relative or partner who is an Australian citizen or permanent resident.⁴

As a proportion of total permanent additions, the Family Stream has decreased from 45% (47,300) in 1996–97 to 26% (45,900) in 2005–06. The composition of the remaining categories within the Family Stream has also changed since then.

Between 1996–97 and 2005–06, the number of partners arriving under the Family Stream increased, from around 26,400 to 36,700 people. This corresponds with a decrease in the number of parents immigrating through this stream, from 7,800 people (7% of total permanent additions) to 4,500 people (3% of total permanent additions).

Permanent additions by eligibility category

Eligibility category	1996–97	2005–06
	%	%
Skill(a)	23.0	50.9
Independent	11.2	27.3
Employer Nomination(b)	5.2	8.4
Australian Sponsored(a)(c)	n.a	10.0
Business Skills	5.5	3.3
Other(d)	1.1	1.9
Family(a)	45.2	25.6
Partners(e)	25.3	20.4
Parents	7.4	2.5
Concessional family(a)	7.9	n.a
Other	4.6	2.6
Humanitarian Program	11.6	9.4
Refugee	3.2	2.9
Special Humanitarian	2.0	3.9
Special Assistance	4.2	n.a
Onshore	2.2	2.7
Non-Program Migration	18.4	14.0
Total(f)	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total Skill(a)	24.1	91.5
Total Family(a)	47.3	45.9
Total Humanitarian Program	12.2	17.0
Total Non-Program Migration	19.3	25.1
Total persons(f)	104.6	179.8

(a) In 1997–98 the Skilled-Australian Linked category commenced in the skilled stream replacing the Concessional Family category within the family stream.

(b) Includes Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme.

(c) Includes Skilled-Australian Linked and Regional Designated Area Sponsored categories.

(d) Includes Distinguished Talent, 1 November Onshore and Skilled Independent Regional categories.

(e) Includes Spouses and Fianceses.

(f) Components do not add to total as total includes Special Eligibility category of the Migration Program.

Source: DIAC, *Immigration Updates 2002–03 to 2005–06*, and DIAC unpublished data (1997–2001).

In 2005–06, migrants in the Family Stream who were employed prior to arrival in Australia were mainly employed in Professional and Associate Professional occupations (34% and 15% respectively), making up half of all employed Family Stream migrants. A further 24% were employed in Clerical, Sales and Service occupations.

...Humanitarian Program

The Humanitarian Program is the smallest of Australia's immigration categories, although the proportion and composition of migrants coming from the program have varied over the past decade. This variation is a result of the often unexpected nature of international events that trigger humanitarian crises such as warfare and political instability.

In 2005–06 there were around 17,000 permanent additions through the Humanitarian Program, representing 9% of all permanent additions in that year. Between 1996–97 and 2005–06, the proportion in this program has been as high as 12% (12,200 people) of total permanent additions in 1996–97 and as low as 6% (7,500 people) in 2001–02.

Most of the migrants within the Humanitarian Program arrive via the offshore program. That is, they have applied for entry from overseas. These include refugees and the Special Humanitarian Program. The number of refugees has ranged from 3,100 (2%) in 2003–04 to 5,200 (3%) in 2005–06. In 2005–06, the Special Humanitarian Program was the largest group within the Humanitarian category with around 6,900 people (3.9%).

Immigration detention

Australia's immigration detention policy was introduced in 1992 and expanded in 1994. The policy reflects a maintenance of Australia's migration program, and requires that non-Australian citizens who are unlawfully in Australia are detained, unless they are granted permission to remain in Australia.

In 2005–06, approximately 6,490 people were in immigration detention. The main nationalities of people held in detention since 2002–03 have been Indonesian, Chinese, Malaysian and Korean.

The majority of people in detention were detained as a result of arriving in Australia without a visa, overstaying their visa, visa cancellation or for illegal foreign fishing.

Source: DIAC, *Immigration Fact Sheet 82*, viewed 29 May 2007, <<http://www.diac.gov.au/media/fact-sheets/82detention.htm>>.

Characteristics of migrants

Some of the demographic characteristics of migrants differ from those of the Australian population and others have changed over time. For example, permanent additions have a very different age structure than the overall Australian population, and the region of birth of permanent additions has changed considerably over the past decade.

...age profile

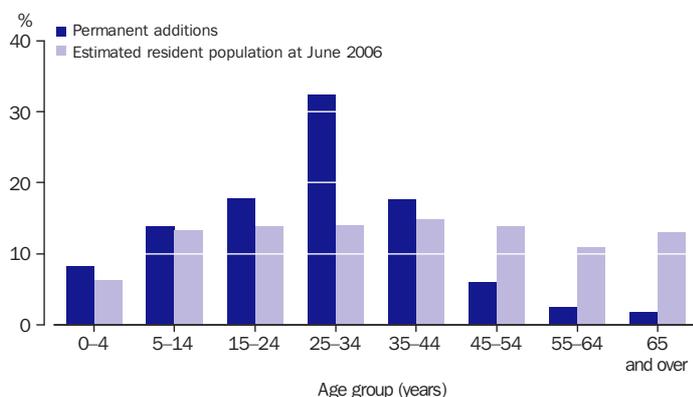
In 2005–06, most (72%) permanent additions were aged less than 35 years, including almost one-third (32%) who were aged between 25 and 34 years. This compares to 48% of the Australian resident population aged less than 35 years, and 14% aged between 25 and 34 years, at June 2006.

The younger age distribution of permanent additions is largely a result of the targeting of the skilled migration stream. Australia's immigration policy makes it compulsory for assessed applicants granted a skill migration visa to be aged under 45 years, with the exception of some Business Skills visas and special cases.

...regions of birth

Over the past decade, there have been distinct shifts in the regions of birth of permanent additions, reflecting changes in immigration policy and particularly the emphasis on skilled migration. While the proportion of migrants arriving from Europe has steadily decreased from 12% in 1996–97 to 5% in 2005–06, persons born in the United Kingdom and Ireland have consistently made up at least 10% of total permanent additions over the same period. However, proportions

Permanent additions and estimated resident population by age — 2005–06



Source: ABS *Australian Demographic Statistics*, (ABS cat. no. 3101.0) and DIAC, *Immigration Update 2005–06*.

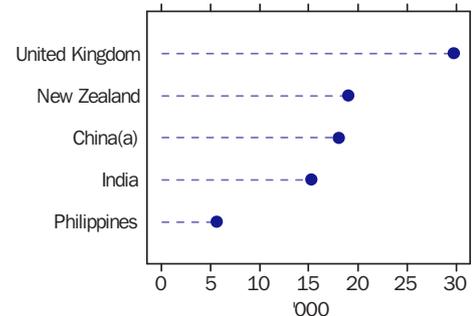
coming from this region have fluctuated from 11% in 2000–01 to 17% in 2005–06. In 2005–06, almost three-quarters (73%) of all migrants from the United Kingdom and Ireland entered through the Skill Stream, with 22% of the remainder comprising Family Stream migrants.

The proportion of people coming from Oceania, mainly New Zealand, has been as high as 24% in 1999–2000 but fell to 13% in 2002–03. Persons born in New Zealand continue to be the second largest source of immigration to Australia, representing 11% of total permanent additions in 2005–06 and accounting for 2.3% of Australia's population at June 2006.³

Some Asian countries have become an increasingly important source of immigration over the past decade. Between 1996–97 and 2005–06, the proportion of migrants from Southern and Central Asian countries has doubled from 7% to 14%. Most of these migrants (70%) were Skill Stream entrants, compared to just over half (51%) of total permanent additions entering through the Skill Stream.

In recent years, there have been sharp increases in the number of permanent additions from certain countries within regions. In 2005–06, China and India were the third and fourth largest sources of all migration to Australia (after New Zealand and the United Kingdom), and the second and third largest sources of Skill Stream migration after the United Kingdom. Between 2000–01

Permanent additions by the five leading countries of birth — 2005–06



(a) Excludes SARs and Taiwan Province.

Source: DIAC, *Immigration Update 2005–06* and DIAC unpublished data (1997–2001).

and 2005–06, the number of skilled migrants coming to Australia from China more than tripled, from 3,800 to 12,500 people. Skilled migrants coming from India also increased, from 4,700 to 12,300, over the same period.

The proportion of migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa has also increased. Of these, more than half (51%) were Skill Stream entrants in 2005–06, the same as the overall proportion of permanent additions from all countries in that year. The majority of permanent additions from Sub-Saharan Africa have been from South Africa and Zimbabwe, making up 60% and 21% respectively in 2005–06.

Between 1996–97 and 2005–06, the country of birth composition of humanitarian migrants changed as a response to changing international circumstances. Over the past few years, people born in Sudan and Iraq have had the highest number of Humanitarian Program migrants. In 2003–04, 38% of all humanitarian migrants (or around 4,500 people) were born in Sudan. In 2005–06, over one-fifth (22%) of humanitarian migrants (3,700 people) were from Sudan with a further 11% coming from Iraq.

...state and territory destinations

Immigrants have consistently nominated New South Wales and Victoria as their intended state of residence. The large population and economic dominance of these states have made them popular choices for migrants. While New South Wales is still the most popular state, it has declined over the past decade. In 2005–06, 64,000 (36%) migrants intended to settle in New South Wales, a decrease of 8 percentage points from 1996–97 (44%).

Permanent additions, selected regions of birth

Region	1996–97	2000–01	2005–06
	%	%	%
Oceania and Antarctica	17.5	23.8	13.3
Europe and former USSR(a)	12.4	8.5	5.1
United Kingdom and Ireland	13.3	10.8	17.4
North Africa and Middle East	7.3	6.0	6.7
Southeast Asia	13.0	13.1	13.6
Northeast Asia	18.1	15.1	15.3
Southern and Central Asia	6.9	9.8	14.1
Americas	4.8	3.8	3.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	5.6	8.0	7.2
Total(b)	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000
Total	104.6	131.2	179.8

(a) Excludes the United Kingdom.

(b) Total includes supplementary country codes and those for which country of birth was not stated.

Source: DIAC, *Immigration Updates 2002–03 to 2005–06*, and DIAC unpublished data (1997–2001).

Intended state and territory destinations of permanent additions

	1996–97	2005–06	
	%	%	'000
New South			
Wales	43.7	35.6	64.0
Victoria	21.7	25.0	45.0
Queensland	15.8	17.1	30.7
South			
Australia	3.8	6.6	11.9
Western			
Australia	11.6	12.4	22.3
Other(a)	2.3	2.6	4.7
Australia(b)	100.0	100.0	179.8

(a) Other includes Tasmania, Northern Territory, Australian Capital Territory and Other Territories.

(b) Total includes those for which state and territory destinations were not known.

Source: DIAC, *Immigration Update 2005–06*.

The proportion of migrants intending to reside in all other states increased. For example, Victoria increased from 22% in 1996–97 to 25% (45,000 people) in 2005–06.

Migrants also tend to be heavily concentrated in the major cities of these states, which are more likely to offer benefits such as better employment opportunities and in some cases communities of people from the same countries. (For more information see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Where do overseas-born people live?, pp. 22–25).

Endnotes

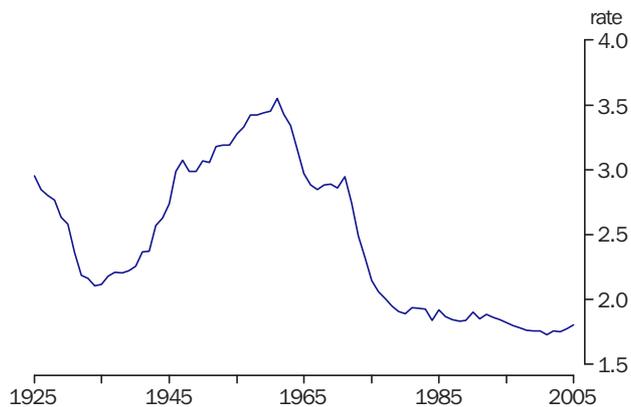
- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006, Table 57*, cat. no. 3105.0.65.001, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2007, *Australian Demographic Statistics, December 2006*, cat. no. 3101.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2007, *Migration, Australia, 2005–06*, cat. no. 3412.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Department of Immigration and Citizenship 2007, *Population Flows: Immigration Aspects January 2007*, viewed 29 May 2007, <<http://www.diac.gov.au/media/publications/statistics/popflows2005-6/index.htm>>.
- 5 Productivity Commission Report 2006, *Economic Impacts of Migration and Population Growth, Part C: Australia's Migration Policy and Flows*, viewed 29 May 2007, <<http://pc.gov.au/study/migrationandpopulation/finalreport/migrationandpopulation.pdf>>.

Family and community

	Page
National and state summary	32
Lifetime marriage and divorce trends	43
Over the past two decades, marriage rates have declined, while divorce rates have increased. Based on the registered marriage and divorce rates of 1985–87 and 2000–02, this article compares the length of time men and women could expect to spend in different marital states. It also examines the probabilities of particular transitions between marital states.	
One-parent families	48
One-parent families increased as a proportion of all families with children under 15 years for most of the twenty years since 1986. Within the last few years, the number of lone parents with children under 15 years has fallen slightly, but they nevertheless account for around one-fifth of all families with children of that age. In 2003–04, government pensions and allowances were the principal source of income for 61% of one-parent families. This article profiles one-parent families, focusing on their labour force participation and economic situation.	
Before and/or after school care	54
Before and/or after school care (B/ASC) is a type of formal child care that enables parents of school children to work a wider time band than might otherwise have been possible. The proportion of children using B/ASC in a typical reference week has doubled from 6% in 1996 to 12% in 2005. This article gives an overview of the characteristics of B/ASC such as the number of hours and days used, the cost and also the need for B/ASC. In a discussion about balancing work and family, this article explores the use of B/ASC by school children according to their parents' full- or part-time employment characteristics.	

Family and community: national summary — key points

Total fertility rate(a)



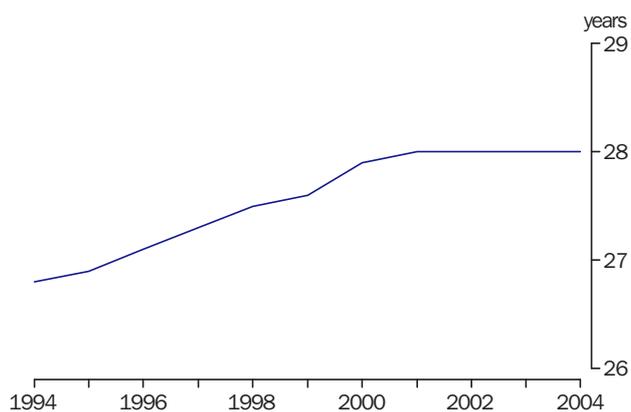
(a) Births per woman.

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

For further information see *Family and community: national summary*, page 35, indicator 38.

- Over the last 80 years, Australia's total fertility rate (TFR) has fluctuated considerably. The highest fertility rate over this period was 3.5 babies per woman in 1961.
- After the peak in the early 1960s, the TFR has been falling. By 1977, the TFR had fallen to 2.0 babies per woman, below the population replacement level of 2.1 babies per woman.
- In the late 1970s, the TFR began to decline at a slower rate, and this continued through the 1980s and 1990s.
- The lowest Australian TFR was recorded in 2001 (1.7 babies per woman).
- In 2005, the national fertility rate was 1.8 babies per woman, the highest level since 1995.

Median age of mothers at first birth



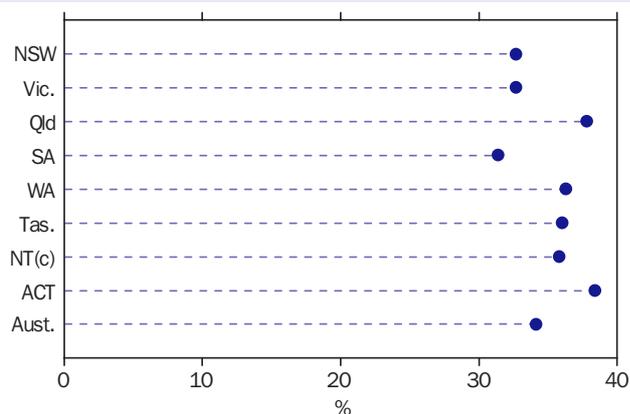
Source: National Perinatal Data Collection, AIHW National Perinatal Statistics Unit.

For further information see *Family and community: national summary*, page 35, indicator 44.

- In 1994, the median age of mothers at first birth was 26.8 years.
- By 2001, the median age of mothers at first birth had risen to 28.0 years.
- The median age of mothers at first birth has remained at 28.0 years since 2001.

Family and community: state summary — key points

Volunteering(a) — 2006(b)



- In Australia in 2006, the volunteer rate for persons over the age of 18 was 34%.
- In 2006, the Australian Capital Territory and Queensland had the highest rate of volunteering (38%) and South Australia had the lowest (31%).

(a) Persons aged 18 years and over who volunteered in the 12 months prior to the survey.

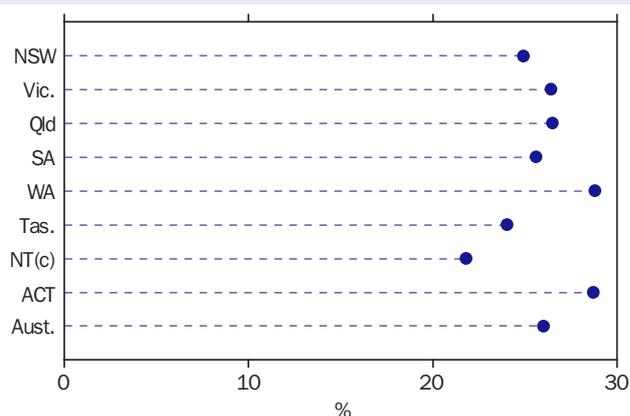
(b) Survey conducted in March–July 2006.

(c) Estimates for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only.

Source: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia 2006* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

For further information see *Family and community: state summary*, page 39, indicator 51.

Participation in organised sport(a) — 2005–06(b)



- Over one in four (26%) Australians over the age of 18 years participated in organised sport during 2005–06.
- For the period 2005–06, Western Australia (29%) and the Australian Capital Territory (29%) had the highest participation rates in organised sport.

(a) Persons aged 18 years and over who participated in organised sport in the 12 months prior to the survey.

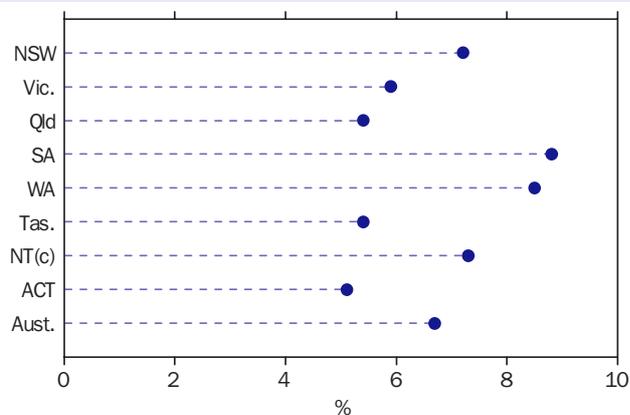
(b) Survey conducted between July 2005 and June 2006.

(c) Estimates for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only.

Source: *Participation in Sports and Physical Recreation, Australia 2005–06* (ABS cat. no. 4177.0).

For further information see *Family and community: state summary*, page 39, indicator 59.

Persons who felt unsafe or very unsafe alone at home after dark(a) — 2006(b)



- In 2006, 7% of Australians reported that they felt unsafe or very unsafe alone at home after dark.
- In 2006, South Australia (9%) and Western Australia (9%) reported the highest percentages of people feeling unsafe or very unsafe alone at home after dark.
- The Australian Capital Territory (5%), Queensland (5%) and Tasmania (5%) reported the lowest percentages of people feeling unsafe or very unsafe alone at home after dark.

(a) Persons aged 18 years and over.

(b) Survey conducted in March–July 2006.

(c) Estimates for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only.

Source: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia 2006* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

For further information see *Family and community: state summary*, page 39, indicator 55.

Family and community: national summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	Total households(a)	'000	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 367	7 506	7 645	7 784	7 921	8 058
2	Lone-person households(a)	%	23.0	23.6	23.7	24.1	24.6	24.5	24.9	25.3	25.7	26.1	26.5
3	Households with three or more persons(a)	%	44.5	43.8	43.2	43.1	42.5	42.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
4	Total families	'000	4 834	4 899	5 027	5 056	5 116	5 240	5 353	5 438	5 525	5 592	5 665
5	Families with children aged under 15 years	'000	2 092	2 130	2 160	2 166	2 172	2 179	2 210	2 189	2 221	2 229	2 261
6	Couple families(b)	'000	4 080	4 090	4 158	4 197	4 265	4 346	4 421	4 523	4 548	4 655	4 732
7	De facto couple families – of all couple families	%	10.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
8	Couple-only families – of all couple families(b)	%	41.4	41.2	41.9	42.2	42.9	44.2	44.9	45.9	46.2	46.0	46.7
9	Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 years – of all couple only families(b)	%	26.4	25.6	26.0	26.0	25.9	25.7	26.7	27.4	26.4	27.4	26.9
10	Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15(b)	%	81.6	80.0	78.4	78.8	79.1	78.3	77.0	78.2	76.9	78.6	79.3
11	Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.8	2.7	2.7
12	Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	16.3	17.7	19.5	19.3	18.6	19.4	20.3	19.3	20.3	18.7	18.0
13	Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	47.7	47.8	46.2	45.0	46.1	45.0	43.9	44.8	45.0	45.0	44.4
14	Average family size – persons	no.	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
15	Children aged under 15 living in one-parent families – of all children aged under 15	%	16.3	18.0	19.5	19.0	18.2	19.6	20.5	19.8	20.7	18.9	19.0
16	Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	45.0	46.7	48.4	47.1	45.2	45.5	45.5	45.0	46.8	47.0	45.9
17	Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	10.7	11.7	12.5	11.9	12.2	12.4	12.5	11.6	12.5	11.9	11.8
18	Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	7.3	7.6	7.7	7.9	8.1	8.4	8.4	8.6	8.7	8.5	8.8
19	Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	26.2	26.5	25.5	26.2	27.3	25.8	26.8	26.9	25.3	26.2	25.9
20	Children aged 0–17 with a natural parent living elsewhere – of all children aged 0–17(c)	%	n.a.	21.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	22.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

FAMILIES AND WORK		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Couple families with children aged under 15 years(b)													
21	Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	54.5	54.4	55.6	54.9	56.3	56.7	57.1	57.6	57.3	60.2	59.9
22	Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	7.9	8.6	8.5	7.9	7.5	7.5	7.2	6.3	6.4	5.3	5.4
23	One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	42.8	42.9	42.1	44.0	47.3	46.4	46.2	46.4	48.0	49.0	52.3
24	Children aged under 15 living in families where no resident parent is employed – of all children aged under 15(d)	%	16.2	18.6	17.7	n.a.	17.9	17.4	n.a.	16.2	15.7	n.a.	n.y.a.

Family and community: national summary cont.

FAMILY FORMATION		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Registered marriages													
25	Number of marriages	'000	106.1	106.7	110.6	114.3	113.4	103.1	105.4	106.4	111.0	109.3	n.y.a.
26	Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.4	n.y.a.
27	Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	66.4	66.6	66.7	66.9	66.6	66.9	66.3	66.4	67.2	68.0	n.y.a.
28	Median age of males at first marriage	years	27.6	27.8	27.9	28.2	28.5	28.7	29.0	29.2	29.4	30.0	n.y.a.
29	Median age of females at first marriage	years	25.7	25.9	26.2	26.4	26.7	26.9	27.1	27.3	27.5	28.0	n.y.a.
30	Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	41.6	41.8	42.0	42.2	42.7	43.1	43.6	43.6	44.3	44.9	n.y.a.
31	Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	38.0	38.2	38.4	38.6	39.1	39.5	39.8	40.2	40.7	41.6	n.y.a.
Divorce													
32	Number of divorces	'000	52.5	51.3	51.4	52.6	49.9	55.3	54.0	53.1	52.7	52.4	n.y.a.
33	Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	n.y.a.
34	Median duration of marriage until final separation	years	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.3	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.8	n.y.a.
35	Divorces involving children aged under 18 years – of all divorces	%	53.6	54.0	53.4	53.9	52.7	51.2	49.7	50.1	49.8	49.8	n.y.a.
36	Children aged under 18 involved in divorce	'000	52.5	51.7	51.6	53.4	49.6	53.4	50.5	49.9	49.3	49.4	n.y.a.
Fertility(e)													
37	Births	'000	253.8	251.8	249.6	248.9	249.6	246.4	251.0	251.2	254.2	259.8	n.y.a.
38	Total fertility rate (babies per woman)	rate	1.80	1.78	1.76	1.75	1.76	1.73	1.76	1.75	1.77	1.81	n.y.a.
39	Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.1	n.y.a.
40	Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	14.6	15.3	16.1	16.8	17.4	17.8	18.4	19.1	19.9	20.6	n.y.a.
41	Births outside marriage – of all births	%	27.4	28.1	28.7	29.2	29.2	30.7	31.3	31.6	32.2	32.2	n.y.a.
42	Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	84.2	85.5	87.1	88.2	88.2	87.9	88.0	88.2	89.2	90.0	n.y.a.
43	Females aged 35 and over giving birth for the first time – of all females aged 35 and over giving birth	%	21.2	22.4	23.3	23.7	24.7	25.2	25.6	26.2	27.0	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
44	Median age of mothers at first birth	years	27.1	27.3	27.5	27.6	27.9	28.0	28.0	28.0	28.0	n.y.a.	n.y.a.

(a) Data for 1996–2000 are household estimates based on the 1996 Census. Data for 2001 are household estimates based on the 2001 census. Data for 2002 onwards are household projections (Series II).

(b) From 2001 data includes both opposite-sex and same-sex couple families.

(c) Excludes children with no natural parent living in the household.

(d) Data for this indicator are derived from the ABS Survey of Income and Housing; results are benchmarked by age for children aged 0–4 years and 5–14 years. These data are not necessarily consistent with data for indicator 15, which are derived from the ABS Labour Force Survey and are not benchmarked for people aged less than 15 years.

(e) Based on year of registration.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–3 are at June 30.
Data for indicators 4–6 and 8–19, 21–23 are at June.
Data for indicator 7 are at census date.
Data for indicator 20 are at April 1997 & June 2003.
Data for indicator 24 are for financial year ending 30 June.
Data for indicators 25–44 are for the calendar year.

Family and community: national summary cont.

CHILD CARE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
45	Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(f)(g)	%	21.1	n.a.	n.a.	22.0	n.a.	n.a.	25.0	n.a.	n.a.	28.2	n.a.
46	Children aged under 3 using informal care – of all children aged under 3(g)	%	39.3	n.a.	n.a.	43.0	n.a.	n.a.	36.9	n.a.	n.a.	38.4	n.a.
47	Children aged 3–4 using formal care – of all children aged 3–4(f)(g)	%	27.4	n.a.	n.a.	34.8	n.a.	n.a.	41.4	n.a.	n.a.	45.5	n.a.
48	Children aged 3–4 using informal care – of all children aged 3–4(g)	%	41.2	n.a.	n.a.	43.2	n.a.	n.a.	36.4	n.a.	n.a.	38.3	n.a.
49	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged under 3 – formal and informal combined(f)	hours	12	n.a.	n.a.	11	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.
50	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged 3–4 – formal and informal combined(f)	hours	13	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	16	n.a.	n.a.	16	n.a.
COMMUNITY		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
52	Carers for person with a disability – of all persons(h)	%	n.a.	n.a.	12.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
53	Primary carers for person with severe/profound disability – of all persons(h)	%	n.a.	n.a.	2.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
54	Persons aged 18 and over – contact with family or friends living outside the household in last week	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	95.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	96.3
55	Persons aged 18 and over – persons who feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.7
56	Persons aged 18 and over – could ask for small favours from persons living outside the household	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	93.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	92.9
57	Persons aged 18 and over – persons able to ask for support in time of crisis from persons living outside the household	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	94.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	93.3
58	Persons aged 18 and over – attendance rate at any sporting event in previous 12 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	46.3	n.a.	n.a.	48.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	43.8
59	Persons aged 18 and over – participation rate in organised sport in previous 12 months(i)	%	n.a.	26.5	28.3	30.3	28.9	n.a.	31.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26.0
60	Persons aged 18 and over – attendance rate at live performances in previous 12 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	49.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	49.4

(f) Excludes preschool.

(g) Includes children who used a combination of formal and informal care.

(h) Excludes persons living in institutions.

(i) Data for the years from 1997–2000 were collected in four quarters of the financial year ending in year shown, from March to July in 2002 and monthly for the year 2005–06. Differences in survey methods and question design influences such as question sequencing and question wording may account for some part of the differences observed in these time series data. For details of differences between 2006 and previous years see *Participation in Sports and Physical Recreation, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4177.0).

Reference periods: Data for indicators 45–50 are at March 1996, and June for 1999, 2002 and 2005.

Data for indicators 52–53 are at April–June 1998 and August–November 2003.

Data for indicators 54–57 are at March–July 2002 and 2006.

Data for indicators 58 and 60 are at April 1999, March–July 2002, and July 2005 to June 2006.

Data for indicator 59 are collected through the financial year ending June 1997–2000, at March–July 2002, and monthly for the year 2005–06.

Family and community: state summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
1	Total households(a)	'000	2006	2 643	1 976	1 583	649	806	203	67	130	8 058
2	Lone-person households(a)	%	2006	25.5	26.2	26.0	30.6	27.2	30.7	23.5	26.6	26.5
3	Households with three or more persons	%	2001	43.9	43.5	41.6	37.5	42.1	37.6	49.9	43.9	42.5
4	Total families	'000	2006	1 876	1 406	1 115	441	557	141	40	89	5 665
5	Families with children aged under 15 years	'000	2006	755	558	443	171	224	55	19	36	2 261
6	Couple families(b)	'000	2006	1 565	1 183	929	363	470	116	33	73	4 732
7	De facto couple families – of all couple families	%	2001	11.5	11.1	14.0	12.4	14.3	14.3	23.2	14.3	12.4
8	Couple-only families – of all couple families(b)	%	2006	45.8	44.8	49.1	50.7	46.7	50.6	45.1	43.4	46.7
9	Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 years – of all couple only families(b)	%	2006	27.6	28.4	26.1	21.5	28.0	19.1	32.7	32.1	26.9
10	Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15(b)	%	2006	79.3	81.6	77.9	74.6	80.6	76.8	79.6	79.0	79.3
11	Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2006	2.3	2.5	3.3	3.2	2.5	3.7	5.3	2.2	2.7
12	Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2006	18.3	15.9	18.8	22.2	16.9	19.5	15.1	18.7	18.0
13	Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2006	44.8	44.7	44.2	42.1	46.0	41.3	50.2	39.5	44.4
14	Average family size – persons	no.	2006	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0
15	Children aged under 15 living in one-parent families – of all children aged under 15	%	2006	19.4	17.4	19.5	23.1	17.6	21.2	17.4	18.8	19.0
16	Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	2006	49.2	49.3	40.7	40.0	43.0	45.8	36.2	40.9	45.9
17	Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	2006	13.3	13.1	8.9	11.3	9.9	10.2	3.4	12.5	11.8
18	Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	2006	8.8	8.6	7.9	10.8	9.6	9.8	6.8	8.3	8.8
19	Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	2006	25.6	25.5	24.0	30.8	27.1	28.0	21.6	23.0	25.9
20	Children aged 0–17 with a natural parent living elsewhere – of all children 0–17(c)	%	2003	21.8	20.0	24.6	26.7	21.2	28.7	21.3	26.8	22.5

FAMILIES AND WORK		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Couple families with children aged under 15 years(b)												
21	Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2006	60.7	58.7	59.1	60.5	57.2	63.5	69.7	74.5	59.9
22	Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2006	6.4	4.9	5.7	5.2	3.4	5.6	*2.6	*1.7	5.4
23	One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	2006	46.6	51.3	59.6	50.7	57.9	40.7	69.6	76.8	52.3
24	Children aged under 15 living in families where no resident parent is employed – of all children aged under 15(d)	%	2003–04	15.7	13.1	17.3	17.1	16.5	24.4	*15.4	*8.0	15.7

(a) Household projections (Series II).

(b) Includes both opposite-sex and same-sex couple families.

(c) Excludes children with no natural parent living in the household.

(d) Data for this indicator are derived from the ABS Survey of Income and Housing; results are benchmarked by age for children aged 0–4 years and 5–14 years. These data are not necessarily consistent with data for indicator 15, which are derived from the ABS Labour Force Survey and are not benchmarked for people aged less than 15 years.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–3 are at June 30.
Data for indicators 4–6, 8–19 and 21–23 are at June.
Data for indicator 7 are at census date.
Data for indicator 20 are at June 2003.
Data for indicator 24 are for financial year ending 30 June.

Family and community: state summary continued

FAMILY FORMATION		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Registered marriages												
25	Number of marriages	'000	2005	35.9	25.3	24.3	7.6	11.1	2.6	0.8	1.7	109.3
26	Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2005	5.3	5.0	6.1	4.9	5.5	5.4	3.8	5.1	5.4
27	Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	2005	69.6	70.7	65.1	66.0	65.8	61.6	62.4	68.8	68.0
28	Median age of males at first marriage	years	2005	29.7	30.3	29.8	30.0	30.3	30.2	30.9	30.0	30.0
29	Median age of females at first marriage	years	2005	27.8	28.5	27.8	27.8	28.3	28.0	28.8	27.9	28.0
30	Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	2005	44.3	44.7	45.0	46.1	45.7	46.6	47.1	45.7	44.9
31	Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	2005	40.9	41.3	41.8	43.0	42.4	43.0	43.2	42.3	41.6
Divorce												
32	Number of divorces	'000	2005	15.2	12.5	12.4	3.7	5.3	1.3	0.5	1.6	52.4
33	Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)(e)	rate	2005	2.2	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.3	n.p.	2.6
34	Median duration of marriage until final separation	years	2005	7.9	9.0	9.0	9.7	9.5	10.5	8.5	9.5	8.8
35	Divorces involving children aged under 18 – of all divorces	%	2005	46.9	49.4	52.2	51.6	50.9	49.9	53.2	52.2	49.8
36	Children aged under 18 involved in divorce	'000	2005	13.1	11.8	12.5	3.6	5.1	1.3	0.5	1.5	49.4
Fertility(f)												
37	Births	'000	2005	86.6	63.3	51.7	17.8	26.3	6.3	3.7	4.2	259.8
38	Total fertility rate (babies per woman)	rate	2005	1.81	1.72	1.85	1.79	1.86	2.10	2.29	1.64	1.81
39	Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	2005	3.4	2.6	5.4	5.3	5.5	6.6	12.2	2.3	4.1
40	Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	2005	21.2	23.7	18.0	18.5	19.7	15.6	15.0	25.8	20.6
41	Births outside marriage – of all births	%	2005	27.9	27.1	38.2	36.6	36.8	48.5	63.3	27.8	32.2
42	Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	2005	89.7	93.4	90.8	90.8	90.0	83.5	67.0	91.2	90.0

Family and community: state summary continued

CHILD CARE		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(g)	ACT	Aust.
45	Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(h)(i)	%	2005	25.9	23.4	36.9	25.3	28.9	32.3	*40.8	40.1	28.2
46	Children aged under 3 using informal care – of all children aged under 3(i)	%	2005	41.9	37.3	32.5	43.5	37.3	38.3	*28.6	46.0	38.4
47	Children aged 3–4 using formal care – of all children aged 3–4(h)(i)	%	2005	46.0	42.6	53.7	38.8	36.0	49.1	*42.6	58.6	45.5
48	Children aged 3–4 using informal care – of all children aged 3–4(i)	%	2005	38.2	43.4	30.7	50.6	35.0	35.1	*29.4	35.3	38.3
49	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged under 3 – formal and informal combined(h)	hours	2005	16	12	16	12	10	14	25	17	14
50	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged 3–4 – formal and informal combined(h)	hours	2005	18	12	18	11	15	12	30	20	16
COMMUNITY		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(g)	ACT	Aust.
51	Persons aged 18 and over – volunteer rate in the previous 12 months(j)	%	2006	32.7	32.7	37.8	31.4	36.3	36.0	35.8	38.4	34.1
52	Carers for person with a disability – of all persons(k)	%	2003	11.4	14.1	14.3	14.8	12.7	14.8	n.a.	10.8	13.0
53	Primary carers for person with severe/profound disability – of all persons(k)	%	2003	2.3	2.4	3.0	2.5	2.0	3.1	n.a.	1.2	2.4
54	Persons aged 18 and over – contact with family or friends living outside the household in last week	%	2006	96.2	96.5	95.1	97.7	97.2	96.4	94.8	97.1	96.3
55	Persons aged 18 and over – persons who feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark	%	2006	7.2	5.9	5.4	8.8	8.5	5.4	7.3	5.1	6.7
56	Persons aged 18 and over – could ask for small favours from persons living outside the household	%	2006	92.8	91.7	93.6	95.1	92.6	93.4	91.1	95.8	92.9
57	Persons aged 18 and over – persons able to ask for support in time of crisis from persons living outside the household	%	2006	92.8	93.8	93.1	92.5	94.4	94.4	92.0	95.4	93.3
58	Persons aged 18 and over – attendance rate at any sport in previous 12 months	%	2005–06	41.6	44.7	43.3	47.5	45.4	46.4	49.7	46.9	43.8
59	Persons aged 18 and over – participation rate in organised sport in previous 12 months	%	2005–06	24.9	26.4	26.5	25.6	28.8	24.0	21.8	28.7	26.0
60	Persons aged 18 and over – attendance rate at live performances in previous 12 months	%	2005–06	48.5	49.5	48.1	51.1	52.5	46.7	48.1	61.7	49.4

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

(f) Based on year of registration.

(g) Estimates for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only.

(h) Excludes preschool.

(i) Includes children who used a combination of formal and informal care.

(j) Comparison with the volunteer rate for 2002 (as presented on page 35 of the 2006 edition of *Australian Social Trends*) should be undertaken with caution due to differences in applying the concept used to measure volunteering between the 2002 and 2006 General Social Surveys, from which the estimates were taken. For further information see *Voluntary Work Australia, 2006* (cat. no. 4441.0). Note: The 2006 General Social Survey was designed to provide a detailed account of volunteers and their volunteering activities. As such its results will be different (and more accurate) than those available from other sources including the 2006 Census of Population and Housing. The census data will be more useful, however, for looking at differences in volunteering at the small area level.

(k) Excludes persons living in institutions.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 25–42 are for the calendar year.
 Data for indicators 45–50 are at June 2005.
 Data for indicators 51 and 54–57 are at March–July 2006.
 Data for indicators 52–53 are at August–November 2003.
 Data for indicators 58–60 are at July 2005 to June 2006.

Family and community: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1–3	<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0); <i>Household and Family Projections, Australia, 2001 to 2026</i> (ABS cat. no. 3236.0).
4–6, 8–19, 21–23	ABS Labour Force Survey.
7	ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.
20	<i>Family Characteristics, Australia, June 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).
24	ABS Survey of Income and Housing.
25–26	<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0); <i>Marriages, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).
27–31	<i>Marriages, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).
32–33	<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0); <i>Divorces, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).
34–36	<i>Divorces, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).
37–38	<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0); ABS Births Collection.
39–42	ABS Births Collection.
43–44	National Perinatal Data Collection, AIHW National Perinatal Statistics Unit.
45–50	ABS Child Care Survey.
51	<i>General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia 2006</i> (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).
52–53	<i>Disability, Ageing and Carers Australia: Summary of Findings 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).
54–57	<i>General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia 2006</i> (ABS cat. no. 4159.0); <i>General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia 2002</i> (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).
58	<i>Sports Attendance, Australia 2005–06</i> (ABS cat. no. 4174.0).
59	<i>Participation in Sports and Physical Recreation, Australia 2005–06</i> (ABS cat. no. 4177.0).
60	<i>Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues and Events, Australia, 2005–06</i> (ABS cat. no. 4114.0).

Family and community: definitions

Average family size

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

Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Births

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

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

Births outside marriage

is the birth of a child whose parents are not legally married to each other at the time of the child's birth. Also known as ex-nuptial births.

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

Births outside marriage acknowledged by the father

births outside registered marriage where the father's name is recorded on the birth certificate. Also known as paternity-acknowledged births.

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

Carer

a carer is a person of any age who provides any informal assistance, in terms of help or supervision, to persons with disabilities or long-term conditions, or older persons (i.e. aged 60 years and over). This assistance has to be ongoing, or likely to be ongoing, for at least six months.

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

Child aged under 15 years

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

Reference: *Family Characteristics, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).

Couple family

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

Reference: *Family Characteristics, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).

Couple-only family

a couple family with no children (of any age) present.

Crude divorce rate

the number of decrees absolute granted during the calendar year per 1,000 estimated resident population at 30 June. It should be noted that for divorce rates relating to state and territory data, the numerator and denominator are based upon different types of data, reducing the accuracy. While state or territory of usual residence is used as the denominator, the numerator is based upon state or territory of registration. Therefore, divorce applicants may contribute to the divorce rates of states and territories where they are not usual residents.

Reference: *Divorces, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).

Family and community: definitions continued

Crude marriage rate

is the number of marriages registered during the calendar year per 1,000 estimated resident population at 30 June. In the interpretation of this rate, it must be kept in mind that a large and varying proportion of the population used in the denominator is below the minimum age of marriage or is already married.

Reference: *Marriages, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3306.0.55.001).

De facto couple

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

Reference: ABS Census of Population and Housing.

Divorce

decree absolute of dissolution of a registered marriage.

Reference: *Divorces, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).

Divorces involving children

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

Reference: *Divorces, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).

Duration of marriage until separation

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

Reference: *Divorces, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3307.0.55.001).

Employed person

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

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

Estimated resident population (ERP)

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

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

Family

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

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

Feels unsafe at home

feels very unsafe or unsafe at home alone after dark.

Reference: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

Formal child care

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

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

Has contact with family or friends

has contact with family and friends at least once a week, either face-to-face or by other means of communication.

Reference: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

Has source of support in time of crisis

the expectation that support would be available in time of crisis from friends, family or organisations. Types of support may include advice on what to do, emotional support, help during an illness or with maintaining family or work responsibilities, or support with money, accommodation or food.

Reference: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

Household

one or more persons usually resident in the same dwelling. Households include family households, group households of unrelated persons, same-sex couple households, single-parent households as well as one-person households. A household usually resides in a 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. This definition of a household is consistent with the definition used in the census.

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

Informal assistance

informal assistance is unpaid help or supervision that is provided to persons with one or more disabilities or persons aged 60 years and over living in households. It includes only assistance that is provided for one or more of the tasks associated with the activities of communication, mobility, self care, health care, paperwork, transport, housework, meal preparation, light property maintenance and cognition or emotion because of a person's disability or age. Informal assistance may be provided by family, friends or neighbours. For the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, any assistance received from family or friends living in the same household was considered to be informal assistance regardless of whether or not the provider was paid.

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

Informal child care

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

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

Is able to ask for small favours

examples of small favours are looking after pets, watering your garden, collecting mail or checking your house while you are away from home, minding a child for a brief period, help with moving or lifting objects, help out when you are sick or injured, or lending equipment.

Reference: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

Live performance

these performances comprise the following events: popular music concerts; classical music concerts; dance performances, theatre performances; operas, musicals and other performing arts.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues and Events* (ABS cat. no. 4114.0).

Lone parent

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

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

Family and community: definitions continued

Lone person

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

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

Marriage

refers to registered marriages only.

Reference: *Marriages, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3306.0.55.001).

Median

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

Median age

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

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

Median age of mothers at first birth

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

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's mothers and babies* (AIHW cat. no. PER 34).

Median hours of care

the number of hours of formal and/or informal child care at which half the children who received child care fall below the value and half above.

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

Median value

for any distribution, the median value (for example, age, duration) is that value which divides the relevant population into two equal parts, half falling below the value and half exceeding it. Where the value for a particular record has not been stated, that record is excluded from the calculation.

Natural parent

a parent who is related to his or her child(ren) by either birth or adoption.

Reference: *Family Characteristics, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).

Natural parent living elsewhere

one of a child's natural parents who is not usually resident in the same household as the child.

Reference: *Family Characteristics, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).

Non-resident parent

persons aged 15 years and over who have one or more natural children aged 0–17 years living elsewhere.

Reference: *Family Characteristics, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4442.0).

One-parent family

a family consisting of a lone parent with at least one dependent or non-dependent child (regardless of age) who is also usually resident in the household.

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

Organised sport and physical recreation

those sport and physical activities which are organised by a club or association. The club or organisation does not need to be a sporting body; it may be a social club, church group, old scholars association or gymnasium. Persons may participate in more than one organised activity and also participate in non-organised activities.

Reference: *Participation in Sports and Physical Recreation, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4177.0).

Other territories

includes Jervis Bay Territory, Christmas Island and the Cocos (Keeling) Islands.

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

Primary carer

a primary carer is a person who provides the most informal assistance, in terms of help or supervision, to a person with one or more disabilities. The assistance has to be ongoing, or likely to be ongoing, for at least six months and be provided for one or more of the core activities (communication, mobility and self care). In the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 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 personally if parental permission were granted.

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

Provides support for other relatives living outside the household

any of the following types of support provided to relatives such as elderly parents, children aged 25 years and over, grandchildren who live outside the household:

- ♦ 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.

Reference: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

Registered marriage

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

Reference: *Marriages, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3306.0.55.001).

Total fertility rate

the sum of age-specific fertility rates (live births at each age of mother per female population of that age). It represents the number of children a female would bear during her lifetime if she experienced current age-specific fertility rates throughout her reproductive life.

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

Volunteer

a volunteer is someone who willingly gave unpaid help in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group, in the previous 12 months.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4441.0).

Volunteer rate

for any group, the volunteer rate is the number of volunteers in that group expressed as a proportion of the total population in that same group.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4441.0).

Lifetime marriage and divorce trends

Contributed by Dr Shail Jain, Australian National University.

Between 1985–1987 and 2000–2002, the likelihood of a marriage ending in divorce increased from 28% to 33%.

Decreases in marriage rates and increases in divorce rates over the past twenty years have resulted in changing family structures within Australia. Increases in the proportions of babies being born outside registered marriages and increases in cohabitation provide evidence that registered marriage as the traditional social institution for family formation is declining.¹ Family formation has important implications for individuals and society in areas such as health and wellbeing, financial security, outcomes for children, and population growth through changing trends in fertility.²

This article examines the trends in registered marriages and divorces, and proportions of the population in different marital states in 1986 and 2001. It also provides a comparison of the length of time men and women could expect to spend in different marital states throughout their lifetime and the probabilities of particular transitions between marital states.

Trends in marriage and divorce

In 2005, 109,000 new marriages were registered in Australia. This was equivalent to 5.4 marriages for every 1,000 people in the population. This rate has been in overall decline since 1986 when there were 7.2 marriages per 1,000 people.

Over the same period, the crude divorce rate has remained relatively unchanged with 2.6 divorces for every 1,000 people in 2005 and 2.5 divorces per 1,000 people in 1986. The greatest annual number of divorces occurred in 2001 when there were

Data sources and definitions

Marriage statistics presented in this article are compiled by the ABS from information provided by the Registrar of Births, Deaths and Marriages in each state and territory.

In this article, *marital status* refers to registered marital status only. Marital states are: Never married, Married, Divorced and Widowed. People separated from their registered marital partner are classified to the married state. People's de facto marital status does not affect their classification to a registered marital state. As same-sex unions may not be registered under the *Marriages Act 1961*, these relationships are excluded.

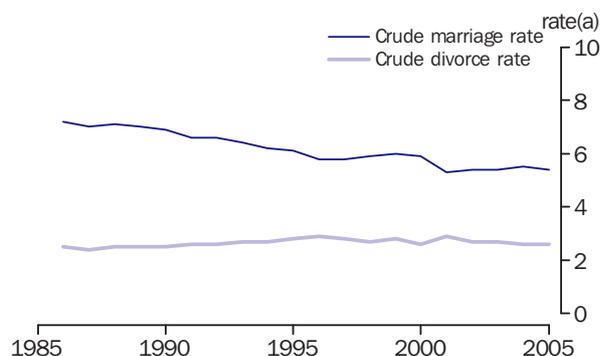
Divorce statistics presented are compiled from information supplied by the Family Court of Australia (FCA). The FCA provide combined data from Federal Magistrates Court registries and FCA registries.

The ABS does not collect annual data on the number of people forming de facto relationships or becoming separated. However, data from the 2006 Census indicates there were 1.2 million people aged 15 years or over living in de facto relationships, including 49,400 people in same-sex couples. De facto relationships accounted for 15% of the population who were living in partnered relationships in 2006 (i.e. either in a registered or de facto marriage).

55,300 divorces recorded. This peak has been followed by recent declines, with 52,400 divorces in 2005.

As well as marrying less, Australians are tending to marry later than in the past. In 1986, the median age at first marriage for men was 25.6 years, increasing to 30.0 years in 2005.

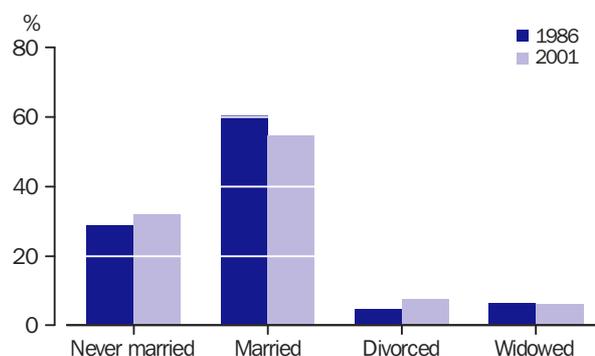
Marriage and divorce rates — 1986 to 2005



(a) Rate per 1,000 estimated resident population.

Source: ABS Marriages and Divorces collections.

Estimated resident population(a), marital status



(a) Population aged 15 years and over.

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

For women, the median age at first marriage increased from 23.5 years in 1986 to 28.0 years in 2005.

People are also divorcing at older ages. In 2005, the median age of divorcing men was 43.5 years, compared with 37.5 years in 1986, while for women the median age in 2005 was 40.8 compared with 34.7 years in 1986.

Marital status of the population

The decline in the marriage rate and the steady rate of divorce has led to a decrease in the proportion of the population that is formally married. In 1986, 60% of the population aged 15 years and over were married; by 2001 this proportion had decreased to 55%. Conversely, the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who were never married increased from 29% in 1986 to 32% in 2001. At the same time, the proportion of the population who were divorced increased, from 5% in 1986 to 7% in 2001, while the proportion of the population who were widowed remained at around 6%.

In 2001 the number of never married males exceeded that of never married females with 121 never married males per 100 never married females. In contrast, females were more numerous than males among both the divorced and widowed populations with 78 divorced males per 100 divorced females and 24 widowed males per 100 widowed females in 2001.

Expected years of life in different marital states

Between 1985–1987 and 2000–2002, life expectancy at birth improved by nearly five years for males (to 77.5 years) and three and a half years for females (to 82.7 years).

Based on the nuptiality tables for each period, the length of time people could expect to spend on average in their lifetime in the never married state has increased – from

Lifetime marital status transitions and nuptiality tables

Throughout a lifetime, a person can experience different marital states. While some people marry, others remain unmarried (i.e. stay in the never married state throughout their lives). Some people who marry stay married until they die, while others become divorced or widowed and some remarry.

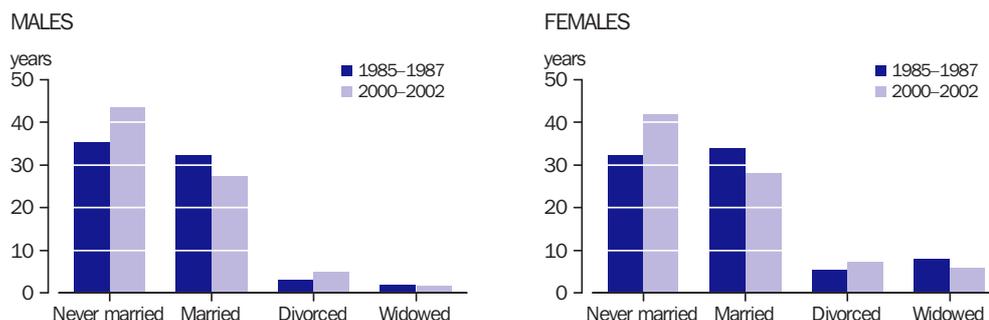
Analysis of the probabilities of, and expected years of life in, the various registered marital states in this article is based on nuptiality tables constructed using the methodology described by Krishnamoorthy.³ The nuptiality table is a type of statistical model produced from administrative data on marriage, divorce and death registrations and is restricted to transitions to and from formal (registered) marriages. It is based on the principles of the life table (used in life expectancy analysis) and assumes that the prevailing age-patterns of mortality, marriage, divorce, widowhood, and remarriage remain constant throughout a person's lifetime.

The nuptiality tables used in this analysis are based on the demographic events of two periods: 1985–87 and 2000–02. Because the nuptiality tables are based on the assumption that prevailing rates in each period will continue, caution should be used in interpreting the results due to distortions that may arise from tempo (timing) effects. For example, when marriages are delayed, the nuptiality table's lifetime measure may overstate the proportion who will never marry.

35 to 43 years for males, and from 32 to 42 years for females. The increase in the expected years of life spent in the never married state is a reflection of the decline in the proportion of people marrying, the increase in the median age at first marriage and longer life expectancy.

The years of life that people could expect to spend married has reduced from an average of 32 years for a boy born in 1985–87 to 27 years for a boy born in 2000–02. For girls the decline was from 34 to 28 years over the same period.

Expected years of life spent in different marital states



Source: ABS data available on request.

While the number of years that males could expect to spend in a widowed state remained around 2 years for those born in 1985–1987 and in 2000–2002, the number of years females could be expected to be widowed declined over the period from 8 to 6 years. In contrast, years of life that could be expected to be spent in the divorced state has increased – from an average of 3 to 5 years for males and 5 to 7 years for females between 1985–1987 and 2000–2002.

Probability of first marriage

The probability of people ever marrying has declined as the rates of marriage have declined. Based on the nuptiality tables, 79% of boys born in 1985–1987 would get married; by 2000–2002, this proportion had fallen to 69%. For girls, the decline was from 86% to 74%. In other words, if 2000–2002 nuptiality rates were to prevail into the future, 31% of males and 26% of females would never marry in their lifetimes.

The decline in the proportion of married people would most likely have been less pronounced had there been no emergence of couples living in de facto marriages. De facto marriages have risen steadily in the Australian population over the past 15 years. According to the 1991 Census 4.3% of the total population aged 15 years and over were in a de facto marriage. The proportion increased to 5.3% in 1996, 6.4% in 2001, and in 2006, 7.7% of the population aged 15 years and over were in a de facto marriage.

Expected probabilities of marriages ending in divorce and widowhood

	Period marriage began in	
	1985–1987	2000–2002
	%	%
Males		
Divorce	27.9	33.4
Death of spouse	21.0	19.7
Own death	51.0	47.0
Total	100.0	100.0
Females		
Divorce	27.7	33.2
Death of spouse	47.8	44.5
Own death	24.5	22.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: ABS data available on request.

...duration of marriage

For those people who got married in 1985–1987 and 2000–2002, the expected average duration of their total married life remained unchanged at around 32 years.

The expected duration of first marriages that end in divorce has increased between 1985–1987 and 2000–2002. Men who first married in 1985–1987 and who would later divorce, could expect their marriage to last an average of 11 years, increasing to 14 years for those men marrying in 2000–2002. The average duration of women's first marriages ending in divorce increased from 14 to 16 years over the same period.

For marriages ending in widowhood, men and women who got married in 1985–1987 could each expect an average of 43 years in marriage. With improved life expectancy, men and women married in 2000–2002 whose marriage ended with the death of the other partner could expect an average of 46 and 45 years in marriage respectively.

Divorce

The probability that a marriage will end in divorce has been increasing over time. Based on the nuptiality tables, around 28% of marriages entered into in 1985–1987 could be expected to end in divorce. This proportion increased to 33% for all marriages entered into in 2000–2002.

For divorced men, the average time that could be expected to be spent divorced increased from 11 years for those divorcing in 1985–1987 to 17 years for those divorcing in 2000–2002, while for women divorcing in each period, the average time spent divorced increased from 18 years to 24 years. Several factors are expected to have contributed to this increase including increasing life expectancy, not entering into a formal remarriage and/or the tendency to live alone following divorce.

Widowhood

Widowhood currently occurs at an older age than in the past. According to the nuptiality tables, the median age of men entering widowhood was 78 years in 2000–2002, compared with 74 in 1985–1987. For women in 2000–2002, the median age of widowhood was 75 years, six years older than in 1985–1987 (69 years).

For couples marrying in 1985–1987, the probability of a marriage ending due to the death of the husband was 48%; by 2000–2002 this had decreased to 45%. Over the same

period the probability of a marriage ending due to the death of the wife also decreased, although to a lesser extent – from 21% to 20%.

The higher probability that a marriage would end due to the death of the husband relative to the death of the wife can partly be attributed to the age difference between husband and wife at marriage,⁴ and the longer life expectancy of women.⁵

There is an increasing tendency among widowed persons not to remarry after the end of marriage. This could be related to the relatively older age of widowhood, preference to enter into a de facto marriage living arrangement or simply deciding to live alone. The average duration that men could expect to spend in widowhood was 9 years for men becoming widowed in both 1985–1987 and 2000–2002. Over the same period there was a slight decrease in the expected years of life spent in widowhood for women, from 16 years to 15 years. The increasing age at widowhood may have contributed to this decrease.

Remarriage

Overall, people whose marriage ended due to divorce or the death of their spouse did not remarry at the same rate as they did in the past. In 2000–2002, men who got married could expect an average of 1.25 marriages in their lifetime, compared with 1.29 in 1985–1987. Women who married in 2000–2002 could on average expect to marry 1.20 times, down from 1.24 in 1985–1987.

Divorced people tended to have a far greater likelihood of remarriage than those who are widowed. Over half (56%) of men who divorced in 2000–2002 could expect to remarry, compared with 8% remarriage among men who were widowed. For divorced women in 2002–2002, 46% could expect to remarry. In contrast just 3% of widowed women could expect to remarry.

Endnotes

- 1 Parker, R 2005, 'Perspectives on the future of marriage', *Family Matters*, no. 72, pp.78–82.
- 2 Qu, L, and Soriano, G 2004, 'Forming couple relationships', *Family Matters*, no. 68, pp.43–49.
- 3 Krishnamoorthy, S 1982, 'Marital status life table for Australian women, 1971', *Genus*, vol. XXXVIII, no. 1–2, pp. 99–117.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Marriages, Australia, 2005*, cat. no. 3306.0.55.001, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Deaths, Australia, 2005*, cat. no. 3302.0, ABS, Canberra.

One-parent families

In 2003–04, 49% of one-parent family households with children under 15 years were simultaneously in the lowest three deciles of income and of net worth. This compared with 11% of couple families with children under 15 years.

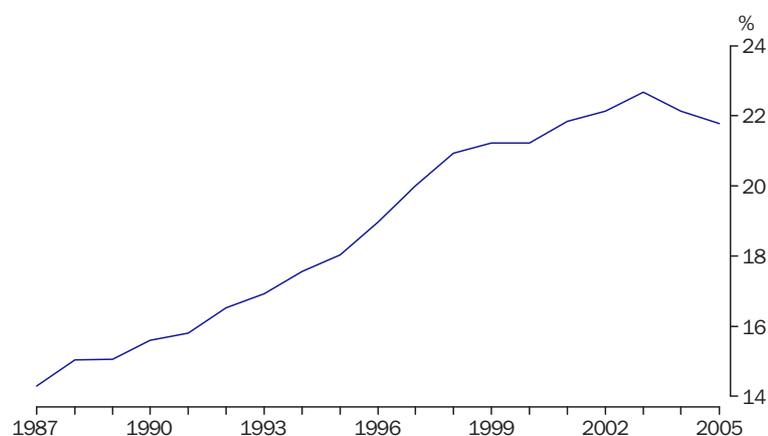
Compared with other family types, one-parent families are considered to be at a higher risk of disadvantage, for example, in income, housing, employment and social participation. Over the last few decades, one-parent families increased as a proportion of all families with children. Consequently, a greater number of children spend at least some of their childhood with a lone parent; and many women and some men experience sole parenting, often in difficult financial circumstances.

The economic and social wellbeing of one-parent families has been a focus of social policy for some decades. Associated issues such as child support and children's contact with their non-resident parents have also become prominent (see *Australian Social Trends 2006*, Children living apart from one parent, pp 44–48). There is consequently interest in the characteristics and situation of one-parent families.

How many one-parent families?

In 2004–2006, there were on average 486,000 one-parent families with children under 15 years. They accounted for 22% of all families with children of this age. In this period, on average one in five children aged under 15 years (20%) were in one-parent families.

One-parent families as a proportion of all families with children under 15 years(a)(b)



(a) Three year moving averages. For example, 2005 data is the average of data from 2004 to 2006.

(b) Prior to 1989, 'one-parent families' included a small number of other family types.

Source: *Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001); *Labour force and other characteristics of families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0) annual issues 1986 to 1993.

Data sources and definitions

The article profiles one-parent families with at least one child under 15 years, and compares them with couple families with children of the same age. The article draws principally on information from five ABS surveys: the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the Family Characteristics Survey, the Survey of Education and Work, the Survey of Income and Housing (SIH) and the Household Expenditure Survey (HES).

In these household sample surveys there is a possibility of a small overcount of one-parent families, and of children in them, if each of two separated parents identifies the same child as a 'usual resident' of their household.

Data on the economic resources of one-parent families from the SIH and the HES are restricted to those living in one-family households; around 7% of one-parent families lived in multi-family households according to the 2003–04 SIH.

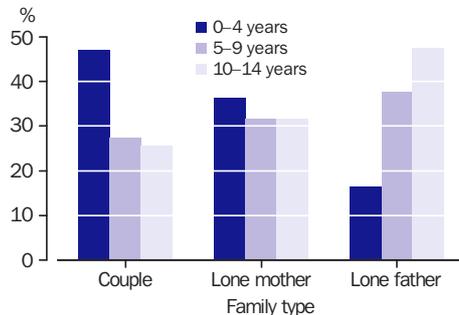
Annual data from the LFS are a good source of information on the labour force and other characteristics of families and provide a long time series of this information. However, the survey was not specifically designed to produce high quality family estimates and estimates of family types can be volatile. In presenting information on the trend in the number of one-parent families in this article, annual estimates from the LFS have been smoothed using three year moving averages to remove the volatility in this series. Modifications to LFS methodology in order to improve family estimates are being considered for possible implementation in the next couple of years.

Over the last two decades, one-parent families increased substantially as a proportion of all families with children under 15 years. In 1986–1988, one-parent families accounted for 14% of such families on average. The proportion increased to an average of 20% in 1996–1998, reached 23% in 2002–2004 and then fell slightly to 22% in 2004–2006.

...how are they formed?

The break up of couples contributes most to the number of one-parent families; and births of children to unpartnered mothers most of the remainder. Most lone parents of children under 15 years are divorced or separated from a registered marriage (55% in 2003 according to the Family Characteristics Survey) and a small proportion are widowed (5%). A substantial proportion of lone parents have never been in a registered marriage (39% in 2003 and 35% in 1997) but a large proportion of these are likely to represent separations of de facto couples.

Families with children under 15 years by age of youngest child — 2006



Source: Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001).

Demographic characteristics

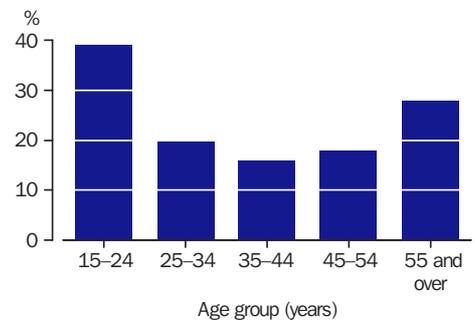
In 2006, 87% of one-parent families with children under 15 years were headed by mothers. The proportion headed by fathers was 12% in 1997 and 13% in 2006.

There were on average 1.7 children in one-parent families with children under 15 years (1.7 in lone-mother families and 1.6 in lone-father families). This compared to an average of 1.8 children in couple families with children under 15 years.

Couples were more likely than lone mothers to have a child under five years in their family (47% compared with 36%). Lone fathers were the least likely to have a child aged under five years in the family (16%).

Fathers tend to have an older age profile than mothers, and this was observed for both lone and partnered parents. Overall, lone and partnered mothers were distributed in a similar pattern by age, as were lone and partnered fathers. The peak age group was

Lone mothers as a proportion of all mothers of children under 15 years — 2006



Source: Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001).

35–44 years for each of these groups of parents. However, this peak age group accounted for slightly fewer lone than partnered mothers (41% compared with 50%), with lone mothers distributed slightly more to both younger and older age groups. This meant that lone mothers accounted for a greater proportion of all mothers in both younger and older age groups than in the 35–44 year age group, where they accounted for 16%. Notably, although only 10% of lone mothers were aged 15–24 years, they accounted for 39% of mothers of this age.

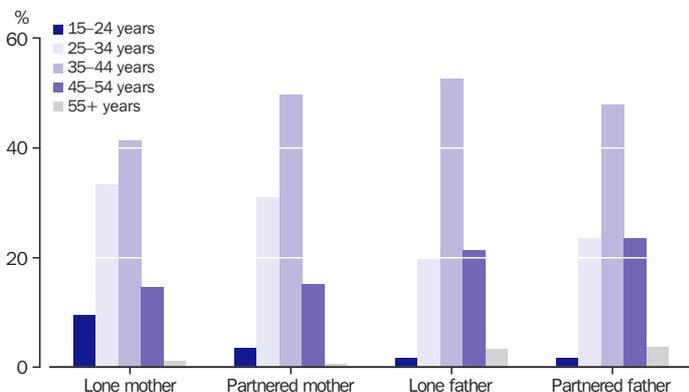
Parents of children under 15 years had an older age profile in 2006 than in 1997. The proportion of lone mothers who were aged under 35 years decreased from 53% to 43% between 1997 and 2006. There was a similar decrease from 43% to 34% for partnered mothers. The proportion of partnered fathers who were aged under 35 years decreased from 31% to 25%.

Lone parents' education and work

...educational attainment and current study

Lone parents tended to have lower levels of educational attainment than partnered parents although both groups included people with high and low level qualifications. The greater differences were at the two extremes of educational attainment. In 2006, 39% of lone parents, compared with 24% of partnered parents, had left school before year 12 and had no non-school qualifications. At the other end of the educational spectrum, half as many lone as partnered parents had a bachelor degree or higher qualification (12% compared with 24%).

Parents of children under 15 years by age — 2006



Source: Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001).

Educational attainment and current study status of parents of children under 15 years — 2006

	Lone %	Partnered %
Without year 12 and no non-school qualifications	39.3	23.6
Year 12 and no non-school qualifications	13.9	15.3
Vocational qualifications or associate/undergraduate diploma(a)	35.2	36.7
Bachelor degree or higher	11.7	24.4
Total	100.0	100.0
Currently studying at an educational institution	14.1	7.3

(a) May or may not have completed year 12.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

Lone parents were more likely than partnered parents to be undertaking current study at an educational institution (14% compared with 7%). This was observed for each ten year age group. For example, 19% of lone parents aged 15–24 years were undertaking current study, compared with 12% of partnered parents. Part-time study was most common among lone-parent students (68%). A large proportion were studying at either a TAFE (39%) or higher education institution (29%), with the remainder studying at diverse institutions including schools, business colleges, adult education colleges, industry skills centres and job network members.

...labour force participation

Between 1997 and 2006 the proportion of lone parents who were in the labour force (i.e. either employed or looking for work) increased from 52% to 62%. This reflected an increase in the proportion of lone mothers in the labour force, from 49% to 60%. Over the

same period the proportion of partnered mothers in the labour force also increased, from 61% to 66%. The labour force participation rate of partnered fathers remained the same (around 94%) while that for the small number of lone fathers fluctuated in the range 63% to 77%.

The increase in labour force participation of mothers largely reflected an increase in the proportion of mothers in part-time work. In 1997, 23% of lone mothers worked part-time, increasing to 32% in 2006. The proportion of partnered mothers working part-time increased at a slower rate, from 34% to 39%, over the same period. In contrast, there was little change in the proportion of mothers working full-time over this period. The proportion of lone mothers employed full-time was 18% in 1997 and 19% in 2006; and the proportion of partnered mothers working full-time was 23% in 1997 and 24% in 2006.

Labour force participation varies greatly between men and women and so it is useful to compare lone mothers with partnered mothers and lone fathers with partnered fathers. As discussed, in 2006, about 19% of lone mothers were employed full-time, compared with 24% of partnered mothers. A further 32% worked part-time, compared with 39% of partnered mothers. Almost one in ten lone mothers were looking for part-time or full-time paid work (9%); considerably higher than the 3% of partnered mothers looking for work. Those not in the labour force (i.e. not employed and not seeking employment) made up 40% of lone mothers and 34% of partnered mothers.

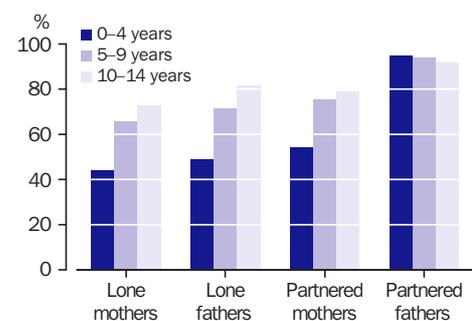
In 2006, about 72% of lone fathers were in the labour force. This was higher than the rate for lone mothers but lower than the 94% of partnered fathers who were in the labour

Labour force status of parents of children under 15 years — 2006

	In labour force			Total %	Not in labour force %
	Employed full-time %	Employed part-time %	Unemployed %		
Lone parents	23.0	29.4	9.4	61.8	38.2
Lone mother	19.2	31.7	9.3	60.2	39.8
Lone father	47.5	14.8	10.4	72.1	27.9
Partnered mother	24.4	39.0	2.6	66.2	33.9
Partnered father	85.3	5.9	2.4	93.6	6.4

Source: Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001).

Labour force participation rate by age of youngest child — 2006



Source: Labour force, Australia: Labour force and other characteristics of families – Electronic delivery June 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6224.0.55.001).

force. Almost half of lone fathers worked full-time (48%). This compared with 85% of partnered fathers. Lone fathers were more likely than partnered fathers to work part-time (15% compared with 6%) or to be unemployed (10% compared with 2%).

The proportion of lone parents in the labour force increased with the age of the youngest child in the family, as was the case for partnered mothers.

While the proportion of partnered parents who were unemployed decreased between 1997 and 2006 (from 4.5% to 2.5%), there was little change in the proportion of lone parents who were unemployed (9% in both 1997 and 2006, and fluctuating between 7% and 10% between those years).

Economic resources

...income sources

In 2003–04, Government pensions and allowances were the largest single source of income for 61% of one-parent family households. This was about the same proportion as in 1996–97 (62%). Of one-parent families with government pensions and

allowances as the principal income source in 2003–04, 23% received some of their current weekly income from wages and salaries or own unincorporated business income and 50% received some from child support.

Wages and salaries or income from their own unincorporated business were the principal source of income for 37% of one-parent families in 2003–04, about the same as in 1996–97 (35%). The proportion of lone parents receiving some income from wages and salaries or income from their own unincorporated business was 51% in 2003–04, an increase from 44% in 1996–97.

Child support is a topic which has generated considerable debate and policy change as the number of lone parents has increased. In 2003–04, more than half (51%) of one-parent families reported that they did not receive any current weekly income from child support or maintenance payments and a further 12% received less than \$10. Around 16% of lone parents received payments of \$100 per week or more. These data may not include all child support, for example, arrangements where the non-resident parent pays directly for particular items, or where income is received on a less regular or ad hoc basis.

Families with children under 15 years(a) — 2003–04

Selected household characteristics	Unit	One-parent families			Couple families
		Lone mother	Lone father	Total	Total
Income					
Mean weekly equivalised disposable household income(b)	\$	364	429	372	534
Principal source of income was government pensions and allowances	%	63.3	47.1	61.3	8.2
Is a low income household(c)	%	41.7	32.8	40.6	16.4
Expenditure					
Mean weekly equivalised expenditure on goods and services(b)	\$	397	408	399	529
Wealth					
Mean household net worth(d)	\$ '000	123	171	129	471
Income and wealth combined measure					
Is a low economic resources household(e)	%	49.9	39.6	48.6	11.0
Housing tenure					
Renter	%	65.1	56.4	64.0	21.2
Owner with mortgage	%	24.7	36.7	26.3	62.9
Owner without a mortgage	%	7.7	4.9	7.3	13.5

(a) Excludes families in multi-family households, for example a lone parent and child living with the child's grandparents, or with another couple. In 2003–04, 7% of one-parent families were in multi-family households. However, one-family households may contain persons other than the parent/s and child/ren who make up the family.

(b) Equivalised data are adjusted to take account of the different numbers of adults and children in households. Disposable income is income after tax payments and the Medicare levy.

(c) Is in decile 2 or 3 of mean equivalised disposable household income distribution of total households.

(d) The value of household assets minus liabilities.

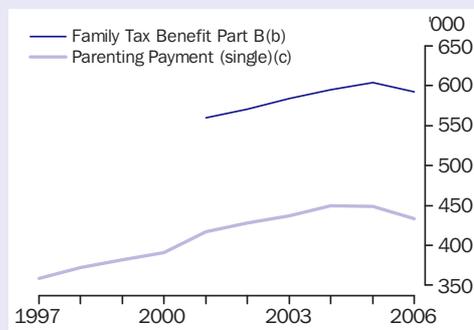
(e) Households which are simultaneously in both the lowest three deciles of equivalised disposable income and the lowest three deciles of equivalised net worth.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey, ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Income support for lone parents

The Australian income support system provides financial assistance to people in a variety of situations, including job seekers, the aged, people with a disability and students. Income support specifically targeted at lone parents was introduced in 1973 as the Supporting Mother's Benefit and expanded to include lone fathers in 1977. There have been many subsequent modifications to income support for lone parents. Between June 1997 and June 2006 Parenting Payment (single) was available to lone parents with principal care of a dependent child under 16 years, subject to income and assets tests and other eligibility requirements.

Lone parents receiving Family Tax Benefit Part B, Parenting Payment (single)(a)



- (a) Recipients at June each year.
 (b) Lone parent recipients at June each year; restricted to those receiving this supplement as a fortnightly payment. Some parents (less than 20,000) receive it as a lump sum. Prior to 2001, different family assistance arrangements were in place.
 (c) Payment was known as Sole Parent Pension in 1997 and Parenting Payment (single) from 1998.

Sources: Department of Family and Community Services and Indigenous Affairs (FaCSIA) *Annual Reports 2000–01 to 2005–2006*; FaCSIA 2006, *Statistical Paper No. 3 Income support customers: a statistical overview 2004*; *Yearbook Australia, 2007* (ABS cat. no. 1301.0).

The number of people receiving Parenting Payment (single) at June each year decreased between 2004 and 2006, from 449,000 to 433,000. This was the first decrease in the number of recipients of this payment, or its predecessor the Sole Parent Pension, since 1997. Total financial year expenditure on this payment decreased from \$4,847 million to \$4,818 million between 2004–05 and 2005–06.

Lone parents who received this form of income support may also have received some income supplements, such as Family Tax Benefits Part A and B. Family Tax Benefit Part B is available to lone parents with principal care of a dependent child under 16 years or aged 16–18 years and in full-time study. It is not income or asset tested in the case of lone parents.

The number of lone parent recipients of Family Tax Benefit Part B provides an indication of the number of one parent families. The number of people receiving this benefit as a fortnightly payment decreased recently, from a peak of 604,000 in June 2005 to 592,000 in June 2006.

Changes to eligibility from July 2006

From 1 July 2006, new clients who are lone parents and whose youngest qualifying child is aged eight years or older are not eligible for Parenting Payment although they may be eligible for Newstart Allowance (aimed at unemployed people aged 19–64 years actively looking for work) or other allowances. From July 2007, lone parents receiving Parenting Payment whose youngest qualifying child is aged six years or over have a part-time participation requirement of 15 hours per week (i.e. they are required to undertake work or look for work of at least 15 hours per week and register with a Job Network Provider or undertake approved study). (This participation requirement begins when the youngest qualifying child is aged seven in the case of lone parents who were granted Parenting Payment prior to July 2006.)

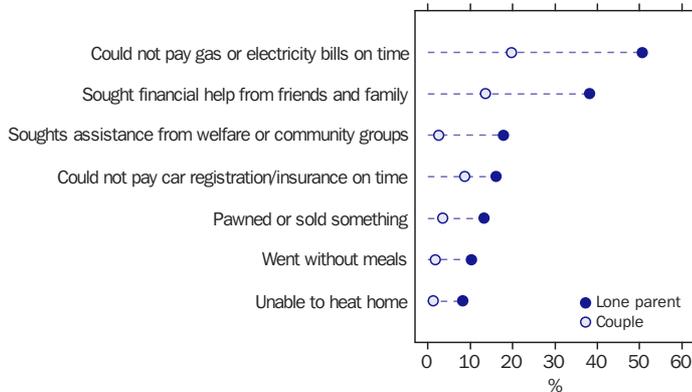
...income, expenditure and net worth

There are considerable differences between the gross household incomes of couples and lone parents with children under 15 years, but there are also differences in the number of adults and children to be provided for out of household income, and in the amount of tax paid. After removing tax payments and the Medicare levy and adjusting data to take account of the different numbers of adults and children in households, the *mean equivalised disposable household weekly income* of one-parent families with children under 15 years was 70% of that of couple families with children of this age (\$372 compared with \$534). This compared with 74% in 1996–97.

The mean equivalised weekly expenditure on household goods and services of one-parent families was 75% that of couple families with children under 15 years (\$399 compared with \$529).

A household's net worth, that is, the difference between their assets and liabilities, provides some security, enables them to borrow money, and may directly generate income. The mean net worth of one-parent family households in 2003–04 was \$129,000, considerably lower than the mean net worth of \$471,000 for couple families with children under 15 years. (See *Australian Social Trends 2006*, Distribution of household wealth pp. 145–150, for more information on household wealth.)

Parents with children under 15 years: selected indicators of financial stress(a) — 2003–04



(a) Household's situation over the last 12 months due to lack of money.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey.

A large proportion of one-parent families have both low income and low wealth. In 2003–04, close to half (49%) of one-parent family households with children under 15 years were simultaneously in the lowest three deciles of equivalised income and of equivalised net worth. In contrast, 11% of couple families with children under 15 years were in the lowest three deciles of equivalised income and equivalised net worth (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Low income low wealth households, pp. 164–169).

...housing tenure

Buying, renting or owning one's home are associated with different costs and different levels of security of tenure. The family home is also the major asset acquired by most Australian households. In 2003–04, the housing tenure of lone parents was quite

different from that of couples. Lone parents with children under 15 years were most commonly renting their accommodation (64%), comprising 42% renting in the private rental market and 19% renting from a State or Territory Housing Authority and a small proportion with other rental arrangements. In contrast, couples with children under 15 years were most often buying their home with a mortgage (63%).

...indicators of financial stress

Subjective indicators such as parents' perceptions of their households' finances can add to understanding of their economic circumstances. In 2003–04, around half of lone parents and couples reported that they just broke even most weeks (57% and 52% respectively). However, lone parents were more likely than couples to report that their household spent more money than they received most weeks (31% compared with 20%) and less likely to report saving money most weeks (12% compared with 28%). Close to half of lone parents with children under 15 years (46%) reported that their household could not raise \$2000 in a week for something important, compared with 13% of couples with children under 15 years.

Consistent with the low level of economic resources of many lone-parent households, lone parents were also more likely than couples to report experiencing difficulties in the previous 12 months due to a shortage of money. These ranged from the relatively common 'could not pay electricity/gas bills on time' (reported by 51% of lone parents and 20% of couples) to the least common 'unable to heat home' reported by 8% of lone parents and 2% of couples.

Before and/or after school care

The proportion of school children (aged 5–11 years) receiving before and/or after school care in the survey reference week has doubled, from 6% in 1996 to 12% in 2005.

Paid work provides social and economic benefits to parents and families. It contributes to parents' sense of self esteem and identity and it is also a means through which parents secure the economic resources needed for day-to-day living. Child care can help parents negotiate the often competing demands of paid work and family. Child care has become an important service for an increasing number of families with the increase in women's labour force participation over recent years (see *Australian Social Trends* 2006, Trends in women's employment, pp. 121–125).

Families may use a combination of different types of care depending upon their own needs. This article focuses on before and/or after school care (B/ASC). B/ASC is the main type of formal care received by school children (aged 5–12 years). It enables parents of school children to work a wider time band than might otherwise be possible.

B/ASC services aim to foster children's physical, emotional, intellectual and social development in a safe setting. They provide programs whereby school children can participate in a range of activities as well as having time for homework, rest and interaction with their friends.

Data sources and definitions

The data in this article are mainly from the ABS 2005 Child Care Survey. This survey collected data about children aged 0–12 years and was conducted during the school term. Prior to 2005, data were collected about children aged 0–11 years. Data are also included from the 2002 and 2004 Australian Government Census of Child Care Services conducted by the Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

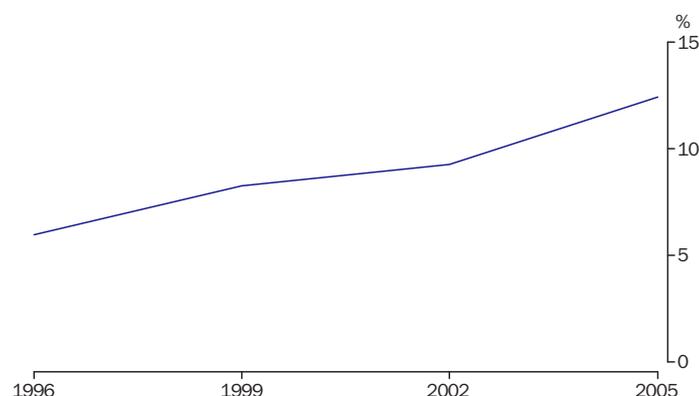
In this article, *child care* refers to arrangements other than care by resident parents, made for the care of children. Unless otherwise specified, it refers to care received in the week prior to interview.

Formal child care is regulated care away from the child's home. *Before and/or after school care* (B/ASC) is a type of formal care provided for school children before and/or after school during the school term. The services are generally school-based but some are located in community halls or recreation centres. Care can be provided on a regular or casual basis and fees are charged.

Informal child care is non-regulated care arranged by a child's parent/guardian either in the child's home or elsewhere. It includes care by relatives such as siblings and grandparents, and other unrelated people such as nannies, babysitters, friends and neighbours.

For the purpose of this article, unless otherwise stated, *school children* are those aged 5–12 years who attended school.

School children(a) who received B/ASC



(a) Time series available for children aged 5–11 years.

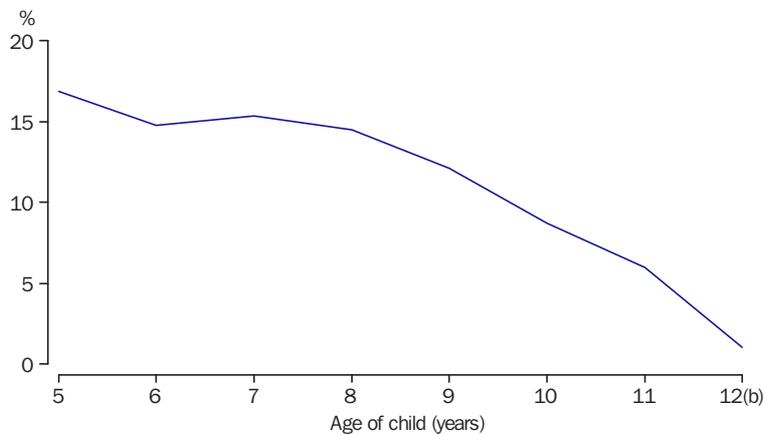
Source: ABS 2005 Child Care Survey.

Trends in the use of care by school children

In 2005, of the 2.1 million school children in Australia, 771,000 (or 37%) received some type of child care in the survey reference week. A greater number of children would have received some type of child care at any time during the year.

Of those school children receiving care, 227,000 (or 29%) received B/ASC in the survey reference week. There were 299,000 (or 39%) school children cared for by their grandparents and 55,000 (or 7%) by their brothers or sisters (see *Australian Social Trends* 2005, Informal child care provided by grandparents pp. 47–51). A further 157,000 (or 20%) school children were cared for by other relatives (i.e. relatives other than grandparents and brothers/sisters) and 133,000 (or 17%) were cared for by other persons.

School children(a) who received B/ASC: age of child — 2005



(a) Aged 5–12 years.

(b) Care should be taken in interpreting data for 12 year olds as many attend high school and do not have the same access to B/ASC as primary school students.

Source: ABS 2005 Child Care Survey.

From 1996 to 2005, the proportion of school children (aged 5–11 years) using B/ASC doubled from 6% to 12%. This may in part reflect the increase in the proportion of school children with employed mothers, which increased from 53% in 1996 to 59% in 2005.

Age of children receiving before and/or after school care

The proportion of school children receiving child care decreases as children mature and as their independence grows. In 2005, 38% of school children aged 5–8 years received B/ASC and/or other types of child care on weekdays, compared with 28% of school children aged 9–12 years.

This decreasing use of child care as school children get older is reflected in the decreasing use of B/ASC with children's increasing age. In 2005, 15% of 5–8 year old school children received B/ASC in the reference week, over twice that of the rate for 9–12 year olds (7%).

Characteristics of before and/or after school care use

...days of care

B/ASC services operate on weekdays during the school year. In 2005, of the school children receiving B/ASC 27% received care for one day, 25% for five days per week and 20% received it for two weekdays.

Before and/or after school care services

According to the Census of Child Care Services, 2,400 B/ASC services were operating in Australia in 2004, an increase of 44 services since 2002. In 2004, Victoria had the most B/ASC services (745), followed by New South Wales (630) and Queensland (478).

Within these B/ASC centres in 2004, there were an average of 67 children enrolled in care during the reference week, up from 55 in 1999. Throughout Australia, there were 13,000 paid staff working in B/ASC centres, accounting for 16% of staff in all child care services. Some 40% of the B/ASC staff had formal qualifications relevant to child care.

Changes made in the 2006 Federal Budget to the number of Child Care Benefit approved places for B/ASC are aimed to result in an extra 25,000 places in new or existing programs over the next four years.¹

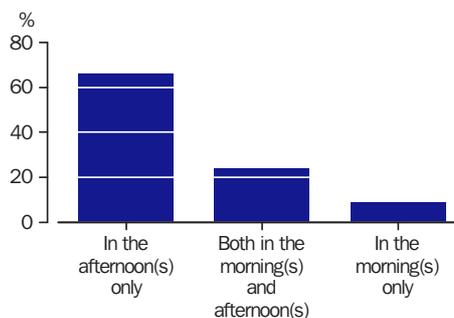
...hours of care

In 2005, school children receiving B/ASC attended for an average of six hours per week. This ranged from an average of two hours for school children using one weekday of B/ASC, to ten hours for those using B/ASC for five weekdays. This care may have taken place before or after school, or both.

In 2005, almost two-thirds of school children (66% or 150,000 children) receiving B/ASC attended only after school hours, nearly one-quarter (24% or 55,000) attended both before and after school and 9% (19,000) attended before school only.

In 2004, the majority (59%) of centres operating before school care offered between two and three hours care per morning, and of those operating after school, three-quarters (75%) offered between three and four hours of care in the afternoon.²

School children(a) who received B/ASC: time of attendance(b) — 2005



(a) Aged 5–11 years.

(b) Data not collected for children aged 12 years.

Source: ABS 2005 Child Care Survey.

... reasons care used

Particular types of child care may be used by parents for different reasons. Parents may use child care so they can attend medical or other appointments, participate in paid or voluntary work or engage in a social activity. In 2005, most parents used B/ASC for their school children for 'work-related' reasons (84%) (which included work-related study and training).

...cost of care

The cost of child care to families varies according to the type of care, the number of hours used and parents' access to government assistance. The cost may affect parents' working arrangements and their ability to participate in activities such as voluntary work, study or training. The cost of child care may also influence parents' decisions about the type and amount of care used.³

Separate fees are charged for care before and for care after school. According to the 2004 Census of Child Care Services, the longer after school sessions typically cost more (\$10 per session) than the shorter before school sessions (\$7 per session).

In 2005, the average weekly cost of B/ASC (after the Child Care Benefit was taken into account) was \$26. This ranged from \$9 for school children using B/ASC one weekday, to \$41 for those using B/ASC five weekdays per week.

Child Care Benefit

The Child Care Benefit (CCB) is an Australian Government funded payment to assist families with the use of approved or registered child care.

In 2005, parents of around three-quarters (76% or 173,000) of school children using B/ASC claimed the CCB for the cost of this care. Parents of 39,000 school children who received B/ASC did not claim the CCB. The main reasons parents provided for not claiming the CCB were that the parental income was too high (32%), they were not aware of the benefit (22%) and that it was not worth the effort (20%).

Vacation care

Vacation care is a service provided to school children during the school holidays.

In 2005, over 250,000 (14%) school children aged 5–11 years attended a vacation care program in the 12 months prior to the interview.

Of those school children in couple families, 13% attended vacation care compared with 19% of those school children in one-parent families.

A higher proportion of school children in one-parent families with an employed parent attended vacation care (26%) than in couple families with one or both parents employed (7% and 16% respectively).

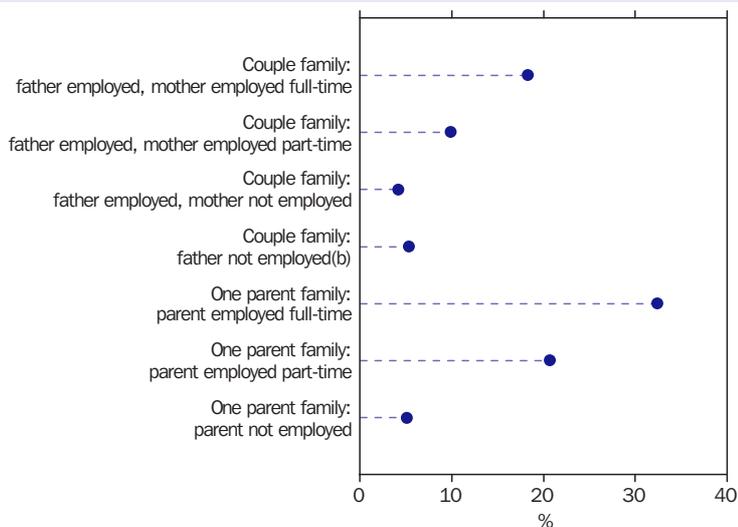
Families balancing work and care

Families often need to balance paid work and the care of their school children. It is typically women who adjust their participation in the labour force to fit around the care of their children (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Balancing family and work, pp. 40–44). Some women in paid work may take on part-time hours or use another flexible work arrangement. Child care such as B/ASC may also be used to assist with achieving this balance.

In 2005, school children of full-time working mothers were more likely to receive B/ASC in the survey reference week than children of part-time working mothers. In couple families, almost one in five school children aged 5–12 years (18%) with full-time working mothers received B/ASC, compared with one in ten (10%) with part-time working mothers. This difference between full and part-time working mothers may reflect the greater capacity of part-time mothers to structure their time at work around school hours.

In 2005, 32% of school children aged 5–12 years in one-parent families with a parent employed full-time, and 21% with a parent employed part-time, received B/ASC. It is perhaps not surprising that children in one-parent families with an employed parent

School children(a) who used B/ASC: family type by parents' employment status — 2005



(a) Aged 5–12 years.

(b) Irrespective of mother's employment status.

Source: ABS 2005 Child Care Survey.

(either full or part-time) were more likely to attend B/ASC than children in couple families with one parent working. In one-parent families, the absence of a resident partner may increase reliance on child care so that the parent can participate in paid employment and other activities.

School children with a parent not employed were less likely to use B/ASC, perhaps because at least one of their parents was more likely to be home out of school hours. Around 20,000 school children (or 4%) aged 5–12 years in couple families with a father employed and mother not employed, and around 8,000 with a father not employed (or 5%), used B/ASC. Similarly in one-parent families, just under 10,000 school children with a parent not employed used B/ASC (or 5%).

Need for before and/or after school care

In the Child Care Survey parents of children not using formal child care were asked whether there had been any time in the previous four weeks when they wanted to use any formal child care services but did not. Parents who had wanted to use some formal child care services were then asked which type they had most wanted to use. Parents of children already using formal care (whether it was B/ASC or an another type of formal care) were asked a similar question, namely whether at any time in the previous four weeks they had wanted to use any more formal care and, if so, which type they had most wanted to use. Along with questions about the number of days on which the services had been required, these questions give some information about families' needs for additional B/ASC services.

In June 2005, there were 64,000 school children (3% of all school children aged 5–12 years) for whom some formal care, or some additional formal care, had been required in the previous 4 weeks and for whom B/ASC was the main type of care required.

Most of these children (90% or 58,000) had not used any formal care in the previous week. Overall, parents required an average of four days of B/ASC over a four week period. Over two-thirds of parents of school children (69%) reported that work was the main reason B/ASC was required.

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Government 2006-07 Budget, *Child Support Reforms*, viewed 7 February 2007, <http://www.budget.gov.au/2006-07/bp2/html/bp2_expense-08.htm>.
- 2 Department of Family and Community Services 2005, *2004 Census of Child Care Services*, FaCS, viewed 27 February 2007, <[http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/VIA/cc_census_04/\\$File/cc04main1.pdf](http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/VIA/cc_census_04/$File/cc04main1.pdf)>.
- 3 Cobb-Clark, D, Liu, A and Mitchel, D 1999, *Reassessing the role of child care costs in the work and care decisions of Australian families*, Discussion Paper No. 409, Australian National University Centre for Economic Policy Research, Canberra.

Health

	Page
National and state summary	60

Overweight and obesity	71
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Overweight and obesity pose a major risk to long term health by increasing the risk of chronic illnesses. In 2005, 7.4 million people aged 18 years and over (54% of the adult population) were classified as overweight or obese, an increase from 5.4 million adults (45% of the adult population) in 1995. This article looks at the prevalence of overweight and obesity in Australia according to body mass index (BMI) as well as socioeconomic characteristics, including age, living arrangements and income.

Diabetes mellitus	76
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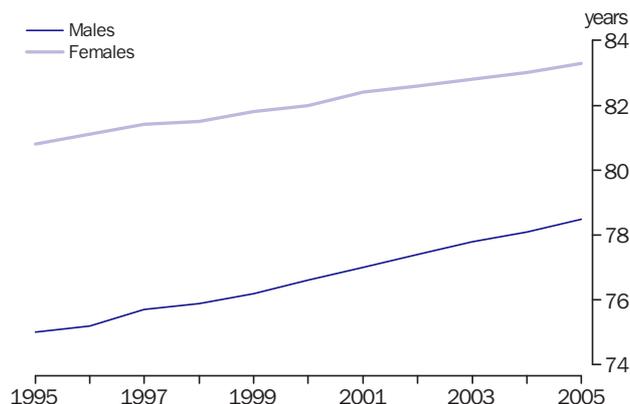
In 2004–05, close to 700,000 people, or 3.6% of the population, reported they had diabetes. This was substantially higher than the 2.4% of the population, 400,000 people, who reported they had diabetes in 1995. Compared with people without diabetes of the same age, people with diabetes aged 45 years and over were 1.9 times more likely to have hypertension, 2.2 times more likely to have a heart, stroke or vascular condition and 2.3 times more likely to have glaucoma. This article reports on the prevalence of diabetes and its risk factors, the health status of people with diabetes, and their use of health services.

Selected chronic conditions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples	82
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In 2004–05, after adjusting for differences in the age structure of the populations, Indigenous people were three times more likely than non-Indigenous people to have diabetes and more than ten times as likely to have kidney disease. This article explores the prevalence, hospitalisation and mortality rates for Indigenous people who reported diabetes, cardiovascular disease or kidney disease. It also compares the self-assessed health status of Indigenous people with these conditions to those who did not have these conditions.

Health: national summary — key points

Life expectancy at birth(a)



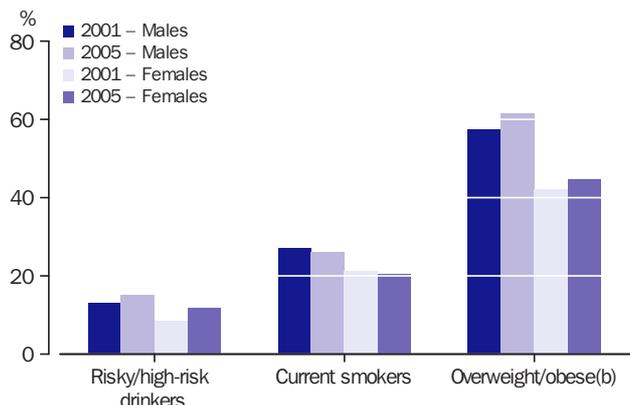
- Between 1995 and 2005, Australian life expectancy at birth increased for both males and females.
- Over this period, the life expectancy of boys improved by 3.5 years, with a boy born in 2005 expected to live to be 78.5 years of age.
- For girls, life expectancy improved by 2.5 years, with a girl born in 2005 expected to reach the age of 83.3.

(a) Expectation of life is based on three years of data ending in the years shown in the graph.

Source: Deaths, Australia (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: national summary*, page 62, indicators 1–2.

Risk behaviours of those aged 18 years and over(a)



- Between 2001 and 2004–05, the proportion of both males and females who were overweight or obese increased.
- Rates of overweight/obesity were greater in men than in women in both 2001 and 2004–05. In 2001, 58% of males and 42% of females were either overweight or obese, compared with 62% of males and 45% of females in 2004–05.
- In 2004–05, 26% of males and 20% of females reported that they were current smokers. These are similar to the rates in 2001, when 27% of males and 21% of females reported that they were current smokers.
- In 2004–05, 15% of males and 12% of females reported consuming either risky or high risk levels of alcohol, compared with 13% of males and 9% females in 2001.

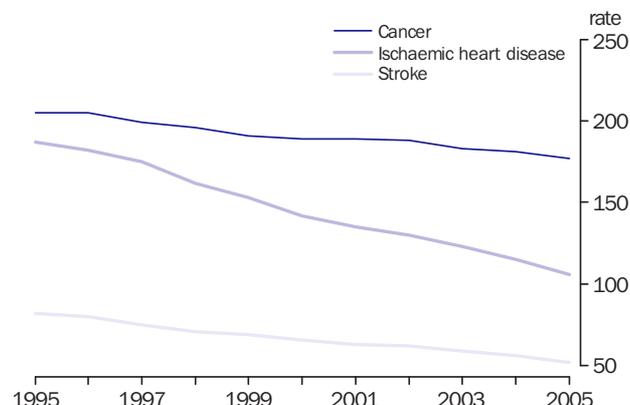
(a) Age standardised to the estimated resident population as at 30 June 2001.

(b) Excludes persons for whom height and/or weight were not known.

Source: ABS 2001 and 2004–05 National Health Surveys.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: national summary*, page 63, indicators 51–56.

Major causes of death(a)



(a) Per 100,000 estimated resident population.

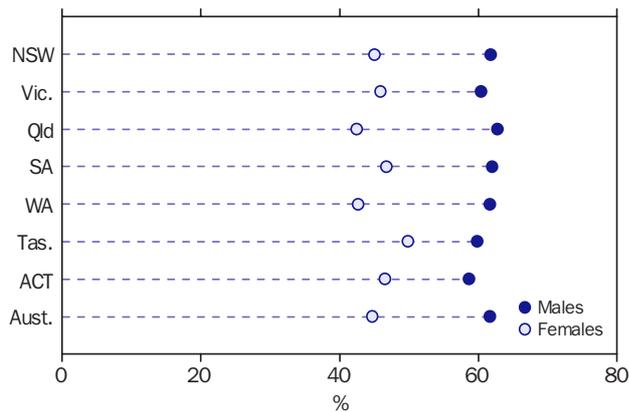
Source: ABS Causes of Death Collection.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: national summary*, page 62, indicators 26–28.

- The major causes of death in 2005 were cancer, ischaemic heart disease and stroke.
- Between 1995 and 2005, the rates of all these major causes of death decreased.
- Cancer has consistently been the major cause of death throughout the decade, although rates have decreased over time. In 1995, 205 people in every 100,000 died of cancer. This decreased to 177 people in every 100,000 in 2005.
- Of the three major causes of death, the rate of ischaemic heart disease had decreased the most over the decade. In 1995, 187 people in every 100,000 died of ischaemic heart disease. In 2005, this rate had fallen to 106 people in every 100,000.
- In 2005, 52 people in every 100,000 died of stroke, a fall from 82 people in every 100,000 in 1995.

Health: state summary — key points

Overweight/obese adults aged 18 years and over(a)(b)(c) — 2004–05



- In 2004–05, a larger proportion of males than females were overweight or obese across all Australian states and territories.
- Rates of overweight/obesity for males were similar among the states and territories (around 60%).
- Rates of overweight/obesity were also similar for females among the states and territories (around 45%).

(a) Excludes persons for whom height and/or weight were not known.

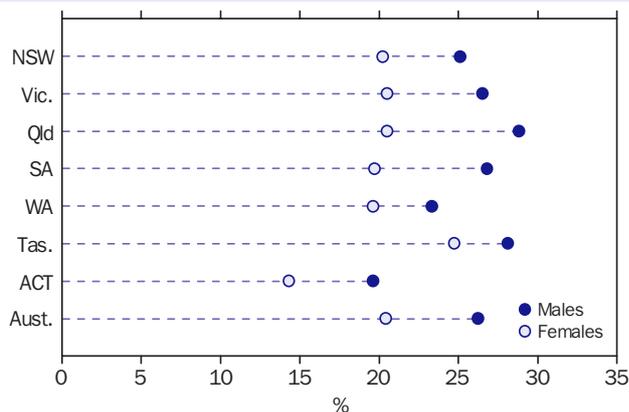
(b) Separate estimates for the Northern Territory are not available.

(c) Age standardised to the estimated resident population as at 30 June 2001.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: state summary*, page 65, indicators 55–56.

Current smokers aged 18 years and over(a)(b) — 2004–05



- In Australia in 2004–05, a greater proportion of males (26%) than females (20%) reported that they were current smokers.
- The proportion of males aged 18 years and over who reported currently smoking was greatest in Queensland (29%) and Tasmania (28%). For females, the proportion was greatest in Tasmania (25%).
- The proportion of both males (20%) and females (14%) who reported currently smoking was lowest in the Australian Capital Territory.

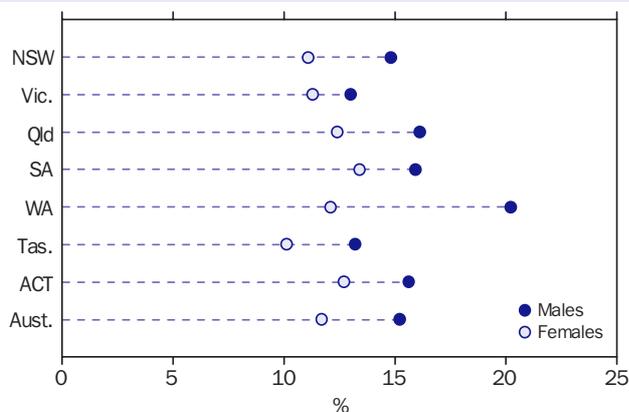
(a) Separate estimates for the Northern Territory are not available.

(b) Age standardised to the estimated resident population as at 30 June 2001.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: state summary*, page 65, indicators 53–54.

Alcohol consumption – Risky/high-risk levels, adults aged 18 years and over(a)(b) — 2004–05



- In Australia in 2004–05, a greater percentage of males (15%) than females (12%) reported drinking alcohol at risky or high-risk levels.
- One-fifth (20%) of males aged 18 years and over in Western Australia reported drinking alcohol at risky or high-risk levels. In Tasmania and Victoria around 13% reported a risky or high-risk intake of alcohol.
- The rate of risky or high-risk alcohol consumption for females was similar in South Australia (13%), the Australian Capital Territory (13%), Queensland (12%) and Western Australia (12%).

(a) Separate estimates for the Northern Territory are not available.

(b) Age standardised to the estimated resident population as at 30 June 2001.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Health: state summary*, page 65, indicators 51–52.

Health: national summary

HEALTH STATUS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Life expectancy(a)													
1	Life expectancy at birth – males	years	75.2	75.7	75.9	76.2	76.6	77.0	77.4	77.8	78.1	78.5	n.y.a.
2	Life expectancy at birth – females	years	81.1	81.4	81.5	81.8	82.0	82.4	82.6	82.8	83.0	83.3	n.y.a.
3	Life expectancy at age 65 – males	years	15.8	16.2	16.3	16.6	16.8	17.2	17.4	17.6	17.8	18.1	n.y.a.
4	Life expectancy at age 65 – females	years	19.6	19.9	20.0	20.2	20.4	20.7	20.8	21.0	21.1	21.4	n.y.a.
5	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – males	years	n.a.	n.a.	57.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	59.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
6	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – females	years	n.a.	n.a.	62.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	62.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
7	Males surviving to age 50 years	%	93.7	93.8	93.9	93.9	94.0	94.2	94.4	94.7	94.8	94.9	n.y.a.
8	Females surviving to age 50	%	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.9	96.9	97.0	97.1	97.1	n.y.a.
9	Males surviving to age 70	%	73.2	74.1	74.7	75.5	76.3	77.3	78.1	78.7	79.3	79.9	n.y.a.
10	Females surviving to age 70	%	84.5	85.0	85.2	85.7	86.1	86.6	86.8	87.1	87.4	87.8	n.y.a.
11	Males surviving to age 85	%	26.3	28.0	28.6	29.9	31.2	32.9	34.0	35.2	36.2	37.7	n.y.a.
12	Females surviving to age 85	%	45.9	47.0	47.8	48.9	50.2	51.6	52.2	53.0	53.7	54.9	n.y.a.
Mortality(b)													
13	Total number of deaths	'000	128.7	129.4	127.2	128.1	128.3	128.5	133.7	132.3	132.5	130.7	n.y.a.
14	Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)(c)	rate	7.8	7.6	7.2	7.1	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.4	6.3	6.0	n.y.a.
15	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	5.8	5.3	5.0	5.7	5.2	5.3	5.0	4.8	4.7	5.0	n.y.a.
16	Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	10.0	9.2	8.3	8.5	8.3	8.4	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.5	n.y.a.
Morbidity and disability prevalence(c)													
17	Cancer(d)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.7	n.a.
18	Ischaemic and other heart disease(d)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.8	n.a.
19	Diabetes mellitus(d)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.5	n.a.
20	Asthma(d)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	11.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.2	n.a.
22	High/very high levels of psychological distress – aged 18 years and over(e)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.0	n.a.
23	Arthritis(d)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	14.9	n.a.
24	Persons with a disability(f)	%	n.a.	n.a.	19.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	19.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
25	Persons with a profound/severe core activity restriction(f)	%	n.a.	n.a.	6.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
CAUSES OF DEATH		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
<i>Rates are per 100,000 population(b)</i>													
Leading causes(c)													
26	Cancer	rate	205	199	196	191	189	189	188	183	181	177	n.y.a.
27	Ischaemic heart disease	rate	182	175	162	153	142	135	130	123	115	106	n.y.a.
28	Stroke	rate	80	75	71	69	66	63	62	59	56	52	n.y.a.
Selected cancers(c)													
29	Lung cancer – males	rate	63	59	59	57	55	54	53	49	50	48	n.y.a.
30	Lung cancer – females	rate	22	22	21	21	22	23	24	22	22	23	n.y.a.
31	Breast cancer – females	rate	29	28	27	25	25	25	25	25	23	24	n.y.a.
32	Prostate cancer – males	rate	42	37	37	35	36	35	35	34	32	33	n.y.a.
33	Skin cancer	rate	8	7	7	7	7	8	7	7	7	8	n.y.a.
Heart disease and diabetes(c)													
34	Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	240	229	214	202	185	176	170	161	151	137	n.y.a.
35	Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	136	132	122	115	108	102	98	93	86	81	n.y.a.
36	Diabetes mellitus	rate	18	18	16	16	16	16	17	16	17	16	n.y.a.
Motor vehicle accidents													
37	Motor vehicle traffic accident(c)	rate	11	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	7	7	n.y.a.
38	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	32	28	27	27	28	27	24	23	20	20	n.y.a.
39	Females aged 15–24 years	rate	8	10	9	9	10	7	8	7	8	6	n.y.a.
Suicide													
40	Suicide(c)	rate	13	15	14	13	12	13	12	11	10	10	n.y.a.
41	Males(c)	rate	22	24	23	22	20	20	19	18	17	16	n.y.a.
42	Females(c)	rate	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	n.y.a.
43	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	26	31	27	23	20	20	19	18	14	16	n.y.a.
44	Females aged 15–24 years	rate	4	7	6	6	6	5	4	4	5	4	n.y.a.
Drug induced(c)													
45	Drug induced	rate	6	7	9	9	8	5	5	5	5	5	n.y.a.
46	Males	rate	8	10	12	13	11	7	6	6	6	6	n.y.a.
47	Females	rate	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	4	n.y.a.

Health: national summary continued

RISK FACTORS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Immunisation status(g)													
48	Fully immunised children aged 12–15 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	84.5	87.0	91.3	90.4	91.7	91.0	91.2	91.0	91.2
49	Fully immunised children aged 24–27 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	68.8	74.9	85.1	88.0	89.4	91.6	91.7	92.1	92.4
50	Fully immunised children aged 72–75 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	82.2	83.7	83.6	84.0	88.0
Drinking and smoking(c)													
51	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	15.2	n.a.
52	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of females aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	11.7	n.a.
53	Current smokers – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	27.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26.2	n.a.
54	Current smokers – of females aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	21.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	20.4	n.a.
Diet and exercise(c)													
55	Overweight/obese adults – of males aged 18 years and over (h)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r57.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r61.6	n.a.
56	Overweight/obese adults – of females aged 18 years and over (h)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r42.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r44.7	n.a.
57	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	53.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	52.4	n.a.
58	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of females aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	41.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	40.2	n.a.
59	Adults who are sedentary – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	30.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	33.6	n.a.
60	Adults who are sedentary – of females aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	32.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	34.4	n.a.
High blood pressure(c)(d)													
61	Hypertension – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.6	n.a.
62	Hypertension – of females aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	14.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.8	n.a.
SERVICES		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
63	Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)(c)	rate	291	296	304	309	312	320	328	334	r337	340	n.y.a.
64	Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	rate	4.6	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.1	n.y.a.
65	Average length of stay in hospital	days	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.4	n.y.a.
66	Doctors (per 100,000 population)	rate	241	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	248	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
67	Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 years and over)(i)	rate	91.1	89.2	87.1	85.0	82.9	81.4	80.8	81.8	83.1	84.1	n.y.a.
Medicare usage													
Average Medicare services processed(j)													
68	Per person	no.	10.7	10.7	10.8	10.9	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.1	11.3	11.6	12.0
69	Per male	no.	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.9	8.9	9.0	9.2	9.1	9.3	9.6	10.0
70	Per female	no.	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.9	13.0	13.0	13.3	13.2	13.2	13.6	14.0
71	Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 years and over	%	23.0	23.6	24.2	24.6	25.3	25.8	26.4	27.4	28.3	29.0	29.3
EXPENDITURE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
72	Persons with private health insurance	%	33.6	31.9	30.6	30.6	43.0	44.9	44.3	43.5	42.9	r42.8	43.0
73	Total health expenditure (current prices) per person per year	\$	2 313	2 459	2 594	r2 732	r2 884	r3 195	r3 437	r3 700	3 958	4 319	n.y.a.
74	Total health expenditure (current prices) as a proportion of GDP	%	r8.1	r8.3	r8.4	r8.5	r8.5	r8.9	r9.1	r9.3	r9.4	9.8	n.y.a.

- (a) Expectation of life is based on three years of data ending in the year shown in the table heading.
 (b) Based on year of registration.
 (c) Proportions and rates are age standardised to the Australian population as at 30 June 2001.
 (d) Caution should be used when comparing long-term conditions data from different National Health Surveys. Changes in survey methodology and classification may reduce direct comparability between surveys. For more details see: *National Health Survey, Users' Guide, 2004–05 Chapter 7* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).
 (e) Differences between 2001 and 2004–05 are not statistically significant.
 (f) Differences between 1998 and 2003 are not statistically significant.
 (g) As a proportion of all children in that age group on the Australian Childhood Immunisation Register.
 (h) Excludes persons for whom height and/or weight were not known.
 (i) Ratios calculated by AIHW from data supplied by DoHA. Place numbers are taken from mainstream residential aged care services and do not include places provided, for example, by the EACH program, Multi Purposes Services or places funded under the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Aged Care Strategy.
 (j) Average number of services processed per Australian resident.
- Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–12 are calculated using data for the three years ending in the year shown in the table heading.
 Data for indicators 13–16 and 26–47 are for the calendar year.
 Data for indicators 17–23 and 51–62 are according to the reference period for the most recent National Health Survey.
 Data for indicators 24–25 are according to the reference period for the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers.
 Data for indicators 48–50 are at 31 December.
 Data for indicators 63–65 and 67–74 are for the financial year ending 30 June.
 Data for indicator 66 are at census night.

Health: state summary

HEALTH STATUS		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Life expectancy(a)												
1	Life expectancy at birth – males	years	2005	78.5	79.0	78.3	78.1	78.8	77.2	72.5	79.9	78.5
2	Life expectancy at birth – females	years	2005	83.3	83.6	83.2	83.4	83.8	82.1	78.2	84.0	83.3
3	Life expectancy at age 65 – males	years	2005	18.0	18.3	18.1	18.0	18.4	17.2	16.6	18.8	18.1
4	Life expectancy at age 65 – females	years	2005	21.3	21.5	21.3	21.5	21.8	20.5	19.4	21.9	21.4
7	Males surviving to age 50 years	%	2005	95.2	95.3	94.6	94.4	94.9	94.3	87.8	95.9	94.9
8	Females surviving to age 50	%	2005	97.2	97.3	97.1	97.0	97.1	96.8	92.8	97.4	97.1
9	Males surviving to age 70	%	2005	79.8	81.1	79.5	79.0	80.7	77.5	66.8	83.2	79.9
10	Females surviving to age 70	%	2005	87.7	88.4	87.6	87.8	88.4	86.0	78.0	89.4	87.8
11	Males surviving to age 85	%	2005	37.3	38.8	37.6	36.7	38.9	33.1	27.2	41.8	37.7
12	Females surviving to age 85	%	2005	54.6	55.7	54.5	55.5	56.6	50.2	42.1	57.6	54.9
Mortality(b)												
13	Total number of deaths	'000	2005	44.9	32.6	23.6	12.0	11.3	3.9	1.0	1.5	130.7
14	Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)(c)	rate	2005	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.2	5.8	6.9	8.6	5.6	6.0
15	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	2005	4.9	5.1	5.1	5.1	4.6	3.5	9.6	5.5	5.0
16	Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	2005	7.4	9.9	8.8	7.3	7.7	8.5	14.6	10.4	8.5
Morbidity and disability												
17	Cancer	%	2004–05	1.4	1.8	2.2	1.4	1.9	1.4	n.a.	1.9	1.7
18	Ischaemic and other heart disease	%	2004–05	1.7	1.5	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.1	n.a.	1.6	1.8
19	Diabetes mellitus	%	2004–05	3.7	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.2	2.8	n.a.	3.7	3.5
20	Asthma	%	2004–05	9.2	10.2	10.8	11.6	11.2	13.3	n.a.	10.2	10.2
21	Recent injury	%	2004–05	17.2	18.7	19.3	21.1	19.4	17.5	n.a.	17.6	18.5
22	High/very high levels of psychological distress – aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	12.6	13.1	14.4	12.3	11.7	12.8	n.a.	11.9	13.0
23	Arthritis	%	2004–05	14.5	14.2	16.1	16.4	13.7	18.9	n.a.	14.2	14.9
24	Persons with a disability(d)	%	2003	17.5	19.7	22.2	22.4	21.2	22.4	n.p.	19.8	19.8
25	Persons with a profound/severe core activity restriction(d)	%	2003	5.4	6.4	7.5	6.4	6.2	7.3	n.p.	6.2	6.2
CAUSES OF DEATH		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<i>Rates are per 100,000 population(b)(e)</i>												
Leading causes(c)												
26	Cancer	rate	2003–05	179	181	181	180	178	207	191	161	180
27	Ischaemic heart disease	rate	2003–05	115	108	126	119	105	124	124	88	115
28	Stroke	rate	2003–05	60	51	59	54	48	47	46	55	55
Selected cancers(c)												
29	Lung cancer – males	rate	2003–05	49	48	51	48	51	57	52	37	49
30	Lung cancer – females	rate	2003–05	22	22	23	22	25	27	26	17	23
31	Breast cancer – females	rate	2003–05	24	25	23	24	23	25	22	22	24
32	Prostate cancer – males	rate	2003–05	32	34	35	32	29	38	24	34	33
33	Skin cancer	rate	2003–05	8	6	10	5	8	8	6	7	8
Heart disease and diabetes(c)												
34	Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	2003–05	149	141	160	160	138	159	149	128	149
35	Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	2003–05	86	82	97	86	78	95	95	58	86
36	Diabetes mellitus	rate	2003–05	13	20	16	16	17	28	37	17	17
Motor vehicle accidents												
37	Motor vehicle traffic accident(c)	rate	2003–05	6	7	8	10	8	10	21	6	7
38	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	2003–05	15	21	22	31	26	28	55	9	21
39	Females aged 15–24 years	rate	2003–05	5	6	8	9	11	6	19	8	7
Suicide												
40	Suicide(c)	rate	2003–05	9	10	12	13	10	16	24	10	11
41	Males(c)	rate	2003–05	14	16	19	21	17	26	39	15	17
42	Females(c)	rate	2003–05	4	5	5	5	4	8	6	5	4
43	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	2003–05	13	14	17	21	17	20	75	18	16
44	Females aged 15–24 years	rate	2003–05	3	5	5	7	4	3	12	4	4
Drug induced(c)												
45	Drug induced	rate	2003–05	5	5	4	6	4	5	3	6	5
46	Males	rate	2003–05	6	7	6	8	5	6	3	7	6
47	Females	rate	2003–05	3	4	3	4	3	5	2	4	3

Health: state summary continued

RISK FACTORS		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Immunisation status(f)												
48	Fully immunised children aged 12–15 months	%	2006	91.5	91.7	90.1	91.1	90.2	94.0	92.3	91.9	91.2
49	Fully immunised children aged 24–27 months	%	2006	92.1	93.6	91.7	92.4	90.8	94.5	94.4	93.5	92.4
50	Fully immunised children aged 72–75 months	%	2006	87.9	90.1	87.6	86.6	84.7	89.3	88.1	89.4	88.0
Drinking and smoking(c)												
51	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of males aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	14.8	13.0	16.1	15.9	20.2	13.2	n.p.	15.6	15.2
52	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of females aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	11.1	11.3	12.4	13.4	12.1	10.1	n.p.	12.7	11.7
53	Current smokers – of males aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	25.1	26.5	28.8	26.8	23.3	28.1	n.p.	19.6	26.2
54	Current smokers – of females aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	20.2	20.5	20.5	19.7	19.6	24.7	n.p.	14.3	20.4
Diet and exercise(c)												
55	Overweight/obese adults – of males aged 18 years and over(g)	%	2004–05	r61.8	r60.4	r62.7	r62.0	r61.6	r59.8	n.p.	r58.7	r61.6
56	Overweight/obese adults – of females aged 18 years and over(g)	%	2004–05	r45.0	r45.9	r42.4	r46.8	r42.7	r49.9	n.p.	r46.5	r44.7
57	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of males aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	52.2	50.3	54.7	56.5	49.6	52.9	n.p.	52.3	52.4
58	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of females aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	40.5	38.1	40.4	45.2	39.6	41.8	n.p.	39.3	40.2
59	Adults who are sedentary – of males aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	34.0	31.6	36.8	34.4	31.8	35.9	n.p.	23.0	33.6
60	Adults who are sedentary – of females aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	36.9	32.0	36.5	34.0	30.4	31.0	n.p.	25.4	34.4
High blood pressure(c)												
61	Hypertension – of males aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	13.3	13.5	13.1	13.5	15.7	14.1	n.p.	13.1	13.6
62	Hypertension – of females aged 18 years and over	%	2004–05	13.4	14.2	13.6	13.9	14.0	17.0	n.p.	16.2	13.8
SERVICES		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
63	Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)(c)	rate	2004–05	300	374	361	352	351	n.p.	n.p.	n.p.	340
64	Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	rate	2004–05	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.8	4.2	4.9	3.4	3.3	4.1
65	Average length of stay in hospital	days	2004–05	3.7	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.3	n.p.	n.p.	n.p.	3.4
66	Doctors (per 100,000 population)	rate	2001	251	252	234	276	232	235	253	287	248
67	Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 years and over)(h)	rate	2005	83.1	84.0	85.1	89.4	82.2	86.1	79.2	72.6	84.1
Medicare usage												
Average Medicare services processed(i)												
68	Per person	no.	2005–06	12.8	12.0	12.1	12.0	10.6	10.9	7.0	9.7	12.0
69	Per male	no.	2005–06	10.8	9.9	10.0	10.0	8.5	8.9	5.3	7.7	10.0
70	Per female	no.	2005–06	14.8	14.0	14.2	14.0	12.6	13.0	8.9	11.6	14.0
71	Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 years and over	%	2005–06	29.6	30.4	28.1	32.3	27.3	30.5	11.7	23.2	29.3
EXPENDITURE		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(j)	ACT	Aust.
72	Persons with private health insurance	%	2006	44.4	42.0	40.4	43.9	46.9	41.8	30.9	(k)	43.0

(a) Expectation of life is based on three years of data ending in the year shown in the table heading.

(b) Based on year of registration.

(c) Proportions and rates are age standardised to the Australian population as at 30 June 2001.

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

(e) Rates are calculated for the three year period 2003 to 2005.

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

(g) Excludes persons for whom height and/or weight were not known.

(h) Ratios calculated by AIHW from data supplied by DoHA. Place numbers are taken from mainstream residential aged care services and do not include places provided, for example, by the EACH program, Multi Purposes Services or places funded under the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Aged Care Strategy.

(i) Average number of services processed per resident.

(j) Northern Territory Membership and coverage is understated as some funds report Northern Territory members in other states.

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

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–2 and 7–12 are calculated using the average of three years of data.

Data for indicators 13–16 and 26–47 are for the calendar year.

Data for indicators 17–23 and 51–62 are according to the reference period for the most recent National Health Survey.

Data for indicators 24–25 are according to the reference period for the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers.

Data for indicators 48–50 are at 31 December.

Data for indicators 63–65 and 67–72 are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Data for indicator 66 as at census night.

Health: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1-4, 7-15	Deaths, Australia (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).
5-6	ABS 1998 and 2003 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers.
16	Causes of Death, Australia (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).
17-23, 51-62	2001 and 2004-05 National Health Survey.
24-25	Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 1998 and 2003 (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).
26-47	ABS Causes of Death Collection.
48-50	Australian Childhood Immunisation Register, viewed 5 February 2007, < http://www.medicareaustralia.gov.au/providers/health_statistics/statistical_reporting/acir.htm >.
63-65	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Australian Hospital Statistics, (AIHW cat. no. HSE 41).
66	ABS 1996 and 2001 Census of Population and Housing and Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter, 1996 and 2001 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).
67	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Residential Aged Care in Australia: A Statistical Overview (AIHW cat. no. AGE 45).
68-71	Department of Health and Ageing, 2006, viewed 11 December 2006, < http://www.health.gov.au/internet/wcms/publishing.nsf/Content/medstat-sep06-tables-d >.
72	Private Health Insurance Administration Council, viewed 11 December 2006, < http://www.phiac.gov.au/statistics/membershipcoverage/hosyear.htm >.
73-74	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Health Expenditure Australia (AIHW cat. no. HWE 35), viewed 11 December 2006, < http://www.aihw.gov.au/cognos/cgi-bin/ppdscgi.exe.htm >.

Health: definitions

Arthritis (prevalence)

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

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results*, 2001 and 2004-05 (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Asthma (prevalence)

based on people reporting having asthma. Asthma was assumed to be a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results*, 2001 and 2004-05 (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Average length of stay in hospital

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

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2004-05* (AIHW cat. no. HSE 41).

Average Medicare services processed

average number of services processed per Australian resident per year.

Reference: Department of Health and Ageing, *Medicare Statistics 1984/85 to September Quarter 2006*.

Breast cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the breast is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 174-175 up to 1996, ICD-10 code C50 from 1997 and onwards).

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

Cancer (prevalence)

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

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results*, 2001 and 2004-05 (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Cancer deaths

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

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

Causes of death

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

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

Current smokers

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

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results*, 2001 and 2004-05 (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Deaths

based on the year in which the death was registered. Death is the permanent disappearance of all evidence of life after birth has taken place. The definition excludes deaths prior to live birth. For the purposes of the Deaths and Causes of Death collections conducted by the ABS, a death refers to any death which occurs in, or en route to Australia and is registered with a state or territory Registry of Births, Deaths or Marriages.

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

Health: definitions continued

Diabetes mellitus (prevalence)

based on people reporting diabetes mellitus as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more). Where diabetes mellitus Type 1 and 2 were current they are assumed to be long-term conditions.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide, 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).

Diabetes mellitus deaths

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

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

Disability

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

Reference: World Health Organisation, *International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health 2001*, and *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia, 2003: Summary of Findings* (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).

Disability-free life expectancy

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

Reference: *Australian Health Trends, 2001*, (AIHW cat. no. PHE 24).

Doctors per 100,000 population

the number of practising general and specialist medical practitioners per 100,000 estimated resident population on Census night of that year.

Reference: *Information Paper: Census of Population and Housing: Nature and Content, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 2008.0).

Drug induced deaths

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

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

Fetal death

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

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

Fully immunised children

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

Reference: Australian Childhood Immunisation Register.

Health expenditure

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

Reference: *Health and Welfare Expenditure Series, Number 28: Health Expenditure Australia 2004–05* (AIHW cat. no. HWE 35).

Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)

the total number of beds in all hospitals providing acute care services per 1,000 population averaged over each month of the financial year. Hospitals providing acute care services are those in which the treatment typically require short durations of stay.

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2004–05* (AIHW cat. no. HWE 41).

Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)

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

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2004–05* (AIHW cat. no. HSE 41).

Hypertension (prevalence)

based on people reporting hypertension (high blood pressure) as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), whether or not controlled by medication.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide, 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).

Infant mortality rate

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

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

Ischaemic and other heart disease (prevalence)

based on people reporting ischaemic or other heart disease as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), including heart attack, angina and other heart disease, whether or not controlled by medication.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide, 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).

Ischaemic heart disease deaths

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

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

Health: definitions continued

Life expectancy

refers to the average number of additional years a person of a given age and sex could expect to live if the age specific death rates of the given period continue throughout his / her life time. Life expectancies are calculated from life tables which are statistical models of levels of mortality in a population of different ages. Life tables are based on three years ending in the reference year of the table.

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

Live birth

the birth of a child, who, after delivery, breathes or shows any other evidence of life such as a heartbeat.

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

Low usual intake of fruit

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

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001 and 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Lung cancer deaths

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

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

Medicare services

Medicare is Australia's universal health insurance scheme. Services include access to free treatment as a public (Medicare) patient in a public hospital, and free or subsidised treatment by medical practitioners including general practitioners, specialists, participating optometrists or dentists (specified services only).

Reference: Medicare Australia, viewed 8 December 2006, <<http://www.medicareaustralia.gov.au>>.

Motor vehicle traffic accident deaths

deaths where motor traffic accidents are identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes E810–E819 up to 1996; ICD-10 relevant codes selected from V01–V89 for 1997 and onwards).

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

Neonatal deaths

deaths of any child weighing at least 400 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 20 weeks gestation) who was born alive (as defined under live birth) and who died within 28 days of birth.

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

Overweight or obese adults

overweight is defined by a body mass index (BMI) greater than or equal to 25 and less than 30, while obesity is defined by a BMI greater than or equal to 30. BMI is body weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in metres. Calculations are based on self-reported height and weight and excludes persons for whom height and/or weight are unknown.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001 and 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Perinatal mortality rate

the annual number of fetal and neonatal deaths per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined (where birthweight was at least 400 grams).

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

Persons with private health insurance

proportion of the total population with private health insurance.

Reference: Private Health Insurance Administration Council, *Membership Statistics*, Canberra, viewed 8 December 2006, <<http://www.phiac.gov.au/statistics/>>.

Private health insurance

provides cover against all or part of hospital theatre and accommodation costs in either a public or private hospital, medical costs in hospital, and costs associated with a range of services, not covered under Medicare including private dental services, optical, chiropractic, home nursing, ambulance, natural therapies and other ancillary services.

Reference: Private Health Insurance Administration Council, *Insure? Not Sure?* viewed 6 February 2007, <<http://www.phiac.gov.au/insurenotsure/pdf/insure.pdf>>.

Profound/severe core activity restriction

the person: is unable to do, or needs help with, a core activity task (communication, mobility or self-care); or, has difficulty understanding or being understood by family or friends; or can communicate more easily using sign language or other non-spoken forms of communication.

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

Prostate cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the prostate gland is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 code 185 up to 1996; ICD-10 code C61 for 1997 and onwards).

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

Psychological distress

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

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

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001 and 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Recent injury

proportion of people reporting injury (as a result of selected event(s) occurring in the 4 weeks prior to interview) which resulted in medical consultation or treatment, or a reduction in usual activities. Injuries included cuts, fractures, dislocations, sprains, wounds, bruising, concussion, burns and poisoning (other than food poisoning) as well as a range of other injuries.

Reference: *National Health Survey 2004–05 Users' Guide* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).

Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 years and over)

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

Reference: *Residential Aged Care in Australia 2004–05: A statistical overview* (AIHW cat. no. AGE 45).

Health: definitions continued

Risky/high-risk drinkers

males aged 18 years and over who reported drinking more than 50 ml and up to and including 75 ml of absolute alcohol (risky) or more than 75 ml (high-risk) on average per day, and females aged 18 years and over who reported drinking more than 25 ml and up to and including 50 ml of absolute alcohol (risky) and more than 50 ml (high-risk) on average per day.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001 and 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Sedentary

includes persons who reported that they did not undertake any, or very low levels of exercise for recreation, sport or fitness within the two weeks reference period (sedentary exercise level).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001 and 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Skin cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the skin, including both melanoma and non-melanocytic skin cancer is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 172–173 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes C43–C44 for 1997 and onwards).

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

Standardised rates

these enable the comparison of rates between populations with differing age structures by relating them to a standard population. These rates are the overall rates that would have prevailed in the standard population if it had experienced at each age the rates of the population being studied. The standard population used is the estimated resident population for Australia (persons) at 30 June, 2001. Age standardised rates may vary from those published previously because of different standard populations used and different age groups used for standardisation. Age groups (0–4, then 10 year age groups to 75 years and over), were used in the calculation of age standardised rates from the National Health Survey and the Survey of Disability and Ageing. Five-year age groups (0–4, 5–9, ... 80–84, 85 years and over) were used for age standardisation for ABS Deaths data.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0) and *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2004–05* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Stroke deaths

deaths where cerebrovascular disease (causing a blockage (embolism) or rupture (haemorrhage) of blood vessels within or leading to the brain) is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 430–438 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes I60–I69 for 1997 and onwards).

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

Suicide deaths

deaths where suicide is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes E950–E959 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes X60–X84 for 1997 and onwards).

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

Survival to 50, 70 and 85 years

the probability of survival to specific ages represents the proportion of survivors from birth to that age in a life table. Estimates are based on life tables calculated by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. The life tables used for 1995 and 1996 are annual life tables. From 1997, life tables are based on three years ending in the reference year of the table. In accordance with this, for 1995 and 1996 the probability of survival is based on annual life tables. From 1997 onwards, the probability of survival is based on three years of data ending in the reference year of the table.

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

Total number of deaths

Based on the year in which the death was registered. Estimates may differ from estimates given in the Population chapter of this publication, which are based on the year in which the death occurred.

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

Overweight and obesity

In 2005, 7.4 million people aged 18 years and over (54% of the adult population) were classified as overweight or obese.

Overweight and obesity have become world-wide concerns, reaching epidemic proportions.¹ Obesity is caused by an energy imbalance where energy intake exceeds energy expended over time.² This imbalance has been linked to lifestyle factors such as increased consumption of foods with high levels of sugar and saturated fats, as well as a reduction in physical activity.

Overweight and obesity pose a major risk to long term health by increasing the risk of chronic illnesses such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease and some cancers.¹ It has been estimated that obesity and its associated illnesses cost Australian society and governments a total of \$21 billion in 2005.³ In July 2006, the Australian Government implemented a five year, \$500 million program, the Australian Better Health Initiative, aimed at reducing the impacts of chronic disease which includes a focus on promoting healthy weight.⁴

This article discusses adults who were classified as overweight or obese according to their Body Mass Index (BMI), based on self-reported height and weight.

Overweight and obesity trends

In 2004–05, more than half (54%) of all adults, or 7.4 million people aged 18 years and over were either overweight or obese, an increase from 45% (5.4 million adults) in 1995. Using age standardised data, the rate of overweight adults has increased from 33% in

Data sources and definitions

Data in this article are mainly drawn from the 1995, 2001 and 2004–05 National Health Surveys (NHS), and refer to adults aged 18 years and over.

In the NHS, overweight and obesity are assessed using body mass index (BMI), calculated from self-reported height and weight information, using the formula weight (kg) divided by the square of height (m). To produce a measure of the prevalence of overweight or obesity in adults, BMI values were grouped according to the following categories: *Underweight* (BMI less than 18.5), *Normal* (BMI 18.5 to less than 25.0), *Overweight* (BMI 25.0 to less than 30.0) and *Obese* (BMI 30.0 and greater). BMI rates calculated in this article include persons whose BMI was underweight, but excludes persons whose BMI was not stated or not known.

While BMI is a useful tool for assessing changes in body mass at the population level, it may be less appropriate for certain individuals. For example, it does not account for those with high body mass due to muscle rather than fat.

Self-reported height and weight may also differ from measured height and weight. In 1995, a comparison of these two methods suggested that when self-reporting, people tend to overstate their height and understate their weight. For further details, see *How Australians Measure Up, 1995* (ABS cat. no. 4359.0).⁵

To account for any variations in age structure of the population over time as well as between certain sub-populations, rates and proportions are age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population where applicable.

Adults in normal, overweight and obese BMI(a) categories(b)



- (a) Based on self-reported height and weight.
 (b) Total includes persons whose BMI was underweight.
 (c) Age standardised to 2004–05 total NHS population.

Source: ABS 1995, 2001 and 2004–05 National Health Surveys.

1995 to 36% in 2004–05, while the rate of obesity in adults has increased from 13% to 18% over the same period. Each of the National Health Surveys conducted since 1995 has reported a higher rate of overweight and obesity for males than for females.

Obesity in adults

Rates of overweight and obesity vary depending on age and sex. Between 1995 and 2004–05, rates of obesity increased for both men and women across all age groups. For men, the largest increase in the obesity rate occurred in the 35–44 age group which almost doubled from 12% in 1995 to 23% in 2004–05. For women, the increase in the obesity rate was more uniform across age groups.

Although the National Health Surveys collect data at one point in time, it is possible to observe changes over time in the obesity rate for a cohort of people born in the same ten year period. In this approach, for example, survey respondents aged 25–34 years in 1995 and those aged 35–44 years in 2004–05, while not the same respondents, are seen as representing the same group of people as they age ten years. Among the male cohorts, the greatest increase in the rate of obesity occurred for the group aged 25–34 in 1995 (12% in that year compared to 23% ten years on, in 2004–05).

For females, the greatest increase in the obesity rate occurred for the cohort aged 35–44 years in 1995, with 12% classified as obese compared to 20% of the 45–54 year olds representing the same group of people in 2004–05.

There were smaller increases in older women, with 18% of those aged 55–64 years classified as obese in 1995, compared to 22% of 65–74 year olds representing the same cohort in 2004–05. For men, rates over the ten year period were similar, with 16% of

Gaining weight

Between 1995 and 2004–05, the average weight (kg) of both male and female adults increased across all age groups. During this period, the average weight of an adult female increased from 65kg to 68kg, and for males it increased from 80kg to 84kg.

Men appear to be getting heavier at an earlier age. In 1995, the average weight for males peaked in the 45–54 years age group (82kg). By 2004–05 average weight was greatest in the 35–44 years group (87kg) which was 6kg more than for this age group in 1995. For women, the increases in average weight were similar across all age groups.

males aged 55–64 classified as obese in 1995, and 17% of 65–74 year olds classified as obese ten years later.

Socioeconomic characteristics

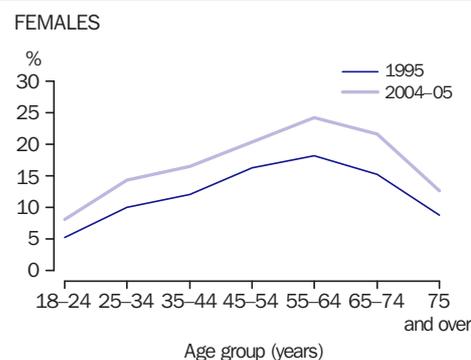
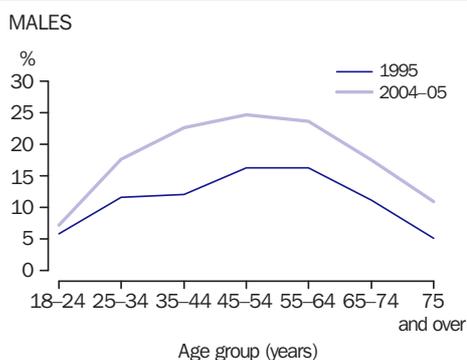
The NHS can provide insight into associations between certain sociodemographic characteristics and excess weight. As some of these populations have differing age structures, the proportions presented in this section are age standardised to remove the confounding influence of age.

...born overseas

Most people born overseas are in good health on arrival in Australia due to the rigorous health checks they undergo to be eligible for migration. This 'healthy migrant effect' generally wanes as their length of time in Australia increases, and time since migration is an important factor in excess weight in migrants.⁶

In 2004–05, the overall adult obesity rate was 18%. People born overseas who arrived before 1996 had a slightly lower age standardised rate of obesity (15%), while the rate was even lower (11%) for more recent arrivals (between 1996 and 2005).

Obese adults by age



Source: ABS 1995 and 2004–05 National Health Surveys.

...education

Adults with a degree, diploma or higher qualifications were less likely to be obese than those with other or no post-school qualifications. In 2004–05, around one-fifth (21%) of those without a non-school qualification, and 19% of those with other non-school qualifications (i.e. trade certificate), were classified as obese. By comparison, 13% of those with a degree/diploma or higher qualification were classified as obese.

...income

While equal proportions (53%) of people in low income and high income households were overweight or obese in 2004–05, those in low income households were more likely to be obese. Around one-fifth (21%) of adults in low income households were obese compared with 15% of adults in high income households.

...disadvantage

The Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) Index of Disadvantage summarises various attributes (such as income and unemployment) of an area in which a

Overweight and obesity in NSW children

The 2004 NSW Schools Physical Activity and Nutrition Survey (SPANS) provides insight into overweight and obesity in children aged 5 to 16 years in NSW. Almost 5,500 school-aged children from ages 5 to 16 years were surveyed and measured for height and weight. BMI in childhood changes substantially with age, thus children were defined as healthy, overweight or obese using age and gender-appropriate categories recommended by the International Obesity Taskforce.⁷

Overall, 25% of boys and 23% of girls were either overweight or obese. For boys, the rate of overweight and obesity was related to age, reaching a peak in 11–12 year olds (22% of this group classified as overweight and 9% classified as obese) before declining again. For girls, the highest rates of overweight and obesity was in 9–10 year olds, with 22% of this age group classified as overweight and 8% classified as obese.⁷ See the *NSW Schools Physical Activity and Nutrition Survey (SPANS) 2004: Full Report* for further information.

population lives. In 2004–05, adults living in areas of greatest relative disadvantage had a higher age standardised rate of obesity (22%) compared to adults living in areas with the lowest relative disadvantage (13%).

Age standardised socioeconomic characteristics(a) of adults and BMI(b) — 2004–05

	Units	Normal	Overweight	Obese	Total(c)
Born overseas					
Arrived before 1996	%	48.0	33.9	15.1	100.0
Arrived 1996–2005	%	51.5	32.6	10.6	100.0
Highest non-school qualification					
Degree/diploma or higher qualification	%	49.2	34.9	13.0	100.0
Other qualification	%	41.7	37.0	19.4	100.0
No non-school qualification	%	41.1	35.6	20.5	100.0
Household income(d)					
Low income	%	43.1	32.4	20.8	100.0
Middle income	%	43.8	35.8	17.4	100.0
High income	%	45.5	37.8	14.9	100.0
Index of disadvantage(e)					
First quintile	%	40.0	34.5	22.4	100.0
Fifth quintile	%	49.6	34.8	12.9	100.0
All persons aged 18 years and over	%	43.9	35.5	18.0	100.0
All persons aged 18 years and over	'000	6 037.0	4 888.0	2 478.0	13 760.6

(a) Sub-populations age standardised to 2004–05 total NHS population.

(b) Based on self-reported height and weight.

(c) Includes persons whose BMI was underweight.

(d) Gross weekly equivalised household income. Low income households are in the lowest quintile, middle income in the third quintile and high income in the highest quintile of household income.

(e) The first quintile contains areas with the greatest relative disadvantage and the fifth quintile those areas with the lowest relative disadvantage.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

Aside from socioeconomic differences between areas in terms of education, income and employment, some areas may also offer greater opportunities for physical activity and greater access to healthy food options.⁸

...remoteness areas

In 2004–05 the rate of obesity in Outer Regional/remote/very remote areas was 23%, while in Major Cities and Inner Regional areas the rates were 17% and 19% respectively. The rate of overweight was similar across the remoteness areas (36% in Outer Regional/remote/very remote areas of Australia, compared to 35% in Major Cities).

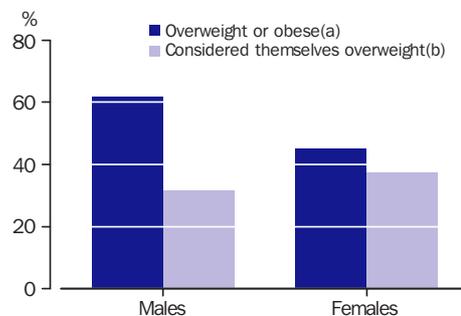
Perceptions of own weight

For many people, particularly men and older women, self perception of 'acceptable weight' differs from the standard BMI definitions.

This may have implications for the management of healthy body weight in adults.⁹ In 2004–05, more than half of adults (63% of males and 59% of females) considered themselves to be of acceptable weight. The proportion of males (32%) and females (38%) who considered themselves to be overweight was considerably lower than those who were classified as overweight/obese according to their BMI (62% and 45% respectively).

Between 1995 and 2004–05, after adjusting for differences in the age structure of the population, the proportion of people in the overweight and obese BMI categories who considered themselves to be of acceptable weight increased. In 2004–05, almost half (47%) of males and around one-fifth (21%) of females who were overweight or obese considered themselves to be of acceptable

Perceptions of weight — 2004–05



- (a) Based on self-reported height and weight.
 (b) Denominator includes persons who considered themselves underweight and persons who considered themselves of acceptable weight.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

Overweight and obesity among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander adults

As with the NHS, height and weight measurements were collected in the 2004–05 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey (NATSIHS).

After adjusting for non-response, just over one-third (35%) of Indigenous people aged 18 years and over were recorded as being in the normal or healthy weight range in 2004–05 based on BMI measures, with a further 29% in the overweight category and 31% classified as obese. The proportion of Indigenous adults in non-remote areas who were overweight or obese in 1995 was 51% increasing to 60% in 2004–05.

When differences between the age structures of the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations are taken into account, Indigenous adults were 1.2 times more likely to be overweight or obese than non-Indigenous adults. The disparity between Indigenous and non-Indigenous rates of overweight and obesity was greater for females than for males.¹²

weight. This compares with age standardised rates of around one-third (35%) for males and 12% for females in 1995.

Health risk behaviours and relative prevalence of long term conditions

Being overweight (i.e. BMI of 25 or more) is a modifiable risk behaviour for a number of long term health conditions, including a number of National Health Priority Area (NHPA) conditions, such as diabetes, arthritis and some cancers.¹⁰ It is also associated with a range of other NHPA risk factors, such as high blood pressure and high blood cholesterol.

In the following analysis, we include data on two modifiable risk behaviours: physical inactivity and overweight and obesity. In 2004–05, 9.4 million adults (68%) had at least one of these two risk factors. Around 2.5 million adults (18%) were both physically inactive as well as either overweight or obese.

As the number of risk factors a person has for a particular condition increases, so does the risk of developing that condition.¹¹ Again, while it is not possible to infer causality using the NHS, adults who had at least one of these two risk factors were, on average, more likely to have certain conditions than those without either of these risk factors. These conditions include high blood pressure, Type II diabetes and high cholesterol. Adults who were classified as overweight or obese and physically inactive were almost three times as likely (2.9 times) to have Type II diabetes, almost twice as likely to have high blood pressure (1.9 times) and 1.5 times more likely

Overweight and obesity and physical inactivity: association with selected conditions(a) — 2004–05

Risk behaviour		Prevalence(b)		Relative prevalence of selected conditions					
Overweight or obese?(c)	Physically inactive?(d)	'000	%	Ischaemic heart disease	Type 2 diabetes	Arthritis	Malignant cancer	High blood pressure	High cholesterol
No	No	4 351.1	31.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Yes	No	4 855.8	35.3	1.3	2.1	1.2	1.0	1.9	1.7
No	Yes	2 043.4	14.8	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.0
Yes	Yes	2 506.5	18.2	1.5	2.9	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.3
Total persons aged 18 years and over		13 760.6(f)	100.0						

(a) Measures the likelihood of having a particular condition given the presence of certain risk factor(s), compared with the likelihood of having the condition among the population who did not have either of these risk factors.

(b) Sub-populations age standardised to 2004–05 total NHS population.

(c) Based on self-reported height and weight.

(d) Physically inactive includes those who did very low levels of leisure time exercise.

(e) Aged 18 years and over.

(f) Total includes those for which exercise levels were not stated or not known.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

to have Ischaemic heart disease than those without either of these risk factors.

The relationship between health risk factors and long term conditions is further reflected in how people tend to rate their overall health. In 2004–05, half (50%) of adults who were either overweight or obese also rated their health as excellent or very good, while 19% considered their health to be fair or poor. This compares to 63% of adults in the normal BMI category who considered themselves to be in excellent or very good health, and 12% who considered their overall health to be fair or poor.

Endnotes

- 1 World Health Organisation 2003, *Obesity and Overweight: WHO Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health*, WHO, Geneva.
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Diabetes mellitus

Between 1995 and 2004–05 the proportion of the population who reported they had diabetes increased from 2.4% to 3.6%.

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic condition in which the body is deficient in producing or using insulin. Untreated, people with diabetes have high blood glucose levels while their tissues lack nourishment. Diabetes can cause diseases of the eyes, kidneys, nerves and cardiovascular system, which can lead to a reduced quality of life and premature death. Type 2 diabetes, the most common form, has increased in prevalence since the 1980s, and further increases in obesity and physically inactive lifestyles, and the ageing of the population, have the potential to continue this increase.

Diabetes has been among conditions of concern to Australian health ministers for some time and continues to be a focus of the Council of Australian Governments' broader commitment to reducing the prevalence of avoidable chronic diseases and their risk factors.^{1,2} Internationally, there are fears that an epidemic of diabetes will follow changes in diet and lifestyle, and population ageing, in developing countries.³

Prevalence

In 2004–05, close to 700,000 people, or 3.6% of the population, reported they had diabetes. This was substantially higher than the 404,000 people, or 2.4% of the population, reporting it in 1995 (after age standardising the rate to adjust for age differences). Some of this increase could reflect increased diagnosis.

The most common type of diabetes is referred to as type 2 and is a degenerative condition in which the body tissue becomes resistant to insulin. In 2004–05, 83% of people with diabetes reported that they had this type. Type 2 most often develops in middle or older age and being overweight or physically

Data sources and definitions

This article draws mainly on data from the 2004–05 ABS National Health Survey (NHS). The survey scope was people in private dwellings. Data are self-reported estimates of people with diagnosed diabetes. Type 2 diabetes can go undiagnosed and an Australian study estimated that in 1999–2000, 7.5% of the population aged 25 years and over had diabetes mellitus, twice as many as had been diagnosed.⁴

People with diabetes in the NHS are people who reported they currently had diabetes mellitus type 1 or type 2 or did not know the type they had. People who reported having gestational diabetes only, or diabetes insipidus (a rare form of diabetes unrelated to diabetes mellitus), were excluded.

In this article most rates based on NHS data are *age standardised*. Age standardising adjusts for differences which are due to the different age profiles of the populations being compared. In this case, it adjusts for differences between people with and without diabetes in 2004–05, between different groups in the population in 2004–05, and between the Australian population in 1995, 2001 and 2004–05.

inactive are important risk factors for this condition. Of those with type 2 in 2004–05, 81% had been aged 45 years or over when diagnosed. Most of the increase in the prevalence of diabetes since 1995 is due to an increase in type 2.

The less common type of diabetes is referred to as type 1 and is an autoimmune disease in which the body attacks and destroys the insulin producing cells. It has a relatively sudden onset and may arise in childhood, youth or later in life. At present there is no known way to reduce the risk of developing this disease. In 2004–05, 13% of people with diabetes reported they had type 1. More than half (56%) had been diagnosed when aged

People with diabetes

Type of diabetes reported	1995		2001		2004–05	
	no.	% ^(a)	no.	% ^(a)	no.	% ^(a)
Type 1	79 500	0.5	95 200	0.5	91 900	0.5
Type 2	181 800	1.1	433 800	2.4	582 800	3.0
Type unknown	142 400	0.9	25 200	0.1	24 900	0.1
Total	403 700	2.4	554 200	3.2	699 600	3.6

(a) People with diabetes as a proportion of the population, age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population.

Source: ABS 1995, 2001 and 2004–05 National Health Surveys.

under 45 years, including 24% diagnosed in childhood (under 15 years). The proportion of the population reporting type 1 remained the same over the period (0.5%) but there are some indications from other data sources of an increase in prevalence among children.⁵

In addition to the 700,000 people who reported that they currently had diabetes, an additional 81,000 people reported that they had at some time been told by a doctor or a nurse that they had diabetes, but also reported that they did not currently have the condition. About 72% of these people had been told they had type 2 and most of the remainder did not know the type.

Variation in prevalence

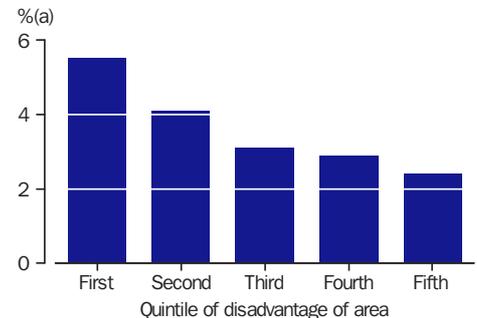
In 2004–05, the proportion of the population with diabetes increased with age from less than half a percent of those aged under 25 years to 14% of those aged 65 years and over. A higher proportion of males than females had diabetes (4.0% compared with 3.2%), reflecting their higher rate of type 2 (3.4% compared to 2.6%). A similar proportion of males and females reported type 1 (0.5% compared with 0.4%).

There is interest in which groups in the population have higher rates of diabetes. In order to examine this variation, the following data are age standardised to adjust for differences in age structure between groups.

Health status often varies by socioeconomic status. In 2004–05, people who lived in local areas rated as the most disadvantaged (based on census data on residents' income, occupation, education and so on) had higher rates of many long term conditions including diabetes.⁶ The prevalence of diabetes was 2.4% of the population in the least disadvantaged areas and increased with increasing disadvantage of area to 5.5% for people in the most disadvantaged areas.

Diabetes and high blood sugar combined was 3.4 times as prevalent among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people than among non-Indigenous people. Indigenous people living in remote areas of Australia had a rate of these combined conditions about twice that of Indigenous people living in non-remote areas. (Diabetes is often referred to colloquially as blood sugar in remote Indigenous communities, and a combined rate is used to compare the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.) See *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Selected chronic conditions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 82–87.

Diabetes prevalence(a) by relative disadvantage of area — 2004–05



(a) Proportion of people in each quintile of disadvantage of area who had diabetes, age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population. The first quintile is the most disadvantaged and the fifth quintile the least disadvantaged.

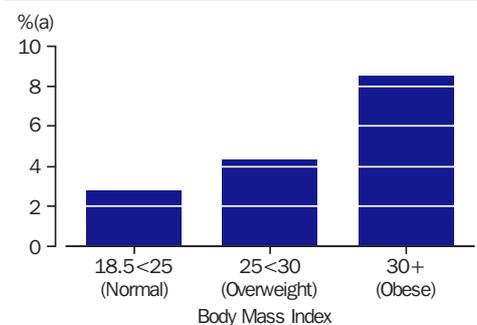
Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

Prevalence also varied by birthplace. Of birthplace groups which could be examined, diabetes was least prevalent among people born in Northwest Europe (2.8%) and most prevalent among people born in Southern and Central Asia (9%). Such variation can reflect differences in the prevalence of risk factors, but ethnicity is also considered to be a risk factor for diabetes, independent of other factors.⁷

...risk factors

Being overweight is a recognised risk factor for type 2 diabetes. People may lose weight for health reasons after being diagnosed with diabetes. Nevertheless in 2004–05, the proportion of people who had diabetes increased from 2.8% of people who were of

Diabetes prevalence(a) by body mass index(b) — 2004–05



(a) Proportion of people aged 15 years and over in each Body Mass Index group who had diabetes, age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population.
(b) People were assigned a Body Mass Index score based on self-reported height and weight.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

normal weight to 8% of those who were obese. Between 1995 and 2004–05, it became more common to be overweight, with overweight or obese people increasing from 44% to 52% of the population aged 15 years and over. The obese category increased fastest, from 12% to 17%. (For more information see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Overweight and Obesity, pp. 71–75.)

Lack of exercise is also a risk factor for type 2 and in 2004–05, 5.1% of people who were sedentary in their leisure time had diabetes, compared with 4.2% of people who exercised at a low level, 3.7% of those who exercised at a moderate level and 2.7% of those who exercised at a high level. People who were sedentary in their leisure time made up 34% of the population aged 15 years and over in both 1995 and 2004–05.

People with hypertension are more likely than others to develop type 2 diabetes. This may be because diabetes and hypertension share risk factors such as physical inactivity and overweight. The same proportion of the population reported they had hypertension in 1995 and 2004–05 (11%).

Gestational diabetes is a temporary form of diabetes experienced by about 3%–8% of pregnant women. Women who have had this condition are at increased risk of later developing type 2. In 2004–05, 101,600 women (who had not subsequently developed another type of diabetes) reported that they had had gestational diabetes or currently had it.

Some people have impaired glucose metabolism but not in the range that warrants a diagnosis of type 2 diabetes. These people are at higher risk of developing type 2 diabetes than other people, although lifestyle changes could often reduce this risk.

An Australian study estimated that in 1999–2000, based on medical tests, as much as 16% of the population aged 25 years and over (or 2 million people) had impaired glucose metabolism, mostly undiagnosed.⁴

Health of people with diabetes

A person's perception of their own general health status is considered a useful measure of their current condition. More than twice as many people with diabetes aged 15 years and over assessed their own health as fair or poor compared with people without diabetes (40% and 15% respectively). While over a quarter of people with diabetes assessed their health as excellent or very good (27%), this compared with 57% of people without diabetes. People with diabetes aged 18 years and over were also more likely to have very high levels of psychological distress than those without diabetes (8% compared with 4%).

...associated conditions

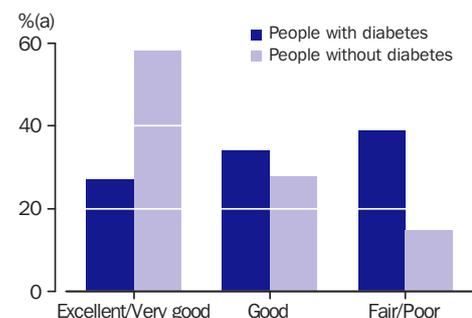
Type 2 diabetes shares risk factors with cardiovascular disease. Also, over time, both types of diabetes can affect the large and small blood vessels. Diabetic small vessel damage can cause eye disease, renal disease, and nerve damage, while large vessel damage can lead to hypertension and cardiovascular disease. In 2004–05, people with diabetes aged 45 years and over were 1.9 times more likely than people without diabetes of the same age to have hypertension and 2.2 times more likely to have a heart, stroke or vascular condition. They were also more than twice as likely to have high cholesterol (which increases the risk of cardiovascular disease) than people without diabetes of that age.

International concern about diabetes



The World Health Organisation (WHO) is concerned that an epidemic of diabetes may follow changes in lifestyle and diet, and population ageing, in developing countries. WHO projects that the number of people with diabetes worldwide will increase from an estimated 177 million in 2000 to 300 million by 2025. It estimates that around 4 million deaths worldwide in 2000 (9% of total deaths) related to the presence of diabetes. Indicative of the debate and research surrounding the true prevalence of diabetes, this replaces an earlier WHO estimate of 800,000 deaths each year being due to diabetes. Affording the costs of treating diabetes will prove a particular challenge to low and middle income nations. For example, a WHO analysis of health expenditure in the Western Pacific region estimated that 16% of hospital expenditure was on people with diabetes.³

Self-assessed health status(a) — 2004–05



(a) Data are age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population aged 15 years and over.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

Of people with diabetes aged 45 years and over, 15% reported that they had a sight problem due to diabetes (33% of those with type 1 and 13% of people with type 2). People with diabetes were 2.3 times as likely to have glaucoma as people without diabetes, 1.6 times more likely to have cataracts and 1.7 times more likely to have complete or partial blindness.

According to medical research, about 30% of people with type 1 diabetes and perhaps as many as 40% of those with type 2 diabetes may eventually develop kidney disease.⁸ In 2004–05, people aged 45 years and over with diabetes were 1.6 times more likely to have a urinary system disease or non-circulatory fluid retention problems than people without diabetes.

Nerve and blood vessel damage can leave people with diabetes at risk of developing infections in their extremities. People with diabetes aged 45 years and over were close to four times more likely than those without diabetes to have had an amputation, although this was uncommon for both groups. A study

based on hospital data in the late 1990s found that on average around 2,600 lower limb amputations due to diabetes and its complications took place per year, with people aged 65–79 years making up the largest group of patients.⁹

...diabetes and disability

In 2003, around half of people reporting diabetes in the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers had a disability (357,000 people). Of these, 24% reported diabetes as the condition that caused them most problems (80,000 people). Of the close to 150,000 people aged 15–64 years with diabetes and disability, 45% reported being permanently unable to work (65,500 people) and in total, 82% reported some kind of restriction in employment.

Managing diabetes

Managing diabetes involves trying to keep blood glucose within safe levels while ensuring tissues can take up glucose from the blood. This often involves a routine of taking pharmaceuticals and controlling the timing and amount of food that is consumed. In 2004–05, people with diabetes reported in the NHS on the actions they had taken to manage diabetes in the previous two weeks. About 80% of people with each type of diabetes had followed a changed eating pattern or diet because of the condition. Over two-thirds of people with diabetes took medication for the condition including almost all people reporting type 1 diabetes (97%) and 64% of those reporting type 2.

Both physical activity and losing weight may benefit some people with diabetes by reducing cardiovascular risk and assisting the body's use of glucose. In 2004–05, 19% of those with type 1 and 31% of those with type 2 reported that they had exercised most days in the previous two weeks because of diabetes. However, based on amount and type of activity, 45% of people with diabetes aged 15 years and over would be considered sedentary in their leisure time and 32% exercised at a low level. The majority of people with diabetes aged 15 years and over were overweight (73%) including 37% who were obese. Around 9% of people reporting type 1 diabetes and 19% of people reporting type 2 also reported losing weight as part of managing diabetes during the previous 2 weeks.

As people with diabetes are at increased risk of cardiovascular disease, actions which increase risk further, such as smoking, are best avoided. In 2004–05, 12% of adults with diabetes were current daily smokers, while

People aged 45 years and over: diabetes and other conditions(a) — 2004–05

	With diabetes mellitus	Without diabetes mellitus	Ratio of rates
	%(a)	%(a)	
Hypertension	47.3	24.3	1.9
Heart, stroke or vascular condition	19.1	8.6	2.2
Oedema or heart failure	7.7	2.8	2.8
Angina	6.5	2.5	2.6
Ischaemic heart disease (excl. angina)	7.7	0.8	9.6
Cerebrovascular diseases	*1.7	1.1	*1.7
Diseases of arteries, arterioles and capillaries	6.5	2.3	2.8
High cholesterol	33.5	14.8	2.3
Urinary system condition or Non-circulatory fluid retention	12.6	7.7	1.6
Cataracts	7.1	4.4	1.6
Glaucoma	5.8	2.5	2.3
Complete or partial blindness or other visual disturbance	6.9	4.2	1.6
Sight problem due to diabetes(b)	15.3	n.a.	n.a.
Amputation	*1.6	0.4	*4.0
	'000	'000	
Total persons	610.7	6 684.4	

(a) Proportion of people with and without diabetes who currently have other selected long term conditions. Data are age standardised to the 2004–05 total NHS population aged 45 years and over.

(b) Person reported that they had a sight problem due to diabetes. Would include some but not all people reporting specific conditions such as cataracts.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

People with diabetes: managing diabetes and other health related actions(a) — 2004–05

	Type 1	Type 2	Total
	%(a)	%(a)	%(a)
Action to manage diabetes			
Followed changed eating pattern	79.8	81.0	80.0
Used pharmaceuticals	96.6	63.7	67.8
Exercised most days	19.4	31.1	28.9
Lost weight	*8.6	19.0	17.5
Other action	*9.8	6.7	7.0
Behaviours/characteristics that affect health(b)			
Current daily smokers	12.4	11.7	12.2
Ex-smoker	34.1	46.1	44.3
Physically inactive in leisure time	40.5	45.4	45.3
Low exercise level in leisure time	34.4	32.6	32.3
Risky/high risk alcohol consumption	*10.8	7.3	7.7
Overweight (BMI 25-29)	45.5	34.0	35.7
Obese (BMI 30+)	*17.4	40.7	37.3
Health service use			
Consulted doctor	51.3	48.2	48.4
Visited outpatients	*12.1	4.2	5.1
Hospitalised in previous 12 months	45.1	29.6	31.0
Eye examination in previous 12 months	66.5	63.2	62.9
	'000	'000	'000
Total persons	91,900	582,500	699,600

(a) Unless otherwise stated, data relate to the two weeks prior to interview and the population is all people with diabetes. Data are not age standardised. All data are self-reported; BMI estimated from self-reported height and weight. People who could not provide the relevant information were excluded from the denominator in each case.

(b) BMI and physical activity data apply to persons aged 15 years and over; smoking and alcohol consumption data apply to people aged 18 years and over.

Source: ABS 2004–05 National Health Survey.

44% were ex-smokers. These rates were broadly consistent with the smoking and quitting habits of middle to older age groups, which contain most people with diabetes, although people with diabetes were slightly more likely to have given up smoking.

Treating and monitoring unhealthy blood fats and hypertension in addition to maintaining safe blood glucose levels has been shown to delay and reduce the onset of associated conditions in people with diabetes, although this tight control is not necessarily achievable for all patients.¹⁰ Of the 318,000 people with diabetes and hypertension, 77% were taking medication commonly used to treat hypertension. About 77% of the 214,000 people with diabetes and high cholesterol were taking medication commonly used to reduce high cholesterol.

...using health services

In 2004–05, almost one-third of people with diabetes had been hospitalised in the previous 12 months (31%) including 45% of people with type 1. In the 2 weeks prior to interview, about half of people with each type of diabetes had consulted a doctor and one in twenty had used outpatient services. This health service use was not necessarily related to diabetes and the level of use partly reflects the older age profile of people with diabetes. That said, on an age-standardised basis, people with diabetes were 4.9 times more likely to have visited outpatients, 2.2 times more likely to have been hospitalised and 1.6 times more likely to have seen a doctor than people without diabetes.

In 2004–05, administrative data show 67,700 hospital episodes ('separations') due to diabetes, accounting for 1.0% of hospital episodes. The number of hospital episodes due to diabetes increased by 31% between 2000–01 and 2004–05, mainly due to an increase in episodes due to type 2.

According to a survey of general practitioners, in 2004–05 diabetes was the fourth most common chronic condition managed by general practitioners and accounted for 3.2 per 100 patient encounters.¹¹

Health system costs

The total health system costs of diabetes were estimated as \$0.8 billion or 1.6% of national expenditure on diseases in 2000–01.

Expenses for hospital admitted services (\$231m) and prescription pharmaceuticals

Hospital use due to diabetes(a)

	Units	2000–01(b)	2004–05
Type 1 diabetes			
Separations	no.	14,123	15,724
Patients days	days	73,345	61,052
Average length of stay	days	5.2	3.9
Type 2 diabetes			
Separations	no.	31,640	50,874
Patients days	days	208,302	270,942
Average length of stay	days	6.6	5.3

(a) Data relate to hospital separations (following an episode of admitted patient care) with diabetes mellitus as the principal diagnosis.

(b) Earliest year available with data coded on a comparable basis to 2004–05.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, National Hospital Morbidity data cubes, viewed 10 October 2006, <<http://www.aihw.gov.au/dataonline.cfm>>.

Allocated recurrent health expenditure — 2000–01

Sector	Expenditure on diabetes as a proportion of total expenditure		
	Diabetes \$m	Total \$m	%
Hospital	289	22,030	1.3
Admitted patients	231	4,686	4.9
Non-admitted services	58	17,343	0.3
Aged care homes (high level care)	38	3,899	1.0
Out of hospital medical services	183	8,454	2.2
Other professional services	33	2,440	1.4
Pharmaceuticals	234	8,085	2.9
Prescription	221	5,896	3.7
Over the counter	13	2,189	0.6
Research	35	1,182	3.0
Total expenditure	812	50,146	1.6

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2005, *Health system expenditure on disease and injury in Australia, 2000–01* (second edition), (AIHW cat. no. HWE 28).

(\$221m) were the two sectors with the highest costs. Diabetes was 15th highest when around 200 disease groups were ranked by health system costs. These costs do not include the often serious conditions associated with diabetes, such as kidney and cardiovascular disease. For example, in 2004, diabetic nephropathy was for the first time the most common cause of end stage kidney failure (i.e. where patients required dialysis or transplant to live). It was the primary diagnosis for 30% of new patients and a further 12% also had diabetes.¹²

Deaths

In 2004, there were 3,599 deaths with diabetes mellitus as the underlying cause of death. Despite the increase in diabetes prevalence, the age standardised death rate from this disease has remained fairly stable since 1997 and was 17 deaths per 100,000 persons in 2004. The rate for men was higher than that for women (21 deaths per 100,000 persons compared with 13.8 per 100,000).

On average, there were 4.2 conditions listed on the death certificates of people for whom diabetes mellitus was the underlying cause of death in 2004. This compared to an average of 3.1 for all deaths. Most commonly, the other causes were ischaemic heart disease (recorded on 52% of certificates where diabetes was the underlying cause), renal failure (25%), cerebrovascular disease (23%) and heart failure (19%). For every death with diabetes

Mortality data

Mortality data are based on the medical certificate of cause of death filed when deaths are registered with State and Territory Registrars.

Underlying cause of death is as identified by the doctor or coroner on the medical certificate of cause of death.

Associated cause of death is any health condition other than the underlying cause of death listed on the medical certificate of cause of death.

as an underlying cause, there were 3.3 deaths with diabetes as an associated cause: giving a total of 11,700 deaths with diabetes as either an underlying or associated cause.

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Selected chronic conditions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

In 2004–05, after adjusting for differences in the age structure of the populations, Indigenous people were more than 3 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to have diabetes and more than 10 times as likely to have kidney disease.

Despite advances in medicine, chronic conditions continue to be major contributors to the burden of disease worldwide.¹ In Australia, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples continue to have a higher prevalence than non-Indigenous people of many chronic conditions.²

This article focuses on diabetes, cardiovascular disease and kidney disease. Diabetes and cardiovascular disease both contribute significantly to the burden of illness in the general population.³ Both have the potential for prevention via the reduction of identified risk behaviours such as obesity and low levels of exercise. Kidney disease, although not as common, is of particular concern among Indigenous Australians.⁴

Prevalence of selected chronic conditions

In 2004–05, around 74,000 Indigenous people of all ages (16%) reported having at least one of either diabetes (or high sugar levels), cardiovascular disease or kidney disease. Of the three selected chronic conditions, cardiovascular disease was the most prevalent in the Indigenous population (12%) followed by diabetes (6%) and kidney disease (2%).

In 2004–05, Indigenous people living in remote areas had higher rates of diabetes, cardiovascular disease and kidney disease than did those living in non-remote areas. In particular, the rate of diabetes in remote areas (9%) was almost double that in non-remote areas (5%). Similarly, the prevalence of kidney disease in remote areas (3%) was more than twice the rate in non-remote areas (1%).

Data sources

This article draws data primarily from the 2004–05 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey (NATSIHS). The results from this survey are based on self-reported data from a sample of over 10,000 Indigenous persons within private dwellings.

In addition, other ABS surveys such as the 2004–05 National Health Survey (NHS) have also been used, as well as databases maintained by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW).

Morbidity and mortality data

Indigenous data from the AIHW morbidity and mortality databases include only data from Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory. These jurisdictions have sufficient level of identification of Indigenous status to enable mortality statistics on Indigenous Australians to be produced. Care should be exercised when applying data to other jurisdictions which have not been included in data analyses.⁴

Age standardised data

Age standardised rates enable comparisons to be made for age-related variables between populations which have different age structures by removing the influence of age from the data. The Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations of Australia have markedly different age structures. Where appropriate, this article draws on age standardised rates to make comparisons between the two populations. Data are standardised to the 2001 Australian estimated resident population.

After adjusting for differences in the age structure of the populations, Indigenous people were 1.5 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to have at least one of these three conditions. In 2004–05, Indigenous people were 1.3 times more likely

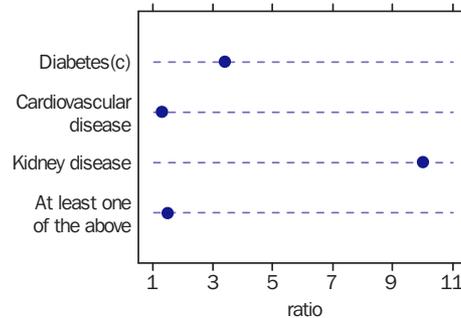
Indigenous persons: Prevalence of selected chronic conditions — 2004–05

	Remoteness				Total	
	Remote		Non-remote			
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Diabetes(a)	11.6	9.2	17.4	5.0	29.1	6.1
Cardiovascular disease	17.7	14.1	38.2	11.0	55.9	11.8
Kidney disease	3.8	3.0	4.9	1.4	8.7	1.8
At least one of the above conditions	24.8	19.7	49.5	14.2	74.3	15.7
Total Indigenous persons	126.0	100.0	348.3	100.0	474.3	100.0

(a) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS.

Selected chronic conditions: ratio(a) of Indigenous to non-Indigenous(b) — 2004–05



- (a) Indigenous rate divided by non-Indigenous rate.
- (b) Age standardised to the 2001 estimated resident population.
- (c) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS and 2004–05 NHS.

to have cardiovascular disease, 3.4 times more likely to have diabetes and more than 10 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to have kidney disease.

Co-morbidity

Although in this article each of these three conditions will be discussed separately, they have risk factors in common. As a result it is not unusual to develop more than one condition (co-morbidity). For example, in 2004–05, Indigenous people aged 35 years and over with cardiovascular disease were 2.5 times as likely as all other Indigenous people in the same age group to report having diabetes and 4 times as likely to have kidney disease.

Definitions

In this article, *Diabetes* refers to diabetes or high sugar levels and includes Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes.

Overweight/obese was determined through the Body Mass Index (BMI) method calculated from self-reported height and weight information, using the formula weight (kg) divided by the square of height (m). People with a BMI score of 25 to less than 30 are classified as overweight and those with a BMI of 30 or greater as obese.

Exercise levels were based on frequency, intensity and duration of exercise in the two weeks before the participant’s interview. The components required to derive the exercise level were not collected in remote areas.

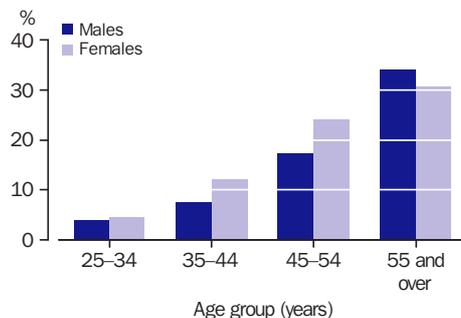
Remoteness Area is based on a classification of road distance to different sized population centres, where the population is considered to govern the range and type of services available. In this article, *remote areas* include the Remoteness categories Remote Australia and Very Remote Australia, while *non-remote areas* include Major Cities of Australia, Inner Regional Australia and Outer Regional Australia. For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 - Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

Diabetes

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic condition in which the body is deficient in producing or using insulin. Long-term effects of diabetes include damage to the heart, blood vessels and kidneys.⁵ (See *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Diabetes mellitus, pp. 76–81.)

In 2004–05, around 29,000 Indigenous people of all ages (6%) reported having diabetes. Within the Indigenous population, diabetes was more prevalent among females than males. The difference in rates between males and females was greatest in the

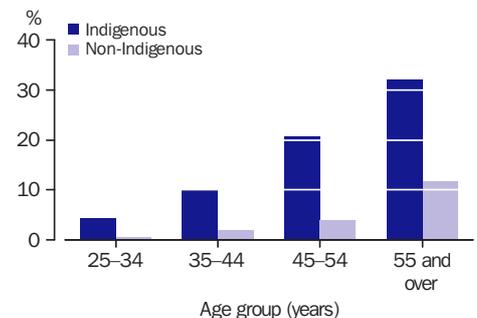
Rates of diabetes(a) among Indigenous persons — 2004–05



- (a) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS.

Rates of diabetes(a) by Indigenous status — 2004–05



- (a) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS and 2004–05 NHS.

45–54 year age groups, 17% of males and 24% of females. In 2004–05, nearly one-third (32%) of Indigenous people aged 55 years and over reported having diabetes.

In all age groups from 25–34 years and older, a larger proportion of Indigenous people than non-Indigenous people reported diabetes.

In 2004–05, the prevalence of diabetes was progressively higher in older age groups within both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. However, the prevalence among Indigenous Australians increased noticeably at ages around 20 years younger than in the non-Indigenous population. In 2004–05, prevalence among Indigenous people aged 35–44 years (10%) was similar to that among non-Indigenous Australians aged 55 years and over (12%).

In 2003–04, Indigenous Australians were much more likely than other Australians to be hospitalised as a result of diabetes. After adjusting for differences in age structures, the hospital separation rate, with diabetes as a principal diagnosis, of Indigenous people was about 7 times higher than for non-Indigenous people.⁵ The standardised separation rate for diabetes as any diagnosis was about 12 times higher for Indigenous people than for the non-Indigenous population.

While there is incomplete coverage of Indigenous deaths in all state and territory registration systems, data of appropriate quality relating to mortality are available for Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory.⁶ Between 2000 and 2004 in these jurisdictions, diabetes was the main underlying cause of 8% of Indigenous deaths. The age standardised mortality rate for Indigenous people over this time period was 9 times that of non-Indigenous people.

Hospital separations

Hospital separations are derived from AIHW data collected from hospitals in Australia. Data are collected for each 'separation', which begins when a patient is admitted to hospital and ends when the total hospital stay ends or there is a change to the type of care (for example, from acute care to rehabilitation).⁶

Diabetes hospital separations do not have an agreed methodology. People with diabetes are at a high risk of developing a range of complications which, rather than diabetes, may be the primary reason for a hospital episode. Therefore, analysis of separations for principal diagnosis alone will tend to underestimate the number of hospital separations caused by diabetes. However, analysis of separations with any diagnosis of diabetes may overestimate the number of hospital separations caused by diabetes. The true number of hospitalisations attributable to diabetes lies somewhere between the two figures.⁵

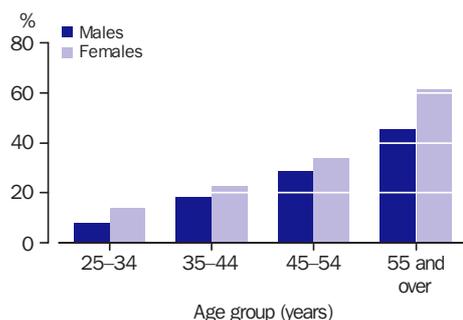
Cardiovascular disease

In this article, cardiovascular disease refers to all diseases of the circulatory system, which includes all diseases of the heart and blood vessels. In 2004–05, around 56,000 Indigenous people of all ages (12%) reported a cardiovascular disease. The most common form of cardiovascular disease was high blood pressure, which had a prevalence rate of 7% within the Indigenous population.

In 2004–05, cardiovascular disease in the Indigenous population was more prevalent among females than males, in all age groups from 25–34 years and older. The difference in rates between males and females was greatest in people aged 55 years and over (61% of females compared to 45% of males).

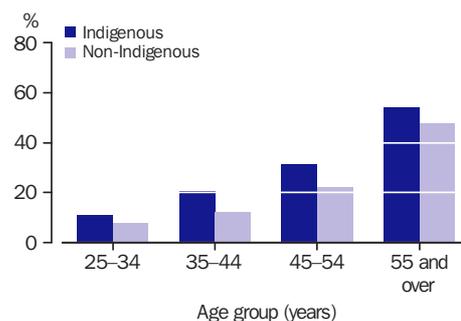
The prevalence of cardiovascular disease increases noticeably for Indigenous people from around 35 years of age, some ten years younger than in the non-Indigenous population.

Rates of cardiovascular disease among Indigenous persons — 2004–05



Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS.

Rates of cardiovascular disease by Indigenous status — 2004–05



Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS and 2004–05 NHS.

In 2003–04, after age standardisation, Indigenous people were about twice as likely as non-Indigenous people to be hospitalised with cardiovascular disease as their principal diagnosis.⁶

Between 2000 and 2004, cardiovascular disease was the main underlying cause of 27% of all deaths among Indigenous people. It is one of the leading causes of death for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. The age standardised mortality rate (based on the jurisdictions with sufficient level of coverage) from cardiovascular disease for Indigenous people between 2000 and 2004 was 1.7 times that for non-Indigenous people.⁷

Kidney disease

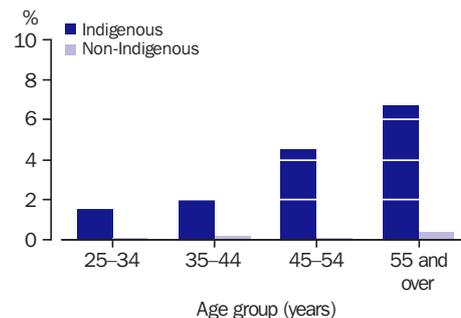
Chronic kidney disease is the long-term and usually irreversible loss of kidney function. Due to a lack of specific symptoms during the early stage, diagnosis is often made during the latter stages.⁸ While kidney disease affects relatively few people, regular treatments (such as dialysis) can be particularly onerous for the patient and their family.

As the NATSIHS did not gather data from individuals in hospitals, and people with chronic kidney disease accounted for over one-third of all Indigenous hospital separations in 2003–04, measures of prevalence are likely to be underestimates.⁶ In 2004–05, it was estimated that around 9,000 Indigenous people (2%) of all ages had kidney disease.

In the Indigenous population, the rate of kidney disease increased noticeably with age. This differs from the non-Indigenous population, where the prevalence of kidney disease was lower and relatively stable across age groups.

In 2003–04, 38% of hospitalisations of Indigenous people were for treatment involving dialysis. By comparison, in the non-Indigenous population, around 10% of all hospitalisations

Rates of kidney disease — 2004–05



Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS and 2004–05 NHS.

End stage renal disease

End stage renal disease (ESRD) requires kidney replacement therapy (dialysis or a kidney transplant). In Australia, people who develop ESRD and undertake dialysis or kidney transplantation are registered with the Australia and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant Registry (ANZDATA).

Indigenous identification in the ANZDATA registry is based on hospital records. However, because of the heightened awareness of the extent of renal disease among Indigenous Australians and the prolonged and repeated contact with renal units in hospitals, it is believed that Indigenous identification in the ANZDATA registry is more complete than in general hospital data.⁶

Between 2001 and 2005, 9% of all new patients registered with ANZDATA in Australia were identified as Indigenous Australians (917 people).⁹ This is a much higher proportion than Indigenous representation in the total population (estimated to be 2.4% in June 2006).^{10,11}

involved dialysis. Overall, the age standardised rate of hospitalisation of Indigenous Australians for care involving dialysis was 12 times the rate of non-Indigenous Australians.⁶

Between 2001 and 2003, in the four jurisdictions where the coverage of mortality data was sufficient, kidney disease was the main underlying cause of 3% of all Indigenous deaths. In a further 11% of deaths, kidney disease was recorded as an associated cause of death.⁸

Between 2000 and 2004, the age standardised mortality rate for Indigenous Australians for kidney disease was 3.7 times that for non-Indigenous Australians.⁷

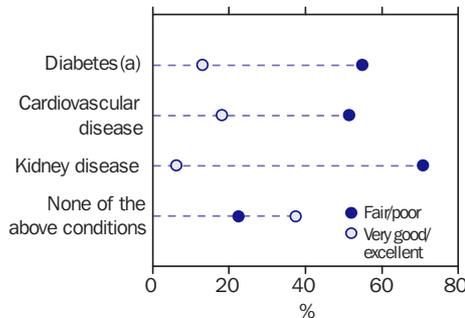
Self-assessed health

Self-assessed health status provides an indicator of overall health as it reflects an individual's perception of his or her own health.

In 2004–05, Indigenous people aged 35 years and over who had diabetes, cardiovascular disease or kidney disease were more likely to rate their own health as fair or poor when compared to other people in the same age group who did not have these conditions.

In 2004–05, 55% of Indigenous people aged 35 years and over who had reported having diabetes rated their health as either fair or poor, similar to those with cardiovascular disease (51%). Over two-thirds (71%) of Indigenous people aged 35 years and over with kidney disease reported fair or poor health.

Self-assessed health status among Indigenous persons aged 35 years and over — 2004–05



(a) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS.

The greater proportion of Indigenous people with kidney disease who reported fair or poor health may be related to the significant impact chronic kidney disease can have on a patient's life, particularly if they are undergoing dialysis.⁸

Risk behaviours

Diabetes, cardiovascular disease and kidney disease are conditions which develop over the course of a lifetime. In most cases, these conditions can be prevented or at least delayed by modifying common risk factors which include obesity, smoking and low levels of physical activity.⁴ Also, after the diagnosis of a chronic condition individuals may modify their risk behaviour, for example, by increasing their exercise level or by giving up smoking.

As with many chronic diseases, the causes are complex and can be interrelated. For example, smoking and physical inactivity can significantly increase the risk of chronic kidney disease. Physical inactivity can also indirectly increase the risk of kidney disease by influencing the development of biomedical risk factors such as Type 2 diabetes.⁸

In 2004–05, of Indigenous people aged 35 years and over, 47% were current daily smokers and 68% were overweight or obese. In non-remote areas, 82% of Indigenous people in this age group had low exercise levels.

While the 2004–05 NATSIHS was a cross-sectional survey and causality cannot be determined, associations between risk factors and long-term conditions are of interest. In 2004–05, the rate of people currently smoking among Indigenous people aged 35 years and over was greater in the population who did not report any of the three chronic conditions (51%) than in the population who did report a chronic condition (between 34% and 44%). This may be related to people who had been smokers stopping smoking, perhaps after diagnosis of a chronic condition.

In 2004–05, among Indigenous people aged 35 years and over, 83% of those reporting diabetes, 76% of those with cardiovascular disease and 69% of those with kidney disease were overweight/obese.

Indigenous persons aged 35 years and over: proportion of people with condition who reported a risk behaviour — 2004–05

	Current daily smoker	Overweight/obese(a)	Sedentary/low level exercise(b)	All persons aged 35 years and over with condition
	%	%	%	'000
Diabetes(c)	33.7	83.4	83.6	24.8
Cardiovascular disease	43.7	76.5	86.0	42.6
Kidney disease	37.0	68.8	90.5	5.2
Total proportion of Indigenous persons aged 35 years and over with risk behaviour	47.4	68.2	81.6	131.8
	%	%	%	'000
Total persons aged 35 years and over with none of the above three conditions	51.1	62.7	79.2	76.9

(a) Proportions calculated excluding persons for whom BMI was not known.

(b) Non-remote areas only.

(c) Includes high sugar levels.

Source: ABS 2004–05 NATSIHS.

Similarly, in non-remote areas the vast majority of Indigenous people with at least one of the three chronic conditions had low or sedentary levels of exercise (between 84% of those reporting diabetes and 90% of those reporting kidney disease).

Endnotes

- 1 World Health Organisation, *Global strategy on diet, physical activity and health*, viewed 1 May 2007, <http://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/strategy/cb11344/strategy_english_web.pdf>.
- 2 National Health Priority Action Council (NHPAC) 2006, *National chronic disease strategy*, Department of Health and Ageing, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *National Health Priority Areas*, AIHW, viewed 12 April 2007, <<http://www.aihw.gov.au/nhpa/index.cfm>>.
- 4 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2004, *Australia's Health 2004*, cat. no. AUS 44, AIHW, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2006, *Diabetes hospitalisations in Australia, 2003–04*, cat. no. AUS 84, AIHW, Canberra.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2005, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples*, ABS cat. no. 4704.0, AIHW cat. no. AIHW14, ABS, Canberra.
- 7 Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council, 2006, *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Performance Framework Report 2006*, AHMAC, Canberra.
- 8 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2005, *Chronic kidney disease in Australia, 2005*, cat. no. PHE 68, AIHW, Canberra.
- 9 Australia and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant Registry, *ANZDATA Registry Report 2006*, ANZDATA, Adelaide.
- 10 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Experimental estimates and projections, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians*, cat. no. 3238.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 11 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Population projections*, cat. no. 3222.0, ABS, Canberra.

Education and training

	Page
National and state summary	90

Qualification profile of Australians	99
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The proportion of people aged 25–64 years with non-school qualifications has increased over the past decade and there has been a gradual narrowing in the gap between men's and women's educational attainment. Between 1996 and 2006 the proportion of men aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification increased from 54% to 63%, and for women from 41% to 63%. This article examines the qualification profile of Australians in 2006 based on their highest level of non-school qualification, and looks at changes in the levels of qualifications held, fields of study and labour market outcomes over the past decade.

Training for a trade	105
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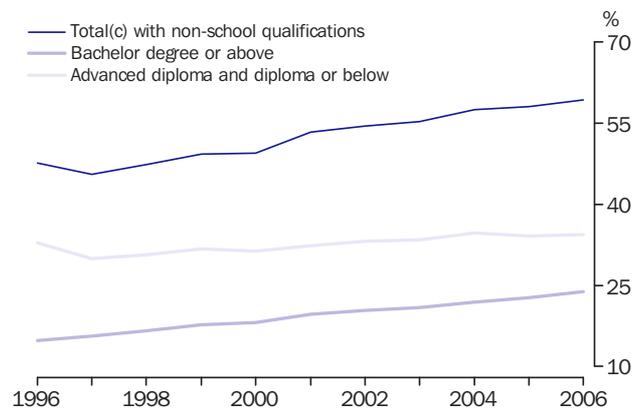
While the total number of apprentices and trainees has increased greatly over the past two decades, there have been much smaller increases in the number of trades' apprentices and trainees. In December 2005, there were an estimated 390,000 apprentices and trainees, more than two and a half times the number in 1995 (144,000). Over the same period the number of trades' apprentices and trainees increased by over one-third, from 123,000 to 171,000. This article examines recent trends in trades' apprenticeships and traineeships including numbers and characteristics of people working as trades' apprentices and trainees and the importance of immigration as a source of skilled trades workers.

International students in Australia	109
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Over the last twenty years, there has been strong growth in transnational education. In 2004, Australia was the fifth largest destination globally for overseas students. The number of overseas visitors arriving in Australia for education purposes in 2005 (375,000) was more than ten times the number (30,000) that arrived in 1985. This article examines trends in overseas visitor arrivals for education over the past two decades as well as international student enrolments by education sector, course and field of study and patterns of remaining in Australia after study.

Education and Training: national summary — key points

Proportion of population(a) with non-school educational qualifications(b)



(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) At May.

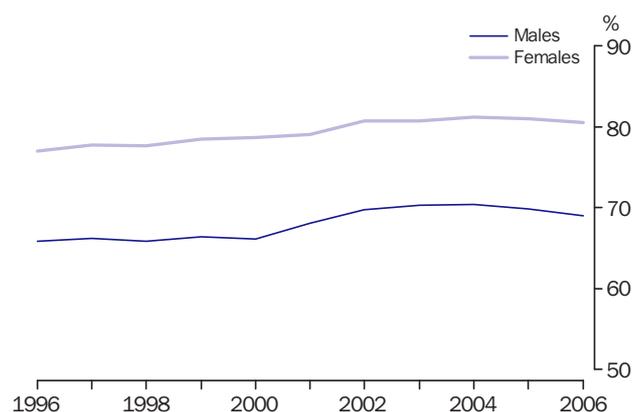
(c) Includes people whose qualification level could not be determined.

Source: ABS Survey of Education and Work.

For further information see *Education: national summary*, page 92, indicators 16–18.

- The proportion of people aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification increased from 48% in 1996 to 59% in 2006.
- The increase in the level of educational attainment over the past decade mostly reflects an increase in the proportion of people whose highest non-school qualification is a Bachelor or higher degree. Between 1996 and 2006, this proportion increased from 15% to 24%.

Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rates(a)



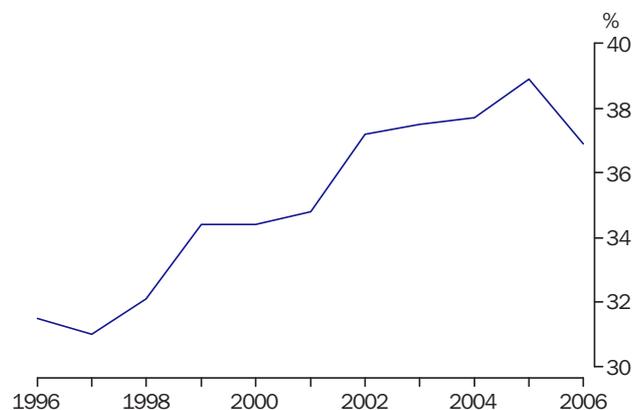
(a) At August.

Source: National Schools Statistics Collection.

For further information see *Education: national summary*, page 92, indicator 4 and 5.

- Apparent retention rates are an indicator of the degree to which young people continue their participation in secondary schooling beyond the compulsory school years.
- Between 1996 and 2006, Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rates increased slightly, from 66% to 69% for males and from 77% to 81% for females.

Education participation rate of persons aged 20–24 years(a)



(a) At May.

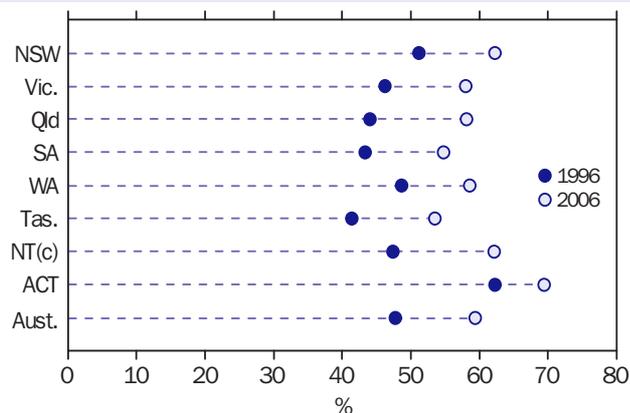
Source: ABS Survey of Education and Work.

For further information see *Education: national summary*, page 92, indicator 9.

- The education participation rate is an indicator of the degree to which young people continue their participation in education beyond school.
- Between 1996 and 2006, the education participation rate of people aged 20–24 years increased from 32% to 37%.

Education and Training: state summary — key points

Proportion of population(a) with non-school educational qualifications(b)



- The proportion of people aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification increased in all states and territories over the past decade.
- In 2006, the proportion of people aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification was highest in the Australian Capital Territory (70%) and lowest in Tasmania (54%).

(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) At May.

(c) Refers to mainly urban areas only.

Source: ABS Survey of Education and Work.

For further information see *Education: state summary*, page 94, indicator 20.

Education and training: national summary

PARTICIPANTS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	School students(a)	'000	3 143	3 172	3 199	3 227	3 247	3 268	3 302	3 319	3 332	3 348	3 368
2	Students in government schools(a)	%	70.7	70.3	70.0	69.7	69.2	68.8	68.4	67.9	67.5	67.1	66.8
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(a)	%	51.8	51.8	52.0	52.1	52.1	51.8	51.5	51.4	51.6	51.8	51.8
4	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(b)	%	65.9	66.2	65.9	66.4	66.1	68.1	69.8	70.3	70.4	69.9	69.0
5	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(b)	%	77.0	77.8	77.7	78.5	78.7	79.1	80.7	80.7	81.2	81.0	80.6
6	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – Indigenous(b)	%	29.2	30.9	32.1	34.7	36.4	35.7	38.0	39.1	39.5	39.5	40.1
7	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – non-Indigenous(b)	%	72.4	72.9	72.7	73.2	73.3	74.5	76.3	76.5	76.8	76.6	75.9
8	Education participation – of all aged 15–19	%	74.0	77.4	76.9	77.8	77.6	77.4	77.3	77.5	76.2	76.0	77.5
9	Education participation – of all aged 20–24	%	31.5	31.0	32.1	34.4	34.4	34.8	37.2	37.5	37.7	38.9	36.9
10	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students(c)(d)	'000	1 341	1 449	1 510	1 615	1 708	1 679	1 683	1 718	1 595	1 641	n.y.a.
11	Apprentices and trainees(e)	'000	157.2	172.0	193.0	251.0	r271.2	r309.4	r350.0	r402.8	r399.7	r401.1	400.2
12	Females – of all VET students (c)(d)	%	46.5	46.3	7.3	48.7	49.0	48.5	48.1	48.6	47.7	48.1	n.y.a.
13	Higher education students(f)	'000	634.1	658.8	671.9	686.3	695.5	842.2	896.6	930.0	945.0	957.2	n.y.a.
14	Females – of all higher education students(f)	%	54.3	54.4	54.7	55.0	55.2	54.4	54.4	54.4	54.3	54.5	n.y.a.
15	Overseas students – of all higher education students(f)	%	8.4	9.6	10.7	12.1	13.7	18.7	20.6	22.6	24.2	25.0	n.y.a.
EDUCATION OUTCOMES		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64 years(g)													
16	Of all aged 15–64(h)(i)	%	42.3	40.4	41.9	43.7	43.8	47.2	48.2	49.1	50.9	51.5	52.4
17	Bachelor degree or above	%	12.8	13.6	14.3	15.4	15.7	17.0	17.8	18.1	18.9	19.6	20.6
18	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	29.4	26.8	27.6	28.3	28.1	29.1	29.8	30.2	31.3	30.7	30.8
19	Females – of all with non-school educational qualifications	%	44.1	44.6	45.1	45.2	45.8	46.9	46.8	46.5	47.6	47.7	48.3
With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64(g)													
20	Of all aged 25–64(h)(i)	%	47.7	45.5	47.3	49.3	49.5	53.3	54.4	55.3	57.5	58.1	59.4
21	Bachelor degree or above	%	14.8	15.6	16.6	17.7	18.1	19.7	20.4	20.9	21.9	22.7	23.8
22	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	32.9	29.9	30.7	31.7	31.4	32.3	33.2	33.4	34.7	34.1	34.4
23	Higher education students completing courses	'000	145.3	155.3	161.7	164.4	170.9	187.0	200.7	215.1	225	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
Without non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64(g)													
24	Of all aged 15–64(h)	%	r52.5	r54.2	r52.7	r50.9	r50.8	52.8	51.8	50.9	49.1	48.5	47.6
25	Did not complete Year 12(j)	%	r40.0	r41.7	r39.5	r38.0	r37.4	36.1	34.9	33.8	32.3	31.2	30.2
Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks(l)													
26	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	83.4	85.2	87.8	87.2	86.8	86.6	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
27	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	88.4	89.6	92	91.5	91.6	90.9	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks													
28	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.4	89.5	89.9	90.3	91.0	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
29	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.8	89.8	90.2	91.4	91.5	n.y.a.	n.y.a.

Education and training: national summary cont.

LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)													
30	With non-school educational qualifications(g)(h)(i)	%	5.3	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.2	4.3	3.8	3.6	3.3
31	Bachelor degree or above	%	3.8	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.1	3.0	2.6	2.4
32	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	6.0	6.5	6.0	5.5	5.2	5.7	5.1	5.0	4.3	4.2	4.0
33	Without non-school educational qualifications(h)	%	r10.9	r11.2	r10.5	r9.6	r8.6	9.6	9.1	8.6	8.0	7.5	7.3
34	Completed Year 12(j)	%	10.0	8.9	8.6	7.7	7.2	7.5	7.0	6.4	6.6	5.1	5.9
35	Did not complete Year 12(k)	%	12.0	r13.1	r10.9	r11.7	10.3	10.8	10.3	10.0	9.0	9.1	8.3
FINANCIAL RESOURCES		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Government expenditure on education(m)													
36	Proportion of GDP	%	4.5	4.5	4.4	5.2	5.1	r5.1	r5.2	r5.2	r5.2	5.3	n.y.a.
37	Primary and secondary	\$'000m	13.0	13.9	14.7	17.3	r18.4	r19.6	r21.0	r22.4	r24.0	26.2	n.y.a.
38	Tertiary	\$'000m	7.6	8.1	8.0	11.7	12.1	r12.9	r13.9	15.1	r16.0	17.1	n.y.a.
HUMAN RESOURCES		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
FTE Student/teaching staff ratio													
39	All schools(n)	ratio	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.0	14.9	14.7	14.7	14.5	14.3	14.2	14.1
40	Government schools(n)	ratio	15.4	15.3	15.3	14.9	14.9	14.7	14.8	14.6	14.5	14.4	14.3
41	Primary schools(n)	ratio	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.3	17.3	17.0	16.9	16.6	16.4	16.2	16.0
42	Secondary schools(n)	ratio	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.2	12.2
43	Higher education	ratio	15.9	17.3	18.0	18.0	18.3	18.7	19.5	20.1	19.8	19.7	n.y.a.
Female teachers/academic staff													
44	Of all primary school teachers	%	76.2	76.9	77.5	78.0	78.3	78.7	79.1	79.1	79.4	79.7	79.8
45	Of all secondary school teachers	%	52.6	53.1	53.5	54.1	54.4	54.9	55.1	55.3	55.6	56.0	56.6
46	Of all higher education academic staff(o)	%	34.1	34.4	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.5	38.1	38.7	39.5	40.1	n.y.a.
PROVIDERS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
47	Schools	no.	9 630	9 609	9 587	9 590	9 609	9 515	9 612	9 607	9 615	9 623	9 612
48	Government schools – of all schools	%	73.6	73.2	73.0	72.7	72.6	72.3	72.3	72.1	72.2	72.0	71.8

- (a) Refers to full-time students only.
- (b) Refers to the number of full-time students in Year 12 divided by the number of full-time students in the first year of secondary school (Year 7 in NSW, the ACT, Vic. and Tas.; Year 8 in Qld, SA, the NT and WA) when the Year 12 cohort began secondary school. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.
- (c) Private providers were included from 1996, VET in schools was included from 1997 to 2001.
- (d) In 2003 Queensland introduced a unique student identifier for all students covered by the collection which creates an apparent reduction in overall student numbers when compared with previous annual collections.
- (e) The reporting of Apprentice and Trainee data is subject to time delays. Following a major review of the estimation method, data published from 2004 onwards are estimated for the most recent seven quarters. All data from 2000 onwards are also subject to change following revisions by state or territory authorities.
- (f) The scope of the data from 2002 is different to that used for reporting students in previous publications in the Selected Higher Education Statistics series. 2001 data have been recalculated by the Department of Education, Science and Training to align with the change in scope. Refer to *Students 2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics* for more detail.
- (g) There have been two major breaks in the series between 1995 and 2005. The breaks listed below are considered to have impacted on the comparability of data relating to qualifications. In 1997 prompt cards were no longer used and computer assisted coding methodology was adopted, resulting in changes in the relative distribution within vocational education qualifications, and in 2001, the Australian Bureau of Statistics Classification of Qualifications (ABSCQ) was replaced by the Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED) (cat. no. 1272.0).
- (h) Estimates refer to recognised qualifications only.
- (i) Includes persons who have a qualification where the level can not be determined.
- (j) Data from 2000 onwards includes persons who are still at school.
- (k) Includes persons who are still at school.
- (l) In 1999, data do not include a number of Queensland students, who were formally exempted from testing.
- (m) Data for the 1998–99 financial year onwards are not comparable with estimates in previous financial years. Prior to 1998–99, this indicator refers to cash outlays on education including capital outlays. From 1998–99 onwards, when accrual accounting was implemented in Government Finance Statistics (GFS), this indicator refers to Operating Expenses and does not include a capital component.
- (n) FTE student/teaching staff ratios are calculated by dividing the number of FTE students by the number of FTE teaching staff. Student/teaching staff ratios should not be used as a measure of class size. They do not take account of teacher aides and other non-teaching staff who may also assist in the delivery of school education.
- (o) Data cover full-time and fractional full-time staff but exclude casual academic staff.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–7, 39–42, 44–45 and 47–48 are at August.
 Data for indicators 8–9, 16–22, 24–25 and 30–35 are at May.
 Data for indicators 10–12 are at 30 June.
 Data for indicators 13–15, 23, 43 and 46 are at 31 August from 2002 and 31 March prior to 2002.
 Data for indicators 26–29 are at August.
 Data for indicators 36–38 are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Education and training: state summary

PARTICIPANTS												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
1	School students(b)	'000	2006	1 109	830	657	250	343	82	38	60	3 368
2	Students in government schools(b)	%	2006	66.7	64.6	69.3	65.6	67.2	72.8	75.9	58.9	66.8
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(b)	%	2006	52.1	52.1	51.3	51.3	51.3	53.8	50.8	49.1	51.8
4	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(c)	%	2006	65.3	72.9	73.7	64.6	66.2	56.4	57.3	89.3	69.0
5	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(c)	%	2006	75.9	87.2	83.6	78.8	77.6	73.3	59.5	88.2	80.6
8	Education participation – of all aged 15–19	%	2006	80.6	82.9	71.8	73.7	70.0	75.2	70.0	78.3	77.5
9	Education participation – of all aged 20–24	%	2006	39.2	39.4	33.4	35.3	31.2	29.5	*40.9	43.9	36.9
10	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students(d)(e)	'000	2005	562.1	459.1	290.4	115.7	130.1	39.7	21.3	23.0	1 641.3
11	Apprentices and trainees	'000	2006	119.2	111.3	82.3	33.9	31.5	12.4	3.2	6.5	400.2
12	Females – of all VET students(d)(e)	%	2005	50.0	47.6	45.8	51.0	45.5	43.1	45.1	51.3	48.1
13	Higher education students(f)(g)	'000	2005	297.2	243.0	185.9	66.5	97.2	18.0	5.9	27.9	957.2
14	Females – of all higher education students(f)(g)	%	2005	54.4	53.8	53.8	56.2	55.6	52.4	65.7	50.5	54.5
15	Overseas students – of all higher education students(f)(g)	%	2005	22.4	28.2	26.5	25.7	27.0	22.0	3.7	20.5	25.0
EDUCATION OUTCOMES												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64 years												
16	Of all aged 15–64(h)(i)	%	2006	54.7	51.2	51.4	48.8	52.2	47.1	55.4	59.7	52.4
17	Bachelor degree or above	%	2006	21.6	22.9	17.7	17.4	18.1	15.9	19.9	33.3	20.6
18	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2006	31.7	27.5	32.7	30.6	33.2	30.2	34.7	25.6	30.8
19	Females – of all with non-school educational qualifications	%	2006	49.1	48.5	47.4	46.6	47.1	47.9	48.8	50.3	48.3
With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64												
20	Of all aged 25–64(h)(i)	%	2006	62.3	58.0	58.2	54.8	58.6	53.5	62.2	69.5	59.4
21	Bachelor degree or above	%	2006	25.0	26.4	20.5	19.9	21.1	18.2	23.5	39.0	23.8
22	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2006	35.6	30.6	36.5	34.0	36.4	34.3	37.7	29.4	34.4
23	Higher education students completing courses(f)	'000	2004	71.3	59.9	39.4	16.7	21.9	4.3	0.9	8.0	225.4
Without non-school educational qualifications												
24	Of all aged 15–64(h)(i)	%	2006	45.3	48.8	48.6	51.2	47.8	52.9	44.6	40.3	47.6
25	Did not complete Year 12(j)	%	2006	28.8	30.3	30.4	34.8	30.8	41.1	29.2	18.2	30.2
Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks												
26	Males	%	2004	88.6	85.3	81.4	87.8	92.4	92.9	74.1	95.6	86.6
27	Females	%	2004	93.3	89.9	85.6	92.2	95.0	95.2	80.5	97.3	90.9
Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks												
28	Males	%	2004	91.9	94.3	89.3	89.6	86.9	89.2	70.5	91.6	91.0
29	Females	%	2004	92.5	95.2	89.2	90.5	87.3	89.2	72.6	92.6	91.5

Education and training: state summary continued

LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)												
30	With non-school educational qualifications(h)(i)	%	2006	3.3	3.7	3.4	3.5	2.3	*3.3	**0.9	*2.6	3.3
31	Bachelor degree or above	%	2006	2.3	2.9	2.6	*2.6	*1.4	**1.9	n.p.	**1.4	2.4
32	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2006	4.2	4.4	3.9	4.1	2.8	*3.8	**1.4	*4.4	4.0
33	Without non-school educational qualifications(h)	%	2006	8.8	6.9	6.8	7.2	4.9	9.2	*5.7	*5.4	7.3
34	Completed Year 12(j)	%	2006	8.4	5.9	4.3	4.7	3.1	*9.4	**2.2	*3.6	5.9
35	Did not complete Year 12(k)	%	2006	9.1	7.6	8.6	8.6	6.1	9.1	*7.8	*8.2	8.3
HUMAN RESOURCES		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
FTE Student/teaching staff ratio												
39	All schools(l)	ratio	2006	14.2	13.7	14.3	14.2	14.5	14.4	12.8	13.6	14.1
40	Government schools(l)	ratio	2006	14.4	13.9	14.4	14.3	14.7	14.6	12.5	12.8	14.3
41	Primary schools(l)	ratio	2006	16.4	15.8	15.6	15.9	16.4	16.1	14.0	15.0	16.0
42	Secondary schools(l)	ratio	2006	12.1	11.7	12.8	12.2	12.3	12.8	11.0	12.3	12.2
43	Higher education(f)(g)	ratio	2005	19.7	19.1	22.2	18.6	19.2	18.1	16.4	17.2	19.7
Female teachers/academic staff												
44	Of all primary school teachers	%	2006	81.4	80.1	78.3	77.0	78.5	78.9	81.0	83.0	79.8
45	Of all secondary school teachers	%	2006	55.7	58.2	57.5	52.2	54.9	55.8	59.8	60.9	56.6
46	Of all higher education academic staff(g)(m)	%	2005	38.4	43.4	39.1	41.3	40.1	35.8	49.4	31.2	40.1
PROVIDERS		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
47	Schools	no.	2006	3 099	2 299	1 739	805	1 067	278	186	139	9 612
48	Government schools – of all schools	%	2006	70.5	69.8	73.4	75.0	72.3	75.9	81.2	68.3	71.8

(a) Estimates for Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only for indicators 8–9, 16–22, 24–25 and 30–35.

(b) Refers to full-time students only.

(c) Refers to the number of full-time students in Year 12 divided by the number of full-time students in the first year of secondary school (Year 7 in NSW, the ACT, Vic. and Tas.; Year 8 in Qld, SA, the NT and WA) when the Year 12 cohort began secondary school. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.

(d) Excludes VET in schools and students who were granted credit transfer for all of their 2004 enrolment activity.

(e) In 2003 Queensland introduced a unique student identifier for all students covered by the collection which creates an apparent reduction in overall student numbers when compared with previous annual collections.

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

(g) Australian total includes multi-state universities.

(h) Estimates refer to recognised qualifications only.

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

(j) Includes persons who are still at school.

(k) Data from 2000 onwards include persons who are still at school.

(l) FTE student/teaching staff ratios are calculated by dividing the number of FTE students by the number of FTE teaching staff. Student/teaching staff ratios should not be used as a measure of class size. They do not take account of teacher aides and other non-teaching staff who may also assist in the delivery of school education.

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

Reference periods: Data for indicators 8–9, 16–22, 24–25 and 30–35 are at May.

Data for indicators 10–12 are at 30 June.

Data for all other indicators are at August.

Education and training: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1–7, 39–42, 44–45, 47–48	<i>Schools, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).
4–5 (state)	National School Statistics Collection.
8–9, 19–22, 25	ABS Survey of Education and Work.
10, 12	National Centre for Vocational Education Research, <i>Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics: Students and Courses</i> .
11	National Centre for Vocational Education Research, <i>Apprentices and Trainees</i> .
13–15	Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Students: Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .
16–18, 24, 30–35	<i>Education and Work, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).
23	Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Students (First half year): Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .
26–29	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA), <i>National Report on Schooling in Australia</i> .
36–38	<i>Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia</i> – Electronic delivery (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).
43	Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .
46	Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Staff: Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .

Education and training: definitions

Academic staff

those appointed wholly or principally to undertake a teaching-only function or a research-only function or a teaching-and-research function in an educational institution, or those appointed by an educational institution to be responsible for such people.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Staff: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

Advanced diploma and diploma or below

includes qualifications at the Advanced Diploma Level, Associate Degree Level, Diploma Level, Certificate IV Level, Certificate III Level, Certificate II Level, or Certificate I Level.

Reference: *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

Apprentices and trainees

persons undertaking vocational training through contract of training arrangements. Contracts of training are legal agreements entered into by employers and trainees who are engaged in employment-based training.

Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Australian Apprentice and Trainee Statistics*.

Bachelor degree or above

includes qualifications at the Bachelor Degree Level (including Honours), Graduate Certificate Level, Graduate Diploma Level, Master Degree Level or Doctorate Degree Level.

Reference: *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

Education participation

all persons enrolled for a course of study in the survey month at any institution whose primary role is education. Included are schools, higher education establishments, Technical and Further Education colleges (TAFEs) and any other educational institutions.

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

Full-time Equivalent (FTE) teaching staff

a measure of the total level of staff resources used. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared with that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties. Casual staff are excluded.

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

Full-time Equivalent (FTE) student

a full-time student is one who undertakes a workload equivalent to, or greater than, that prescribed for a full-time student of that year level. This may vary between states and territories and from year to year. The FTE of a full-time student is equal to 1.0. The FTE of a part-time student is calculated by dividing the student's workload by that which is considered to be a full workload by that state or territory, resulting in an estimate in the range 0 to 1.

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

FTE student/teaching staff ratios

are calculated by dividing the number of FTE students by the number of FTE teaching staff. Student/teaching staff ratios should not be used as a measure of class size. They do not take account of teacher aides and other non-teaching staff who may also assist in the delivery of school education.

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

GDP (Gross Domestic Product)

total market value of goods and services produced in Australia within a given period after deducting the cost of goods used up in the process of production, but before deducting allowances for the consumption of fixed capital (depreciation).

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

Government expenses on education

total government final expenditure on education services and facilities; government transfer payments paid for the purpose of facilitating education but not intended to be spent directly on educational services (such as personal benefit payments to students and advances to persons for the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS)); and other miscellaneous expenditure on education by government.

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

Government school

one administered by the Department of Education under the Director-General of Education (or equivalent) in each state or territory.

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

Education and training: definitions continued

Higher education student

a person who has been admitted to a higher education provider and who is enrolled and undertaking units of study in a higher education award course, an enabling course or a non-award course in the reference period.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Students: Selected Higher Education Statistics 2005*.

Higher education student/teaching staff ratios

the number of students, measured by the full-time equivalent (FTE) student unit for all students attending a higher education institution in Australia (excluding the FTE study load of work experience students), divided by the FTE of teaching staff (staff whose function was teaching only or teaching and research) in an Academic Organisational Unit, which includes full-time, fractional full-time, and casual staff.

Reference: *Education and Training Indicators, Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4230.0).

Non-government school

any school not administered by a Department of Education, but including special schools administered by government authorities other than the state and territory education departments.

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

Non-school educational qualification

an award for attainment as a result of formal learning from an accredited non-school institution. From 2001, with the implementation of the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1262.0), non-school qualifications are awarded for educational attainments other than those of pre-primary, primary or secondary education. This includes qualifications at the Post Graduate Degree Level, Master Degree Level, Graduate Diploma and Graduate Certificate Level, Bachelor Degree Level, Advanced Diploma and Diploma Level, and Certificates I, II, III and IV Levels. Non-school qualifications may be attained concurrently with school qualifications. Prior to 2001, educational qualifications were classified according to the *ABS Classification of Qualifications (ABSCQ)* (ABS cat. no. 1262.0). The level of attainment included higher degrees, postgraduate diplomas, bachelor degrees, undergraduate and associate diplomas, and skilled and basic vocational qualifications.

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

Numeracy — national benchmarks

the numeracy benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for numeracy at particular school year levels. They represent the minimum acceptable standard of numeracy without which a student will have difficulty making sufficient progress at school.

Reference: Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *National Report on Schooling, 2000*.

Overseas higher education student

a higher education student who is not an Australian citizen, is not a New Zealand citizen and does not have Permanent Residence status.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Students: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

Primary education

full-time education which typically commences around age five years and lasts for seven to eight years. It does not include sessional education such as preschool education.

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

Reading — national benchmarks

the reading benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for literacy at particular school year levels. They represent the minimum acceptable standard of literacy without which a student will have difficulty making sufficient progress at school.

Reference: Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *National Report on Schooling in Australia, 2000*.

School

an educational institution which provides primary or secondary education on a full-time daily basis, or the provision of primary or secondary distance education.

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

School student

a person who is formally enrolled in a school and active in a course of study, other than preschool or Technical and Further Education (TAFE) courses.

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

Secondary education

education which typically commences after completion of primary education, at around age 12 years, and lasts for five or six years.

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

Tertiary education

for finance statistics used in this publication, formal education beyond secondary education, including higher education, vocational education and training, or other specialist post-secondary education or training. Also called post-secondary education or further education.

Reference: *Education and Training Indicators, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4230.0).

Unemployed

persons aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, and:

had actively looked for full-time work or part-time work at any time in the four weeks up to the end of the reference week and were available for work in the reference week; or
were waiting to start a new job within four weeks from the end of the reference week and could have started in the reference week if the job had been available then.

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

Unemployment rate (of persons aged 15 years and over)

for any group, the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

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

Vocational Education and Training (VET) student

a person for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a TAFE college or agricultural college or state-recognised Adult and Community Education (ACE) provider, or a publicly-funded vocational course enrolment in a registered private training organisation during the reference year. Persons enrolled in non-vocational courses given by TAFE and ACE are excluded.

Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics: Students and Outcomes*.

Year 7/8 to 12 apparent retention rate

the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling (Year 7 in New South Wales, the Australian Capital Territory, Victoria and Tasmania; Year 8 in Queensland, South Australia, the Northern Territory and Western Australia) to Year 12. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.

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

Qualification profile of Australians

The proportion of men aged 25–64 years holding a non-school qualification increased from 54% to 63%, and for women from 41% to 56%, between 1996 and 2006.

Educational attainment is an indicator of knowledge and skills obtained from the formal education process. Over the past decade, the educational attainment of Australians has been steadily rising. In 2006, over half of 25–64 year olds (59% or 6.3 million people) held a non-school qualification, up from 48% in 1996. This is consistent with employers requiring workers with greater skill levels to fill jobs in an increasingly technological workforce.

Highest level of non-school qualification – recent trends

Over the past decade, there has been a larger increase in the proportion of women aged 25–64 years with non-school qualifications than men. This has led to a gradual narrowing in the gap between men's and women's level of educational attainment. In 1996, the proportion of men aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification (54%) was markedly higher than women (41%). In 2006, these proportions increased to 63% for men and to 56% for women.

The rise in the level of educational attainment over the past decade mostly reflects an increase in the proportion of people whose highest non-school qualification is a Bachelor or higher degree. Between 1996 and 2006, this proportion increased from 15% to 23% for men and for women from 14% to 25%.

Data sources and definitions

This article examines the qualification profile of Australians based on their highest level of non-school qualification. Data presented are for people aged 25–64 years and are from the ABS Survey of Education and Work.

Level of qualification is classified according to the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0). Non-school qualifications are awarded for educational attainments other than those of pre-primary, primary or secondary education and include:

- ◆ *Bachelor degrees or higher* comprising bachelor degrees (including honours), graduate diplomas and graduate certificates, masters degrees and doctorates.
- ◆ *Advanced diplomas and diplomas* which include advanced diplomas, associate degrees and diplomas.
- ◆ *Certificates I–IV* including certificates not further defined.

There has been less growth in the proportion of people whose highest non-school qualification is an Advanced diploma and diploma or below. The proportion of women with qualifications at this level increased from 27% to 30% over the last decade, while remaining stable for men (39%).

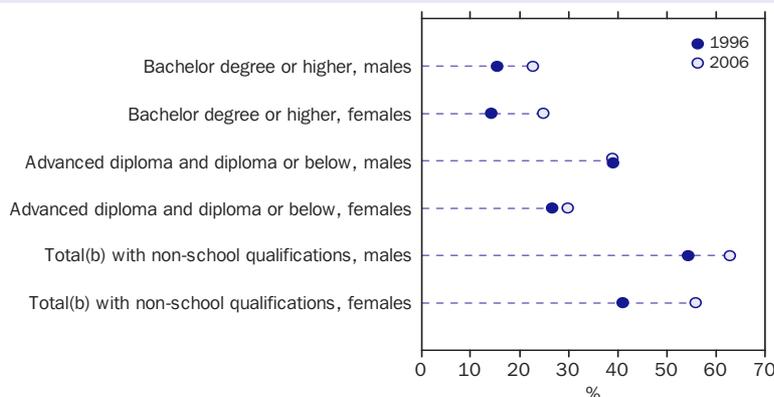
In 2006, the most common types of non-school qualifications held by men were Certificates I–IV (31%), followed by Bachelor or higher degrees (23%). These were also the most common non-school qualifications held by women, however a larger proportion of women held a Bachelor or higher degree (25%), while fewer held a Certificate I–IV (19%). This pattern reflects gender segregation in occupations, with women less likely than men to work in industries which require vocational training.¹

Sex and age

Educational attainment profiles also vary by age, with the rise in the level of educational attainment among people aged 25–64 years over the past decade being mainly due to a growing number of younger Australians gaining Bachelor or higher degrees.

For both men and women, there were higher proportions of 25–34 year olds whose highest non-school qualification was a Bachelor or higher degree than in older age groups. For example, 26% of men and 32% of women

Proportion of the population(a) with non-school qualifications



(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) Includes people whose qualification level could not be determined.

Source: ABS 1996 and 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

Level of highest non-school qualification — 2006

Age group (years)	Bachelor degree or higher	Advanced diploma and diploma	Certificate I-IV	Total with non-school qualifications(a)	
	%	%	%	%	'000
Males					
25-34	26.1	8.1	29.9	65.2	899.2
35-44	23.4	7.8	32.0	64.7	938.7
45-54	20.9	7.8	32.1	61.9	832.9
55-64	19.8	8.0	29.7	58.9	626.9
Total	22.7	7.9	31.0	62.9	3 297.7
Females					
25-34	32.2	11.1	19.7	64.1	895.5
35-44	24.8	10.8	21.3	58.0	865.8
45-54	24.2	10.9	19.5	56.0	777.6
55-64	16.0	8.8	16.3	42.4	456.2
Total	24.8	10.5	19.4	55.9	2 995.0

(a) Includes people whose qualification level could not be determined.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

aged 25-34 years held a Bachelor or higher degree in 2006, compared with 20% of men and 16% of women aged 55-64 years.

Across all age groups there were higher proportions of men than women with Certificate I-IV as their highest qualification. The proportion with these qualifications ranged from 30% to 32% for men and 16% to 21% for women, across all age groups.

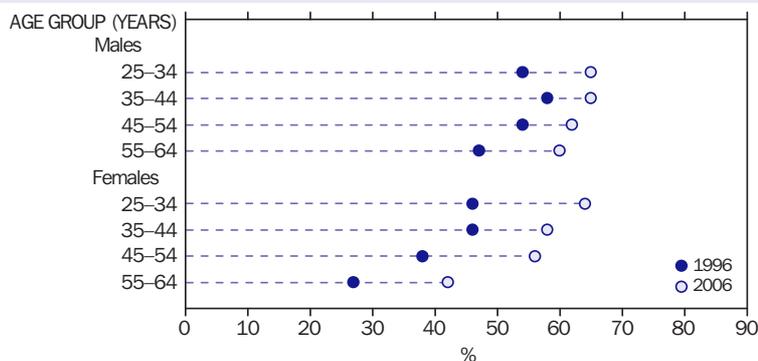
Comparisons by age also show a narrowing in the gap between men's and women's educational attainment over the period 1996 to 2006, particularly among younger age groups. Differences between age groups are consistent with the significant reshaping of

women's labour market and educational opportunities over recent decades (see *Australian Social Trends 2006*, Trends in women's employment, pp. 121-125).

Among people aged 45-64 years, a higher proportion of men (61%) than women (50%) held a non-school qualification in 2006. This in part reflects the greater educational opportunities, particularly in vocational areas, available to men of this generation. Differences between men's and women's educational attainment in this age group also reflect the tendency for women's role to have been seen in earlier generations to be predominately in child-rearing rather than in the paid workforce, with non-school qualifications seen as less relevant.

Among younger people (25-34 year olds), there was little difference in the proportion of men and women with non-school qualifications. This is consistent with the availability of similar opportunities for men and women in younger generations to study for non-school qualifications. In 2006, 65% of men and 64% of women aged 25-34 years held a non-school qualification.

Proportion of the population(a) with non-school qualifications by age



(a) Aged 25-64 years.

Source: ABS 1996 and 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

People(a) with non-school qualifications: field and level of highest non-school qualification — 2006

Field of study	Level of highest non-school qualification			Males	Females	Persons
	Bachelor degree or higher	Advanced diploma and diploma	Certificate I–IV			
	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Natural and physical sciences	7.5	1.9	0.3	3.7	3.3	220.9
Information technology	4.7	3.9	1.9	4.2	2.4	210.3
Engineering and related technologies	7.9	11.2	34.7	35.8	2.6	1 255.6
Architecture and building	1.8	2.2	11.8	11.1	0.9	392.0
Agriculture, environmental and related studies	2.0	3.7	3.0	3.7	1.6	170.5
Health	14.4	15.2	4.2	4.6	16.3	638.7
Education	15.3	8.8	1.0	3.6	12.9	502.9
Management and commerce	20.2	28.4	22.6	16.3	29.7	1 428.8
Society and culture	19.2	12.4	6.4	8.3	17.2	787.7
Creative arts	4.7	6.8	1.7	3.1	4.4	234.9
Food, hospitality and personal services	*0.1	4.2	11.7	4.4	7.1	360.3
Total(b)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	6 292.7
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(b)	2 520.2	978.4	2 664.3	3 297.7	2 995.0	6 292.7

(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) Includes people whose field is not stated or inadequately described as well as people completing qualifications in mixed field programs.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

Field of study

Australia has a diverse education system, which allows people to gain qualifications in a broad range of fields. Study at some levels of attainment is associated with particular fields of study.

In 2006, the three most common fields of study among men aged 25–64 years holding non-school qualifications were Engineering and related technologies (36%), Management and commerce (16%), and Architecture and building (11%). For women the three most common fields were Management and commerce (30%), Society and culture (17%) and Health (16%).

For people whose highest non-school qualification was a Bachelor or higher degree, the most common fields of study were Management and commerce (20%), Society and culture (19%), Education (15%) and Health (14%). For Certificate I–IV, the most

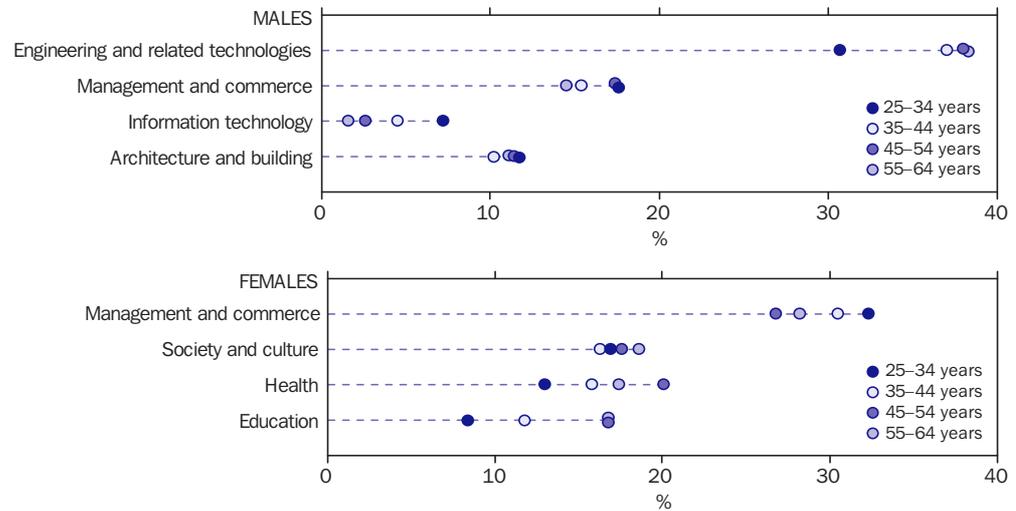
common fields of study were Engineering and related technologies (36%) and Management and commerce (22%).

...trends in qualification fields

A comparison across age groups may provide an indication of how fields of study have changed over time for both men and women. Differences between age groups also reflect how fields of study change in response to labour market influences.

While Engineering and related technologies was the most common field of study overall among men, the proportion of men with their highest non-school qualification in this field increased with age – from 31% of men aged 25–34 years to 38% of men aged 55–64 years in 2006. This suggests that the popularity of this field has declined over time and is consistent with the reduction in demand within the labour market for a number of engineering and related professions (including Automotive engineering, and Electric and electronic engineering) over the last decade.²

People with non-school qualifications: proportion by age group for selected fields of study(a) — 2006



(a) For highest non-school qualification.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

The next most common fields of study for men were Management and commerce and Architecture and building. The proportion of men with their highest non-school qualifications in these fields was similar across all age groups (ranging from 15–18% and 10–12% respectively). This suggests that the popularity of these fields has not changed greatly over recent decades.

Younger men were more likely than men in older age groups to hold their highest non-school qualification in the field of Information technology. Across all age groups, men aged 25–34 years had the highest proportion (7%) with Information technology as the field of study associated with their highest non-school qualification. These generational differences reflect the relatively recent introduction of information technology into education and industry and the increasing focus on these skills over the last few decades.

Among women, the most common field of study was Management and commerce in 2006. This appeared to be a field of emerging interest, as the proportion of women with their highest non-school qualification in this field was highest for those aged 25–34 years (32%) and then declined with age.

Conversely, the proportion of women whose highest non-school qualifications were in the fields of Health and Education increased with age, corresponding with ageing workforces in the nursing and teaching professions. The proportion of women with qualifications in the field of Education increased from 8% of

Field of study

Fields of study are classified according to the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0). The broad fields are:

- ◆ *Natural and physical sciences* includes life and physical sciences and mathematics.
- ◆ *Information technology* comprises studies in computer science and information systems.
- ◆ *Engineering and related technologies* includes studies in fields such as manufacturing, automotive and civil engineering.
- ◆ *Architecture and building* includes studies in architecture, urban environment and building.
- ◆ *Agriculture, environmental and related studies* includes studies in agriculture, horticulture, viticulture, forestry and fisheries.
- ◆ *Health* comprises studies in fields such as medicine, nursing, pharmacy, dental, and veterinary sciences.
- ◆ *Education* includes teacher education, curriculum and education studies.
- ◆ *Management and commerce* includes studies in accounting, business management, sales and marketing, office and finance studies.
- ◆ *Society and culture* includes studies in fields such as political science, human society, behavioural science, law, and economics.
- ◆ *Creative arts* includes performing and visual arts and graphic, design and media studies.
- ◆ *Food, hospitality and personal services* includes studies in fields such as beauty therapy and hairdressing.

those aged 25–34 years to 17% of those aged 55–64 years, while the proportion of women with qualifications in the field of Health increased from 13% of those aged 25–34 years to 17% of those aged 55–64 years.

Labour market outcomes

When considering the benefits of education, one aspect that generates much interest is labour market outcomes. People with non-school qualifications have a much lower chance of being unemployed than people who have completed school level education only. In 2006, the unemployment rate for people aged 25–64 years with a Bachelor degree or higher (2.2%) was less than half that for people whose highest level of education was Year 12 (4.7%) and between two and three times lower than people who had completed Year 11 or below only (5.6%).

Labour shortages over the past decade have meant that unemployment rates have generally declined (from 6.6% in 1996 to 3.8% in 2006 for persons aged 25–64 years). As labour shortages have been particularly apparent in skilled occupations, people who completed school level education only have continued to experience greater levels of unemployment than people with non-school qualifications.

....unemployment by field of study

In 2006, people who held their highest non-school qualifications in the fields of Health, Education and Natural and physical sciences had the lowest rates of unemployment (1.5%, 1.9%, and 1.9% respectively). This indicates a high

Unemployment rate(a) by highest level of education

	1996	2006
	%	%
Bachelor degree or higher	3.5	2.2
Advanced diploma and diploma or below	5.5	3.4
Year 12 or equivalent	7.7	4.7
Year 11 or below(b)	9.0	5.6
Total(c)	6.6	3.8

(a) People aged 25–64 years.

(b) Includes people who are still at school.

(c) Includes people whose qualification level could not be determined.

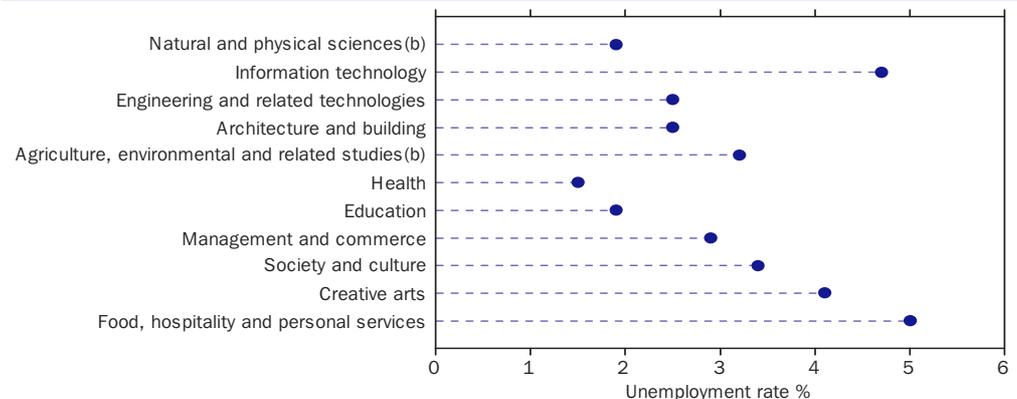
Source: ABS 1996 and 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

demand for these skills within the workforce and for people to work in occupations associated with these qualifications such as teaching and nursing. In comparison, unemployment rates were highest for people with non-school qualifications in Food, hospitality and personal services (5.0%), information technology (4.7%) and Creative arts (4.1%).

State and territory differences

The educational attainment profile of Australians varies according to geographic location. This is due, in part, to differences in the employment opportunities available in each region and the qualifications relevant to those industries. In addition, states and

People(a) with non-school qualifications: unemployment rate by field of study for highest non-school qualification — 2006



(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) Estimate has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

Proportion of people(a) with non-school qualifications by state and territory — 2006

Type of non-school qualification	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(b)	ACT	Aust.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Bachelor degree or higher	25.0	26.4	20.5	19.9	21.1	18.2	23.5	39.0	23.8
Advanced diploma and diploma	9.6	8.5	9.6	8.0	10.0	8.6	6.8	10.6	9.2
Certificate I–IV	26.0	22.1	26.9	26.0	26.4	25.6	30.9	18.8	25.1
Total with non-school qualifications(c)	62.3	58.0	58.2	54.8	58.6	53.5	62.2	69.5	59.4
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total with non-school qualifications(c)	2 198.2	1 540.1	1 193.1	438.6	617.4	131.0	51.4	122.7	6 292.7

(a) Aged 25–64 years.

(b) Refers to mainly urban areas only.

(c) Includes people whose qualification level could not be determined.

Source: ABS 2006 Survey of Education and Work.

territories have different age profiles which may influence the likelihood of people holding non-school qualifications.

In 2006, the proportion of people aged 25–64 years with a non-school qualification was highest in the Australian Capital Territory (70%), and exceeded the total proportion for Australia (59%) by 11 percentage points. The Australian Capital Territory also had the highest proportion of people with a Bachelor degree or above (39%). This is not surprising given the highly urbanised population of the Australian Capital Territory, and the high proportion of people working in professional industries such as government and education. South Australia (55%) and Tasmania (54%) had the lowest proportions of people with a non-school qualification.

Endnotes

- 1 Preston, A. and Whitehouse G 2004, 'Gender Differences in Occupation of Employment within Australia', *Australian Journal of Labour Economics*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 309–327.
- 2 Department of Education Science and Training 2006, *Summary report: Audit of science, engineering and technology skills – July 2006*, DEST, Canberra.

Training for a trade

Between 1995 and 2005, the number of trades' apprentices and trainees increased by 39%, from 123,000 to 171,000.

Current labour shortages across a number of trades areas are part of a wider picture of a very tight Australian labour market. Apprenticeships have long been integral to maintaining the number of tradespeople in Australia providing an entry level job for many young Australians who are no longer in full-time education.

Immigration is the other main source of skilled labour, accounting for 17% of new qualified tradespeople in 2004–05. In 2006, 41 trades occupations were included on the Migration Occupations in Demand List which prioritises occupations for Australia's skilled migration intake.¹

This article examines recent trends in trades training and profiles people currently training for a trade. It also presents information on the immigration of tradespeople.

Trends in apprenticeships and trainees

While the total number of apprentices and trainees across all occupations has increased greatly over the past two decades, there have been much smaller increases in the number of apprentices and trainees for trades occupations. In December 2005, there were 391,000 apprentices and trainees, up 170% on the number in 1995 (144,000).² Over the same period the number of trades' apprentices and trainees increased by 39%, from 123,000 to 171,000.²

The NETTFORCE traineeship program, introduced in 1994, boosted numbers in traineeships in the mid 1990s.³ Then, in 1998

Data sources and definitions

This article draws on 'apprenticeship and traineeship' data from the National Apprentice and Trainee Collection produced by the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) and data on 'apprentices' from the 2005 ABS Survey of Education and Work (SEW).

Apprentices and trainees are identified by NCVER as people undertaking vocational training through formal contracts of training with their employer. Under these contracts, employers teach apprentices or trainees a range of skills which may involve institutional and/or on the job training. In return, apprentices and trainees work for a set length of time on a training wage.⁴ Estimates are subject to revision.

Trades' apprentices and trainees are people whose apprenticeship or traineeship was in one of the trades occupations in the ASCO – *Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, Second Edition, 1997* (ABS cat. no. 1220.0); Tradespersons and related workers, sub-major groups 41–46 and 49.

Traditional apprentices refer to people employed under a contract of training in a trades occupation, training towards qualification at an Australian Qualifications Framework Skill level III or higher, and the expected duration of that contract is more than two years for full-time workers (or more than eight years for part-time workers).⁴

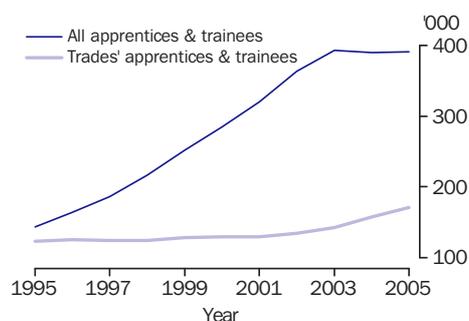
Apprentices identified in SEW are persons aged 15–54 years who have entered into a legal contract (training agreement or contract of training) with an employer, to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson status in a recognised trade.

the New Apprenticeships Scheme was introduced. A major thrust of this initiative was to extend contracted training into industries in which it had been uncommon.² Most of the subsequent increase in the number of people in contracted training was in traineeships rather than apprenticeships and was in training for non-trades occupations.

While growth in total numbers of apprentices and trainees has reached a plateau in recent years, the number of trades' apprentices and trainees increased by 27% between 2002 and 2005. It has been suggested that increases in traditional apprenticeships over the past few years have been driven by the tight labour market and considerable publicity given to skills shortages in traditional trades.⁵

Between 1995 and 2005, increases in the number of apprentices and trainees varied across trades occupation groups. The Construction, Electrical and electronic, and

Apprentices and trainees(a)



(a) The number of apprentices and trainees at 31 December.

Source: NCVER 2006, *Australian vocational education and training statistics: apprentices and trainees, 2005*.

Apprentices and trainees(a)

	Apprentices and trainees		Training rates(b)	
	1995	2005	1996(c)	2005
Trade occupations	'000	'000	%	%
Metal trades	20.1	21.6	10.3	10.3
Automotive trades	21.9	27.4	17.0	21.0
Electrical and electronics trades	15.7	25.6	8.8	13.4
Construction trades	26.6	44.4	9.4	12.9
Food trades	16.1	22.4	19.1	26.8
Printing trades	2.3	1.7	8.6	7.3
Wood and textile trades	5.3	5.5	8.0	9.4
Hairdressers	10.1	12.4	22.1	23.2
Trades' apprentices and trainees(d)	123.1	171.0	11.0	13.5
	'000	'000	%	%
All apprentices and trainees	143.7	390.3	1.9	3.8

(a) The number of apprentices and trainees at 31 December.

(b) Apprentices and trainees as a percentage of all people employed in that group. ABS labour force data from November each year are used as the denominators.

(c) Training rates presented for 1996 rather than 1995 as training rates data for selected trade occupations are not available for 1995.

(d) Total includes other trades not listed above.

Source: NCVET 2006, *Australian vocational education and training statistics: apprentices and trainees, 2005*.

Food trades recorded the highest increases. Printing trades was the only trade occupation recording a decrease in apprentices and trainees between 1995 and 2005 (from 2,300 to 1,700).

...training rates

Contracted training rates are the ratio of apprentices and trainees in an occupation group to all people employed in that group. Over recent decades, apprentices and trainees have increased as a proportion of the workforce. During the 1980s around 2.0% of employed persons were apprentices or trainees.⁴ This decreased to around 1.6% during the recession of the early 1990s and since then has increased to 3.8% in 2005.^{4,2}

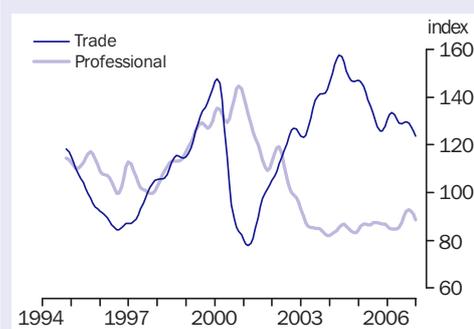
Contracted training rates within trades occupations are much higher than for the workforce as a whole reflecting the importance of contracted training in these occupations. Training rates for trades occupations increased from 11% in 1996 to 14% in 2005. Growth in training rates varied across the trades occupation groups, increasing over the period for Food, Electrical and electronics, Construction and Automotive trades, decreasing for Printing trades and remaining fairly stable for other groups.

Skilled trades vacancies

The Skilled vacancies index is produced by the Department of Employment and Workplace Relations for a number of skilled occupational groups for each state and the Northern Territory. The index is compiled from advertisements in selected metropolitan newspapers and indicates changes in the demand for skilled occupations over time, with 1997 as the reference year.

The Trade vacancies index increased over the mid to late 1990s before dipping around 2001. Since then it has mainly increased and was well above its 1997 levels in March 2006. Despite following a similar trend through the 1990s and early 2000s, the Professional vacancies index has not yet recovered from falls experienced in the early 2000s. The falls may in part reflect changes in recruitment practices for professionals away from newspaper advertising.

Skilled vacancies index(a): Trades and Professionals



(a) November 1997 = 100.

Source: Department of Employment and Workplace Relations, *Vacancy Report March 2007*.

Pathways to trades

Most training for trades continues to be through traditional apprenticeships. In 2005, traditional apprenticeships accounted for more than four-fifths of those commencing contracted training for a trade and seven-eighths of all those currently in contracted training for a trade.² Exceptions are food trades and skilled agricultural and horticultural trades which make more use of traineeships and less of traditional apprenticeships, compared with other trades.²

Another pathway to a trade is to commence contracted training with an employer while at school, through school based apprenticeships. This development has mainly been in lower level qualifications, and in the Retail, Hospitality, Business services and Automotive industries. Aside from Automotive trades, very few traditional apprenticeships were commenced at school in 2005.²

Apprentices(a): selected characteristics — 2005

	'000	%
Sex		
Males	145.5	85.6
Females	24.4	14.4
Age group (years)		
15–19	87.1	51.2
20–24	58.1	34.2
25–54	24.7	14.6
Highest level of school completed		
Year 12	79.2	46.6
Year 11	28.2	16.6
Year 10 or below	62.6	36.8
Selected industry		
Manufacturing	29.4	17.3
Construction	56.9	33.5
Wholesale trade & Retail trade	35.4	20.8
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	11.1	6.5
Cultural and recreational services & Personal and other services	13.6	8.0
Other	23.5	13.8
Total	169.9	100.0

(a) Persons aged 15–54 years who were employed as apprentices in the survey month.

Source: ABS 2005 Survey of Education and Work.

Selected characteristics of apprentices

The ABS Survey of Education and Work (SEW) identifies apprentices as persons who have entered into a legal agreement (training agreement or contract of training), with an employer, to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson status in a recognised trade. While the SEW series includes some apprentices outside traditional trades occupations, SEW apprentices can be broadly equated with Trades apprentices and trainees as measured by NCVER.

According to SEW, there were an estimated 170,000 people employed as apprentices in 2005. Males were much more likely to be employed as an apprentice than females, with six male apprentices (86%) for every female apprentice (14%).

Apprenticeships have traditionally offered a career path for young people entering the workforce once they complete their schooling. In 2005, 51% of all apprentices were aged 15–19 years and 85% were aged 15–24 years. Almost half (47%) of all apprentices had completed

Australian Apprenticeships

In 1998 the 'New Apprenticeships' scheme was introduced by the Australian Government.³ This scheme covers both traineeships and apprenticeships and in 2006 was renamed 'Australian Apprenticeships'. The scheme was introduced to make existing traineeship and apprenticeship systems more flexible and abolished many of the formal distinctions between these systems. The Australian Apprenticeships scheme provides choice in the duration of training, different mixes of experiential and formal learning, and a choice of training provider for the off the job component. The scheme has also spread contracted training to industries in which it had not been widely used. Training for trades, however, has not changed greatly under the scheme, retaining many of its traditional features.⁶

Year 12 as their highest year of schooling, 17% had completed Year 11, and the remainder had completed Year 10 or below.

In 2005, just over one-third (34%) of all apprentices were employed in the Construction industry. Around one in five (21%) were employed in the Wholesale trade and Retail trade industries and 17% were employed in the Manufacturing industry.

While male apprentices are employed across a range of trade fields and industries, 42% of female apprentices are employed as hairdressers with just under half (47%) employed in Cultural and recreational services and Personal and other services industries.

Importance of trades training among young people

Apprenticeships have traditionally been an important training path for teenagers, particularly males not continuing in full-time education beyond compulsory schooling.

Apprentices as a proportion of young people(a) not in full-time education — 2005

Age group (years)	Apprentices		Total
	%	'000	
Males	15.8	125.8	794.7
15–19	31.3	75.9	242.8
20–24	9.0	49.9	551.9
Females	2.8	19.3	684.7
15–19	5.9	11.2	190.7
20–24	1.7	8.2	494.0
Persons	9.8	145.2	1 479.5

(a) Aged 15–24 years.

Source: ABS 2005 Survey of Education and Work.

In 2005, just over half (53%) of all young people aged 15–24 years and nearly one third (32%) of those aged 15–19 years were not in full-time education.

While one in ten (10%) young people aged 15–24 years who were not in full-time education were employed as an apprentice, higher proportions of young men were employed as apprentices than young women – 16% of men and 3% of women aged 15–24 years, and 31% of men and 6% of women aged 15–19 years.

Recent migration trends: tradespeople

Immigration was once a key source of skilled trades workers, particularly during the post war boom, up to the early 1960s. In 1963–64, nearly one half (47%) of new tradespeople were immigrants.³ The supply of tradespeople from immigration declined rapidly from the late 1960s, with increased apprenticeship intakes compensating for the decline in immigration. In 1984–85, immigration accounted for only 5% of new tradespeople.³

In 2004–05 the net gain of tradespeople from migration was just over 6,000. This compared with 28,900 people who completed a trade apprenticeship or traineeship in 2004–05.⁷ That is, the net gain through immigration provided 17% of new tradespeople.

Most skilled immigration to Australia is of people with non-trade occupations (about 40,000 people in 2004–05). Immigration of tradespeople may increase in the future because a wider range of trade occupations

has been included in the Migration Occupations in Demand list in recent years.⁸ This list assists in prioritising applicants to the skilled migration program. In September 2006, 41 trade occupations were listed.

Endnotes

- 1 Department of Employment and Workplace Relations Media Release 20 September 2006, *Government Revises MODL to Reflect the Labour Market*, viewed 4 June 2007, <<http://mediacentre.dewr.gov.au/mediacentre/ministerandrews/releases/governmentrevisesmodltoreflectthelabourmarket.htm>>.
- 2 NCVER 2006, *Australian vocational education and training statistics: Apprentices and trainees, 2005*, NCVER, Adelaide.
- 3 Ray, J 2001, *Apprenticeship in Australia: an historical snapshot*, NCVER, Leabrook, South Australia.
- 4 Brooks, L 2004, *Australian vocational education and training statistics: Trends in traditional apprenticeships*, NCVER, Adelaide.
- 5 Karmel, T and Virk, G 2007, *What is happening to traditional apprentice completions?*, NCVER, Adelaide.
- 6 Department of Education, Science and Training, *About Australian Apprenticeships*, viewed 4 July 2007, <<http://www.australianapprenticeships.gov.au/about/default.asp>>.
- 7 NCVER 2007, *Australian vocational education and training statistics: Apprentices and trainees, September quarter 2006*, NCVER, Adelaide.
- 8 Birrell, B, Rapson, V and Fred Smith T 2006, *Australia's Net Gains from International Skilled Movement – Skilled Movements in 2004–05 and earlier years*, Centre for Population and Urban Research.

Net gain from migration(a) by occupation — 2004–05

Occupation (selected)	no.
Mechanical Engineering	886
Fabrication Engineering	336
Automotive	683
Electrical and Electronics	966
Construction	1 368
Other trade occupation	1 859
Total Tradespersons	6 098
Total Skilled occupations	45 857
Other occupations	5 271
Total	51 128

(a) Net movements of settlers, residents and visitors stating an occupation.

Source: Birrell, B et al. 2006, *Australia's Net Gains from International Skilled Migration – Skilled Movements in 2004–05 and earlier years*, Centre for Population and Urban Research.

International students in Australia

Overseas visitor arrivals to Australia for education purposes more than doubled between 1995 and 2005 from 137,000 to 375,000.

Over the last twenty years, there has been strong growth in transnational education. According to the OECD there were 2.7 million tertiary students worldwide enrolled outside their country of residence in 2004, an increase of 41% since 2000 (1.9 million students) and over 200% since 1985 (0.9 million students).¹

Since the 1980s, Australia has become a major player in the international student market, offering globally recognised courses and qualifications. In 2004, Australia was the fifth largest destination for overseas students, attracting 6% of all tertiary students enrolled outside their country of residence.¹ In 2005, overseas students represented approximately 18% of all higher education students in Australia.²

The provision of education services to full-fee paying overseas students is emerging as an important industry for the Australian economy. Education services provided in Australia to international students were valued at over \$9 billion in export earnings in the financial year 2004–05. This was the third highest export for Australia, and generated more than wool (\$2.3 billion), wheat (\$3.2 billion) and beef (\$4.5 billion) in terms of value.³ Full-fee paying overseas students are also an important revenue source for Australian universities. In 2005, revenue from full-fee paying overseas students represented 15% of all revenue within the higher education sector.²

As well as being an important revenue source, overseas enrolments can help educational institutions reach the critical mass needed to

Data sources and definitions

This article draws on several sources to present data about international students in Australia. Data on overseas visitor arrivals for education purposes are from the ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection. Overseas student enrolments data are from Australian Education International's (AEI) International Student Data and include data presented in the AEI Research Snapshot Series. OECD data on tertiary education are from OECD indicators for education.

Unless otherwise stated, data in this article relates to students studying onshore in Australia.

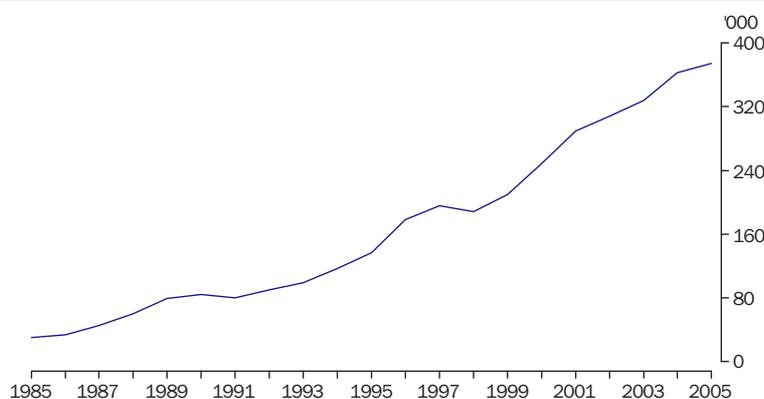
The OECD uses the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED–97) to define *Tertiary education* as Tertiary-type A education (ISCED 5A), Tertiary-type B education (ISCED 5B) and Advanced Research Programmes (ISCED 6). For more details on ISCED 1997 see *Classifying Educational Programmes: Manual for ISCED–97 Implementation in OECD Countries* (Paris, 1999).

Overseas arrivals refer to the arrival of overseas visitors through Australian airports (or seaports). Overseas arrivals data relates to the number of movements of overseas visitors rather than the number of overseas visitors.

Long-term arrivals are overseas visitors who intend to stay in Australia for 12 months or more (but not permanently), while *short-term* arrivals are overseas visitors whose intended stay is less than 12 months.

Overseas visitor arrivals for education refer to overseas arrivals where education has been nominated as the main purpose of the journey, without regard to whether a student visa is held. They include arrivals by New Zealand citizens and other people who do not require student visas (such as people undertaking short-term study). For more information, see *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3401.0).

Overseas visitor arrivals for education purposes(a)



(a) Annual data (i.e. total number of arrivals in the year).

Source: ABS 1985–2005 Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collections.

diversify the range of educational programmes offered to all students.¹ The presence of international students offers a further benefit to all students, as well as the community more generally – an opportunity to experience and expand knowledge of other cultures and languages.

Trends in international student arrivals

In 2005, there were 375,000 overseas visitor arrivals to Australia for education purposes, more than double the 137,000 visitor arrivals to Australia in 1995 for education, and more than ten times the 30,000 education arrivals in 1985.



Overseas visitor arrivals for education purposes: major countries of residence and proportion female

Selected countries of residence	1985(a)		2005(a)	
	Arrivals '000	Proportion female %	Arrivals '000	Proportion female %
China (excludes SAR)	0.4	24.9	63.6	52.9
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	1.5	41.7	22.5	49.8
India	0.3	13.7	16.7	20.3
Indonesia	1.7	36.4	18.6	48.7
Japan	1.0	64.5	25.6	65.6
Korea (Republic of South)	0.2	26.5	29.9	52.2
Malaysia	7.7	45.5	24.2	52.1
New Zealand	2.2	47.5	11.3	46.4
Singapore	1.3	42.3	20.0	52.9
Thailand	0.7	41.8	15.5	55.4
United States of America	2.2	58.5	29.1	60.2
Total(b)	29.9	41.8	374.6	50.9

(a) Annual data (i.e. total number of arrivals in the year).

(b) Includes other countries not listed and therefore components do not add to total.

Source: ABS 1985 and 2005 Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collections.

Most visitor arrivals to Australia for education are short-term arrivals (i.e. intending to stay less than 12 months). This in part reflects study in short-term courses such as some English language courses, as well as the travel intentions of overseas students who may plan to return to their home country for holidays during or at the end of an academic year. In 2005, there were 261,000 short-term visitor arrivals for education and 113,000 long-term visitor arrivals (i.e. intending to stay 12 months or more). The proportion of short-term arrivals has remained much the same (around 70% of all education arrivals) since 1985.

...country of residence

The number of overseas arrivals from Asia for education purposes has increased over the past twenty years. In 1985, five of the top ten countries of residence for visitor arrivals were in South East Asia (Malaysia, Indonesia and Singapore) or in North East Asia (Hong Kong and Japan) with arrivals from these countries representing 44% of all education arrivals for that year. In 2005, eight of the top ten countries of residence were from South East Asia or North East Asia representing 59% of all education arrivals.

Arrivals from China were the largest group of overseas education arrivals in 2005 representing nearly one-fifth (17%) of all visitor arrivals for education purposes, up from just over 1% in 1985. Other major

Transnational tertiary students

In 2004, there were almost 2.7 million tertiary students studying outside their own country of residence. Australia has 6% of the total market share of these international students behind the United States of America (22%), the United Kingdom (11%), Germany (10%) and France (9%). However, overseas students represent almost 17% of all tertiary students in Australia, compared with the United Kingdom (13%), France (11%) and the United States of America (3%).

Tertiary students(a) studying overseas — 2004

Destination country	Overseas tertiary students '000	Proportion of total tertiary students %
Australia	167.0	16.6
France	237.6	11.0
Germany	260.3	11.2
Japan	117.9	2.7
United Kingdom	300.1	13.4
United States	572.5	3.4
Total(b)	2 651.1	..

(a) Enrolled outside their country of residence.

(b) Includes other countries not listed and therefore components do not add to totals.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance*, 2006.



countries of residence for education arrivals in 2005 included South Korea and the United States of America (both with 8% of visitor arrivals) Japan (7%) and Malaysia (6%).

Increases in the numbers of Asian students studying in Australia over the past two decades may be due to changing social and economic policies in their home countries. It has been suggested that the emergence of a larger middle class in countries in east Asia which have long placed a high value on education has provided a ready source of students.⁴

Although the majority of overseas visitor arrivals for education are from Asia, Australia attracts international students from across the world. In 1985, visitor arrivals for education came from 113 different countries, rising to 176 countries in 2005.

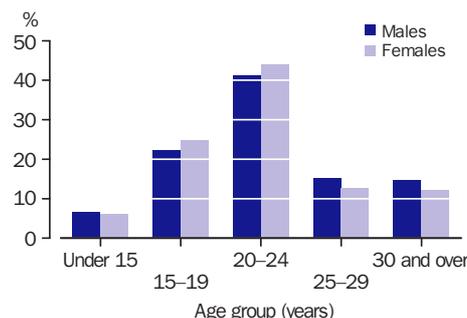
...age and sex

In 2005, the peak age group of overseas visitor arrivals for education purposes was 20–24 years (43%). This reflects the fact that most visitor arrivals were studying in the higher education sector. A further 27% were aged 25 years or over, 24% were aged 15–19 years and the remainder (6%) were aged less than 15 years.

Over the last two decades there has been a steady increase in the proportion of female overseas arrivals for education purposes. In 2005, 51% of education arrivals were female, up from 42% in 1985.

There are some marked differences in the proportion of female visitor arrivals for education according to country of residence. For example, just 20% of all education arrivals from India in 2005 were female, while 66% of education arrivals from Japan were female. While the proportion of female visitor arrivals for education increased for most countries over the last twenty years, the proportion of

Overseas visitor arrivals for education purposes, by age and sex — 2005



Source: ABS 2005 Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

Overseas student enrolments

AEI student enrolment data is derived from the Commonwealth Provider Registration and International Student Management System.

Student enrolments are the number of course enrolments by overseas students studying in Australia on student visas.

Student enrolments do not represent the number of overseas students in Australia on student visas as students studying more than one course will have enrolments recorded for each course they are studying. In July 2005, there were 270,000 overseas students studying in Australia on a student visa.⁵ These students were enrolled in 320,000 courses across all education sectors.⁵

Student enrolments data are also different to the number of overseas students studying in Australian institutions. Whilst recording enrolments for each course of study the data excludes enrolments by: overseas students studying on non-student visas; sponsored students (including AusAID, Defence, Endeavour International Post Graduate Research Scholarship); and students studying in off-shore courses. When these exempt categories are included, the number of overseas students studying onshore or off-shore in Australian institutions was estimated to be 415,000 in July 2005.⁵

Education sectors

Since 2002, enrolments have been allocated to education sectors on the basis of their course level with the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF).

Higher Education includes Associate Degree, Bachelor Degree, Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma, Masters Coursework, Masters Preliminary, Masters Research, Doctor of Philosophy and Higher Doctorate Qualifying Programme.

Vocational and Technical Education (VTE) includes Advanced Certificate, Associate Diploma, Certificate I–V, Certificate, Advanced Diploma and Diploma.

School includes Kindergarten Studies, Primary School Studies, Junior Secondary Studies and Senior Secondary Studies.

English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) enrolments are treated differently, with all courses identified as 'English Language' allocated to the ELICOS sector irrespective of the AQF level of course, whether or not also studying in another sector.

Courses not covered by the AQF are allocated to *Other*. These courses include Enabling Courses, Foundation Studies and Non-Award courses.

female visitor arrivals from China more than doubled (from 25% to 53%) and almost doubled for South Korea (from 27% to 52%) over the period.



Enrolment patterns

International students in Australia study across a wide range of education sectors and in a variety of courses and fields of study. Some restrict their study to a particular sector while others study across multiple sectors. For example, study in both the English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) and higher education sectors is a common study pathway for many overseas students.

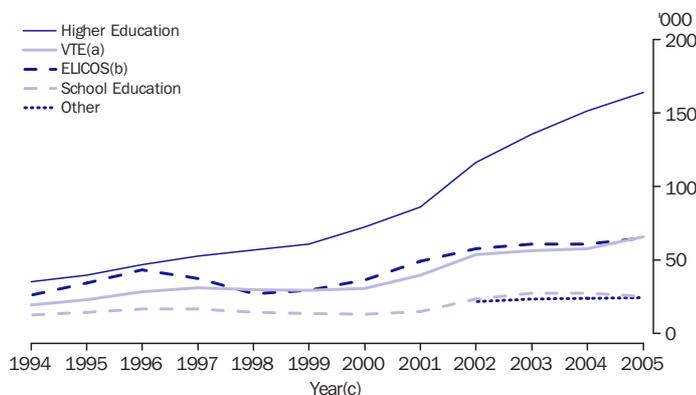
...enrolments by sector

In 2005, there were 345,000 overseas student enrolments in various courses across all sectors, more than triple the 111,300 overseas student enrolments in 1995, according to Australian Education International (AEI).

While all sectors grew between 1995 and 2005, the major driver of growth in overseas student enrolments was Higher Education which increased fourfold and contributed around half (53%) of the total enrolment increase over the period. In 2005, Higher Education enrolments comprised almost half (48%) of all enrolments. This was followed by Vocational and Technical Education (VTE) and ELICOS (each 19%).

Of the 164,000 international students enrolled in Higher Education in 2005, almost one in four were from China (24%), followed by India (14%) and Malaysia (9%). More than half of all enrolments were for bachelor degrees (59%) followed by masters by coursework (33%). In addition, more than half (55%) of enrolments were in either 'Business administration and management' or 'Computer science and information systems'.⁶

Overseas student enrolments by sector



(a) Vocational and Technical Education.

(b) English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students.

(c) There was a break in the series between 2001 and 2002. For further information please contact aei@dest.gov.au.

Source: AEI International Student data.

Overseas student enrolments by nationality — 2005

Nationality	Total enrolments '000	ELICOS(a) as proportion of total enrolments %
Brazil	7.1	56.0
China	81.2	19.9
India	27.7	4.7
Japan	19.0	42.4
Malaysia	19.3	1.5
South Korea	26.3	42.7
Taiwan	9.6	34.3
Thailand	16.5	32.0
Total(b)	344.2	18.9

(a) English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students.

(b) Includes other countries not listed and therefore components do not add to total.

Source: AEI International Student Data.

VTE was the second largest sector with 66,100 enrolments in Australia in 2005. Almost one in five student enrolments were from China (18%), followed by Hong Kong (8%) and Thailand and Japan (7% each). The majority of VTE enrolments (80%) were at either Diploma or Advanced Diploma level, with the remaining 20% enrolled at the Certificate I through IV level. The top three fields of study in 2005 were 'Business administration and management', 'Services hospitality and transport', and 'Computer science and information systems'.⁷

In 2005, there were 65,000 ELICOS enrolments, most of which were in non-government institutions (69%). One quarter of ELICOS students were from China (25%), 17% were from South Korea and 12% were from Japan.⁸

While almost one in five (19%) of all overseas student enrolments were in the ELICOS sector, there were some differences according to nationality. For example 56% of all student enrolments from Brazil and 43% of all student enrolments from South Korea were in ELICOS. Although a quarter of all ELICOS enrolments were from China (25%), only one in five Chinese students attended an ELICOS course. A small proportion of all student enrolments from India (5%) and Malaysia (1%) were ELICOS enrolments.⁸



In 2005, there were 26,000 overseas student enrolments in Australian schools. Most student enrolments were in Secondary schools (91%), with just 9% in Primary schools (including Kindergarten). In addition, 61% of student enrolments were in non-government schools and 39% in government schools.⁹

...study pathways

There were just over 100,000 overseas students who commenced studying in Australia in 2002 and who continued their studies through to 2005. Two-thirds (66%) of these students studied in one sector only over that period and the remainder (34% or 34,000 students) were multiple sector students. Most (74%) of these multiple sector students were enrolled in two sectors over the period. A further 23% were enrolled in three sectors, and the remainder were enrolled in four or more sectors.¹⁰

The most common study pathway for multiple sector students was an ELICOS-Higher Education pathway (21%), followed by ELICOS-VTE (15%) and VTE-Higher Education (13%). The next most common pathways were Other-Higher Education and ELICOS-VTE-Higher Education (both 8%). Almost one-third (31%) of multiple sector students did not undertake an ELICOS course.¹⁰ A similar amount (32%) of multiple sector students were from China. Students from Hong Kong, South Korea and Indonesia together comprised a further 27% of all multiple sector students.¹⁰

More than one-quarter of all Chinese multiple sector students (29%) followed an ELICOS-Higher Education study pathway with 40% of Thai and 34% of Taiwanese multiple sector students following the same study pathway. ELICOS-VTE study pathways were recorded for 42% of Japanese and 28% of Thai multiple sector students, while 26% of both Malaysian and Indonesian multiple sector students and 22% of those from Hong Kong followed a VTE-Higher Education education pathway.

Exporting education

In 2005, export revenue raised through the provision of education services to international students studying in Australia was valued at \$9 billion. International students spent almost \$3.8 billion dollars on fees (up from \$1.8 billion in 2000), with 67% of this spent in the higher education sector. Expenditure by students on goods and services (\$5.3 billion) was more than double that in 2000 (\$2.2 billion).

Remaining in Australia after study

International students who have obtained an Australian qualification may apply for permanent residency onshore, providing they meet the selection criteria, under the General Skilled Migration Program. In 2004, there were 42,300 overseas students who had completed their higher education course. Of these, 34% (14,400 students) were approved for permanent residence onshore under

Students(a) studying in Australia by sector — 2002–2005

Sector	Students '000	Proportion of all students
		%
Single sector	66.1	65.9
Higher Education	31.8	31.7
VTE(b)	6.7	6.7
ELICOS(c)	11.6	11.5
School education	3.4	3.4
Other	12.7	12.6
Multiple sector	34.3	34.1
Total overseas students	100.4	100.0

- (a) Who commenced study in 2002.
 (b) Vocational and Technical Education.
 (c) English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students.

Source: Australian Education International Research Paper, *Study pathways of international students in Australia, 2002 to 2005*, Number 2006/1.

Expenditure by international students in Australia — 2005

Sector	Type of expenditure		
	Fees	Goods and services	Total
	\$m	\$m	\$m
Higher education	2 509	3 722	6 231
VTE(a)	481	644	1 125
ELICOS(b)	255	281	536
School education	287	400	687
Other	234	222	456
Total(c)	3 793	5 324	9 117

- (a) Vocational and Technical Education.
 (b) English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students.
 (c) Includes New Zealand and other non-award students.

Source: DIAC visa data; DIAC overseas arrivals and departures data; DEST student fees data; DEST Survey of International Student Spending; *Consumer Price Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).



Australian tertiary students studying overseas

In 2004, there were 9,400 Australian tertiary students studying overseas, representing less than 1% of all Australian tertiary students. Of these students, 29% were studying in the United States of America, and a further 28% in New Zealand. Australian students predominately chose to study in other English speaking countries.

Australian tertiary students studying overseas — 2004

Destination country	'000	%
Canada(a)	0.6	6.9
Germany(b)	0.3	3.5
New Zealand	2.6	27.6
United Kingdom	1.5	16.0
United States of America	2.7	28.9
Other	1.6	17.2
Total	9.4	100.0

(a) Year of reference 2002.

(b) Excludes tertiary-type B programmes and advanced research programmes.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance*, 2006.

selected skilled categories (880, 881 or 882).¹¹ More than one third of these students were computing professionals (36%) and over a quarter were accountants (28%).¹² Just 5% of overseas students granted permanent residence were tradespersons.¹²

Endnotes

- 1 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2006*, Paris.
- 2 Department of Education, Science and Training, *Higher Education Report 2005*, DEST, viewed 13 February 2007, <http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher_education/publications_resources/profiles/highered_annual_report_2005.htm>.
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- 4 Department of the Treasury 2006, *Australia's Services Exports - Treasury Submission to House of Representatives Economics, Finance and Public Administration Committee public inquiry*, Canberra, viewed 25 September 2006, <<http://treasury.gov.au/>>.
- 5 Australian Education International 2005, *Research Snapshot Number 1: Explanatory notes for International Student Numbers*, AEI, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/Snapshots/Default.htm>>.
- 6 Australian Education International 2006, *Research Snapshot Number 8: International Student Enrolments in Higher Education in 2005*, AEI, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/Snapshots/Default.htm>>.
- 7 Australian Education International 2006, *Research Snapshot Number 9: 2005 International Student Data in Vocational and Technical Education*, AEI, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/Snapshots/Default.htm>>.
- 8 Australian Education International 2006, *Research Snapshot Number 6: International Student Enrolments in the ELICOS Sector*, AEI, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/Snapshots/Default.htm>>.
- 9 Australian Education International 2006, *Research Snapshot Number 5: International Student Enrolments in the Schools Sector in 2005*, AEI, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/Snapshots/Default.htm>>.
- 10 Australian Education International Research Paper, 'Study pathways of international students in Australia, 2002 to 2005', AEI, viewed 10 November 2006, <http://aei.dest.gov.au/AEI/PublicationsAndResearch/ResearchPapers/2006_1_Pathway_pdf.pdf>.
- 11 Birrell, B 2006, 'Implications of low English Standards among overseas students at Australian Universities', *People and Place*, Vol. 14, no. 4, pp 53–64.
- 12 Birrell, B et al. 2006, *Australia's Net Gains from International Skilled Movement – Skilled Movements in 2004–05 and earlier years*, Centre for Population and Urban Research, Monash University.

Work

	Page
National and state summary	116

Labour force participation – an international comparison	125
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Australia's labour force participation rate for persons aged 15–64 years has increased slightly over the last 15 years (76% in 2005 compared with 74% in 1990) with the main driver being the increasing participation of women. While Australia's participation rate was above the OECD average (70%), it was below some other OECD countries in 2005. This article examines how trends in Australia's labour force participation compare with other similar OECD countries. It focuses on men and women aged 15–64 years as well as women with children and older men and women.

Maternity leave arrangements	132
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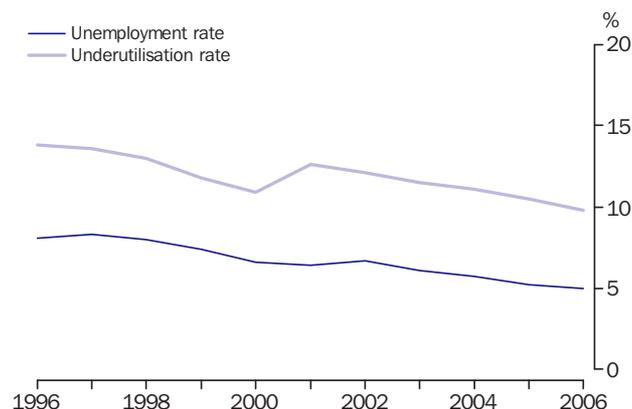
The level of support available to women to combine paid work with child bearing and raising can influence their labour force participation. Access to leave from work for and after birth is one aspect of this support. In 2005, just over one-half (51%) of women with children aged less than two years who were employees in their last main job while pregnant reported using paid leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child. This article examines maternity leave arrangements including the types (paid and/or unpaid) and length of leave used by women employees with different job characteristics.

Work-related injuries	137
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Workplace injuries and illnesses range in severity and may cause short-term or long-term pain, disability or death. As well as the impact on their health, injured workers may also be absent from work, suffer loss of income or perhaps even lose their job. Of the 10.8 million Australians who worked at some time in the 12 months to June 2006, 6.4% (690,000 people) experienced a work-related injury, with men experiencing a higher work-related injury rate than women. This article examines work-related injury rates across different industry and occupation groups as well as the types of work-related injuries sustained, how they occurred and time away from work.

Work: national summary — key points

Unemployment(a) and labour force underutilisation rates(b)



(a) Annual averages for the financial year ending 30 June.

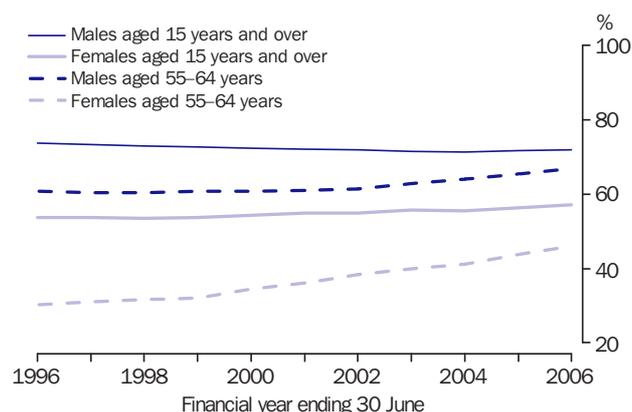
(b) At September.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, and *Underemployed Workers, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

For further information see *Work: national summary*, page 119, indicators 39 and 50.

- The unemployment rate has followed a downward trend over the past decade. In 2005–06, it reached 5.0%, the lowest level recorded over the ten year period. Since then, the unemployment rate has continued to decrease to reach 4.3% in May 2007.
- The labour force underutilisation rate has generally tracked the unemployment rate since the mid 1990s, trending downward over the period to reach 9.8% in 2006.

Labour force participation rate(a)



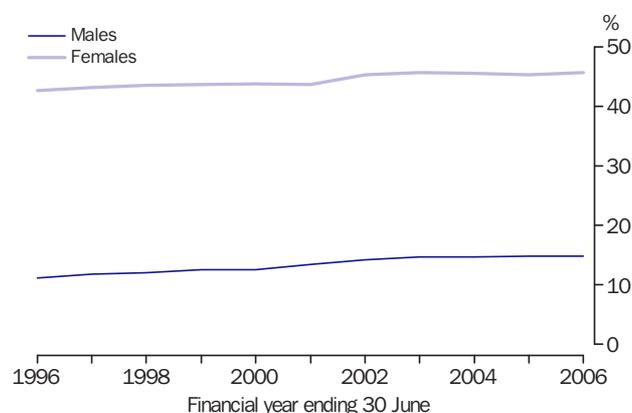
(a) Annual averages.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

For further information see *Work: national summary*, pages 118 and 119, indicators 4–5 and 54–55.

- While the labour force participation rate for women increased over the past decade, from 54% in 1995–96 to 57% in 2005–06, the labour force participation rate for men decreased slightly from 74% to 72%.
- There have been increases in the labour force participation rates for both older men and women aged 55–64 years between 1995–96 and 2005–06, from 30% to 46% for women and from 61% to 67% for men.

Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment(a)



(a) Annual averages.

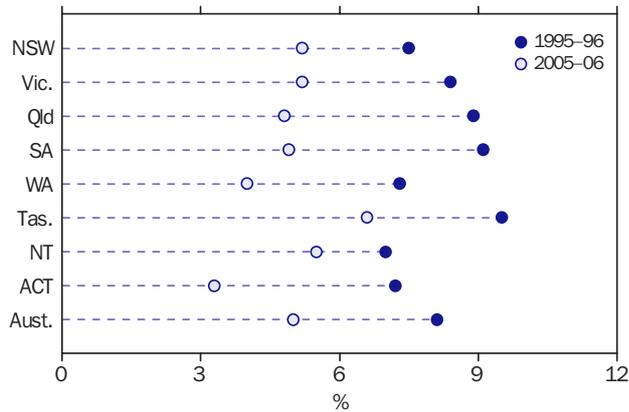
Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

For further information see *Work: national summary*, page 118, indicators 14 and 15.

- There have been increases in the proportion of both employed men and women working part-time over the past decade.
- The proportion of employed men working part-time increased from 11% in 1995–96 to 15% in 2005–06, while for women the proportion increased from 43% to 46%.
- Women have accounted for the majority of part-time workers in Australia over this period (72% in 2005–06).

Work: state summary — key points

Unemployment rates by states and territories(a)



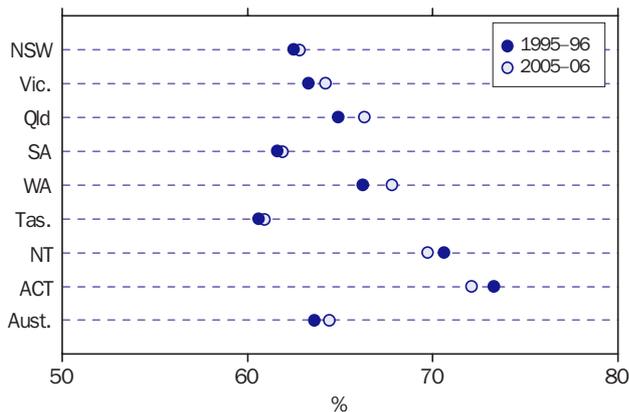
- Unemployment rates were lower in 2005–06 than in 1995–96 across all states and territories.
- In 2005–06, the annual average unemployment rate in Australia was 5.0%.
- In 2005–06, Tasmania (6.6%) had the highest unemployment rate while the Australian Capital Territory had the lowest (3.3%).

(a) Annual averages for the financial year ending 30 June.

Source: ABS 1995–96 and 2005–06 Labour Force Survey.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Work, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 39 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

Labour force participation rates by states and territories(a)



- Labour force participation rates have remained fairly stable over the past decade, only increasing slightly in most states and territories since 1995–96.
- In 2005–06, the annual average labour force participation rate in Australia was 64%.
- In 2005–06, the Australian Capital Territory had the highest labour force participation rate (72%) among all the states and territories, while Tasmania had the lowest (61%).

(a) Annual averages for the financial year ending 30 June.

Source: ABS 1995–96 and 2005–06 Labour Force Survey.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Work, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 3 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

Work: national summary

LABOUR FORCE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	Total labour force	'000	9 061	9 169	9 256	9 379	9 495	9 674	9 819	10 004	10 129	10 367	10 591
2	Females – of total labour force	%	43.0	43.1	43.2	43.3	43.8	44.2	44.2	44.6	44.6	44.8	45.0
3	Participation rate	%	63.6	63.4	63.1	63.1	63.1	63.4	63.3	63.6	63.4	63.9	64.4
4	Males	%	73.8	73.4	72.9	72.7	72.3	72.1	72.0	71.6	71.4	71.7	72.0
5	Females	%	53.8	53.8	53.6	53.8	54.3	54.9	55.0	55.8	55.5	56.3	57.1
6	Females with children aged 0–4(a)	%	47.4	47.8	48.2	47.1	49.1	49.7	49.2	49.8	47.5	51.3	52.4
7	Persons aged 15–19	%	59.1	58.9	57.6	58.2	59.1	59.7	59.4	59.2	59.9	60.0	59.8
8	Persons aged 20–24	%	83.0	82.5	81.9	82.1	82.1	82.2	81.7	81.4	80.9	81.0	81.5
9	Median age of male labour force	years	37	37	37	38	38	38	38	39	38	39	39
10	Median age of female labour force	years	36	36	36	36	37	37	37	38	38	38	38
EMPLOYED PEOPLE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
11	Total employed	'000	8 324	8 404	8 519	8 689	8 869	9 056	9 161	9 389	9 556	9 826	10 064
12	Proportion of the population in employment	%	58.4	58.1	58.1	58.4	59.0	59.3	59.1	59.7	59.8	60.6	61.2
Part-time work													
13	Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	24.7	25.3	25.7	26.1	26.3	26.8	28.0	28.6	28.4	28.4	28.6
14	Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	11.1	11.8	12.1	12.6	12.6	13.4	14.2	14.7	14.7	14.8	14.8
15	Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	42.6	43.1	43.5	43.6	43.8	43.6	45.2	45.7	45.5	45.2	45.6
16	Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	74.5	73.6	73.3	72.7	73.2	72.2	71.7	71.5	71.3	71.2	71.6
17	Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	15.2	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.6	15.6	15.8	16.0	15.9	16.2	16.2
18	Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	26.1	26.5	26.1	25.8	23.9	23.8	27.0	26.2	26.2	25.9	24.7
19	Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	52.1	51.1	51.1	51.1	50.2	49.9	49.3	48.1	48.6	47.1	47.0
Full-time work													
20	Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	40.5	41.0	41.1	41.1	41.4	40.6	40.7	41.0	40.3	40.6	40.0
21	Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	23.7	24.4	24.9	24.9	25.6	24.0	24.2	24.4	23.1	23.8	22.5
Employment arrangements													
22	Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	26.1	25.8	26.9	26.4	27.3	27.2	27.3	27.6	27.7	26.8	26.9
23	Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	21.2	20.9	22.6	22.0	23.0	23.6	23.5	24.0	24.7	23.1	23.9
24	Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	32.0	31.7	32.0	31.8	32.3	31.5	31.6	31.9	31.2	31.0	30.3
25	Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	14.6	13.9	14.3	13.6	13.5	13.3	13.3	13.2	12.9	12.8	12.4
Industry													
26	Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	72.3	72.6	72.9	73.6	73.2	73.8	74.1	74.7	74.9	74.8	75.0
27	Employed in manufacturing industries – of total employed	%	13.4	13.5	13.2	12.5	12.4	12.4	11.8	11.9	11.2	11.1	10.6
Occupation(b)													
28	Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations – of total employed	%	24.8	24.5	25.0	25.2	25.2	25.7	26.5	25.9	26.4	27.0	27.8
29	Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations – of total employed	%	21.8	20.4	20.4	20.3	19.7	19.5	19.0	19.4	19.3	19.0	18.4
30	Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations	%	35.5	41.4	41.2	40.9	42.1	42.8	42.5	43.3	44.0	44.6	44.4

Work: national summary continued

WORKPLACE RELATIONS												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
31 Trade union members – of all employees	%	31.1	30.3	28.1	25.7	24.7	24.5	23.1	23.0	22.7	22.4	20.3
32 Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	114.1	90.0	82.1	55.8	105.3	45.1	41.9	30.2	66.9	28.8	21.6
33 Pay set by award only – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	23.2	n.a.	20.5	n.a.	20.0	n.a.	19.0
34 Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	36.8	n.a.	38.2	n.a.	40.9	n.a.	41.2
35 Pay set by individual arrangements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	40.0	n.a.	41.3	n.a.	39.1	n.a.	39.9
UNEMPLOYMENT												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
36 Total unemployed	'000	736.5	764.9	737.8	689.6	626.3	618.1	657.4	614.4	572.7	540.5	527.1
37 Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed(c)	%	n.a.	n.a.	29.4	29.8	26.9	23.4	22.3	21.9	21.0	19.5	18.3
38 Long-term unemployed – of total labour force(c)	%	n.a.	n.a.	2.3	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9
39 Unemployment rate	%	8.1	8.3	8.0	7.4	6.6	6.4	6.7	6.1	5.7	5.2	5.0
40 Males	%	8.5	8.6	8.2	7.6	6.7	6.7	6.9	6.2	5.5	5.1	4.9
41 Females	%	7.6	8.0	7.6	7.0	6.4	6.0	6.4	6.1	5.8	5.4	5.1
42 Capital cities	%	8.2	8.2	7.4	6.8	6.0	5.9	6.3	5.8	5.4	4.9	4.6
43 Balance of states and territories	%	8.9	9.4	9.1	8.3	7.6	7.2	7.4	6.8	6.0	5.7	5.6
Unemployed looking for full-time work												
44 Of all persons aged 15–19	%	7.1	6.9	6.5	5.7	5.0	5.0	5.1	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.3
45 Of all persons aged 20–24	%	8.5	8.9	8.6	7.6	6.3	6.3	6.7	6.1	5.5	5.1	4.4
46 Median duration of unemployment – males(c)	weeks	24	26	26	26	24	18	20	19	16	14	14
47 Median duration of unemployment – females(c)	weeks	18	21	22	19	15	16	14	14	13	11	12
48 Retrenchment rate(d)	%	4.6	n.a.	4.4	n.a.	4.0	n.a.	3.9	n.a.	2.7	n.a.	2.2
49 Persons previously retrenched and currently employed – of all retrenched(d)	%	44.7	n.a.	42.4	n.a.	46.4	n.a.	52.7	n.a.	51.2	n.a.	54.3
Labour force underutilisation												
50 Labour force underutilisation rate	%	13.8	13.6	13.0	11.8	10.9	12.6	12.1	11.5	11.1	10.5	9.8
51 Extended labour force underutilisation rate	%	15.2	15.0	14.3	13.2	12.2	13.7	13.1	12.5	12.2	11.4	10.6
NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE((d))												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
52 Marginally attached	'000	879.6	890.5	922.6	883.2	823.9	816.5	808.1	834.6	855.3	831.1	743.9
53 Discouraged jobseekers	'000	118.9	118.4	110.9	105.8	106.5	81.7	78.0	79.8	82.0	59.3	52.9
TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Persons aged 55–64 years												
54 Participation rate – males	%	60.8	60.5	60.4	60.8	60.7	61.0	61.4	62.8	64.0	65.4	66.9
55 Participation rate – females	%	30.1	31.1	31.6	32.0	34.5	36.1	38.3	40.0	41.2	43.7	45.9
56 Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55–64	%	13.1	13.8	14.8	14.9	13.9	15.8	16.3	17.0	15.8	16.1	15.9
57 Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55–64	%	49.8	51.2	49.7	51.0	51.3	51.3	52.3	50.9	50.1	50.0	50.1

(a) From 2001, data include females in both opposite-sex and same-sex couple families, and lone parents with children aged 0–4 years.

(b) Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) second edition was introduced in August 1996. Data prior to this date are concorded with ASCO second edition at the major group level.

(c) Prior to April 2001, data refers to duration of unemployment since last full-time job. From April 2001 data refers to duration of unemployment since last full-time or part-time job.

(d) Data include persons aged 15–69 years.

Reference periods: All data are annual averages for the year ending 30 June except:
 Data for indicators 6, 9–10 and 46–47 are at June.
 Data for indicators 22–24 and 31 are at August.
 Data for indicators 33–35 are at May.
 Data for indicators 48–49 are at February.
 Data for indicators 50–53 are at September.

Work: state summary

LABOUR FORCE												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
1	Total labour force	'000	2005–06	3 440	2 628	2 108	782	1 104	238	104	188	10 591
2	Females – of total labour force	%	2005–06	44.8	45.0	45.2	45.2	44.0	45.5	45.6	47.8	45.0
3	Participation rate	%	2005–06	62.8	64.2	66.3	61.9	67.8	60.9	69.7	72.1	64.4
4	Males	%	2005–06	70.5	72.2	73.4	69.1	76.3	67.9	73.3	77.3	72.0
5	Females	%	2005–06	55.5	56.5	59.3	55.0	59.4	54.2	65.8	67.2	57.1
6	Females with children aged 0–4	%	2006	54.0	50.4	52.6	52.6	48.1	51.8	70.5	67.8	52.4
7	Persons aged 15–19	%	2005–06	54.7	56.6	67.2	61.9	68.1	58.8	54.9	61.0	59.8
8	Persons aged 20–24	%	2005–06	80.5	80.7	83.8	82.0	82.6	79.8	72.2	86.2	81.5
9	Median age of male labour force	years	2006	39	39	38	40	39	40	38	38	39
10	Median age of female labour force	years	2006	38	38	38	40	38	40	38	38	38
EMPLOYED PEOPLE												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
11	Total employed	'000	2005–06	3 261	2 491	2 007	743	1 060	223	98	181	10 064
12	Proportion of the population in employment	%	2005–06	59.6	60.8	63.1	58.9	65.1	56.9	65.8	69.8	61.2
Part-time work												
13	Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	2005–06	27.9	29.2	28.2	31.1	29.2	32.2	21.9	25.4	28.6
14	Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	2005–06	14.5	15.3	14.2	15.9	14.1	16.7	15.5	15.4	14.8
15	Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	2005–06	44.3	46.2	45.3	49.3	48.4	50.5	29.5	36.4	45.6
16	Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	2005–06	71.3	71.1	72.3	72.0	72.8	71.8	61.6	68.5	71.6
17	Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	2005–06	16.2	15.9	16.6	16.6	16.0	15.9	17.9	15.9	16.2
18	Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	2005–06	25.5	25.0	24.7	25.8	21.4	25.0	16.3	22.9	24.7
19	Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	2005–06	46.4	48.6	45.5	46.4	48.5	48.4	34.5	48.5	47.0
Full-time work												
20	Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	2005–06	39.7	39.9	40.4	39.7	41.0	38.8	40.0	37.8	40.0
21	Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	2005–06	22.1	21.6	23.7	21.1	25.4	19.6	22.6	17.7	22.5
Employment arrangements												
22	Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	2006	25.9	24.8	30.9	29.9	26.9	27.7	20.3	20.8	26.9
23	Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	2006	22.7	23.3	26.5	26.2	24.0	23.7	16.4	21.0	23.9
24	Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	2006	29.6	26.6	35.8	34.0	30.3	31.8	24.4	20.6	30.3
25	Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	2005–06	12.5	11.0	13.3	12.6	14.3	13.9	9.9	7.4	12.4
Industry												
26	Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	2005–06	77.3	73.8	74.4	73.1	70.3	73.0	84.0	89.1	75.0
27	Employed in manufacturing industries – of total employed	%	2005–06	10.0	13.5	9.2	12.8	9.0	10.2	2.4	2.9	10.6
Occupation												
28	Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations – of total employed	%	2005–06	29.3	29.3	24.5	26.2	26.4	24.9	24.1	37.8	27.8
29	Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations – of total employed	%	2005–06	17.7	18.1	19.4	20.2	18.4	21.3	20.6	12.9	18.4
30	Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations	%	2005–06	44.4	44.0	45.3	44.9	42.0	44.5	50.6	47.4	44.4

Work: state summary continued

WORKPLACE RELATIONS											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
31 Trade union members – of all employees	%	2006	21.3	19.9	20.7	21.6	16.0	26.7	19.0	17.7	20.3
32 Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	2005–06	24.3	28.6	9.8	9.7	29.8	4.2	43.8	14.1	21.6
33 Pay set by award only – of all employees	%	2006	22.9	14.9	22.0	18.9	11.1	23.2	11.3	17.0	19.0
34 Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	2006	36.1	42.9	41.6	48.8	41.0	47.3	54.3	57.0	41.2
35 Pay set by individual arrangements – of all employees	%	2006	41.0	42.2	36.4	32.3	47.9	29.4	34.3	26.1	39.9
UNEMPLOYMENT											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
36 Total unemployed	'000	2005–06	179.0	137.6	101.0	38.0	44.0	15.6	5.7	6.1	527.1
37 Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed	%	2005–06	20.7	19.2	14.7	19.5	12.2	25.0	10.0	14.9	18.3
38 Long-term unemployed – of total labour force	%	2005–06	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.5	1.6	0.5	0.5	0.9
39 Unemployment rate	%	2005–06	5.2	5.2	4.8	4.9	4.0	6.6	5.5	3.3	5.0
40 Males	%	2005–06	5.4	4.9	4.4	5.3	3.7	6.9	5.7	3.3	4.9
41 Females	%	2005–06	5.0	5.6	5.3	4.4	4.4	6.1	5.3	3.2	5.1
42 Capital cities(a)	%	2005–06	4.4	4.8	4.5	5.3	4.0	5.9	n.a.	n.a.	4.6
43 Balance of states and territories(a)	%	2005–06	6.7	6.4	5.1	3.7	3.9	7.0	5.5	3.3	5.6
Unemployed looking for full-time work											
44 Of all persons aged 15–19	%	2005–06	4.4	3.5	5.1	4.7	4.4	4.8	3.3	2.6	4.3
45 Of all persons aged 20–24	%	2005–06	4.7	4.7	3.8	4.5	3.7	7.0	4.0	2.8	4.4
46 Median duration of unemployment – males	weeks	2006	16	12	11	16	10	15	12	6	14
47 Median duration of unemployment – females	weeks	2006	12	15	13	9	5	16	25	17	12
48 Retrenchment rate(b)	%	2006	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.2	1.8	1.6	2.0	1.3	2.2
49 Persons previously retrenched and currently employed – of all retrenched (b)	%	2006	54.1	50.2	59.7	49.8	58.1	40.6	50.2	68.3	54.3
Labour force underutilisation											
50 Labour force underutilisation rate	%	2006	10.6	9.7	9.4	10.8	7.5	13.4	5.2	6.5	9.8
51 Extended labour force underutilisation rate	%	2006	11.5	10.5	10.1	11.6	8.3	14.7	5.7	6.7	10.6
NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE(b)											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
52 Marginally attached	'000	2006	256.1	194.9	128.8	59.2	68.9	23.8	3.8	8.2	743.9
53 Discouraged jobseekers	'000	2006	19.2	13.8	8.6	4.3	4.3	2.2	n.p.	n.p.	52.9
TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Persons aged 55–64 years											
54 Participation rate – males	%	2005–06	64.4	69.9	66.4	62.6	72.8	61.1	70.9	73.7	66.9
55 Participation rate – females	%	2005–06	44.7	45.8	46.1	44.3	49.8	42.8	60.8	54.7	45.9
56 Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55–64	%	2005–06	15.3	16.8	14.2	16.4	16.9	23.5	9.6	16.9	15.9
57 Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55–64	%	2005–06	48.8	52.4	48.6	53.3	51.0	54.0	33.2	44.3	50.1

(a) Capital city and balance of state breakdown are not available for Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory.

(b) Data include persons aged 15–69 years.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:

Data for indicators 6, 9–10 and 46–47 are at June.

Data for indicators 22–24 and 31 are at August.

Data for indicators 33–35 are at May.

Data for indicators 48–49 are at February.

Data for indicators 50–53 are at September.

Work: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1–21, 25–30, 36–47, 54–57	ABS Labour Force Survey.
22–24, 31	<i>Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).
32	<i>Industrial Disputes, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6321.0.55.001).
33–35	<i>Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia, May</i> (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).
48–49	<i>Labour Mobility, Australia, February</i> (ABS cat. no. 6209.0).
50–51	<i>Australian Labour Market Statistics, April edition</i> (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).
52–53	<i>Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September</i> (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

Work: definitions

Average hours worked per week

aggregate hours worked by a group divided by the number of persons in that group.

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

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 resident population counts, overseas residents in Australia, and members of non-Australian defence forces (and their dependants) stationed in Australia.

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

Discouraged jobseekers

persons who were marginally attached to the labour force, wanted to work and who were available to start work within four weeks but whose main reason for not actively seeking work was that they believed they would not find a job for any of the following reasons:

- ♦ considered too old or too young by employers
- ♦ lacked necessary schooling, training, skills or experienced difficulties with language or ethnic background
- ♦ no jobs in their locality or line of work
- ♦ no jobs available at all.

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

Employed

persons aged 15 years and over who, during the reference week:

- ♦ worked for one hour or more for pay, profit, commission or payment in kind, in a job or business, or on a farm (comprising employees, employers and own account workers); or
- ♦ worked for one hour or more without pay in a family business or on a farm (i.e. contributing family workers); or
- ♦ were employees who had a job but were not at work and were:
 - ♦ away from work for less than four weeks up to the end of the reference week; or
 - ♦ away from work for more than four weeks up to the end of the reference week and received pay for some or all of the four week period to the end of the reference week; or
 - ♦ away from work as a standard work or shift arrangement; or
 - ♦ on strike or locked out; or
 - ♦ on workers' compensation and expected to return to their job; or
- ♦ were employers or own account workers who had a job, business or farm, but were not at work.

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

Employee

labour force survey and other household surveys: a person who works for a public or private employer and receives remuneration in wages, salary, a retainer fee from their employer while working on a commission basis, tips, piece rates or payment in kind, or a person who operates his or her own incorporated enterprise with or without hiring employees.

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

Employees without leave entitlements

employees who were not entitled to either paid holiday leave or sick leave in their main job.

Reference: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

Employer

labour force survey and other household surveys: a person who operates their own unincorporated economic enterprise or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires one or more employees.

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

Extended labour force underutilisation rate

the unemployed, plus the underemployed, plus two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force:

- i. persons actively looking for work, not available to start work in the reference week, but were available to start work within four weeks
 - ii. discouraged jobseekers
- as a percentage of the labour force augmented by (i) and (ii).

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

Full-time employed

persons who usually worked 35 hours or more a week (in all jobs) and those who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference week.

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

Industrial dispute

a state of disagreement over an issue or group of issues between an employer and its employees, which results in employees ceasing work. Industrial disputes comprise strikes, which are a withdrawal from work by a group of employees; and lockouts, which are a refusal by an employer or group of employers to permit some or all of their employees to work.

Reference: *Industrial Disputes, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6321.0.55.001).

Work: definitions continued

Labour force

the labour force is the labour supply available for the production of economic goods and services in a given period, and is the most widely used measure of the economically active population.

Persons in the labour force are classified as either employed or unemployed according to their activities during the reference period by using a specific set of priority rules.

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

Labour force underutilisation rate

the unemployed plus the underemployed, as a percentage of the labour force.

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

Long-term unemployed

persons unemployed for 12 months or more.

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

Manufacturing industries

consists of the manufacturing division of the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC).

Reference: *ANZSIC 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1292.0).

Marginally attached

persons aged 15–69 years and over who were not in the labour force, wanted to work and; were actively looking for work but did not meet the availability criteria to be classified as unemployed; or were not actively looking for work, were available to start work or would have been if child care were available.

Reference: *Persons Not In the Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

Median age

the age which divides a group of persons into two equal groups: one comprising persons whose age is above the median; and the other, persons whose age is below it.

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

Median duration of unemployment

the duration which divides unemployed persons into two equal groups, one comprising persons whose duration of unemployment is above the median and the other, persons whose duration is below it.

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

Occupation

a collection of jobs which are sufficiently similar in their main tasks to be grouped together for the purposes of classification. The Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) Second Edition, which is used for the classification of occupations, applies skill level and skill specialisation as major criteria.

Skill level is measured by: formal education and training, and previous experience usually required for entry into an occupation. ASCO Second Edition assigns each of the nine major groups in the classification to one of five ranked skill levels.

Skill Level 1 — Managers and administrators and Professionals

Skill Level 2 — Associate professionals

Skill Level 3 — Tradespersons and related workers and Advanced clerical and service workers

Skill Level 4 — Intermediate production and transport workers and Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers

Skill Level 5 — Elementary clerical, sales and service workers and Labourers and related workers

Reference: *ASCO — Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, Second Edition, 1997* (ABS cat. no. 1220.0).

Own account worker

a person who operates his or her own unincorporated economic enterprise or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires no employees. This category was formerly entitled self-employed.

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

Participation rate

the labour force participation rate within the population is the labour force component of that group, expressed as a percentage of the population of that group. In this publication the participation rate is the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population aged 15 years and over.

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

Part-time employed

employed persons who usually worked less than 35 hours a week (in all jobs) and either did so during the survey reference week, or were not at work in the reference week.

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

Pay set by award only

employees who are paid at the rate of pay specified in the award, and who are not paid more than that award rate of pay.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Pay set by collective agreements

employees who had the main part of their pay set by a registered or unregistered collective agreement or enterprise award.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Pay set by individual arrangements

employees who had the main part of their pay set by an individual contract, registered individual agreement (e.g. Australian Workplace Agreement) or common law contract. It also includes people who receive 'over-award' payments by individual agreement and those who are working proprietors of incorporated businesses.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Proportion of the population in employment

the number of employed persons expressed as a percentage of the civilian population. Also known as employment to population ratio.

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

Retrenchment rate

total persons retrenched during the 12 month period before the survey, as a percentage of all people who had been employed at some time over the same period.

Persons retrenched are those who ceased their last job because they were either:

- ♦ employees who were laid off, including no work available, retrenched, made redundant, employer went out of business or dismissed; or
- ♦ self employed persons whose business closed down for economic reasons, including 'went broke', liquidated, no work, or no supply or demand.

Reference: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6209.0).

Work: definitions continued

Service industries

the combination of the following divisions of the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC): Wholesale trade; Retail trade; Accommodation, cafes and restaurants; Transport and storage; Communication services; Finance and insurance; Property and business services; Government administration and defence; Education; Health and community services; Cultural and recreational services; and Personal and other services.

Reference: *ANZSIC 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1292.0).

Trade union members

employees with membership in an organisation consisting predominantly of employees, the principal activities of which include the negotiation of rates of pay and conditions of employment for its members, in conjunction with their main job.

Reference: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

Underemployed

underemployed workers are employed persons who want, and are available for, more hours of work than they currently have. They comprise:

- ♦ Persons employed part-time who want to work more hours and are available to start work with more hours, either in the reference week or in the four weeks subsequent to the survey.
- ♦ Persons employed full-time who worked part-time hours in the reference week for economic reasons (such as being stood down or insufficient work being available). It is assumed that these people wanted to work full-time in the reference week and would have been available to do so.

Reference: *Underemployed Workers, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

Unemployed

persons aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, and:

- ♦ had actively looked for full-time work or part-time work at any time in the four weeks up to the end of the reference week and were available for work in the reference week; or
- ♦ were waiting to start a new job within four weeks from the end of the reference week and could have started in the reference week if the job had been available then.

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

Unemployed looking for full-time work

unemployed persons who:

- ♦ actively looked for full-time work; or
- ♦ were waiting to start a new full-time job.

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

Unemployment rate

The number of unemployed people expressed as a percentage of the labour force.

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

Working days lost

working days lost by employees directly or indirectly involved in industrial disputes.

Reference: *Industrial Disputes, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6321.0.55.001).

Labour force participation – an international comparison

Female labour force participation is lower than men's in many OECD countries. However, it is women who have been the driving force behind an overall increase in participation in the majority of OECD countries in the past decade.

As the Australian population ages it is projected that overall workforce participation will reduce and economic growth will slow. In 2005, Australia's labour force participation rate for those aged 15–64 years was 76% – above the OECD average (70%) for that year, but below some other OECD countries including Sweden, Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom (UK).

Recent government policies to improve workforce participation have included the Welfare to Work package implemented in July 2006. This \$3.6 billion Australian Government initiative is designed to support and assist those people who can move off income support and into work (particularly parents, disability support recipients, long-term unemployed and mature age job seekers).¹

Changes in recent years to tax offsets (including the Mature Age Worker Tax Offset available from 2005–06), pensions (including the Pension Bonus scheme introduced in 1998) and superannuation (including gradually increasing the age of access between 2015 and 2025) have also occurred in an attempt to encourage older workers to retire later.²

This article examines how trends in Australia's labour force participation compare with other similar OECD countries. It focuses on men and women aged 15–64 years and examines their overall labour force participation as well as participation by women with children,

Data sources and definitions

This article uses the most recent data available from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Labour Force Statistics database.

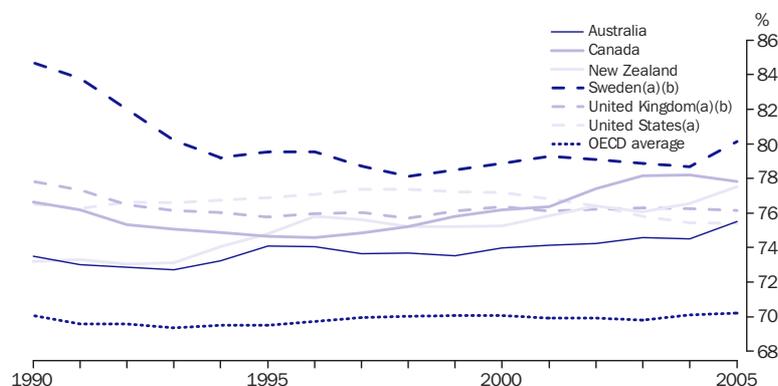
A comparison of selected labour force indicators is made with OECD countries that are similar economically and culturally to Australia, including Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA). Sweden is also used in comparison to Australia and the above countries, mainly due to its relatively high labour force participation rates.

Unless otherwise stated, *OECD averages* are averages of all OECD countries and are not restricted to the countries listed above. For some topics examined in this article data were not available for all OECD countries and averages are instead presented only for those OECD countries with available data.

Persons in the *labour force* are either employed or unemployed. The *labour force participation rate* for any group in the population is the labour force component of that group, expressed as a percentage of the population of that group. The *employment rate* for any group is the number of employed people expressed as a percentage of the population in the same group.

Most data are for persons aged 15–64 years unless otherwise stated. Data for Australia relates to the civilian labour force. Some countries used in this comparison include defence personnel in their statistics of persons in the labour force (Sweden and the UK).

Labour force participation rate of persons aged 15–64 years, selected countries



(a) Aged 16–64 years.
(b) Includes defence personnel.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

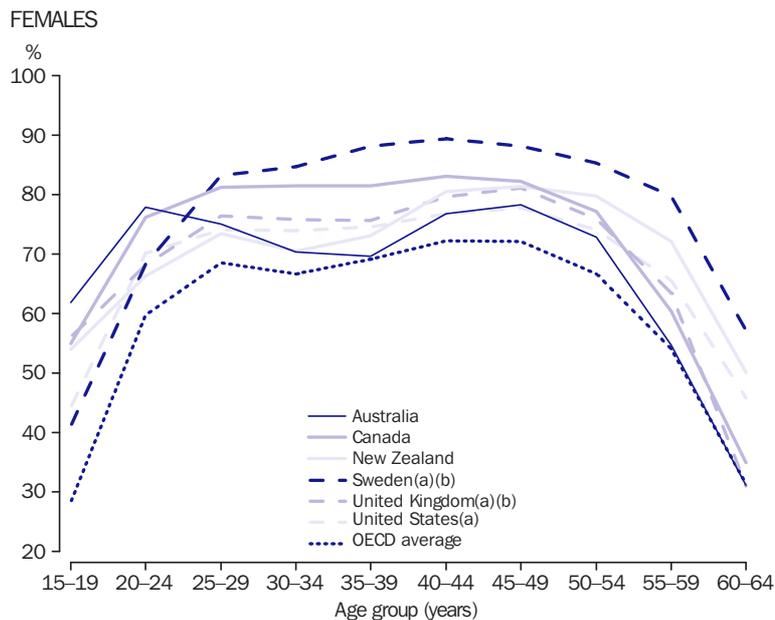
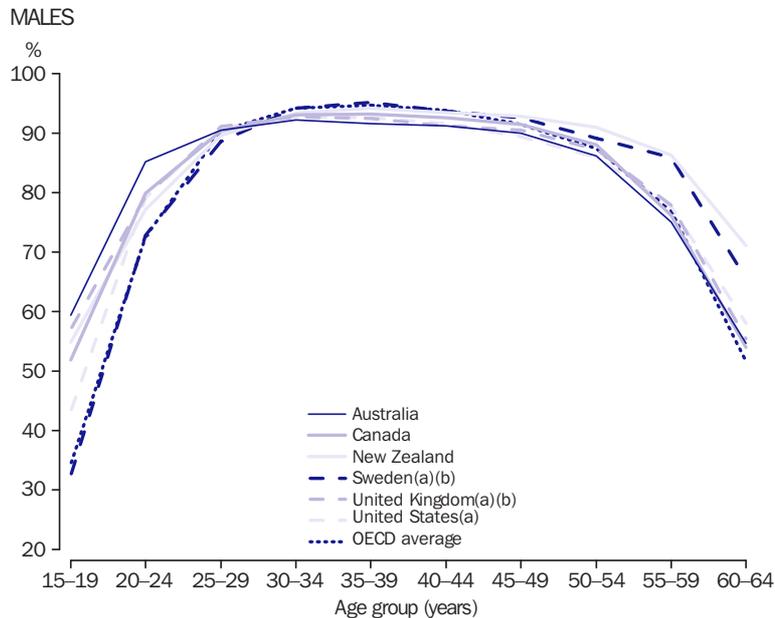
older men and women, participation in part-time work, and participation by level of education.

Recent trends in labour force participation

Australia's labour force participation for persons aged 15–64 years has shown a small net increase in the last 15 years, from 74% in 1990 to 76% in 2005, with the main driver being the increasing participation of women. In 1990, 62% of Australian women aged 15–64 years were in the labour force, increasing to 68% by 2005. However, for Australian men aged 15–64 years, the labour force participation rate decreased over this period from 85% to 83%. This was consistent with participation rates for men and women over the same period for comparison countries, with the exception of Sweden where for both men and women participation



Labour force participation rate of persons aged 15–64 years, selected countries — 2005



(a) Aged 16–64 years.
(b) Includes defence personnel.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

rates fell over the 15 years to 2005. Internationally, Australia's overall labour force participation rate in 2005 (76%) was six percentage points above the OECD average (70%), similar to the USA (75%) and the UK (76%) but below Canada (78%), New Zealand (78%) and Sweden (80%).

OECD employment definitions

Unless otherwise stated, OECD full-time and part-time employment data presented in this article are based on OECD common definitions: *full-time workers* as those who usually work 30 hours or more per week in their main job; while *part-time workers* are those who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job.

Care should be taken when comparing *employment rates* of women in different countries due to maternity (parental) leave arrangements – generally, women who are on *paid maternity leave* are considered to be employed, while women on *unpaid leave* are considered not in the labour force. Australia and the United States are the only OECD countries without legislated minimum paid maternity leave provisions, although paid maternity leave may still be available.³

Sweden's overall participation rate was one of the highest rates in the OECD, second only to Switzerland at 81%.

Participation rates by age

Labour force participation varies between men and women across the lifecycle. In 2006, the Productivity Commission identified three population groups where Australian participation rates are below other leading OECD countries – prime working aged men (25–54 years of age), child-bearing aged women (25–44 years), and older men and women (55–64 years).³

...men and women aged 15–24 years

In 2005, young Australian men and women in the age groups 15–19 and 20–24 years had higher labour force participation than young people in comparison countries.

Among young men aged 15–19 years, participation rates ranged from 33% in Sweden to 59% in Australia, with the OECD average being 34%. For women, all countries in the comparison were above the OECD average of 28%, ranging from 41% in Sweden to 62% in Australia.

...men and women aged 25–54 years

In all of the countries examined, people aged 25–54 years had higher rates of labour force participation than their younger counterparts.

Australian men in this age group had a similar labour force participation pattern across the life cycle to men in other countries, with participation generally peaking between the ages 30–44 years and gradually declining thereafter.



However, Australian men aged 25–54 years tended to have slightly lower labour force participation rates than men in other countries examined and the OECD average.

Australian women aged 25–54 years also tended to have lower labour force participation rates than women in comparison countries. They also had a different pattern of participation, curtailing their labour force participation to a greater extent during the peak child-bearing years (between 25–39 years).

Women in Australia substantially curtail their labour force participation whilst they have young children, as they do in many other developed countries. However, the dip between the ages 25–39 years was more pronounced for Australia than it was for New Zealand, the UK, and the USA. In contrast, the participation rates for Canada remained stable over this age range, and for Sweden increased rather than dipped, peaking at 40–44 years in 2005.

...men and women aged 55–64 years

Participation rates among people in the 55–64 years age group declined with age in all the countries examined. Recent increases in the participation rate of older Australians have been encouraging for policy makers, with a rise in the participation rate among the 55–64 years age group of eight percentage points (48% to 56%) from 2000 to 2005, which substantially exceeded the rise in the OECD average.² However, there is still a marked decline in participation from age 55 years and the participation rates for older Australians remain lower than many of the comparison countries.

OECD research suggests that early retirement decisions in Australia are affected by a range of welfare benefits, especially the Disability Support Pension.² A Department of the Treasury paper on Australia's demographic challenges also notes the importance of flexible work arrangements to allow people the ability to make choices about extending their working life.⁴

In 2005, participation rates for Australian men aged 55–59 and 60–64 years were 75% and 55% respectively, similar to the rates for men in Canada, the UK and the USA in the same year. These rates were well below those for men in New Zealand (86% and 71%) and Sweden (86% and 66%).

For women in older groups, the pattern and rate of fall was very different among the selected countries. Also, compared with men, the rapid decline in participation rates at older ages tends to occur five years earlier. Between the age groups of 50–54 and

OECD labour force participation data

Labour force participation data presented in this article are from the OECD labour force statistics database. Some of the differences observed between participation rates for Australia and other countries reflect differences in statistical treatment between countries, rather than actual differences in workforce participation.

In 2006 the Productivity Commission produced estimates of participation rates for Australia and other OECD countries that had been adjusted to take account of the more important differences in statistical practice in compiling workforce statistics as well as differences in population age structures between comparison countries. Adjustments were made for defence personnel, institutionalised populations (only applied to Australia), missing data in some age brackets (did not apply to Australia) and paid maternity leave.

The most significant adjustment to published data for Australia was for institutionalised persons, which were excluded from the general population to be consistent with the approach in most other OECD countries. The exclusion of institutionalised persons increased Australia's overall labour force participation rate by 1.1 percentage points in 2005.

The net impact of these adjustments on overall participation rates was to increase Australia's labour force participation rate for persons aged 15 years and over from 64% to 66% in 2005 and to also raise Australia's ranking within the OECD from 10th to 5th place behind Iceland, New Zealand, Canada and Switzerland.

People aged 15 years and over: labour force participation rates, selected OECD countries — 2005

Country	Published participation rates		Adjusted ^(a) participation rates	
	Rate %	Rank no.	Rate %	Rank no.
Australia	64.4	10	65.5	5
Canada	67.2	5	66.9	3
NZ	67.8	4	67.5	2
Sweden ^(b)	71.9	3	63.2	9
UK	62.6	12	61.5	13
USA	66.0	8	65.4	6
OECD average ^(c)	60.2	..	59.7	..

(a) Age standardised to the 2005 Australian population and adjusted for treatment of defence personnel, institutionalised populations, missing data for some age brackets and maternity leave.

(b) Published participation rates relate to persons aged 16–74 years.

(c) OECD unweighted average.

Source: Abhayaratna, J and Lattimore, R 2006, *Workforce Participation Rates – How Does Australia Compare?*, Productivity Commission Staff Working Paper, Canberra.



55–59 years, the participation rate for Australian women in 2005 dropped from 73% to 55%, and then again to 31% by age 60–64 years.

Comparatively, female participation rates in Sweden were 85% for women in the 50–54 years age group, 80% for 55–59 years and 57% for 60–64 years. The largest decline in participation occurred between the age groups of 55–59 and 60–64 years for females in the UK, where the rate dropped by 33 percentage points from 64% to 31%.

Part-time work

Part-time employment is a particular feature of Australian women's involvement in the workforce. Both men and women may choose part-time work for many reasons, including to seek work-life balance, spend more time caring for family, study, ease into retirement or try out a new career through flexible employment.

Using OECD common definitions for part-time employment, in 1985, 20% of employed men and women aged 15–64 years worked part-time and in 2005, over a quarter (27%) of employed Australians were working part-time.

Comparing this 2005 result with those for Canada, New Zealand, Sweden, the UK and the USA, this is the largest proportion of men and women in part-time employment and is also 11 percentage points above the OECD average of 16% for that year.

The proportion of employed men aged 15–64 years working part-time in Australia (15%) in 2005 was double the rate of part-time employment for men in the USA (7%) and also well above that of each of the other countries in this analysis and the OECD average (8%). In 2005, Australia had a higher

Disability benefit recipients

In Australia, the Disability Support Pension (DSP) (among other benefits) provides income support for people with disability. In June 2006, 712,000 people received the DSP, equivalent to 7% of the labour force.^{5,6}

Prior to July 2006 the DSP was available for people under the Age pension age who were unable to work or be retrained for work of at least 30 hours per week due to their illness, injury or disability, or who were permanently blind, or participating in the Supported Wage System.

The Welfare to Work reforms included a tightening of the working hours eligibility criteria for new recipients of the DSP. From July 2006, to be eligible for the DSP, new recipients must be unable to work or be retrained for work of at least 15 hours per week due to their illness, injury or disability, or be permanently blind, or participating in the Supported Wage System.⁷ As a result of the reforms, more people with disability face work requirements to receive income support.²

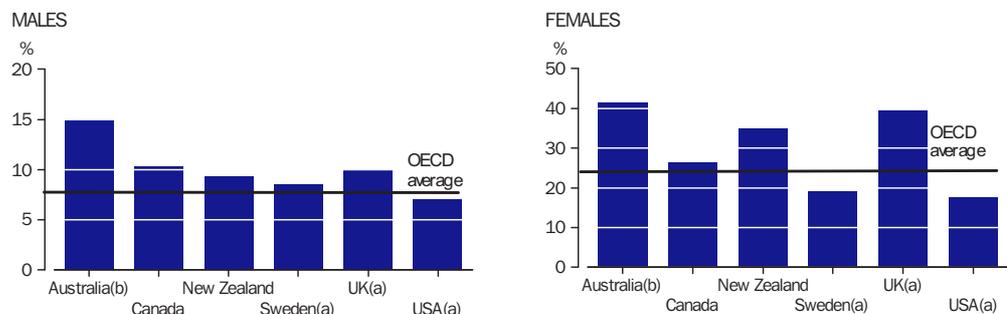
rate of part-time employment of women aged 15–64 years (41%) than the other countries examined. The rate was well above the OECD average (26%) and more than double the rate of part-time employment in the USA (17%).

Increasing the hours worked by those employed part-time may be seen as a potential source of additional labour supply for countries wishing to increase labour participation. According to the ABS Underemployed Workers Survey, in 2005, 67% of men and 49% of women in Australia who were employed part-time, reported that they would prefer to work full-time (35 hours or more each week).⁸

Women with children

Parents make choices about whether to undertake paid work and who cares for their children. However, government policies

Persons aged 15–64 years(a): part-time(b) employment as a proportion of total employment, selected countries — 2005



(a) Sweden and the UK: aged 16–64 years, includes defence personnel; USA: aged 16–64 years, wage and salary workers only.

(b) Usually works less than 30 hours per week except in Australia where actually works less than 30 hours per week.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics Database.



(such as those promoting the flexibility of working time arrangements, the system of family taxation and support to families in the form of child care subsidies and paid parental leave) and the availability of flexible work arrangements within workplaces influence the decisions which parents take.

In 2002, employment rates for women with children in Australia tended to be lower than comparison countries. The OECD average employment rate of women whose youngest child was under six years of age was 59%, nine percentage points above Australia (50%). Sweden's employment rate of 78% in 2002 was 28 percentage points above Australia.

The age of the youngest child has a significant impact on the employment status of women. The employment rate of women with children in 2002 increased with the age of the youngest child in all countries in this comparison except Sweden. In Sweden, the rate increased up to the point where the child was five years of age and decreased when the child was between the ages of 6–14. However, the employment rate for women in Sweden with children of all ages up to 14 years was higher than other countries.

Part-time work was the most common form of employment for mothers with children of all ages in Australia and the UK in 2002. In both Australia and the UK, 58% of employed women with their youngest child under six years of age worked part-time. In most of the remaining

Child care and labour force participation

Child care services help parents to participate in work or study. But in some countries, child care costs can be very high. For example, in the United States, parental-fees to the child care facility can constitute up to 76% of child care financing, with low-income families devoting 25% or more of their family income to child care. By contrast, for families in Sweden, parental fees cover 11% of child care costs on average, with low-income families often paying very low fees, or no fee at all.⁹

In 2005, 21% (711,500) of children in Australia aged 0–12 years received some type of formal child care, and 62% of these were aged 0–4 years.¹⁰ More than half the children receiving child care did so because of their parents' work commitments.¹⁰ However, despite the level of government assistance available, the cost of child care may still be a barrier to access for some Australian families. Access to child care is determined by many factors including location, demand and affordability.

Analysis by the Department of the Treasury suggests that over recent years the supply of formal childcare (including long day, family, after school and occasional care) has generally kept pace with demand.¹¹ At the same time, child care has generally remained affordable, with child care costs remaining constant as a share of net family income.¹¹

countries, although women with children were more likely to work part-time than those without children, full-time work remained more common.

Employment rates for women aged 15–64 years, selected countries — 2002(a)

	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	Sweden	UK	USA	OECD–20(b)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Employment rate of women with youngest child under 6 years(c)	49.6	62.7	49.2	77.5	57.0	59.5	59.2
Employment rate of women with youngest child	58.8	70.5	62.2	82.5	63.8
under 3 years	44.0	58.7	43.2	72.9	57.2	56.6	57.5
3–5 years	58.0	68.1	58.2	82.5	56.9	60.0	61.8
6–14 years(d)	68.3	76.3	74.7	77.4	67.0	69.4	67.0
Proportion of employed women working part-time(e)	38.5	27.9	35.3	34.2	39.9	18.2	30.2
with youngest child under 6 years(c)	58.2	30.3	54.2	41.2	58.0	29.4	38.5
with youngest child 6–14 years(d)	46.9	25.7	40.5	41.3	56.9	26.6	39.6

(a) 2001 in Canada and New Zealand; 2003 in Australia.

(b) Average for 20 OECD countries with available data.

(c) Under 7 years in Sweden.

(d) 6–13 years in the US; 6–16 years in Canada and Sweden; 6–17 years in New Zealand.

(e) Less than 30 hours per week, except in Sweden and the US (less than 35 hours per week).

Source: ABS 2003 Family Characteristics Survey; OECD 2005, *Society at a Glance: OECD Social Indicators 2005*, viewed 5 June 2007, <<http://www.oecd.org/els/social/indicators>>.



Labour force participation(a) by level of education, selected countries — 2003

	Less than upper secondary level		Upper and post-secondary level		Tertiary non-university level		University level		All levels of education	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia	78.6	56.3	89.8	70.2	90.6	77.2	92.2	82.4	86.9	67.5
Canada	75.2	50.9	88.1	74.5	91.6	82.9	89.8	82.6	86.9	74.7
NZ	78.1	56.9	91.8	75.1	89.4	76.8	91.0	82.6	88.2	71.7
Sweden	77.8	64.6	88.2	83.2	88.9	84.9	91.7	90.9	86.6	81.6
UK	67.6	49.7	88.2	76.6	91.1	86.6	93.2	87.4	86.6	74.7
USA	76.1	50.5	84.6	71.9	87.3	79.8	91.4	80.0	85.7	72.6

(a) For persons aged 25–64 years.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics Database.

For example, in the USA only 29% of employed mothers with their youngest child under six years of age worked part-time.

Level of education

In Australia, as in other countries, there is a strong correlation between skill level and labour force participation, with labour force participation rates increasing with education level.¹²

In 2003, the labour force participation rate for Australian men with University level education (92%) was 13 percentage points higher than for those with Less than upper secondary level education (79%).

Among women, the difference was greater, with labour force participation rates for University level education (82%), 26 percentage points higher than for Less than upper secondary level education (56%).

While labour force participation increased with education levels in all the countries examined, there were greater differences in labour force participation in some countries. For men in the UK there was a 26 percentage point difference in labour force participation rates between those with University level and Less than upper secondary level education. For women in Canada, the UK and the USA, the difference was even more substantial at 30 percentage points or over.

For each education level examined, Australian men had relatively high labour force participation rates compared with men in other countries selected. In contrast, Australian women tended to have lower participation rates than women in other countries, for most education levels.

Men with University level education in Australia and Sweden experienced among the highest rates of labour force participation (92%) for men across the countries examined in 2003. Women in Sweden with University level education had the highest participation rate among women, with 91% of women with University level education participating in the labour force.

Level of education

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED–97) is used to define the levels of education used in this article.

Less than upper secondary level comprises Pre-primary level of education (ISCED 0), Primary level of education (ISCED 1) and Lower secondary level of education (ISCED 2).

Upper and post-secondary level comprises Upper secondary level of education (ISCED 3) and Post-secondary non-tertiary level of education (ISCED 4).

Tertiary non-university level comprises Tertiary-type B education (ISCED 5B).

University level comprises Tertiary-type A education (ISCED 5A) and Advanced research qualifications (ISCED 6).

For more details on ISCED 1997 see *Classifying Educational Programmes: Manual for ISCED–97 Implementation in OECD Countries* (Paris, 1999).



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Maternity leave arrangements

In 2005, just over half (51%) of women with a child under two years who were employees in their last main job while pregnant reported using paid leave for the birth and subsequent care of that child.

The proportion of women who are in the labour force has steadily increased over the last quarter of a century. For women of childbearing age (15–44 years), the labour force participation rate has risen from 59% to 71% over the period November 1980 to November 2005.¹

As Australia's population ages, growth in the number of people of working age is predicted to slow and shortages of skilled labour are expected. Women's participation in the labour force will be relied upon more heavily in the future.² Women with children is a population group identified by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) as having great scope to raise their labour force participation in Australia.³

The level of support available to women to combine paid work with child bearing and raising can influence their labour force participation. Access to leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child is one aspect of this support; others include access to quality child care and flexible working arrangements.⁴

Leave from work is crucial to the health and wellbeing of mothers and babies. It enables women to recover from the birth, develop a bond with their baby and establish feeding (notably breastfeeding). Leave from work is also important to maintaining women's attachment to the labour force and provides some job security.⁵

Women employees(a): use and duration of leave related to birth — 2005

	'000	%	Average leave duration weeks
Used leave	198	73	34
Paid leave only	37	14	17
Unpaid leave only	61	22	29
Both paid and unpaid leave	101	37	43
Did not use leave	72	27	..
Total women	270	100	..

(a) With children under two years who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant.

Source: ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

Data sources and definitions

This article focuses on women aged 15 years and over with a youngest natural child under two years of age (living with them at the time of the interview) and who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant. It examines their leave patterns for the birth and subsequent care of their baby, drawing on data from the ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

Employees are women, working for either a public or private employer, who receive remuneration in wages, salary, a retainer fee from their employer while working on a commission basis, tips, piece rates or payment in kind, or women who operate their own incorporated enterprise with or without employees.

Main job is the job in which most hours were usually worked. This article focuses on the last main job held while pregnant.

In this article, *leave* is that which the woman applied for and was approved to take (irrespective of the amount actually taken at the date of interview). It may be paid or unpaid. Time spent on leave may be different from time spent out of the labour force, for example, women may return to work before the end of their period of leave. In 2005, for those women employees who had returned to work, their total time out of the labour force was similar to their period of approved leave.

Maternity leave is leave specifically for the birth and subsequent care of a baby in the first year. It may cover a period just before, and after, the birth of the baby and may be paid or unpaid.

Leave arrangements related to birth

In November 2005, there were 467,000 women in Australia aged 15 years and over who were birth mothers of at least one child under two years of age who was living with them at the time of the interview. Over half (58% or 270,000) of these women had worked as an employee in their last main job while they were pregnant.

For most women employees, time away from paid work for the birth and subsequent care of their child is taken on leave. While the type and amount of leave available varies, some of the more common forms of leave include paid and unpaid maternity leave, holiday leave, long service leave and leave without pay.

In 2005, nearly three-quarters (73% or 198,000) of women who had worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant used some type of leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child.

Women employees(a): selected characteristics by use and duration of leave related to birth — 2005

Selected characteristics(b)	Used leave						Total women		Average leave(c) duration weeks
	Used paid leave		Used unpaid leave		Total used leave	Did not use leave	No.	'000	
	Only paid leave	Total	Only unpaid leave	Total					
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Length of time with employer (years)									
Less than one	*7	17	33	43	51	49	100	46	26
One to less than five	12	47	24	59	71	29	100	130	34
Five or more	19	72	15	68	87	13	100	95	36
Number of employees in workplace									
Less than 20	*11	29	26	44	55	45	100	89	29
20 to 99	12	57	25	70	82	18	100	60	36
100 or more	17	68	16	67	84	16	100	111	35
Sector									
Public	25	78	8	61	86	*14	100	56	37
Private	11	44	26	59	70	30	100	213	33
Total(d)	14	51	22	60	73	27	100	270	34

(a) With children under two years who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant.

(b) Of woman's last main job while pregnant.

(c) Average duration of paid and/or unpaid leave for women who took leave.

(d) Total for Number of employees in workplace includes 'don't know' and 'business owners with no employees', and for Sector includes 'not determined'.

Source: ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

Just over one-quarter (27% or 72,000) did not use leave, with the majority (76%) of these women leaving their jobs permanently.

The most common leave arrangement for women employees who used leave for the birth and care of their child was a combination of paid and unpaid leave (37% or 101,000 women). A further 22% (61,000 women) used only unpaid leave and 14% (37,000 women) used only paid leave. Overall, 60% (161,000 women) of women employees used some form of unpaid leave and just over half used some form of paid leave (51% or 137,000 women).

...length of leave

The amount of time women spend out of the workforce for the birth and subsequent care of their child varies considerably. Factors influencing time away from work include the amount of paid and unpaid leave available to both women and their partners, access to child care, the flexibility of women's work arrangements and levels of household income.

There is little consensus about the ideal length of leave women should take for the birth and care of their child. Fourteen weeks of paid leave is internationally recognised as being a suitable minimum amount of time and is the standard in the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) Maternity Protection Convention.⁶ Others suggest that six months is necessary, particularly given the World Health Organisation's recommendation for women to exclusively breastfeed their baby for six months.⁵

In November 2005, women who had worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant and who used leave had on average 34 weeks (nearly eight months) approved leave for the birth and care of their child. Women with the longest periods of leave worked in the public sector (37 weeks on average), in organisations with 20 or more employees (36 weeks) or had been with their employer for more than one year (35 weeks).

Women employees(a): type and duration of leave related to birth — 2005

	'000	%	Average duration of leave Weeks
Paid leave	137	51	12
Paid maternity leave	101	37	11
Unpaid leave	161	60	31
Unpaid maternity leave	137	51	32
Total used leave	198	73	34

(a) With children under two years who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant.

Source: ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

Women using paid leave

In 2005, just over half (51% or 137,000 women) of women with a child under two years who had worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant used paid leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child. Women employees using paid leave had on average 12 weeks of approved paid leave (paid maternity and/or other paid leave).

As well as having longer periods of approved leave, women in the public sector, in larger organisations and those who had been with their employer for more than one year, also had longer periods of approved paid leave. For example, 78% of women employed in the public sector in their last main job while pregnant used paid leave compared with 44% of those in the private sector. Almost two-thirds (64%) had worked in a business with 20 or more employees, more than double the proportion working in a business with less than 20 employees (29%).

Few women who had worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant used only paid leave, just 14% (or 37,000 women). Some of these women may have had sufficient amounts of paid leave to cover their desired period of leave from work while others may have returned to work without using unpaid leave for financial or other reasons.

...paid maternity leave

Paid maternity leave provides financial support while mothers prepare for and then recover from the birth, develop a bond with their child and establish feeding (notably breastfeeding). There is no legislated right to paid maternity

Maternity and paternity leave provisions in Australia and Sweden

While women have legislated entitlements to maternity leave in most OECD countries, there is considerable diversity in the amount of paid and unpaid maternity leave women can access. For example in Australia while many women employees have access to 12 months unpaid maternity leave, access to paid maternity leave is more limited, with few women having paid maternity leave entitlements. In contrast, Sweden is widely regarded as having among the most generous maternity leave entitlements among OECD countries, with women and their partners able to access a range of paid leave entitlements.

Australia - permanent employees with at least 12 months continuous service with their current employer are entitled to 52 weeks of unpaid parental leave following the birth or adoption of a child. Some casual employees are eligible if they have been employed on a regular and systematic basis for a period of at least 12 months and if there is a reasonable expectation of ongoing employment. The period of unpaid leave is reduced by other leave taken by either parent.⁷

There are no nationally legislated paid maternity leave entitlements in Australia.

Sweden - paid 'maternity leave' of seven weeks both prior to, and following birth is guaranteed to all working women regardless of their employment history. Additional paid 'parental leave' of up to 16 months can be shared between parents for the birth of a child. This can be used by the woman before the birth, and until the child is eight years of age. Parental leave is conditional upon the parent having worked six months prior to the birth or a combined period of at least 12 months during the two years preceding the birth. There are a number of other paid benefits such as a special pregnancy benefit and temporary parental leave.

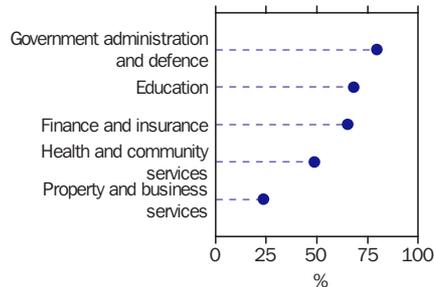
Source: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development 2002 and 2005, *Babies and Bosses: Reconciling work and family life. Vol. 1 and 4*, OECD, Paris.

leave in Australia and the majority of women employees are not entitled to it. However, there have been recent increases in the proportion of women employees who are entitled to maternity leave, at 41% in 2005 up from 36% of women employees in 2003 according to the ABS Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership Survey.⁸

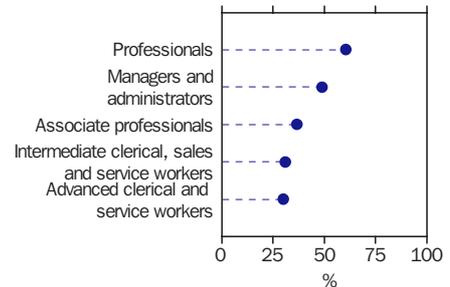
In 2005, well under half (37% or 101,000) of women who had worked as employees in their last main job while pregnant used paid maternity leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child.

Women employees(a) who used paid maternity leave — 2005

SELECTED INDUSTRY GROUPS(b)



SELECTED OCCUPATION GROUPS(b)



(a) With children under two years who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant.
 (b) Of woman's last main job while pregnant.

Source: ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

Almost two-thirds of women employees (63% or 169,000 women) did not take paid maternity leave. Excluding those who had permanently left their job rather than taking leave, the most common main reason for not using paid maternity leave was 'not available or offered by the employer' (57%) followed by 'ineligibility' (32%).

There are disparities in the use of paid maternity leave, particularly across sector, industry and occupation. In 2005, just over three-quarters (76%) of women who had worked as employees in the public sector in their last main job while pregnant used paid maternity leave, compared with just over one-quarter (27%) of women employees in the private sector.

There were also high proportions of women who had worked in industries with large public sector employment and in the Finance and insurance industry using paid maternity leave. For example, 80% of women whose last main job while pregnant was in Government administration and defence and 68% of those in Education used paid maternity leave.

Use of paid maternity leave also differs by occupation with higher proportions of women in skilled occupation groups using paid maternity leave. Paid maternity leave was used by six in ten (60%) women employees who were Professionals, almost double the proportion of women whose last main job while pregnant was as an Intermediate clerical, sales and service worker (31%).

The length of paid maternity leave available to Australian women employees varies and generally ranges from 2 days to 18 weeks.⁵ Few women are entitled to the 14 weeks of paid maternity leave recommended by the ILO Maternity Protection Convention.⁶ In 2005, just under one in five (19%) women who were employees in their last main job

while pregnant used 14 weeks or more of paid maternity leave. Women employees who used paid maternity leave took an average of 11 weeks of paid maternity leave.

Women using unpaid leave

Six in ten (60% or 161,000) women who were employees in their last main job while pregnant used unpaid leave for the birth and subsequent care of their child. Unpaid maternity leave accounted for the majority of this unpaid leave, used by 137,000 women. Women employees using unpaid leave used an average of 31 weeks of unpaid leave.

Similar proportions of women employees working in the private (59%) and public sector (61%) used unpaid leave. Those working for larger employers were more likely to use unpaid leave than those working for smaller employers. For example, 68% of women working in a business with 20 or more employees used unpaid leave compared with 44% of those working in a business with less than 20 employees. With a smaller staff base, employees may be less able to take unpaid leave because their position needs to be covered.

...women using only unpaid leave

Over a fifth of women who were employees (22% or 61,000 women) in their last main job while pregnant used only unpaid leave for their time away from work for the birth and care of their child.

Recent starters were more likely to use only unpaid leave than those having worked longer for their employer. In 2005, while 33% of women employees who had been with their employer for less than one year used only unpaid leave, 20% of those women working more than one year used only unpaid leave.

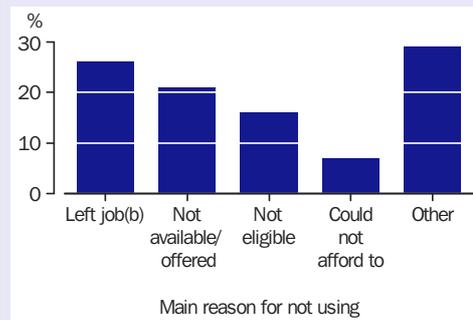
Women not using unpaid maternity leave

In Australia, up to 52 weeks of unpaid maternity leave is available to eligible permanent and casual employees who have had at least 12 months of continuous service with their current employer.⁷ It is the only type of leave entitlement legislated by the Australian government for the birth or adoption of a child.

In 2005, just under half of women who were employees (48% or 130,000 women) in their last main job while pregnant did not use unpaid maternity leave. Of these women, 24% (31,000) can be deemed ineligible for unpaid maternity leave as they had worked for their employer for less than 12 months.

Of the 99,000 women employees who were notionally eligible for unpaid maternity leave (i.e. had been with their employer for 12 months or more), 26% reported the main reason for not using unpaid maternity leave was they permanently left the job they had while pregnant. Just over a fifth (21%) reported that unpaid maternity leave was not available or offered in their workplace and 16% reported not being eligible. A further 7% reported they could not afford to take unpaid maternity leave. The remaining 29% reported other reasons which are likely to include not wanting or needing to take unpaid leave. Some women not needing to take unpaid leave may have had sufficient paid leave to meet their leave requirements.

Women employees(a) with 12 or more months continuous service who did not use unpaid maternity leave — 2005



- (a) With children under two years who worked as an employee in their last main job while pregnant.
 (b) Women who permanently left their job while pregnant.

Source: ABS 2005 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey.

A higher proportion of women employees in the private sector (26%) used only unpaid leave compared with women in the public sector (8%). This is consistent with less generous paid maternity leave entitlements in the private sector, with those employees being more likely to rely solely on unpaid leave.

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *Labour Force, Australia Detailed, Electronic Delivery, Monthly*, cat. no. 6291.0.55.001, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Baird, M 2004, 'Orientations to Paid Maternity Leave: Understanding the Australian Debate', *Journal of Industrial Relations*, vol. 46, no. 3.
- 3 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *Economic Survey, Australia*, OECD, France.
- 4 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission 2007, *It's about time: Women, Men, Work and Family – Final paper*, HREOC, Sydney.
- 5 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission 2002, *A time to value – Proposal for a National Paid Maternity Leave Scheme*, HREOC, Sydney.
- 6 International Labour Organisation, C183 Maternity Protection Convention 2000, ILO, viewed 4 May 2007, <<http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/convde.pl?C183>>.
- 7 Australian Government, 2006, *Workchoices and Parental leave*, viewed 14 March 2007, <[http://www.workchoices.gov.au/ourplan/publications/html/WorkChoicesandparental leave.htm](http://www.workchoices.gov.au/ourplan/publications/html/WorkChoicesandparental%20leave.htm)>.
- 8 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003 and 2005, *Employee Earnings Benefits and Trade Union Membership, 2003 and 2005*, cat. no. 6310.0, ABS, Canberra.

Work-related injuries

In 2005–06, men's work-related injury rate was 74 per 1,000 employed and women's rate was 51 per 1,000 employed.

Workplace injuries and illnesses range in severity and may cause short-term or long-term pain, disability or death. As well as the impact on their health, injured workers may also be absent from work, suffer loss of income or perhaps even lose their job.

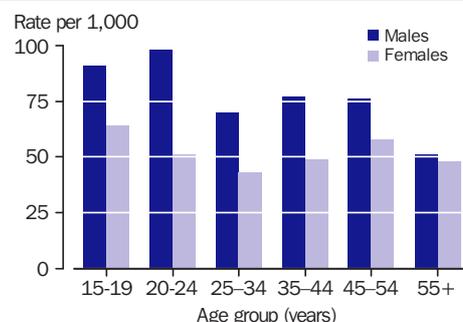
The costs associated with a work-related injury are not only borne by the worker, but also the employer and the community. Direct costs include medical expenses (hospitalisation, doctors visits and rehabilitation), legal costs, and the cost of hiring a replacement worker. Indirect costs include lost output due to reduced productivity, reduced staff morale, and the administration of workers' compensation claims.¹

Injured workers

Of the 10.8 million Australians who worked sometime in the 12 months to June 2006, 6.4% (690,000 people) experienced at least one work-related injury or illness. The work-related injury rate for this period was 64 per 1,000 employed.

More men (438,000) than women (252,000) experienced a work-related injury in 2005–06, partly reflecting men's higher level of employment. Men also experienced a higher injury rate – 74 per 1,000 employed men compared with 51 per 1,000 employed women. Differences in the types of jobs held by men and women, such as differences in occupation and industry, may explain the differences in injury rates. Generally, fewer women work in professions that consistently have high numbers of injuries or illnesses.²

Work-related injury rates(a): sex and age — 2005–06



(a) Injured workers per 1,000 people who worked sometime in the 12 months to June 2006.

Source: *Work-Related Injuries, Australia, 2005–06* (ABS cat. no. 6324.0).

Data sources and definitions

This article draws on work-related injuries data collected in the ABS Multi-Purpose Household Survey. The survey collected information on the most recent work-related injury experienced by people aged 15 years and over, living in private dwellings (but excluding people living in very remote parts of Australia) who worked sometime in the 12 months to June 2006.

A *work-related injury* is any injury, illness or disease which first occurred in the 12 months prior to interview, where a person suffered either physically or mentally from a condition that arose out of, or in the course of, employment. Included are work-related injuries that occurred while commuting to or from work, outside of work but while on work duty, or during work breaks. Excluded are work-related injuries that resulted in death prior to interview and injuries suffered by workers residing as patients in hospital at the time of interview.

Types of injuries or illnesses and how these occurred have been classified based on the *Type of Occurrence Classifications System (TOOCS)*, which was developed by the Office of the Australian Safety and Compensation Council (ASCC) for use in coding workers' compensation claims.

An *injured worker* is a person who worked sometime in the 12 months to June 2006 and experienced a work-related injury or illness during that period. The injury may have occurred in the current job or in a previous job.

Injury rates for all employed persons and for those by sex, age, and state or territory are calculated by dividing the number of injured workers by the number of people employed (in that group) sometime in the 12 months to June 2006.

Injury rates for all other groups are calculated by dividing the number of injured workers by the number of people employed (in that group) at the time of interview.

...age

Studies have shown that younger workers sustain work-related injuries at higher rates than older workers. Factors contributing to this include their employment in industries with high injury rates (such as service and retail), possible lack of awareness of work safety, inexperience on the job, and lack of adequate training.³

In 2005–06, workers aged 15–19 years experienced an injury rate of 78 per 1,000 employed, while those aged 20–24 years experienced an injury rate of 75 per 1,000. Young men, aged 20–24 years, experienced

the highest work-related injury rate of any age group. Their injury rate was 98 per 1,000 employed men, in contrast to women of the same age who experienced an injury rate of 51 per 1,000 employed women (aged 20–24 years).

Older workers, aged 55 years and over, experienced the lowest work-related injury rates – 50 per 1,000 employed. Unlike all of the younger age groups, the injury rates for men and women in this age group were similar.

...full-time and part-time work

Full-time workers experienced a higher work-related injury rate (73 per 1,000 employed) than part-time workers (60 per 1,000). Men who worked full-time had the highest injury rate, 81 per 1,000. Women reported similar injury rates for both full-time and part-time work, 55 and 57 per 1,000 respectively.

The highest injury rate among men was experienced by those working 41–49 hours per week (92 per 1,000 employed). Among women, those working 50 or more hours per week had the highest injury rate (75 per 1,000).

...industry

People working in industries involving physical work were at higher risk of experiencing a work-related injury. In 2005–06, the industries recording the highest injury rates were Agriculture, forestry and fishing (109 per 1,000 employed), Manufacturing (87 per 1,000), and Construction (86 per 1,000). These higher risk industries were typically male dominated.

Industries with the highest work-related injury rates for men were Agriculture, forestry and fishing (128 per 1,000 employed men), Personal and other services industries (101 per 1,000), and Manufacturing (98 per 1,000). Almost two-thirds (65%) of men working in Personal and other services industries worked for Public order and safety services (includes Police services).

Industries with the highest work-related injury rates for women were Accommodation, cafes and restaurants (98 per 1,000 employed women), Health and community services (71 per 1,000) and Retail (70 per 1,000). Health and community services was also represented in the top five injury rates for men, 96 per 1,000 employed.

Types of injuries sustained by workers varied across industries. Sprains or strains represented the highest proportion of injuries for workers in Retail trades (36%) and Transport and Storage (34%). Cuts or open wounds accounted for the highest proportion of injuries for workers in Electricity, gas and water supply (52%) and Mining (42%).

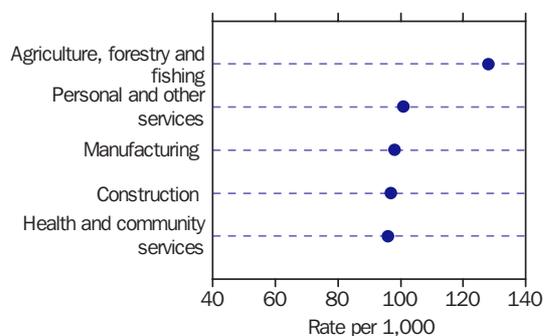
...occupation

In 2005–06, occupation groups with the highest injury rates were Intermediate production and transport workers (108 per 1,000 employed), Tradespersons and related workers (107 per 1,000) and Labourers and related workers (106 per 1,000). These three occupations accounted for more than two-fifths (45%) of all injured workers, yet represented only 29% of all employed persons.

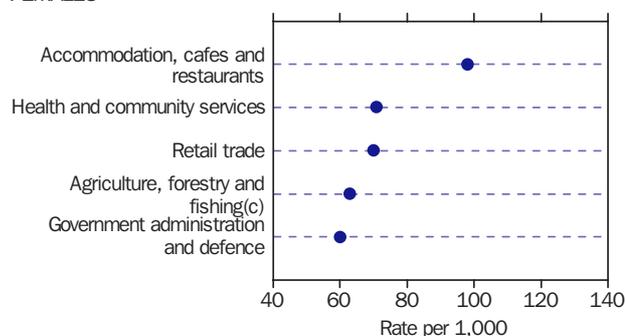
Many occupations within these groups involve physical work, possibly contributing to their higher injury rates. The Intermediate

Work-related injury rates(a) by industry(b) — 2005–06

MALES



FEMALES



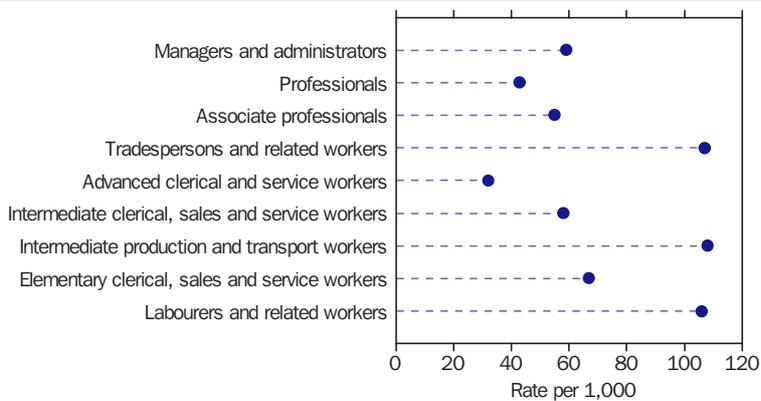
(a) For any industry group, the work-related injury rate is the number of injured workers divided by people currently employed in that industry (in their main job).

(b) Industries with more than 5,000 injured workers.

(c) Estimate has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.

Source: *Work-Related Injuries, Australia, 2005–06* (ABS cat. no. 6324.0).

Work-related injury rates(a) by occupation — 2005–06



(a) For any occupation group, the work-related injury rate is the number of injured workers divided by people currently employed in that occupation (in their main job).

Source: *Work-Related Injuries, Australia, 2005–06* (ABS cat. no. 6324.0).

production and transport workers occupation group includes Intermediate plant operators, Intermediate machine operators, and Road and rail transport drivers. Tradespersons and related workers includes Mechanical and fabrication engineering tradespersons, Automotive tradespersons and Construction tradespersons. Labourers and related workers includes Cleaners, Factory labourers, and Agricultural and horticultural labourers.

Professionals experienced one of the lowest injury rates (43 per 1,000 employed). This group includes Science, building and engineering professionals, Business and information professionals, Health professionals and Education professionals.

The highest work-related injury rates were experienced by men working as Labourers and related workers (117 per 1,000 employed) and Intermediate production and transport workers (116 per 1,000). Women who experienced the highest injury rates worked as Labourers and related workers (87 per 1,000 employed) and Elementary clerical, sales and service workers (74 per 1,000).

More than one-third (37%) of injured Intermediate production and transport workers and one-quarter (25%) of injured Labourers and related workers experienced a sprain or strain as their most recent work-related injury. The most common injury experienced by Tradespersons and related workers was a cut or open wound (33%).

In most occupations the action of lifting, pushing or pulling an object was responsible for the highest proportion of injuries. However, for Managers and administrators and Tradespersons and related workers, hitting or being hit or cut by an object was the cause of most injuries sustained.

Work-related fatalities in Australia

The most severe type of work-related injury or illness is one that results in death. In 2003–04 there were 332 people who died in Australia as a result of work-related injuries. This equates to a rate of 3.5 per 100,000 employed people.

More than two-thirds (68%) of fatalities resulted from injuries sustained while working for income, with one-third (33%) of these involving a road crash. More than one-quarter (27%) of deaths were attributed to commuting workers. The highest number of work-related deaths was recorded for the Agriculture, forestry and fishing industry (72 or 22%), followed by Transport and storage (62 or 19%) and Construction (52 or 16%).

The number of work-related fatalities may vary over time, due to adjustments to figures which occur when workers who have been seriously ill or injured fail to recover. Some illnesses, for example asbestosis, have a long latency period, leading to difficulty in estimating the true number of fatalities.⁴ Additionally, not all work-related deaths result in a claim for compensation, so the total number of fatalities may be higher.

Source: Australian Safety and Compensation Council, 2006. *Estimating the number of work-related traumatic injury fatalities in Australia 2003–04*, viewed 6 July 2007, <<http://www.ascc.gov.au/>>.

Most recent work-related injury

The types of injuries and illnesses that are now common are different from those that were common a few decades ago. Changes in workplace technology have led to an increase in musculoskeletal disorders, as workers use different equipment and different motions. For instance, the overuse of personal digital devices has led to sprained thumbs becoming more common.⁵

While office work may seem relatively low risk, there are a number of health issues that can be attributed to the use of computers. Awkward or stationary postures may lead to back or neck pain, and repetitive tension or motion, such as mouse work, may lead to strain injuries. Glare or inadequate lighting may result in eye fatigue, blurred vision or headaches.

In 2005–06, the most commonly reported injuries sustained were sprains or strains of joints and adjacent muscles, comprising almost one-third (30%) of work-related injuries. The next most commonly reported injuries were cuts or open wounds and chronic joint or muscle conditions (both 19%). Of those workers who experienced a work-related injury or illness, similar proportions of both men and women reported sprain or strain injuries (both 30%). Cuts or open wounds were more common for men (22%) than women (14%), while chronic

joint or muscle conditions were more common among women (23%) than men (16%). Almost two-fifths (38%) of young workers aged 15–24 years, who experienced a work-related injury or illness, reported a cut or open wound as their most recent work-related injury. In contrast, sprains or strains were the most common injury for all other age groups.

...how occurred

Work-related injuries occurred in a variety of ways, the most common resulting from lifting, pushing or pulling an object (32%). Hitting or being hit or cut by an object accounted for more than one-quarter (27%) of injuries, with a higher proportion of men who experienced a work-related injury or illness reporting injuries resulting from hitting or being hit or cut by an object than women (31% compared to 19%).

Women who experienced a work-related injury or illness reported a higher proportion of injuries resulting from repetitive movement

than men (11% and 6% respectively). Women also reported a higher proportion of falls than men (15% compared to 11%).

...time off work

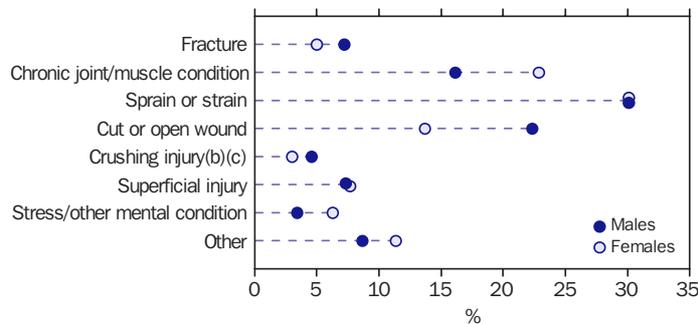
Just over one-in-two (58%) work-related injuries involved some time away from work, with the amount of time varying with the type of injury sustained. Just over one-fifth (21%) of injured workers were away from work for 1–4 days, over one-quarter (28%) for five or more days and a small group (2%) had not returned to work since the injury or illness occurred.

Injuries that resulted in large periods of time away from work included stress or other mental conditions and fractures. About half of the people who reported stress or other mental conditions (51%) and those who sustained fractures (48%) took five or more days off work. In contrast, almost three-quarters (73%) of people who sustained a superficial injury and almost half (47%) of those who sustained a cut or open wound required no time off work.

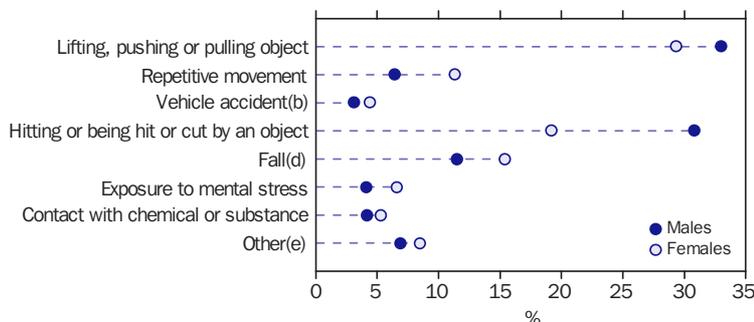
One in seven (14%) injured workers had ceased the job in which they experienced their most recent injury or illness. Of these, more than one-quarter (29%) ceased their jobs as a result of the injury or illness.

Most recent work-related injury(a) — 2005–06

TYPE OF INJURY SUSTAINED



HOW INJURY OCCURRED



- (a) People who worked sometime in the 12 months to June 2006.
- (b) Female estimate has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.
- (c) Includes 'Internal organ damage' and 'Amputation'.
- (d) Includes 'Fall on same level (slip or fall)' and 'Fall from height'.
- (e) Includes 'Prolonged standing or working in cramped or unchanging positions' and 'Long term exposure to sound'.

Source: *Work-Related Injuries, Australia, 2005–06* (ABS cat. no. 6324.0).

The cost of work-related injuries

A work-related injury may involve a number of costs, including loss of income, medical expenses, and lost productivity. There may also be compensation for reduced quality of life or the treatment of a long-term injury or illness. In some cases, there may also be legal fees, investigative costs or fines and penalties.¹

Estimating the total cost of work-related injuries is difficult, as workers' compensation data generally only include the number of accepted (paid) claims. Injuries resulting in a short absence from work or no time off are unlikely to result in a compensation claim. This is particularly true for certain types of working arrangements, for instance self-employed or casuals, and some industries, such as Agriculture or Construction.¹

In 2004, the National Occupational Health and Safety Commission (NOHSC) estimated that the ABS Australian National Accounts estimates for workers compensation payments to households represented 22% of the total costs of work-related injuries in 2001–02, with indirect costs such as lost productivity, loss of income and quality of life comprising the remainder.¹ Assuming that the

composition of total costs has remained at a similar level since 2001–02, the total cost of work-related injury for the financial year 2005–06 would be at least \$34.9b (based on an estimate of \$7.8b in workers compensation payments to households in 2005–06).^{1,6} This figure does not include provision for the compensation of pain and suffering and early death.

Sources of financial assistance

In 2005–06, there were 392,700 (57%) injured workers who received some type of financial assistance to cover medical expenses or income loss. More than half (55%) of these people received workers' compensation, while almost one-quarter (23%) received financial assistance through regular sick leave from their employer.

Injured workers who were absent from work for five days or more represented a large proportion (82%) of those who received financial assistance. More than four-fifths (82%) of people who had not returned to work since the illness or injury occurred had received financial assistance.

Most injured workers (96%) who did not receive any financial assistance had not applied for workers' compensation. The main reason they did not apply for workers' compensation was that it was a minor injury only or compensation was not considered necessary.

Endnotes

- 1 National Occupational Health and Safety Commission, 2004, *The cost of work-related injury and illness for Australian employers, workers and the community*, NOHSC, viewed 21 February 2007, <<http://www.ascc.gov.au/>>.
- 2 Hoskins, AB 2005, 'Occupational injuries, illnesses and fatalities among women', *Monthly Labor Review*, vol. 128, no. 10, pp. 31–37.
- 3 Breslin FC, Smith P, Koehoorn M and Lee H, 2006, 'Is the workplace becoming safer?', *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, cat. no. 75-001-XIE, pp.18–23.
- 4 Victorian Department of Human Services 2007, *Fact sheet: Asbestos and your health*, Better Health Channel website, viewed 3 April 2007, <http://www.betterhealth.vic.gov.au/bhcv2/bhcarticles.nsf/pages/Asbestos_and_your_health?open>.
- 5 Wiatrowski, W 2005, 'Occupational safety and health statistics: New data for a new century', *Monthly Labor Review*, vol. 128, no. 10, pp. 3–10.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Australian System of National Accounts 2005–06*, cat. no. 5204.0, ABS, Canberra.

Economic resources

	Page
National and state summary	144

Purchasing power	153
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Material living standards rise when income and wealth increase more rapidly than prices (i.e. when income and wealth increase in real terms). Australia's purchasing power has increased appreciably over recent decades. Real net national disposable income per capita rose by 50% between 1991–92 and 2005–06 (an average increase of 3% per year) and real national net worth per capita grew by 10% between mid 1992 and mid 2006 (an average increase of 0.7% per year). This article examines trends in overall purchasing power and also how prices of particular goods and services have changed relative to average income and wealth.

Trends in household consumption	158
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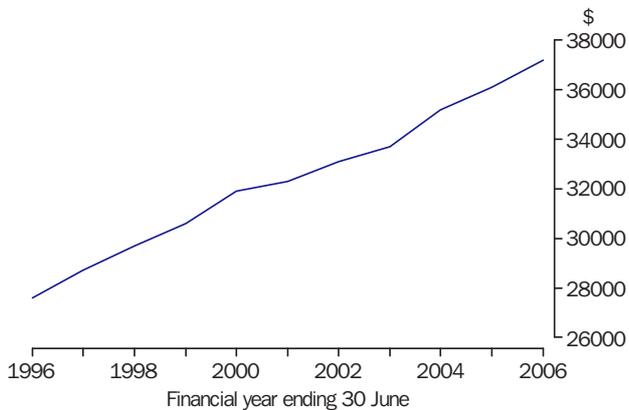
One dimension of wellbeing is people's command over resources to obtain goods and services to satisfy their needs and wants, with increases in the volume of goods and services consumed generally regarded as progress. This article focuses on final consumption expenditure of households and examines how overall consumption expenditure levels have changed in recent decades. The article also examines recent changes in rates of consumption growth for the major components of household consumption – rent and other dwelling services, food, catering and transport – which together comprise nearly half of all household final consumption expenditure.

Low income low wealth households	164
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While regular income is the main economic resource for most households, wealth is also an important resource as it may be drawn down to finance living expenses or used to generate income or capital growth. In 2003–04, over one million households were simultaneously in the lowest three deciles of both income and wealth. This article investigates the characteristics of these households in terms of their income, wealth, composition, labour force status, principal source of income and spending patterns. Indicators of financial stress are also explored.

Economic resources: national summary — key points

Real net national disposable income per capita(a)



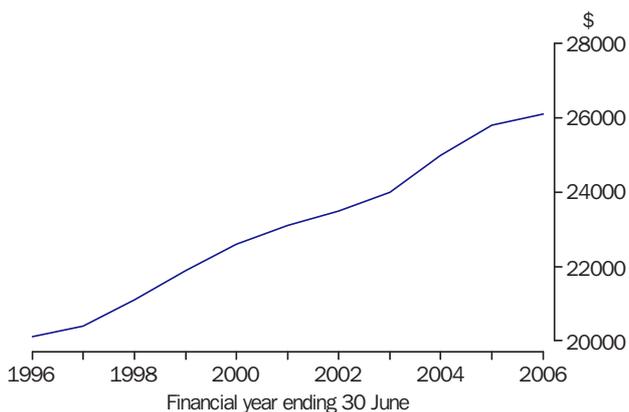
(a) Chain volume measure, reference year 2004–05.

Source: Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

For further information see *Economic resources: national summary*, page 146, indicator 1.

- Australia has experienced significant real income growth during the past decade.
- In 1995–96, the real net national disposable income per capita was \$27,600. By 2005–06, it had risen 34% to \$37,200.
- Between 1995–96 and 2005–06, the real net national disposable income per capita grew by 3.0% a year on average.

Real household final consumption expenditure per capita(a)



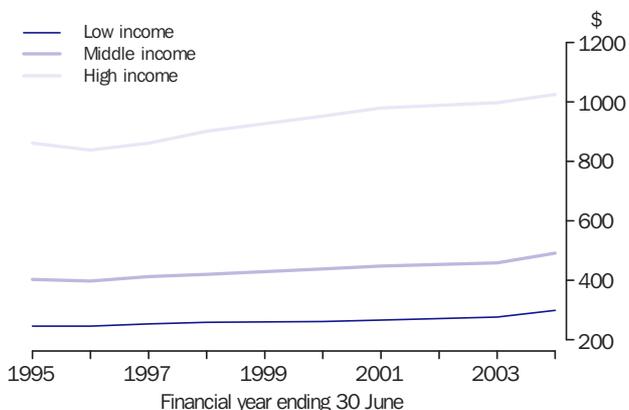
(a) Chain volume measure, reference year 2004–05.

Source: Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0) and Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

For further information see *Economic resources: national summary*, page 147, indicator 32.

- Over the past decade, growth in real household final consumption expenditure per capita has been quite strong.
- In 1995–96, the real household final consumption expenditure per capita was \$20,100. By 2005–06, it had risen to \$26,100.
- Between 1995–96 and 2005–06, real household final consumption expenditure per capita rose by 2.6% per year on average.

Mean weekly equivalised household income(a) for low, middle and high income groups(b)



(a) Adjusted for changes in the Consumer Price Index; values are given in 2003–04 dollars.

(b) Data not available for 1998–99 and 2001–02.

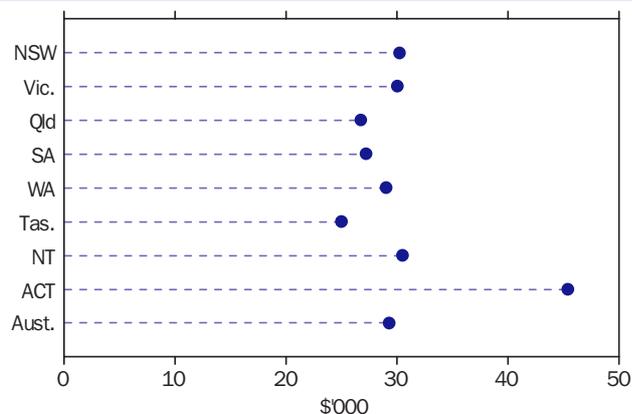
Source: ABS Survey of Income and Housing.

For further information see *Economic resources: national summary*, page 146, indicators 18–20.

- Between 1994–95 and 2003–04, there has been an increase in the mean real weekly equivalised household income for all income groups.
- Households in both the low and middle income groups experienced a 22% increase in mean real weekly equivalised income.
- The highest income group experienced the smallest proportional change, with a 19% increase to their mean real weekly equivalised household income.

Economic resources: state summary — key points

Gross household disposable income per capita — 2005–06(a)



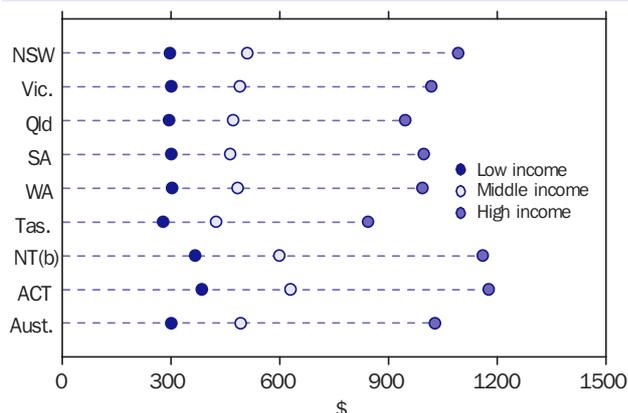
- In 2005–06, the Australian Capital Territory had a gross household disposable income per capita of \$45,400, the highest of all Australian states and territories. This was \$16,100 higher than the Australian average of \$29,300.
- In 2005–06, the lowest gross household disposable income per capita was \$25,000, recorded in Tasmania. This was \$4,300 less than the Australian average.

(a) Financial year ending 30 June.

Source: Australian National Accounts: State Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Economic resources, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 2 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

Mean weekly equivalised household income for selected groups of persons — 2003–04(a)



- Of all Australian states and territories in 2003–04, the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory recorded the highest mean weekly equivalised household income for all income groups.
- The high income group in the Australian Capital Territory earned a mean weekly equivalised household income of \$1,175 per week, while the low income group earned \$386 per week.
- In 2003–04, Tasmania recorded the lowest mean weekly equivalised household income for all income groups.
- The high income group in Tasmania earned a mean weekly equivalised household income of \$842 per week, while the low income group earned \$279 per week.

(a) Financial year ending 30 June.

(b) Estimates for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only and should be used with caution.

Source: ABS Survey of Income and Housing.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Economic resources, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicators 18–20 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

Economic resources: national summary

INCOME GROWTH		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	Real net national disposable income per capita(a)	\$'000	r27.6	r28.7	r29.7	r30.6	r31.9	r32.3	r33.1	r33.7	r35.2	r36.1	37.2
3	Real GDP per capita(a)	\$'000	r35.6	r36.5	r37.8	r39.3	r40.4	r40.7	r41.7	r42.5	r43.7	r44.4	45.0
Weekly earnings													
4	Average weekly total cash earnings – all employees	\$	574	n.a.	610	n.a.	653	n.a.	698	n.a.	757	n.a.	852
5	Average weekly ordinary time cash earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	\$	634	n.a.	692	n.a.	737	n.a.	800	n.a.	868	n.a.	989
6	Total hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses(b)	index no.	n.a.	n.a.	82.2	84.8	87.3	90.3	93.3	96.5	100.0	103.8	108.1
7	Full weekly benefit received by a single age pensioner	\$	197	199	202	203	203	207	211	220	232	238	250
8	Full weekly benefit received by a couple with two children	\$	370	386	393	397	405	445	465	482	496	531	545
9	Consumer price index(c)(d)	index no.	118.7	120.3	120.3	121.8	124.7	132.2	136.0	140.2	143.5	147.0	151.7
INCOME DISTRIBUTION		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
10	Female/male ratio of mean weekly ordinary time cash earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	ratio	0.89	n.a.	0.89	n.a.	0.90	n.a.	0.89	n.a.	0.90	n.a.	0.88
Disposable household income													
Mean weekly income of selected households(e)													
11	Lone person aged under 35 years	\$	488	524	498	n.a.	r542	552	n.a.	539	567	n.a.	n.y.a.
12	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	\$	1 006	1 039	1 049	n.a.	r1165	1 122	n.a.	1 175	1 231	n.a.	n.y.a.
13	Couple with dependent children	\$	1 003	1 023	1 076	n.a.	r1097	1 153	n.a.	1 140	1 257	n.a.	n.y.a.
14	One parent with dependent children	\$	556	568	585	n.a.	r615	623	n.a.	618	669	n.a.	n.y.a.
15	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	\$	467	526	499	n.a.	r532	523	n.a.	555	597	n.a.	n.y.a.
16	Lone person aged 65 and over	\$	265	279	282	n.a.	r311	297	n.a.	311	350	n.a.	n.y.a.
17	All households	\$	779	801	820	n.a.	r852	859	n.a.	871	914	n.a.	n.y.a.
Mean weekly equivalised household income for selected groups of persons(e)													
18	Low income	\$	246	255	258	n.a.	262	267	n.a.	276	300	n.a.	n.y.a.
19	Middle income	\$	399	413	421	n.a.	439	449	n.a.	460	492	n.a.	n.y.a.
20	High income	\$	838	862	903	n.a.	954	981	n.a.	999	1 027	n.a.	n.y.a.
21	All households	\$	450	464	477	n.a.	497	510	n.a.	522	549	n.a.	n.y.a.
Weekly equivalised household income of persons at top of selected income percentiles(e)													
22	20th(P20)	\$	243	253	255	n.a.	261	266	n.a.	273	299	n.a.	n.y.a.
23	50th(P50)	\$	397	412	418	n.a.	439	449	n.a.	459	491	n.a.	n.y.a.
24	80th(P80)	\$	627	642	654	n.a.	690	699	n.a.	719	743	n.a.	n.y.a.
Ratio of equivalised household incomes of persons at top of selected income percentiles													
25	P90/P10	ratio	3.73	3.66	3.77	n.a.	3.89	3.98	n.a.	4.00	3.70	n.a.	n.y.a.
26	P80/P20	ratio	2.58	2.53	2.56	n.a.	2.64	2.63	n.a.	2.63	2.49	n.a.	n.y.a.
27	P80/P50	ratio	1.58	1.56	1.56	n.a.	1.57	1.56	n.a.	1.57	1.52	n.a.	n.y.a.
28	P20/P50	ratio	0.61	0.62	0.61	n.a.	0.59	0.59	n.a.	0.60	0.61	n.a.	n.y.a.
Share of total equivalised income received by persons with:													
29	Low income	%	11.0	11.0	10.8	n.a.	10.5	10.5	n.a.	10.6	10.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
30	High income	%	37.3	37.1	37.9	n.a.	38.4	38.5	n.a.	38.3	37.4	n.a.	n.y.a.
31	Gini coefficient of equivalised income	ratio	0.296	0.292	0.303	n.a.	0.310	0.311	n.a.	0.309	0.294	n.a.	n.y.a.

Economic resources: national summary cont.

EXPENDITURE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
32	Real household final consumption expenditure per capita(a)	\$'000	r20.1	r20.4	r21.1	r21.9	r22.6	r23.1	r23.5	r24.0	r25.0	r25.8	26.1
SOURCES OF INCOME		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Main source of income – of all households													
33	Wages and salaries	%	56.8	56.3	56.8	n.a.	56.7	56.9	n.a.	58.0	57.5	n.a.	n.y.a.
34	Own business or partnership	%	7.3	6.6	6.0	n.a.	6.4	6.4	n.a.	6.2	6.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
35	Government pensions and allowances	%	28.0	28.6	28.5	n.a.	28.7	28.3	n.a.	26.6	27.7	n.a.	n.y.a.
36	Other	%	7.0	7.6	7.7	n.a.	7.3	7.3	n.a.	8.1	8.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
Income support													
37	Social assistance benefits in cash to residents as a proportion of GDP	%	8.4	8.4	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.7	8.5	8.2	8.6	8.4	7.9
Main source of income is government pensions and allowances – proportion of all households in selected groups													
38	Lone person aged under 35 years	%	14.6	15.6	16.3	n.a.	17.2	13.7	n.a.	10.3	12.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
39	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	%	*1.6	*2.6	*3.6	n.a.	*2.6	*2.8	n.a.	3.4	*2.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
40	Couple with dependent children	%	9.7	10.6	10.3	n.a.	10.7	9.1	n.a.	8.7	7.7	n.a.	n.y.a.
41	One parent with dependent children	%	53.3	58.7	54.3	n.a.	53.1	53.0	n.a.	48.9	54.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
42	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	%	71.2	65.2	65.9	n.a.	70.1	71.7	n.a.	66.4	66.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
43	Lone person aged 65 and over	%	79.8	80.0	77.9	n.a.	79.8	79.2	n.a.	79.9	76.5	n.a.	n.y.a.
Recipients of selected government payments													
44	Labour market program allowance(f)	'000	812.4	798.0	837.6	778.7	697.8	666.9	635.9	599.8	567.8	533.2	513.7
45	Single-parent payment	'000	342.3	358.9	372.3	382.3	391.4	416.7	427.8	437.0	449.3	450.8	433.4
46	Disability support pension(g)	'000	499.2	527.5	553.3	577.7	602.3	623.9	658.9	673.3	696.7	706.8	712.2
47	Age pension(g)	'000	1 603	1 680	1 683	1 716	1 730	1 786	1 811	1 854	1 870	1 915	1 922
48	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	62.7	64.4	65.4	65.5	65.9	65.8	66.2	66.3	67.4	66.3	66.0
49	Females – of all age pensioners	%	64.4	64.4	63.5	63.1	62.1	61.6	59.6	59.4	59.5	59.1	58.4

(a) Chain volume measure, reference year 2004–05.

(b) Base of index: 2003–04 = 100.0.

(c) Base of index: 1989–90 = 100.0.

(d) Data refer to the weighted average of the eight state and territory capital cities.

(e) Adjusted for changes in the Consumer Price Index; values are given in 2003–04 dollars.

(f) From 2001 excludes Newstart customers who received a nil rate of payment.

(g) Includes payments to people living overseas.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:
Data for indicators 4–5 and 10 are at May.
Data for indicators 7–8 and 44–49 are at June.

Economic resources: state summary

INCOME GROWTH		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
2	Gross household disposable income per capita	\$'000	2005-06	30.2	30.0	26.7	27.2	29.0	25.0	30.5	45.4	29.3
Weekly earnings												
4	Average weekly total cash earnings – all employees	\$	2006	879	833	824	780	912	744	908	965	852
5	Average weekly ordinary time cash earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	\$	2006	1013	967	945	922	1096	902	995	1050	989
6	Total hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses(a)	index no.	2006	107.8	107.9	108.4	107.4	109.0	108.4	108.2	108.6	108.1
INCOME DISTRIBUTION		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
10	Female/male ratio of mean weekly ordinary time cash earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	ratio	2006	0.88	0.89	0.89	0.95	0.79	0.94	0.89	0.95	0.88
Disposable household income												
Mean weekly income of selected households												
11	Lone person aged under 35 years	\$	2003-04	595	550	531	509	606	405	808	642	567
12	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	\$	2003-04	1 306	1 266	1 113	1 173	1 249	994	1 380	1 228	1 231
13	Couple with dependent children	\$	2003-04	1 308	1 279	1 162	1 220	1 231	1 087	1 269	1 489	1 257
14	One parent with dependent children	\$	2003-04	685	700	634	628	639	620	665	833	669
15	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	\$	2003-04	648	574	545	573	591	534	*998	696	597
16	Lone person aged 65 and over	\$	2003-04	336	330	416	312	344	307	305	362	350
17	All households	\$	2003-04	971	919	851	846	895	757	1 102	1 086	914
Mean weekly equivalised household income for selected groups of persons												
18	Low income	\$	2003-04	298	302	295	301	303	279	366	386	300
19	Middle income	\$	2003-04	510	491	471	463	484	425	599	630	492
20	High income	\$	2003-04	1 091	1 018	945	997	993	842	1 159	1 175	1 027
21	All households	\$	2003-04	571	548	519	529	539	476	643	669	549
Weekly equivalised household income of persons at top of selected income percentiles												
22	20th(P20)	\$	2003-04	295	301	295	301	303	280	354	393	299
23	50th(P50)	\$	2003-04	514	488	472	461	483	420	591	628	491
24	80th(P80)	\$	2003-04	777	747	689	691	727	637	861	899	743
Ratio of equivalised household incomes of persons at top of selected income percentiles												
25	P90/P10	ratio	2003-04	3.93	3.79	3.49	3.50	3.54	3.38	4.09	3.94	3.70
26	P80/P20	ratio	2003-04	2.63	2.48	2.34	2.29	2.40	2.28	2.43	2.29	2.49
27	P80/P50	ratio	2003-04	1.51	1.53	1.46	1.50	1.51	1.52	1.46	1.43	1.52
28	P20/P50	ratio	2003-04	0.58	0.62	0.62	0.65	0.63	0.67	0.60	0.63	0.61
Share of total equivalised household income received by persons with:												
29	Low income	%	2003-04	10.4	11.0	11.4	11.3	11.3	11.7	11.3	11.5	10.9
30	High income	%	2003-04	38.2	37.1	36.3	37.7	36.8	35.6	36.0	35.0	37.4
31	Gini coefficient of equivalised income	ratio	2003-04	0.307	0.291	0.278	0.286	0.285	0.266	0.286	0.268	0.294
EXPENDITURE		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
32	Real household final consumption expenditure per capita(b)	\$'000	2005-06	27.0	26.8	24.6	24.8	24.9	23.1	27.5	31.7	26.1

Economic resources: state summary continued

SOURCES OF INCOME		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Main source of income – of all households												
33	Wages and salaries	%	2003–04	58.4	58.4	56.1	53.6	57.2	52.1	73.8	67.7	57.5
34	Own business or partnership	%	2003–04	5.4	5.2	6.6	6.6	8.1	5.0	5.6	4.5	6.0
35	Government pensions and allowances	%	2003–04	26.6	27.2	29.7	31.2	26.8	36.6	16.3	16.7	27.7
36	Other	%	2003–04	9.2	8.8	6.6	8.2	7.0	5.9	*3.8	11.1	8.2
Income support												
40	Couple with dependent children	%	2003–04	9.0	6.8	7.2	6.0	7.9	15.3	n.p.	n.p.	7.7
41	One parent with dependent children	%	2003–04	54.0	51.0	59.1	57.6	54.6	56.3	n.p.	n.p.	54.2
42	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	%	2003–04	63.5	69.1	69.6	71.6	67.9	71.2	n.p.	n.p.	66.9
43	Lone person aged 65 and over	%	2003–04	75.8	71.8	82.6	79.3	75.0	85.2	n.p.	n.p.	76.5
Recipients of selected government payments												
44	Labour market program allowance(c)	'000	2006	173.6	124.2	97.6	44.6	38.4	18.2	12.6	4.7	513.7
45	Single-parent payment	'000	2006	140.3	97.5	94.8	34.6	42.9	12.7	5.9	4.6	433.4
46	Disability support pension(d)	'000	2006	228.6	170.5	136.9	68.1	60.1	24.8	6.1	7.1	712.2
47	Age pension(d)	'000	2006	624	487	338	176	165	54	6	18	1 922
48	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	2006	62.1	65.9	63.6	69.9	62.8	69.9	57.7	51.1	66.0
49	Females – of all age pensioners	%	2006	59.0	59.1	57.8	59.3	58.8	58.3	53.8	61.6	58.4

(a) Base of index: 2003–04 = 100.0.

(b) Chain volume measure, reference year 2004–05.

(c) Excludes Newstart customers who received a nil rate of payment.

(d) Components do not add to Australian total because total for Australia includes payments to people living overseas and where valid geographic data were not available.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:
Data for indicators 4–5 and 10 are at May.
Data for indicators 44–49 are at June.

Economic resources: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1, 3, 37	Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).
2	Australian National Accounts: State Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).
4–5, 10	Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).
6	Labour Price Index, Australia, September Quarter (ABS cat. no. 6345.0).
7–8	A Guide to Australian Government Payments, Centrelink.
9	Consumer Price Index, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).
11–31, 33–36, 38–43	ABS Survey of Income and Housing.
32	ABS Australian System of National Accounts and ABS Estimated resident population.
44	National data are from Department of Social Security Annual Reports 1995–97, Labour Market and Related Payments (July 2002 edition, which contains revised data for June 1998) and Department of Employment and Workplace Relations administrative data 1999–2006. State data are from Department of Employment and Workplace Relations administrative data 1999–2006.
45–46	Department of Employment and Workplace Relations administrative data.
47, 49	Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs administrative data.
48	Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs administrative data and ABS Estimated resident population.

Economic resources: definitions

Adult employees

employees aged 21 years and over, and those under 21 years who are paid at the full adult rate for their occupation.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Age pension recipients

people receiving full or partial Age pension excluding associated Wife's or Carer's pension. The qualifying age for Age pension eligibility for men is 65 years. Between 1 July 1995 and 2014, the qualifying age for women is gradually being raised from 60 to 65 years. At 30 June 2006 the qualifying age for women was 63 years.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs, *Customers: a statistical overview*.

Age pensioners — of persons of qualifying age

the number of aged pension recipients as a proportion of the estimated resident population (ERP) of persons who meet the age requirements for the age pension. In the years where the age requirement for women was a number of years plus six months the ERP was prorated.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

Average weekly ordinary time cash earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees

refers to one week's earnings for the reference period attributed to award, standard or agreed hours of work. It is calculated before taxation and any other deductions have been made. Included in ordinary time cash earnings are agreed base rates of pay plus payment by measured result, and regular bonuses and commissions. Amounts salary sacrificed are also included. Excluded are non-cash components of salary packages, overtime payments, and payments not related to the survey reference period, such as retrospective pay, pay in advance, leave loadings, and severance pay and termination and redundancy payments. Non-managerial employees are those who are not managerial employees as defined below, including non-managerial professionals and some employees with supervisory responsibilities.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Average weekly total cash earnings

average weekly total cash earnings of employees is regular wages and salaries in cash (including amounts salary sacrificed) and is equal to weekly ordinary time cash earnings plus weekly overtime cash earnings.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Chain volume measures

are obtained by linking together (i.e. compounding) movements in volumes, calculated using the average price of the previous financial year, and applying the compounded movements to the current price estimates of the reference year.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts: Concepts, Sources and Methods* (ABS cat. no. 5216.0).

Consumer price index

a measure of change over time in the retail price of a constant basket of goods and services which is representative of consumption patterns of all private households in the eight capital cities.

Reference: *Australian Consumer Price Index: Concepts, Sources and Methods* (ABS cat. no. 6461.0).

Couple

two people in a registered or de facto marriage, who usually live in the same household.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Couple only household

a household which contains a couple and no other people.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Couple with dependent children household

a one-family household comprising a couple with at least one dependent child. The household may also include non-dependent children, other relatives and unrelated people.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Economic resources: definitions continued

Dependent children

children under 15 years of age; and full-time students, aged 15 to 24 years, who have a parent in the household and do not have a partner or child of their own in the household.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Disability support pension recipients

people receiving a pension on the basis of an assessed permanent physical, intellectual or psychiatric impairment and on their continuing inability to work or be retrained to work 30 hours or more per week within the next two years, or 15 hours per week as from 1 July 2006.

Reference: Department of Employment and Workplace Relations.

Disposable income

gross income, plus family tax benefit paid through the tax system or as a lump sum by Centrelink, less personal income tax (including the Medicare levy).

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Employees

all wage and salary earners who received pay for any part of the reference period.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Equivalised income

equivalising adjusts actual income to take account of the different needs of households of different size and composition. There are economic advantages associated with living with others, because household resources, especially housing, can be shared. The equivalence scale used to obtain equivalised incomes is that used in studies by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and is referred to as the 'modified OECD scale'. The scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult in the household, a weight of 0.5 for each additional adult (persons aged 15 years and over) and a weight of 0.3 for each child. For each household, the weights for household members are added together to form the household weight. The total household income is then divided by the household weight to give an income that a lone person household would need for a similar standard of living.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Full-time employees

employees who normally work the agreed or award hours for a full-time employee in their occupation. If agreed or award hours do not apply, employees are regarded as full-time if they usually work 35 hours or more per week.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Full weekly benefit received by a single age pensioner

the amount paid to a single age pensioner, who passes the income and asset test for the full basic rate, excluding all allowances, indexed by CPI to the most recent year.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

Full weekly benefit received by a couple with two children

the maximum weekly social security benefit available to an unemployed couple with two children (one aged under 5 years and one aged 5 years or over but under 13 years). The calculation for 2006 includes unemployment benefits for each partner (currently Newstart), Family Tax Benefit Part A (excluding supplement) for each child and Family Tax Benefit Part B (excluding supplement) for the family. This calculation excludes any rent assistance which may be available.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

GDP (gross domestic product)

total market value of goods and services produced in Australia within a given period after deducting the cost of goods and services used up in the process of production but before deducting allowances for the consumption of fixed capital.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

Gini coefficient

a measure for assessing inequality of income distribution. The measure, expressed as a ratio that is always between 0 and 1, is low for populations with relatively equal income distributions and high for populations with relatively unequal income distributions.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Government pensions and allowances

income support payments from government under social security and related government programs. Included are pensions and allowances received by aged, unemployed and sick people, families and children, veterans or their survivors, and study allowances for students.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Gross household disposable income per capita

where gross household disposable income, as measured in the Australian System of National Accounts, is gross household income less income tax payable, other current taxes on income, wealth etc., consumer debt interest, interest payable by unincorporated enterprises, net non-life insurance premiums and other current transfers payable by households. The population used is the estimated resident population for the financial year.

Reference: *Australian National Accounts: State Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).

Gross income

cash receipts, that are of a regular and recurring nature, before tax or any other deductions are made.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

High income persons

persons in the 9th and 10th income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Household

a group of related or unrelated people who usually live in the same private dwelling or a lone person living in a private dwelling.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Labour market program allowance recipients

the number of recipients of Job Search Allowance and Newstart Allowance in 1995 and 1996; Newstart Allowance in 1997 and 1998; and Newstart Allowance and Youth Allowance for job seekers [referred to as Youth Allowance (other)] from 1999.

Reference: Department of Employment and Workplace Relations.

Lone-person household

a household which consists of a person living alone.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Low income persons

persons in the 2nd and 3rd income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Main source of income

that source from which the most positive income is received. If total income is nil or negative the principal source is undefined.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Economic resources: definitions continued

Managerial employees

employees who are in charge of a significant number of employees and/or have strategic responsibilities in the conduct or operations of the organisation and who usually do not have an entitlement to paid overtime.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Mean weekly income

the sum of the income of all households or people in a population, divided by the number of households or people in the population.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Middle income persons

persons in the 5th and 6th income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

One parent with dependent children household

a one-family household comprising a lone parent with at least one dependent child. The household may also include non-dependent children, other relatives and unrelated people.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Ordinary time hours

award, standard or agreed hours of work, paid for at the ordinary time rate, including that part of annual leave, paid sick leave and long service leave taken during the reference period.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Own business or partnership income

the profit or loss that accrues to people as owners of, or partners in, unincorporated enterprises. Profit/loss consists of the value of the gross output of the enterprise after the deduction of operating expenses (including depreciation). Losses occur when operating expenses are greater than gross receipts.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Percentiles

when people are ranked from the lowest to the highest on the basis of some characteristic such as their equivalised household income, they can then be divided into equal sized groups. Division into 100 groups gives percentiles. The highest value of the characteristic in the tenth percentile is denoted P10. The median or the top of the 50th percentile is denoted P50. P20, P80 and P90 denote the highest values in the 20th, 80th and 90th percentiles.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Ratio of incomes

the ratio is calculated by dividing the highest value in a selected percentile by the highest value in a second selected percentile (see percentiles). For example, in 2003–04, the person at the top of the 80th percentile for Australia when ranked by equivalised disposable income had an equivalised disposable household income of \$743. If this is divided by the equivalised disposable household weekly income of the person at the top of the 20th percentile (\$299), the result is 2.49.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Real GDP (gross domestic product)

an aggregate measure of the value of economic production in a year. The series used are GDP chain volume measures (reference year 2003–04) and GDP at current prices.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

Real household final consumption expenditure per capita

Household final consumption expenditure is expenditure on goods and services by persons and non-profit institutions serving households. Spending on the maintenance of dwellings is excluded, as is spending by unincorporated businesses and spending on assets by non-profit institutions. However, personal expenditure on motor vehicles and other durable goods and the imputed rent of owner-occupied dwellings are included, along with the value of 'backyard' production (including food produced and consumed on farms) and the payment of wages and salaries in kind (e.g. food and lodging supplied free to employees). The measure is expressed in Australian dollars using chain volume measures, reference year 2003–04, and is based on the estimated resident population of each financial year.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

Real net national disposable income per capita

real net national disposable income is a broad measure of economic wellbeing which adjusts the chain volume measure of GDP for the terms of trade effect, real net incomes from overseas (primary and secondary) and consumption of fixed capital. The population estimates are based on data published in the quarterly publication *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0) and ABS projections.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

Reference person

the reference person for each household is chosen by applying to all household members aged 15 years and over the selection criteria below in the order listed, until a single appropriate reference person is identified:

- ♦ the person with the highest tenure when ranked as follows: owner without a mortgage, owner with a mortgage, renter, other tenure (for periods up to 2003 only),
- ♦ one of the partners in a registered or de facto marriage, with dependent children
- ♦ one of the partners in a registered or de facto marriage, without dependent children
- ♦ a lone parent with dependent children
- ♦ the person with the highest income
- ♦ the eldest person.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Single-parent payment recipients

the number of lone parents receiving Parenting Payment (Single). Prior to March 1998, this was known as the 'Sole Parent Pension'.

Reference: Department of Employment and Workplace Relations.

Social assistance benefits in cash to residents

includes current transfers to persons from general government in return for which no services are rendered or goods supplied. Principal components include: scholarships; maternity, sickness and unemployment benefits; child endowment and family allowances; and widows', age, invalid and repatriation pensions. Residents refers to Australian residents.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

Total hourly rates of pay index excluding bonuses

measures quarterly change in combined ordinary time and overtime hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses.

Bonuses are payments made to a job occupant that are in addition to regular wages and salaries and which generally relate to the job occupant's, or the organisation's performance. Base period for index is 2003–04 = 100.0.

Reference: *Labour Price Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6345.0).

Wages and salaries

the gross cash income received as a return to labour from an employer or from a person's own incorporated enterprise.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Purchasing power

Australia's purchasing power has increased appreciably as real net national disposable income per capita rose by 50% between 1991–92 and 2005–06 and real national net worth per capita grew by 10% between mid 1992 and mid 2006.

Material living standards rise when income and wealth increase more rapidly than prices (i.e. when income and wealth increase in real terms). This increases people's capacity to borrow, consume goods and services, save and invest. In other words, it increases their purchasing power. However, not all prices change at the same rate, or even in the same direction. For this reason, some items of expenditure can become more affordable while at the same time others can become less affordable.

This article presents and analyses trends in overall purchasing power. It also analyses how and why prices of particular goods and services have changed relative to average income and wealth. This indicates whether our capacity to acquire particular goods and services has increased or decreased over time.

Expanded capacity to spend

Overall purchasing power has increased over recent decades, although not continuously. After rising by an average of 2.5% per year between 1985–86 and 1989–90, real net national disposable income per capita fell by 3.1% per year between 1989–90 and 1991–92. Since then (i.e. between 1991–92 and 2005–06) net national disposable income per capita has increased each year in real terms at the relatively strong average annual rate of 3.0%.

Real national net worth (wealth) has also trended higher, albeit at a slower rate, during the current period of sustained economic growth since the last recession in 1990–91. From mid 1992 (the earliest data available) to mid 2006, real national net worth per capita grew at an average annual rate of 0.7%.

Data sources and definitions

Statistics presented in this article are derived from the Australian System of National Accounts, ABS estimates of Australia's population, the ABS Labour Force Survey, a suite of consumer price indexes, and the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD).

Real net national disposable income is the capacity of the Australian community to buy goods and services, save and invest. It is the value of total production in Australia (less that needed to replace depreciated capital) plus primary income received from overseas (less primary income generated in Australia but paid overseas) plus current transfers received from overseas (less current transfers paid overseas). It can be spent on goods and services by households or governments, or saved and used by households, governments or businesses to add to the stock of machinery, buildings and other produced capital.

Real national net worth is the amount by which Australia's assets exceed its liabilities to the rest of the world.

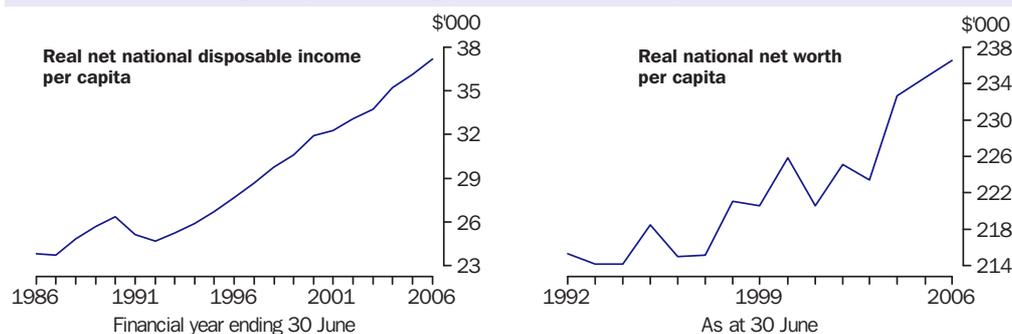
A *real* measure removes the effect of price inflation or deflation so that the extent of change over time in purchasing power can be quantified.

Household adjusted disposable income is income households receive from all sources (including the value of goods, services and reimbursements (e.g. Medicare rebates) from governments) less the income tax and interest payments paid by households.

Household net worth is the value of household assets such as land, dwellings, machinery, livestock, standing timber, computer software, superannuation, shares, bonds and bank deposits less the value of household liabilities such as borrowings and unpaid bills.

A *per capita* measure is obtained by dividing an aggregate total (e.g. real national net worth) by the estimated resident population of Australia. It is the amount attributed to each person assuming perfect equality of distribution among Australian residents.

Measures of change in purchasing power (reference year = 2004–05)



Source: 2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0); Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

Wealth and income are very closely related as wealth can be used to generate income. In turn, receipt of income creates the potential to save and invest, thereby increasing wealth. In addition to its income generating possibility, wealth confers purchasing power because cash reserves can be drawn upon, assets sold, and money borrowed against the value of assets to fund the purchase of goods and services.

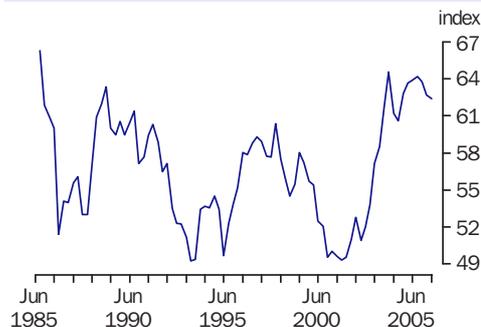
... from improved terms of trade

One of the main reasons for the real increase in income and wealth has been the improvement in our terms of trade with other countries. The terms of trade index represents the relationship between the prices we receive for our exports and the prices we pay for our imports. A rise in the index means that export prices are increasing more rapidly than import prices (or are falling at a slower rate).¹

Although the volume of our imports has been growing faster than the volume of our exports, the prices we have received for our exports have risen more strongly than the prices we have paid for our imports. Between 1991–92 and 2005–06, our terms of trade improved by 40%, with export prices up 41% and import prices barely up (1%).²

In particular, our terms of trade have been boosted by rising coal, gold and mineral ore prices, and falling prices for audio, visual and computing equipment. A rise in the value of our currency against the average value of the currencies we use when selling exports and buying imports also improves our terms of trade. Some of the improvement in our terms of trade since 1991–92 can be attributed to a 9% rise in the trade-weighted index value of the Australian dollar between 1991–92 (58.2) and 2005–06 (63.3).

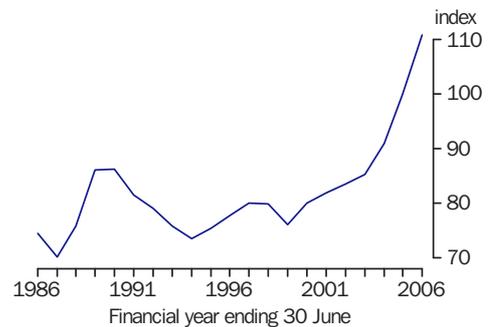
Trade-weighted index(a) of the value of the Australian dollar



(a) May 1970 = 100.

Source: *International Trade in Goods and Services, Australia, December 2006* (ABS cat. no. 5368.0).

Australia's terms of trade(a)



(a) 2004–05 = 100.

Source: *2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

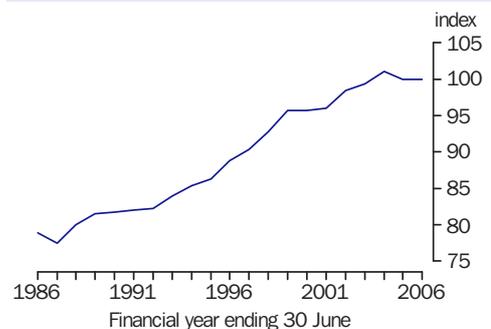
... productivity gains

Productivity is a measure of the efficiency of resource use. Productivity improvement has been another major driver of rising real income and real wealth, and thus of rising purchasing power. Productivity increases when growth in the output volume of goods and services exceeds growth in the inputs (capital, labour, energy, materials and services) used to produce them.

Multifactor productivity for the market sector of the economy is the most comprehensive measure available of Australia's productivity. There was an appreciable improvement (27%) in multifactor productivity between 1985–86 and 2005–06. Shaped by a series of productivity growth cycles, the index of multifactor productivity lifted most sharply throughout the 1993–94 to 1998–99 cycle.

Key determinants of strong productivity growth include innovation, the development and application of new technologies, and the quality of workers, management practices and working arrangements. Productivity can also

Multifactor productivity(a)



(a) 2004–05 = 100.

Source: *2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

improve if inputs such as labour and capital are shifted from less productive activities to more productive ones.¹

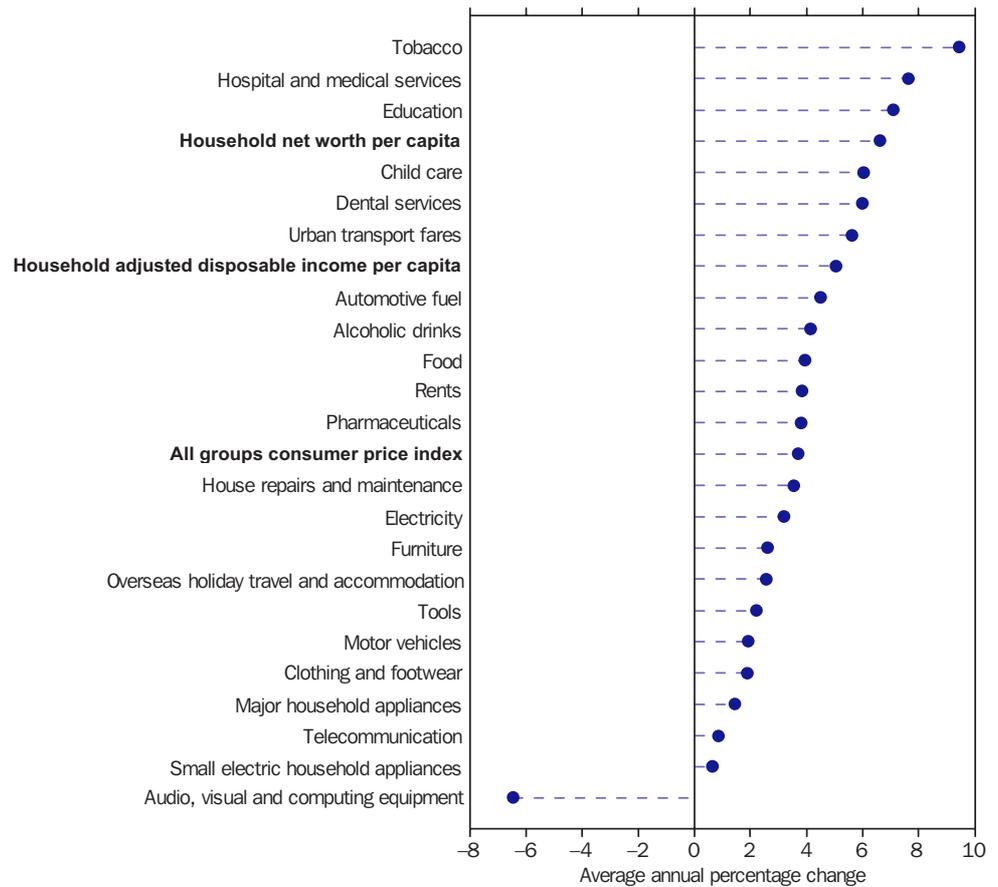
... and increased employment

Another reason for the real rise in our income and wealth, and therefore our purchasing power, is that we are more likely to be in paid work. In June 2006, 62% of civilians aged 15 years or older were employed, up from 56% in June 1985. The increase in this employment to population ratio raised the average number of hours actually worked per civilian aged 15 years or older by 5% between June 1985 (19 hours per week) and June 2006 (20 hours per week).

Purchasing power of households

From a social perspective, interest tends to focus on change to purchasing power in the household sector of the national economy. Like overall purchasing power at the national level, household purchasing power has increased over recent decades. Between 1985–86 and 2005–06, household adjusted disposable income per capita rose by 1.3% a year in real terms. Also, household net worth per capita increased at an average of 3.7% a year in real terms between June 1989 (the earliest data available) and June 2006.

Comparative change in income, wealth and selected consumer prices between 1985–86 and 2005–06(a)



(a) Average annual increase between 30 June 1989 and 30 June 2006 for household net worth per capita. Income and net worth averages were calculated using current prices (i.e. underlying dollar values had not been adjusted to remove the effect of price inflation prior to calculating the average annual percentage increase).

Source: Consumer Price Index, Australia, September 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6401.0); 2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0); Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

Measuring change in consumer prices

The All groups Consumer Price Index (commonly known and referred to as the CPI) measures change over time in the price of a wide-ranging 'basket' of goods and services which account for a high proportion of expenditure by households living in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, Hobart, Darwin and Canberra.³

In addition to the All groups CPI, there are many consumer price indexes which measure price inflation for particular expenditure items and groups of items. Some consumer price indexes have been operating for several decades (e.g. the Pork index since September 1972) while others commenced recently (e.g. the Financial services index in June 2005).⁴

The prices of goods and services used to derive price index values are those that any member of the public would have to pay to purchase an item. Prices include any taxes levied (e.g. GST) and any subsidies or assistance provided directly by government (e.g. Child Care Benefit and Medicare). When possible and practical, prices are adjusted for any improvement or degradation in product quality, thereby providing a measure of pure price change. In other words, consumer price indexes attempt to measure price change on a constant quality basis.³

Change in prices relative to growth in household income and wealth

On a current prices basis (i.e. without removing the effect of inflation) household adjusted disposable income per capita rose at an average annual rate of 5.1% between 1985–86 and 2005–06 and household net worth per capita increased by an average 6.6% per year between June 1989 and June 2006. In general, goods and services became more affordable between 1985–86 and 2005–06 because average annual price inflation (as measured by the All groups CPI) was lower at 3.7%.

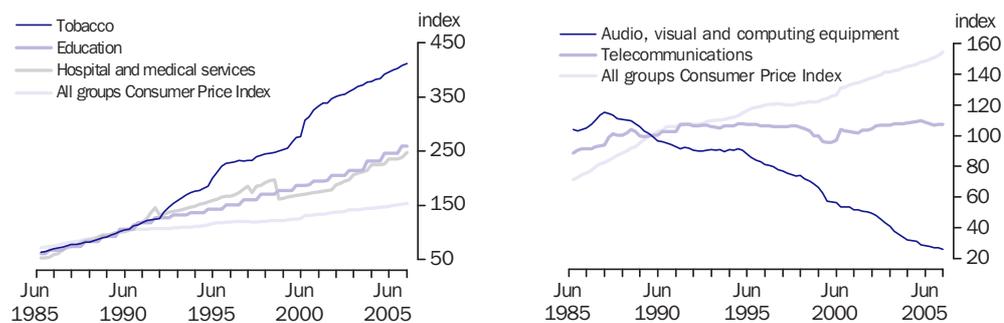
Not all goods and services became more affordable though. Some goods and services became generally less affordable between 1985–86 and 2005–06, as their average annual inflation rates outpaced average annual growth in both household adjusted disposable income per capita and household net worth per capita. Education prices rose by 7.1% each year on average while hospital and medical services prices increased by 7.6% each year. Relatively high price inflation was not confined to services. Tobacco, which is subject to excise tax, was considerably less affordable in 2006 than it had been in 1985.

The affordability of some services remained similar over the period with prices rising at a rate between per capita growth in household adjusted disposable income (5.1%) and household net worth (6.6%). For example, urban transport fares rose by an average of 5.6% each year between 1985–86 and 2005–06. There were comparable increases in the price of dental services and child care (both 6.0%).

Consumer price inflation was marginally above average (i.e. above the All groups CPI) for pharmaceuticals (3.8%), housing rent (3.8%) and food (3.9), and was a little higher for alcoholic drinks (4.2%) and automotive fuel (4.5%). Still, all of these items became generally more affordable between 1985–86 and 2005–06 as they increased in price at a slower average annual rate than both household adjusted disposable income per capita and household net worth per capita.

There was relatively low average annual price inflation between 1985–86 and 2005–06 on a range of manufactured goods such as small electric household appliances (0.7%), major household appliances (1.4%), clothing and footwear (1.9%), motor vehicles (1.9%), tools (2.2%) and furniture (2.6%). On average, an Australian's purchasing power over these items increased substantially over the period.

Indices of price change at constant quality for selected goods and services(a)



(a) 1989–90=100.

Source: Consumer Price Index, Australia, September 2006 (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).

In general, low rates of price inflation between 1985–86 and 2005–06 prevailed for goods and services supplied by markets exposed to increased international and domestic competition. Reduction of import tariffs contributed to relatively low rates of price inflation for many manufactured goods, with the trade-weighted average tariff applied by Australia to imports falling from 15.6% in 1988 to 5.0% in 1998.⁵

Telecommunication services also became much more affordable, with price inflation averaging 0.9% a year between 1985–86 and 2005–06. Within this 20 year period, a 10% price reduction on telecommunication services between the March quarter of 1998 and the December quarter of 1999 followed enactment of the *Telecommunications Act*

1997 and a related package of legislation which created open competition in the telecommunications industry.⁶

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Measures of Australia's Progress 2006*, cat. no. 1370.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Australian System of National Accounts 2005–06*, cat. no. 5204.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *A Guide to the Consumer Price Index: 15th Series*, cat. no. 6440.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Consumer Price Index September Quarter 2006*, cat. no. 6401.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1999, *Regional trends in tariffs*, viewed 28 May 2007, <http://www.dfat.gov.au/apec/meetings/apec1999/regional_trends.html>.
- 6 Department of Communications, Information Technology and the Arts, *Liberalisation of the telecommunications sector - Australia's experience*, viewed 28 May 2007, <http://www.dcita.gov.au/communications_and_technology/policy_and_legislation/telstra_shareholder_role/telstra_shareholder_history/liberalisation_of_the_telecommunications_sector_-_australias_experience#9>.

Comparative price levels

Comparative price levels provide measures of the differences in price levels between countries. In June 2006, the same representative basket of consumer goods and services which could have been purchased for A\$100 in Australia would have cost A\$147 to purchase in Norway and A\$58 to purchase in Hungary.

This table indicates the purchasing power of the Australian dollar overseas. It shows how many Australian dollars would have been needed in June 2006 (at the then prevailing currency exchange rates) to purchase in each listed country what could have been purchased in Australia for A\$100.

Selected OECD countries	\$A
Norway	147
Denmark	140
Ireland	133
Japan	121
Sweden	121
France	111
United Kingdom	110
Canada	107
Italy	103
United States	96
Greece	91
New Zealand	91
Korea	87
Portugal	82
Mexico	63
Turkey	60
Poland	59
Hungary	58

Source: OECD Main Economic Indicators, August 2006.

Trends in household consumption

Real household final consumption expenditure per capita increased 152% from 1960–61 (\$10,400) to 2005–06 (\$26,100), an average annual growth rate of 2.1%.

One dimension of wellbeing is people's command over resources to obtain goods and services to satisfy their needs and wants.¹ In general, an increase in the volume (i.e. the quantity and/or quality) of goods and services consumed by people is regarded as progress.² However, reduced consumption of certain goods and services can indicate progress towards social and environmental goals such as improved health and cleaner air.

Final consumption describes the 'using up' of goods and services by householders (to directly satisfy their personal needs and wants) and by governments (to directly satisfy collective community needs and wants). It excludes intermediate consumption expenditure (i.e. consumption of goods and services to produce other goods and services) and expenditure on fixed assets (e.g. dwellings) and valuables.

This article focuses on final consumption expenditure on the goods and services that households purchase on the market, produce for themselves, or receive from private non-profit institutions serving households. Analysis of change over time in the volume of per capita household final consumption expenditure on different goods and services provides an indication of the broad direction in which our society is evolving.

Goods and services which are provided by local, state and national levels of government for individual consumption (e.g. schooling,

Data sources and definitions

Data presented in this article have largely been drawn from the Australian System of National Accounts.

Household final consumption expenditure is expenditure on goods and services by persons and non-profit institutions serving households. It mainly comprises personal expenditure on motor vehicles and other durable goods and the imputed rent of owner-occupied dwellings.

A *per capita* measure is obtained by dividing an aggregate total (e.g. total household final consumption expenditure for Australia) by the estimated resident population of Australia.

A *chain volume measure* of consumption removes the effect of price inflation or deflation so that change in the *volume* (i.e. quantity and/or quality) of consumption can be determined and analysed.

Imputed rent for owner-occupiers is the imputed value of housing services accruing to home owners from their occupation of their principal residence and any additional residence such as a holiday home. It is primarily designed to facilitate comparison of consumption levels between countries with high and low rates of home ownership.

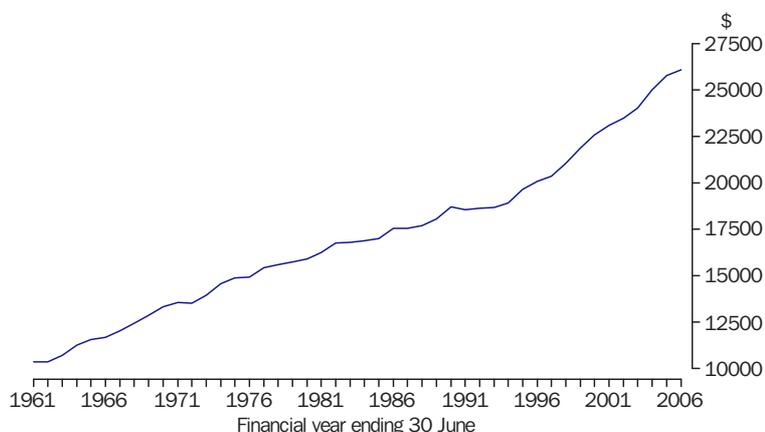
housing, public transport and pharmaceuticals) form part of the actual final consumption of households. While excluded from this analysis for practical reasons, these government social transfers in kind represent a considerable proportion of the actual final consumption of households. Any shift between the government sector and the household sector in final consumption expenditure on such goods and services can change household final consumption expenditure without changing the actual final consumption of households.

The long-term trend

Expressed in real terms (at 2004–05 prices), household final consumption expenditure per capita rose from \$10,400 in 1960–61 to \$26,100 in 2005–06. The magnitude of this real increase (152%) suggests that we enjoy a much higher standard of material wellbeing than we did in the early 1960s.

Growth in real household final consumption expenditure per capita was particularly strong between 1992–93 and 2005–06. After rising by 1.9% a year between 1960–61 and 1992–93, real household final consumption expenditure per capita increased by 2.6% a year between 1992–93 and 2005–06.

Real(a) household final consumption expenditure per capita



(a) Chain volume measure with the reference year being 2004–05.

Source: 2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0); Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); Australian Demographic Statistics, September 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

Trends over recent decades

Real household final consumption expenditure per capita increased at an average annual rate of 2.0% between 1985–86 and 2005–06. Set against the backdrop of a changing economic environment, as well as social, demographic and technological change, per capita consumption of some goods and services changed at markedly different rates between 1985–86 and 2005–06. Consumption expenditure on some goods and services increased at a similar rate to the overall average. However, consumption expenditure on some goods and services grew much more rapidly than average, while household expenditure on other goods and services barely increased or reduced over the period.

Various factors have the potential to change the volume of household expenditure on particular goods and services. In addition to changes in the public/private funding mix (such as spending on education), these factors include changes in income, prices, technology, demography and lifestyle. For example, higher labour force participation rates and higher real income could induce people to buy more services such as cleaning, housekeeping and child care. Conversely, health awareness campaigns could be expected to reduce alcohol and tobacco consumption.

Between 1985–86 and 2005–06, there was a substantial rise in real net national disposable income per capita, and varying rates of price change across the range of goods and services available for consumption (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Purchasing power, pp. 153–157). Rising real income has the potential to alter consumption patterns by boosting real spending on discretionary goods and services (wants) more strongly than on basic goods and services (needs). For example, with strong rises in real incomes, real spending on luxury motor vehicles and overseas travel would be expected to increase at a faster rate than real spending on food.

Differential rates of price change can also shape consumption patterns. To satisfy their needs and wants, consumers sometimes choose to substitute spending on a particular product or service with spending on an alternative product or service in response to a relative price movement of the items. All other factors being equal, consumption expenditure volumes would be expected to rise more strongly on spending options subject to lower rates of price inflation.

Government final consumption expenditure

Household final consumption expenditure is not a comprehensive measure of peoples' consumption levels. Households also consume vast quantities of services (and some goods) that are provided by local, state and national levels of government. Examples of goods and services provided by governments to households at either no charge or at a subsidised price include housing, schooling, medical treatment, immunisation, health screening, pharmaceuticals, transport, cultural events, and recreational activities.

Health and education are categories of final consumption expenditure for which households consume a considerably greater volume of government-provided goods and services than they purchase or receive from market producers and private non-profit institutions serving households. During 2005–06, government final consumption expenditure on health (\$2,555 per capita) and education (\$1,703 per capita) outweighed household final consumption expenditure on health (\$1,356 per capita) and education services (\$909 per capita).

Components of household final consumption expenditure

During 2005–06, nearly half (46%) of all household final consumption expenditure was accounted for by rent and other dwelling services, food, catering and transport. The remainder of this article examines change in the volume of consumption of these relatively large components of household final consumption expenditure before analysing rates of consumption growth (or decline) for some of the other components of household final consumption expenditure.

... rent and other dwelling services

Rent and other dwelling services comprises actual rent on housing, imputed rent for owner-occupiers, and water and sewerage services. Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on rent and other dwelling services was 51% greater in 2005–06 (\$4,551) than it had been in 1985–86 (\$3,020). This equates to an average annual rate of increase of 2.1%, which is almost identical to the rate of increase in total real household final consumption expenditure per capita.

Within the rent and other dwelling services category, per capita real household final consumption expenditure on actual rent for housing increased by 2.1% per year and imputed rent for owner-occupiers rose by 2.2%. These increases are in step with trends toward living in larger homes and living with fewer people (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Larger dwellings, smaller households,

Components of real household final consumption expenditure(a) per capita

Change from 1985–86 to 2005–06

	1985–86			2005–06	
	\$	\$	%	Total	Average annual
				%	%
Communication services	176	777	3.0	341.0	7.7
Goods for recreation and culture	303	1 219	4.7	302.4	7.2
Insurance services	360	834	3.2	131.7	4.3
Personal effects	97	212	0.8	118.5	4.0
Transport services	295	613	2.3	107.3	3.7
Purchase of vehicles	544	1 008	3.9	85.4	3.1
Recreational and cultural services	882	1 606	6.2	82.1	3.0
Furnishings and household equipment	822	1 486	5.7	80.8	3.0
Personal care	277	478	1.8	72.3	2.8
Education services	540	859	3.3	59.0	2.3
Miscellaneous services	643	1 007	3.9	56.5	2.3
Imputed rent for owner-occupiers	2 140	3 290	12.6	53.7	2.2
Actual rent for housing	704	1 072	4.1	52.1	2.1
Health	903	1 313	5.0	45.3	1.9
Electricity, gas and other fuel	403	532	2.0	32.0	1.4
Catering	1 297	1 679	6.4	29.5	1.3
Accommodation services	254	302	1.2	19.1	0.9
Operation of vehicles	1 209	1 409	5.4	16.5	0.8
Alcoholic beverages	474	547	2.1	15.4	0.7
Clothing and footwear	888	998	3.8	12.4	0.6
Food	2 597	2 800	10.7	7.8	0.4
Water and sewerage services	178	190	0.7	6.8	0.3
Books, papers, stationery and artists' goods	406	416	1.6	2.5	0.1
Financial services other than insurance	1 065	977	3.7	-8.3	-0.4
Cigarettes and tobacco	855	473	1.8	-44.7	-2.9
Total	17 545	26 094	100.0	48.7	2.0

(a) Chain volume measures with the reference year being 2004–05. Apart from the reference year and the year following it, component volume estimates do not usually sum to their totals. For more information about chain volume measures see the information paper *Introduction of Chain Volume Measures in the Australian National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5248.0).

Source: 2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0); Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

pp. 184–187 and *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Changes in Australian housing, pp. 175–179). Unlike rent, per capita real household final consumption expenditure on water and sewerage services grew comparatively slowly between 1985–86 (\$178) and 2005–06 (\$190), at an average annual rate of 0.3%.

... food

There was a similarly low average annual increase (0.4%) during the period in per capita real household final consumption expenditure on food and non-alcoholic beverages other than at restaurants, cafes, hotels, clubs and similar catering establishments.

... catering

Another way to consume food is to dine at a catering establishment such as a restaurant, cafe, hotel or club. Between 1985–86 and 2005–06, per capita real household final consumption expenditure on catering rose by 30% or 1.3% per year on average (from \$1,297 to \$1,679). This rate of growth in consumption spending on catering substantially exceeded growth in expenditure on food. The comparatively large increase is consistent with some people electing to 'contract out' meal preparation activity in response to their reduced availability of time from increased employment combined with their expanded spending capacity from higher real income.

... transport

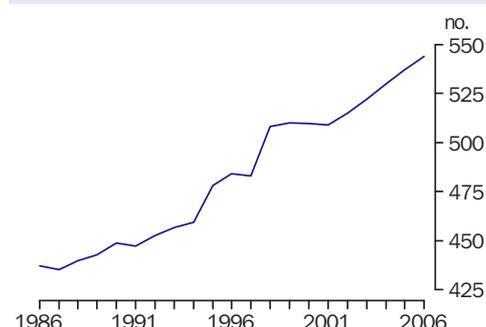
Transport comprises the purchase of vehicles, the operation of vehicles, and transport services. Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on transport grew by 2.2% per year, close to the average annual rate of total consumption growth between 1985–86 and 2005–06. Yet growth was stronger for some transport-related goods and services than others. Average annual growth in the volume of spending on transport services (3.7%) and the purchase of vehicles (3.1%) was greater than it was on the operation of vehicles (0.8%).

Disparity between volume growth in spending on the purchase and the operation of vehicles reflects several trends. The number of registered passenger vehicles per 1,000 estimated resident population increased markedly between 1986 (437) and 2006 (544). Yet the average annual number of kilometres travelled per passenger vehicle dropped from 15,500 during the year ended 30 September 1985 to 14,100 during the year ended 31 October 2005.^{3,4} Improvement in the average fuel efficiency of petrol-fuelled passenger vehicles also contributed to the relatively low increase in spending on the operation of vehicles. Over the same period, the average amount of petrol needed to travel 100 kilometres reduced from 12.0 litres to 11.4 litres.^{3,4}

... communication services

There has been relatively strong growth in the volume of communication services consumed by Australians over recent decades. From a low base in 1985–86, per capita real household final consumption expenditure on these

Registered passenger vehicles(a) per thousand people



(a) Data point interpolated for the year 2000 as the number of registered passenger vehicles was not collected in that year.

Source: *Motor Vehicle Registrations, Australia, 1990–91 to 1992–93 editions* (ABS cat. no. 9304.0) and *December 1994* (ABS cat. no. 9303.0); *Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006* (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); *Motor Vehicle Census, Australia, October 1997, October 1998, and March 2001 to 31 March 2006 editions* (ABS cat. no. 9309.0).

services more than quadrupled by 2005–06 (an increase of 341% or 7.7% each year on average). Much of this growth is related to the emergence and popularity of new technologies for communicating with others. In particular, household use of mobile phone and internet services has surged over the past decade.

In February 1996, only 24% of all households owned or paid for a mobile phone, and few (4%) had access to the internet. This profile changed considerably over the ensuing decade. Averaged across 2002, the proportion of households who had access to a mobile phone had jumped to 72% and, averaged across the 2005–06 financial year, the proportion with access to the internet at home had risen to 60%. Relatively low average annual rates of price inflation during the period for telecommunication services (0.9%) may have contributed to the comparatively strong growth observed in per capita consumption of communication services.

... recreation and culture

Between 1985–86 and 2005–06, there was a similarly large average annual increase (7.2%) in per capita real household final consumption expenditure on goods for recreation and culture. Such goods include television, video, hi-fi and telecommunication equipment (e.g. mobile phones), cameras and personal computers.⁵ Most households (70%) had access to a home computer in 2005–06, compared with just 29% in February 1994.

Rising take-up rates fuelled by rapid technological progression and price deflation for many digital electronic devices is likely to

Proportion of all households with selected communication and recreational technologies

Selected technology	February 1994	February 1996	2000	2002	2005–06
	%	%	%	%	%
Mobile phone	n.a.	24.1	61.0	72.0	n.a.
Access to a home computer	29.4	36.0	53.0	61.0	70.0
Home internet access(a)	n.a.	3.9	32.0	46.0	60.0
Dedicated games machine(b)	17.8	15.9	32.0	32.0	n.a.
DVD player(c)	n.a.	n.a.	6.0	23.0	n.a.
Pay TV	n.a.	3.0	17.0	21.0	n.a.

(a) Access at any location in February 1996.

(b) Proportion using a dedicated games machine in February 1994 and February 1996.

(c) Excludes DVD drives in computers.

Source: *Australian Social Trends, 1999* (ABS cat. no. 4102.0); *Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, February 1996* (ABS cat. no. 8128.0), 2001–02 and 2005–06 editions (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

have underpinned the relatively large increase in real per capita consumption of goods for recreation and culture. When priced to constant quality, audio-visual and computing equipment prices fell by 74% (6.5% year after year on average) over the twenty year timespan.^{6,7}

Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on recreational and cultural services was 82% higher during 2005–06 than it had been in 1985–86, representing an increase of 3.0% per year throughout the period. Consumption of recreational and cultural services includes net losses from gambling, the current expenditure of private non-profit social clubs, admission charges to entertainment, and subscription to pay TV services.⁵ The proportion of households who had pay TV grew strongly between February 1996 (3%) and the year 2002 (21%).

Not all aspects of recreation and culture consumption rose strongly over recent decades. For example, per capita real household final consumption expenditure on books, papers, stationery and artists' goods was barely higher in 2005–06 (\$416) than in 1985–86 (\$406).

... furnishings and equipment

Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on furnishings and household equipment was 81% higher during 2005–06 than it had been 20 years earlier. This equates to average consumption volume growth of 3.0% per year during the period.

Many goods are covered by the broad category of furnishings and household equipment. Included is furniture, floor coverings, textiles, decorative ware, tools, utensils, non-durable items such as cleaning and maintenance products, and household appliances.⁵ Between 1994 and 2005, several major appliances became more commonplace in

Australian homes. The proportion of homes with a washing machine increased only marginally between June 1994 (94%) and March 2005 (96%) as almost every household had one in June 1994. There were more substantial rises over the same period in the proportion of homes with an air conditioner (33% to 60%), a dishwasher (25% to 42%) and two or more refrigerators in use (24% to 33%). An enabling factor in such increased rates of appliance ownership is that household appliances became more affordable between 1985–86 and 2005–06 (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Purchasing power, pp. 153–157).

... electricity, gas and other fuel

Residential energy consumption is partly determined by the number, type and amount of use of home appliances.⁸ The increased presence of numerous energy-consuming appliances in Australian homes, combined with the trend towards smaller households and their lower economy of scale in energy use, might be expected to have raised the level of per capita energy consumption in the household sector.

Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on electricity, gas and other fuel was 32% greater during 2005–06 than during 1985–86, increasing by an average of 1.4% each year throughout the period.

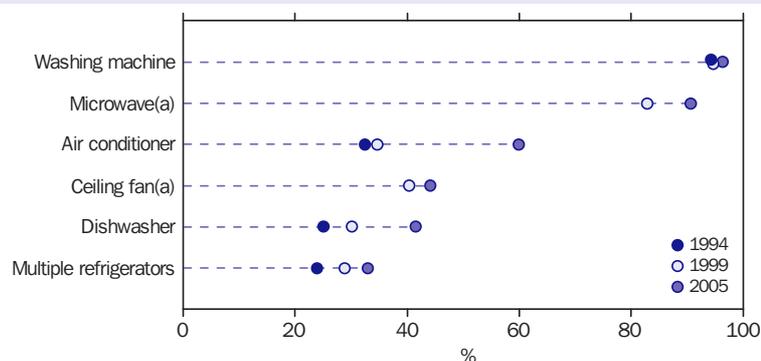
... financial services other than insurance

Household consumption of some services declined between 1985–86 and 2005–06. In contrast to the relatively strong growth in per capita real household final consumption expenditure on insurance services during this period (132% or 4.3% per year), there was an 8% decline (0.4% per year) in per capita real household final consumption expenditure on other financial services.

Household final consumption of financial services other than insurance comprises the direct and indirect service charges of financial institutions (e.g. account keeping fees, travellers' cheque commission, unit trust management fees, brokerage on share trading, fees for financial advice, and margin interest earned from borrowing and lending activity other than mortgages on dwellings owned by persons) together with government tax on financial transactions by households (e.g. financial institutions duty and stamp duty on trade in financial instruments).⁵

Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on financial services other than insurance was 8% lower in 2005–06 than it

Prevalence of selected appliances in Australian homes



(a) Data not collected in 1994.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, March 2005 (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

had been in 1985–86 (an average decline of 0.4% per year). This decline may be attributable to greater competition in the financial services industry following the deregulation of financial markets in the 1980s. It may also be due to changes in the business cycle. Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on financial services other than insurance dropped sharply during 1987–88, and continued to decline until 1993–94. This period encompasses the October 1987 stockmarket crash and the years of recession and high unemployment during the early 1990s.

The decline does not appear to represent a gradual movement away from consuming financial services other than insurance. Per capita real household final consumption expenditure on these services grew at the relatively rapid average annual rate of 4.9% between 1993–94 and 2005–06, a period of sustained strong economic growth.

... cigarettes and tobacco

The decline in the real value of personal outlays on tobacco products between 1985–86 and 2005–06 was fairly linear, and represented the continuation of a long-term trend which has prevailed since 1969–70.

There are several possible reasons for the observed reduction in the volume of per capita spending on tobacco. Findings from research into the health consequences of tobacco smoking, mandatory warnings on cigarette packets, advertising restrictions, health campaigns, and bans on smoking in enclosed spaces could be expected to have had some impact. Consumption may have

been further discouraged by tobacco products being much less affordable in 2005–06 than in 1985–86 (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Purchasing power, pp. 153–157).

Demographic change in the form of population ageing may have also contributed to lower tobacco consumption. The reason population ageing may have contributed is that older adults are less likely to smoke than younger adults,⁹ as the effects of smoking on personal health start to materialise with age.

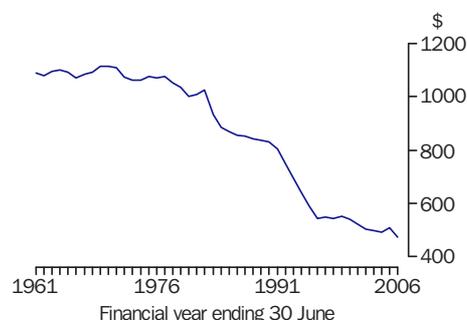
Impact of population ageing

Projected continuation of the ageing of the Australian population over coming decades could be expected to be accompanied by altered per capita consumption expenditure volumes for a range of goods and services. This is because the spending patterns of people tend to change as they grow older. Illustrations of how spending patterns generally change through the life cycle are provided in *Australian Social Trends 2006*, Household expenditure patterns by life cycle, pp. 160–165, and Household expenditure patterns, pp. 156–159.

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Treasury, 'Policy advice and Treasury's Wellbeing Framework' in *Economic Roundup*, Winter 2004.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Measures of Australia's Progress 2006*, cat. no. 1370.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1986, *Survey of Motor Vehicle Use, Twelve Months Ended 30 September 1985*, cat. no. 9208.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Survey of Motor Vehicle Use, 12 Months Ended 31 October 2005*, cat. no. 9208.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2000, *Australian System of National Accounts: Concepts, Sources and Methods 2000*, cat. no. 5216.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *Australian Consumer Price Index: Concepts, Sources and Methods 2005*, cat. no. 6461.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 7 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Consumer Price Index, Australia, September Quarter 2006*, cat. no. 6401.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 8 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2005*, cat. no. 4602.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 9 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Tobacco Smoking in Australia: A Snapshot, 2004–05*, cat. no. 4831.0.55.001, ABS, Canberra.

Real(a) per capita household final consumption expenditure on cigarettes and tobacco



(a) Chain volume measure; reference year is 2004–05.

Source: 2005–06 Australian System of National Accounts (ABS cat. no. 5204.0); Australian Historical Population Statistics, 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3105.0.65.001); Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2006 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

Low income low wealth households

The weekly equivalised expenditure on goods and services of relatively low income low wealth households averaged \$309, which was almost two-thirds (65%) the expenditure of middle expenditure households (\$472).

The most important economic resource for many households is a regular income, be it earned from a job or business, provided by the government as a pension or allowance, from superannuation or earned from other assets. Income, however, is not a perfect indicator of all economic resources available to a household. Many households also have access to wealth, such as bank accounts, shares, superannuation or property. Wealth is an important household resource in two ways. First, living costs can be financed for a limited period of time by running down cash reserves, borrowing against assets or selling assets outright. Secondly, some wealth can generate income such as rental income from an investment property or interest from savings accounts.

Households that have low levels of income as well as low levels of wealth have less opportunity to draw down on their wealth to finance everyday spending, and so are at a greater risk of economic disadvantage compared with low income higher wealth households. This article looks at the characteristics of households with both relatively low incomes and relatively low levels of wealth (low economic resources households). It also examines the level of household expenditure on goods and services and the presence of financial stress in households.

Low economic resources households

Increases in mean household income and mean household net worth over the last 9 years indicate that, overall, households have

Data sources and definitions

Data in this article are from the ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

A household's *income* comes from regular and recurring cash receipts including money from wages and salaries, government pensions and allowances, and other sources such as superannuation, child support, profit or loss from own unincorporated business or investment income. The *principal source of income (PSI)* is the source from which the most positive income is received. As households can have several sources of income, the principal source may account for less than 50% of total income.

A household's net worth, or *wealth*, at any point in time is the difference between the value of its assets and liabilities (see *Australian Social Trends 2006*, Components of household wealth, pp. 151–155).

Households with *low economic resources* are those households which are simultaneously in the lowest three equivalised income deciles and the lowest three equivalised net worth deciles. The balance of households, or *other households*, are all households which are not simultaneously in the lowest three equivalised deciles of both income and wealth. Low economic resources households and other households are mutually exclusive.

Throughout this analysis, income, wealth and expenditure of low economic resources households are compared with *middle expenditure households*. This group of households comprises those in the fifth and sixth deciles of equivalised household expenditure. Middle expenditure households are used as a comparison group as they are considered to be representative of households having a medium level of living standards.

benefited considerably from Australia's economic performance.¹ However, income and wealth are not evenly distributed and there will always be households placed relatively lower than others on the income and wealth distributions. In 2003–04, over one million households (14%) were simultaneously in the lowest three deciles of income and the lowest three deciles of wealth, referred to as low economic resources households. One out of every five children aged 0–14 years (21%, or 822,000 children) and one out of every nine people aged 15 years and over (11%, or 1.8 million people) lived in a low economic resources household.

Households by level of economic resources — 2003–04

	Low economic resources(a)		Other(b)		Total	
	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000
Persons	13.2	2 592	86.8	17 014	100.0	19 606
Aged 15 years and over	11.3	1 770	88.7	13 880	100.0	15 650
Aged 0–14 years	20.8	821.0	79.2	3 134	100.0	3 955
Households	13.6	1 050	86.4	6 685	100.0	7 735

(a) Households simultaneously in the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

(b) Households not simultaneously in the lowest three income and lowest three net worth deciles.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Low economic resources households: income, wealth and expenditure — 2003–04

		Low economic resources households(a)	Middle expenditure households(b)	All households
Mean weekly equivalised disposable household income	\$	262.35	535.85	548.91
Mean weekly equivalised household expenditure	\$	309.10	471.88	534.07
Mean equivalised net worth	\$'000	24.8	251.1	267.4
Households	'000	1 050.6	890.4	7 735.8

(a) Households simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

(b) Households in the fifth and sixth equivalised expenditure deciles.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

...income and wealth

A household's financial resources and its potential standard of living are related to its household characteristics, with income being a major indicator of the household's economic situation. In 2003–04, the mean weekly equivalised disposable household income for low economic resources households was \$262, which was less than half that of middle expenditure households (\$536). In terms of wealth, low economic resources households had an average equivalised net worth that was less than 10% of the average equivalised net worth of middle expenditure households (\$24,800 compared with \$251,100).

Equivalised income, wealth and expenditure

A household's needs are related to its size and composition. Larger households need greater income, wealth and expenditure for the same standard of living as smaller households, but larger households have economies arising through the sharing of benefits between household members, such as the accommodation, heating and other utilities.

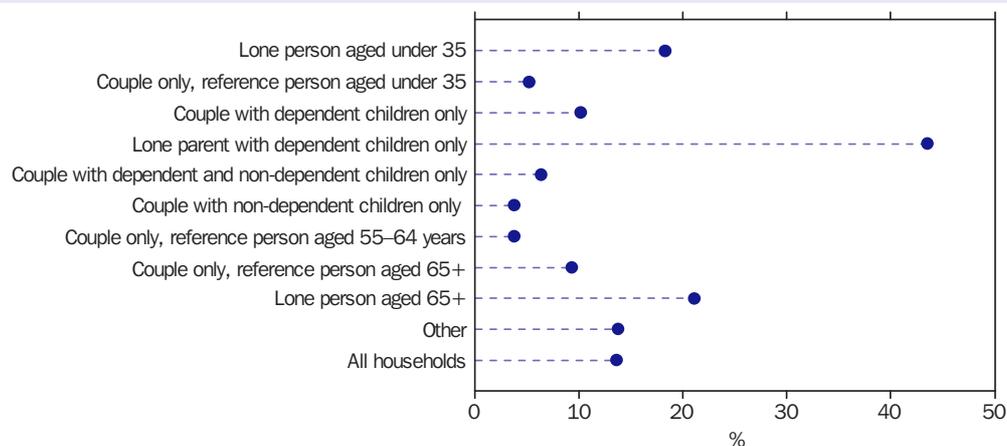
To make meaningful comparisons of living conditions, measures of household income, wealth and expenditure in this article are adjusted or *equivalised* to take account of differing household size and composition. To equivalise a household's income, wealth or expenditure, the dollar amount is divided by that household's *equivalence factor*. The equivalence factor is the sum of 'points' in the household where an equivalisation scale assigns: 1.0 point for the first (or only) adult, 0.5 points for each additional adult and 0.3 points for each child under the age of 15. The equivalised income, wealth or expenditure of a lone person household is the same as the unequivalised value. For households comprising more than one person, the equivalised value is less than the total unequivalised value but greater than the per capita share of the unequivalised value.

For more information on equivalence scales see *Household income and income distribution, Australia, 2003–04* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

....household composition

While 14% of households overall were classified as low economic resources households in 2003–04, the proportion was considerably higher among one parent family households and certain lone person households.

Low economic resources households as a proportion of households in each life cycle group — 2003–04



Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Selected household characteristics of low economic resources households — 2003–04

Household characteristic	Units	Low economic resources	Other	All households
		households(a)	households	
Median age of household reference person	years	43	48	47
Average number of persons	no.	2.5	2.5	2.5
Average number of employed persons	no.	0.4	1.4	1.2
Average weekly hours worked(b)	no.	10.5	51.7	46.1
Principal source of household income from wages and salaries	%	15.9	64.1	57.5
Principal source of household income from government pensions and allowance	%	77.9	19.9	27.7
Home owner(c)	%	14.4	78.7	70.0
Public housing	%	30.1	0.9	4.9
Private renter	%	45.0	17.4	21.2

(a) Households simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

(b) Total average hours worked by all household members in their main and second job.

(c) Comprises households who own their home with or without a mortgage.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

In 2003–04, 44% of all one parent family households with dependent children were living in low economic resources households. Furthermore, half (53%) of children living in one parent family households lived in low economic resources households.

In 2003–04, 18% of lone persons aged less than 35 years were in low economic resources households, as were about one-fifth (21%) of all older lone person households (persons aged 65 years and older). Older lone person households also comprised the greatest proportion of all lone person, low economic resources households, making up 40% (151,000) of these households.

Household compositions with the lowest proportions of low economic resources were couples with non-dependent children only (4%), older couples (with a reference person aged 55–64 years) only (4%) and younger couples without children (5%).

Certain types of household therefore predominated among low economic resources households. Lone person households and one parent family households together accounted for more than half of low economic resources households (36% and 22% respectively).

...labour force and employment status

In 2003–04, the average number of employed people in all low economic resources households was 0.4 people compared with 1.4 people in other households. This was partly due to the high proportion of lone person and one parent family households in the low economic resources group. Also, households comprised of older lone persons, older couples and lone parents were likely to contain people who were not in the labour force due to their retirement or caring responsibilities. These three types of households all had less than 0.2 people working, on average.²

...principal source of income

Consistent with the low levels of employed people in low economic resources households, 78% of low economic resources households had government pensions and allowances as their principal source of income, compared with 20% of other households. The vast majority (93%) of one parent family households within the low economic resources group relied on government pensions and allowances for their principal source of income, as did couples with a reference person aged 65 years and over (100%).

Expenditure patterns of low economic resources households

Society generally accepts that people have a right to a minimum standard of living, although there is no consensus about the minimum level of goods and services necessary or what level of expenditure would be required to help achieve a minimum level of consumption. However, a household's material standard of living can be analysed in relation to its expenditure on goods and services, keeping in mind that some households that have low levels of expenditure on goods and services may not consider themselves to be poor or deprived based on their wants and needs.

In 2003–04, the mean weekly equivalised household expenditure on goods and services for low economic resources households was \$309. These households spent two-thirds (65%) the average amount spent by middle expenditure households (\$472). Not surprisingly, the majority (86%) of low economic resources households were ranked in the bottom 30% of household equivalised expenditure (in addition to being in the bottom 30% of equivalised household income and wealth).

Lower income households with middle to higher wealth

In 2003–04, there were 1.1 million households both with incomes in the three lowest income deciles and wealth in the lowest three wealth deciles. There were a further 1.4 million households which also had income in the lowest three deciles, yet had wealth levels greater than that at the top of the third decile of wealth. The mean equivalised wealth in these latter households was \$343,000 per household, which was 14 times greater than the \$24,800 estimated for low economic resources households. These households also had a mean weekly equivalised disposable household income (\$256) that was similar to the income levels of low economic resources households (\$262). Yet their mean equivalised household expenditure on goods and services per week (\$392) was much higher than the expenditure of low economic resources households (\$309).

Housing, food and transport were the three broad expenditure groups that accounted for the largest proportions of household expenditure for both the low economic resources households and middle expenditure households in 2003–04. These three items accounted for about half of the total average equivalised household

Mean weekly equivalised household expenditure — 2003–04

Broad expenditure group	Low economic resources households(a)		Middle expenditure households(b)		All households	
	\$	%	\$	%	\$	%
Goods and services						
Current housing costs (selected dwelling)	71.28	23.1	75.54	16.0	84.39	15.8
Domestic fuel and power	11.34	3.7	13.92	2.9	13.98	2.6
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	64.33	20.8	91.63	19.4	92.71	17.4
Alcoholic beverages	4.74	1.5	13.12	2.8	13.46	2.5
Tobacco products	8.06	2.6	7.68	1.6	6.76	1.3
Clothing and footwear	11.75	3.8	19.03	4.0	21.85	4.1
Household furnishings and equipment	13.34	4.3	21.26	4.5	30.73	5.8
Household services and operation	21.96	7.1	31.06	6.6	32.74	6.1
Medical care and health expenses	8.11	2.6	24.62	5.2	26.80	5.0
Transport	35.61	11.5	67.27	14.3	83.19	15.6
Recreation	29.70	9.6	57.74	12.2	68.51	12.8
Personal care	4.73	1.5	9.51	2.0	10.28	1.9
Miscellaneous goods and services	24.14	7.8	39.50	8.4	48.66	9.1
Mean weekly equivalised expenditure on goods and services	309.10	100.0	471.88	100.0	534.07	100.0
Mean weekly equivalised disposable household income	262.35	..	535.85	..	548.91	..

(a) Households simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

(b) Households in the fifth and sixth equivalised expenditure deciles.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey.

expenditure on goods and services for low economic resources households (55%) and middle expenditure households (50%). In 2003–04, low economic resources households spent a greater proportion, on average, on housing costs (23%) than middle expenditure households (16%).

Transport costs accounted for a similar proportion (12%) of household expenditure for low economic resources households compared with middle expenditure households (14%). However, low economic resources households spent about half the amount spent on transport by middle expenditure households (\$36 and \$67 respectively).

Recreation accounted for 10% of total household expenditure on goods and services of low economic resources households. However, household expenditure on recreation for low economic resources households (\$30) was roughly half of the expenditure by middle expenditure households (\$58) on this item.

Although it is not possible to accurately measure household savings from the ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey, differences between income and expenditure are indicative of households' financial

sustainability and the likelihood of facing financial stress. In 2003–04, low economic resources households spent almost \$50 per week more on average, for goods and services than they earned through regular income, while the middle expenditure households had a weekly surplus of about \$64.

Indicators of financial stress

While low household income, wealth and expenditure suggest a low standard of living, further insights into the economic wellbeing of low economic resources households may be gained by examining subjective indicators of financial stress.

...ability to save income

The ability to save income was reported by 13% of low economic resources households, compared with 37% for all other households. Low economic resources households were also more likely to report spending more money than they received (28%) compared with other households (16%). Among low economic resources households, couples with non-dependent children and couples with dependent children only households had the lowest proportions able to save money most weeks (6% and 7% respectively). In contrast, older lone persons and older couples in low economic resources households had the highest proportion of households able to save money most weeks (28% and 23% respectively) and were less likely to spend more than they earn (13% and 7% respectively).

Selected indicators of financial stress(a) — 2003–04

Household experience	Low economic resources households(b)	Other households(c)	All households
	%	%	%
Unable to raise \$2000 for something important in a week	52.1	8.6	14.3
Could not pay electricity, gas or telephone bills on time	37.8	11.5	14.9
Could not pay for car registration or insurance on time	13.5	4.6	5.7
Pawned or sold something	11.7	2.3	3.5
Went without meals	11.8	1.8	3.1
Unable to heat home	8.9	1.2	2.3
Sought assistance from welfare/community organisations	14.7	1.2	2.9
Sought financial assistance from friends or family	26.4	7.8	10.3
	'000	'000	'000
Total households	1 050.6	6 685.2	7 735.8

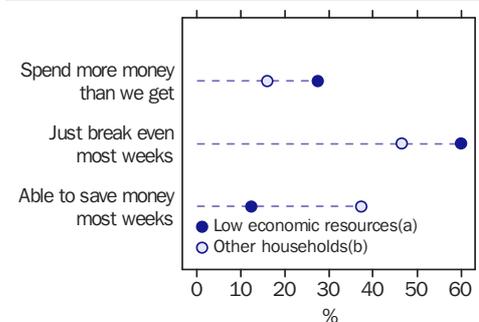
(a) Household's situation over the past 12 months due to lack of money.

(b) Households simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

(c) Households not simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey.

Management of household income — 2003–04



(a) Households simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

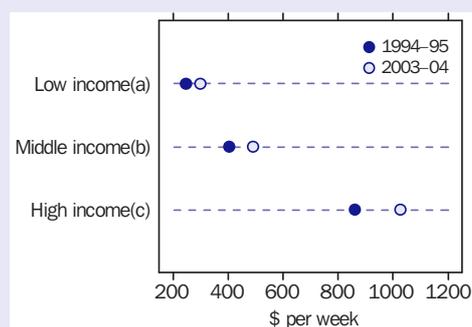
(b) Households not simultaneously in both the lowest three income deciles and the lowest three net worth deciles.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Household Expenditure Survey.

Income growth and distribution

Between 1994–95 and 2003–04, the mean real weekly equivalised disposable household income for all households rose from \$455 to \$549 – an increase of 21%. This proportional increase was similar for each of the low, middle and high income groups over this period, and it appears that there has been no significant change in income inequality from the mid-1990s to 2003–04.³

Mean real weekly equivalised disposable household income



- (a) Households in the second and third income deciles.
(b) Households in the fifth and sixth income deciles.
(c) Households in the ninth and tenth income deciles.

Source: *Household income and income distribution, Australia, 2003–04* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Changes in a household's circumstances, such as the loss of a family member or the gain or loss of employment, can affect peoples' relative position on the household income distribution scale. Panel studies, such as the Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) survey follow the same households over time and can provide insights into the income mobility of people, based on changes in their household income over time. For example, 71% of individuals who were in low income households in 2001 were also in low income households in 2003, with the remaining 29% of people moving out of the low income deciles. High income people had a slightly greater level of mobility with around one third (34%) of those in high income households in 2001 being in households with incomes less than the ninth decile in 2003. The most mobility occurred for people in the middle income households. Almost three-fifths (59%) of people who were in middle income households in 2001 had moved up (30%) or down (29%) the income scale by 2003.⁴

...ability to raise \$2,000

Although a household's ability to raise money to meet an emergency does not reflect a household's current financial situation, it may provide an indication of the ability of the household to cope in potential crisis. In 2003–04, half (52%) of all households in the low economic resources group reported that they could not raise \$2,000 in one week for something important, compared with 9% of other households.

...other indicators of financial stress

All other indicators of financial stress occurred in greater proportions among low economic resources households than other households in 2003–04. For example, 38% of low economic resources households reported that within the last 12 months they could not pay utility bills on time and 26% had sought financial assistance from friends or family, while for other households the proportions were 11% and 8% respectively.

Going without meals in the last 12 months due to a shortage of money was experienced by 12% of low economic resources households, compared with 2% among all other households.

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Australian System of National Accounts 2005–06*, cat. no. 5204.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing*, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2005, *Household income and income distribution, Australia, 2003–04*, cat. no. 6523.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Headey, B, Warren, D and Harding, G 2006, *Families, Incomes and Jobs, A Statistical Report of the HILDA survey*, Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, Melbourne, viewed 25 October 2006, <<http://www.melbourneinstitute.com/hilda/statreport/statreport2005.pdf>>.

Housing

	Page
National and state summary.....	172

Wealth in homes of owner-occupier households.....	179
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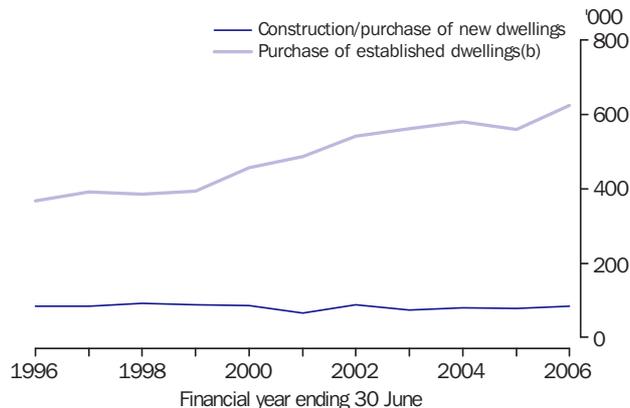
For households who own their own home (either with or without a mortgage), the dwelling itself is their major asset. As property prices increased dramatically over the last decade, so too has the equity in the homes of owner-occupier households. In addition to describing the increase in equity between 1994–95 and 2003–04, this article examines the distribution of home equity among households and looks at the levels of equity of recent first home buyers. Recent changes in the capital city house price index are also presented to give an up-to-date indication of the direction and magnitude of equity change since 2003–04.

Larger dwellings, smaller households.....	184
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The stock of Australia's dwellings is evolving, with current homes having more bedrooms on average than homes ten years ago. At the same time, households are getting smaller on average with decreasing proportions of couple families with children and increasing couple only and lone person households. This article examines the changes in household size and number of bedrooms from 1994–95 to 2003–04. It also looks at the types of households with spare bedrooms and the size of recently purchased new homes compared with existing stock.

Housing: national summary — key points

Number of purchases of new and established dwellings(a)



- In 1995–96, 367,000 established dwellings were purchased or refinanced in Australia. By 2005–06, the number of purchased or refinanced dwellings had increased to 624,000, representing a 70% increase from 1995–96.
- In 2005–06, there were 84,400 newly constructed and purchased dwellings. This is similar to 1995–96, when there were 83,000 newly constructed and purchased dwellings.

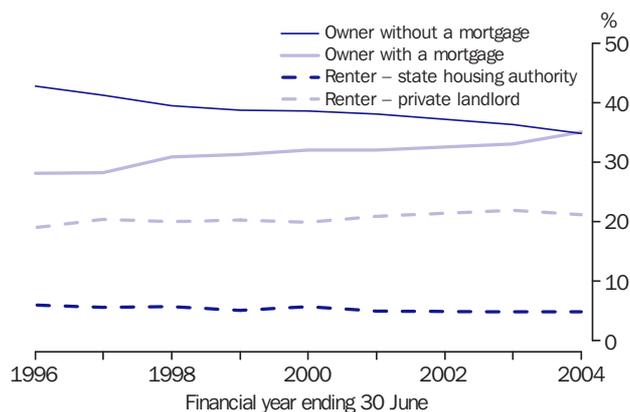
(a) Data include owner occupied housing only.

(b) Data include refinancing commitments.

Source: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Housing: national summary*, page 174, indicators 23 and 25.

Population by tenure and landlord type(a)(b)



- In 2004, 70% of all households owned their own homes. This is similar to the percentage of home owners in 1996 (71%).
- Between 1996 and 2004, the proportion of households who owned their own home without a mortgage decreased from 43% to 35%, while those who owned their own home with a mortgage increased from 28% to 35%.
- In 2004, the proportion of households renting a state housing authority property was 5%, while 21% of households rented privately. The proportion renting privately in 2004 was a slight increase from the level in 1996 (19%).

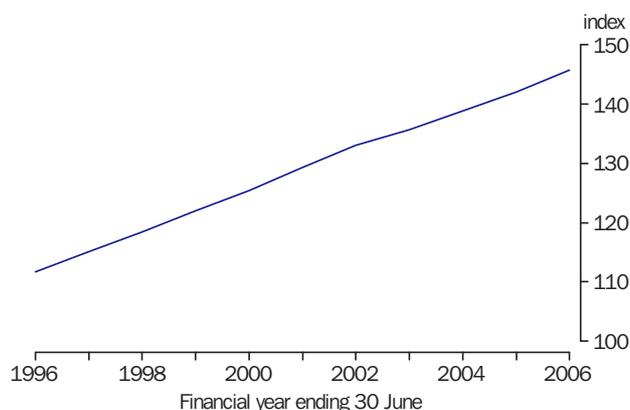
(a) Data not available for 2002.

(b) Data for 1999 at September–December.

Source: ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey; ABS Survey of Income and Housing.

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Housing: national summary*, page 174, indicators 11–14.

Rental cost index(a)



- The rental cost index measures changes in the average rent paid by private households.
- In 1995–96, the rental cost index was 111.7. By 2005–06, the index had increased to 145.7.
- Rental costs grew by an average of 2.6% per year over the ten year period.

(a) Base of index: 1989–90=100.

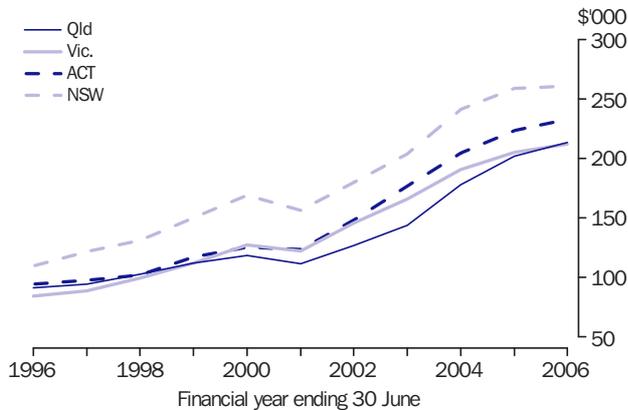
Source: *Consumer Price Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends, Housing: national summary*, page 174, indicator 17.

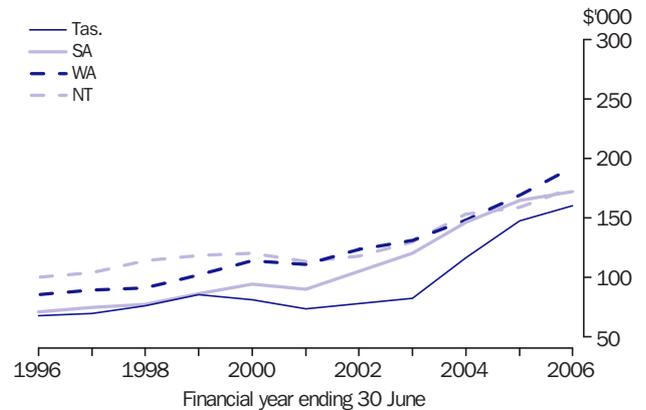
Housing: state summary — key points

Average loan for first home buyers by state(a)

HIGHEST AVERAGE HOME LOAN



LOWEST AVERAGE HOME LOAN



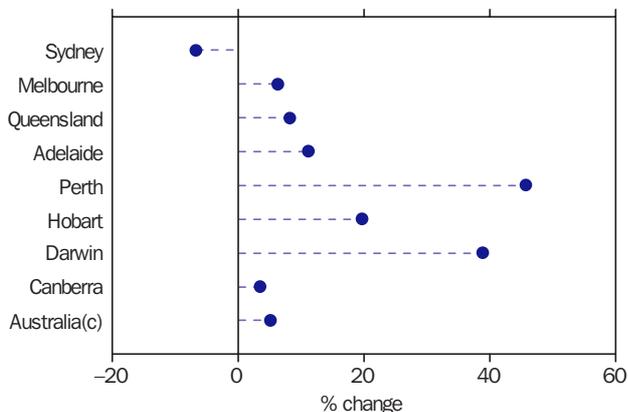
(a) Measured at original prices.

Source: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Housing, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 19 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

- Between 1995–96 and 2005–06, the average amount of money first home buyers borrowed in order to purchase their first home increased in all states and territories.
- New South Wales first home buyers consistently borrowed more money to purchase their first home than in any other state or territory. In 2005–06, they borrowed an average of \$261,000, which is \$100,500 more than those in Tasmania (\$160,500), the state with the lowest average first home loan in 2005–06.
- Over the ten years to 2005–06, Victoria recorded the largest growth in the amount of money being borrowed by first home buyers (152% increase), followed by the Australian Capital Territory (147% increase) and South Australia (142%).

Established house price index — percentage change between 2003–04 and 2005–06(a)(b)



(a) Data refer to the financial year ending June.

(b) Base of index: 2003–04=100.

(c) Data refer to the weighted average of the 8 state capital cities.

Source: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Housing, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 21 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

- Between 2003–04 and 2005–06, Perth experienced a 46% growth in established house prices. This is the largest growth experienced by any Australian capital city over this time period.
- Darwin also recorded high growth with a 39% increase in established house prices.
- Since the 2003–04 financial year, the only capital city to have experienced a drop in established house prices was Sydney, with a 6.7% decrease in the established house price index.

Housing: national summary

HOUSING STOCK		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1	Number of occupied private dwellings(a)	'000	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 367	7 506	7 645	7 784	7 921	8 058
2	Public sector dwellings completed	'000	r6.9	r6.1	r4.6	5.4	4.8	r3.9	r3.7	r3.4	r3.8	r3.4	3.7
3	Private sector dwellings completed	'000	r132.0	r115.7	r130.6	r140.3	r153.9	r133.0	r131.0	r151.7	r154.2	r157.2	152.0
Dwelling structure – selected(b)													
4	Separate house	%	79.7	80.0	79.4	79.5	79.4	78.1	n.a.	77.7	80.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
5	Semidetached	%	7.9	7.8	8.6	8.9	9.8	9.9	n.a.	10.2	8.3	n.a.	n.y.a.
6	Flat	%	11.7	11.5	11.5	11.1	10.0	11.3	n.a.	11.4	11.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
Housing utilisation													
7	Average persons per household	no.	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	n.a.	2.5	2.5	n.a.	n.y.a.
8	Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	n.a.	3.0	3.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(c)		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
11	Owner without a mortgage	%	42.8	41.3	39.5	38.8	38.6	38.2	n.a.	36.4	34.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
12	Owner with a mortgage	%	28.1	28.3	30.9	31.3	32.1	32.1	n.a.	33.1	35.1	n.a.	n.y.a.
13	Renter – state housing authority	%	6.0	5.6	5.8	5.1	5.8	5.0	n.a.	4.9	4.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
14	Renter – private landlord	%	19.0	20.4	20.0	20.3	19.9	21.0	n.a.	22.0	21.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
HOUSING COSTS		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Rental													
15	Mean weekly public rent	\$	62	66	62	68	71	73	n.a.	81	84	n.a.	n.y.a.
16	Mean weekly private rent	\$	149	154	157	167	166	173	n.a.	189	198	n.a.	n.y.a.
17	Rental cost index(d)	index no.	111.7	115.1	118.5	122.0	125.4	129.3	133.1	135.7	138.9	142.0	145.7
Construction/purchase													
18	Housing interest rate	%	10.3	8.3	6.7	6.6	7.0	7.6	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.1	7.3
19	First home buyers – average loan(e)(f)	\$'000	92.2	98.8	106.5	r119.8	r132.9	r125.1	145.1	r162.1	r191.4	209.6	220.1
20	Project home price index(g)(h)	index no.	r70.8	r70.6	r71.3	r73.1	r78.0	r87.2	r89.2	r93.1	r100.0	r106.1	110.3
21	Established house price index(g)(h)(i)	index no.	n.a.	r86.6	r100.0	r101.2	105.1						
22	Materials used in house building price index(d)(j)	index no.	115.7	116.1	118.2	119.5	122.8	124.4	126.0	130.5	134.3	138.8	142.0
Finance commitments(f)													
Construction/purchase of new dwellings													
23	Number	'000	83.0	84.8	92.0	87.2	86.5	64.8	88.3	74.0	80.5	77.5	84.4
24	Value	\$m	8 076	8 943	10 800	11 554	12 701	9 602	14 137	13 573	16 720	17 294	19 782
Purchase of established dwellings(k)													
25	Number	'000	366.5	392.5	384.7	394.5	455.6	486.0	541.3	560.8	579.8	559.7	624.3
26	Value	\$m	35 414	40 676	43 375	49 342	61 577	64 558	82 613	94 796	110 912	116 371	135 240
27	Value for alterations and additions	\$m	3 509	3 039	2 779	2 821	3 321	3 108	4 083	5 350	6 703	5 761	5 555
HOUSING ASSISTANCE		Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
28	Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	392.6	400.3	380.8	386.2	363.0	359.3	354.1	348.0	345.3	343.3	341.4
29	Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	236.2	221.4	217.9	183.8	213.0	221.6	223.3	208.1	204.2	203.9	186.9
30	Applicants accommodated	'000	51.0	46.8	42.1	40.5	41.4	39.7	36.9	33.4	31.0	27.8	27.5
31	Income units receiving private rental assistance	'000	n.a.	986.6	910.6	963.8	941.3	976.3	943.9	940.7	949.7	r965.2	956.2
32	Mean fortnightly rental assistance received	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	62	69	73	75	78	r81	83
33	Mean fortnightly rent paid by rental assistance recipients	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	225	239	253	264	277	r293	307

(a) Data for 1996–2000 are household estimates based on 1996 Census data; data for 2001 are household estimates based on 2001 Census data. Data from 2002 onwards are household projections series II based on 2001 Census data.

(b) Components do not total 100% because other dwellings are not included.

(c) Components do not total 100% because other renters (paying rent to the manager of a caravan park, an employer, a housing cooperative, or a church or community group), as well as other types of tenure (rent free and others), are not included.

(d) Base of each index: 1989–90=100.

(e) Measured at original prices.

(f) Data include owner occupied housing only.

(g) Data refer to the weighted average of the 8 state and territory capital cities.

(h) Base of each index: 2003–04=100.

(i) Data for this index only available from 2003 due to changes in methodology. Data for previous years can be found in AST 2006 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0)

(j) Data refer to the weighted average of 6 state capital cities, excluding Darwin and Canberra.

(k) Data include refinancing commitments.

Reference periods: All data are for year ended 30 June except:

Data for indicators 1 and 28–29 are at June 30.

Data for indicators 4–8, 11–16 vary according to the timing of the surveys within each year.

Data for indicators 31–33: for 1998, March; all other years are for a date in June.

Housing: state summary

HOUSING STOCK												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
1	Number of occupied private dwellings	'000	2006	2 643	1 976	1 583	649	806	203	67	130	8 058
2	Public sector dwellings completed	'000	2005-06	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.7
3	Private sector dwellings completed	'000	2005-06	35.3	42.2	37.7	10.1	20.7	2.6	1.0	2.4	152.0
Dwelling structure – selected(b)												
4	Separate house	%	2003-04	76.6	80.3	82.1	81.8	83.5	88.1	74.0	77.7	80.0
5	Semidetached	%	2003-04	7.6	9.2	5.1	12.0	12.5	5.3	*7.5	10.6	8.3
6	Flat	%	2003-04	15.4	10.3	11.8	5.6	3.5	6.2	18.1	11.2	11.2
Housing utilisation												
7	Average persons per household	no.	2003-04	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.5
8	Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	2003-04	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.3	2.9	2.9	3.2	3.0
9	Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements	%	2003-04	39.3	39.7	43.4	42.4	51.3	41.1	32.2	49.0	41.8
10	Households with insufficient bedrooms	%	2003-04	3.4	2.8	2.7	2.2	1.5	*1.4	4.2	**0.6	2.7
TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(c)												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
11	Owner without a mortgage	%	2003-04	35.4	38.9	31.6	34.9	31.2	38.4	17.1	31.8	34.9
12	Owner with a mortgage	%	2003-04	33.2	36.4	33.8	37.6	38.1	33.8	42.1	35.8	35.1
13	Renter – state housing authority	%	2003-04	5.1	3.7	4.3	7.8	4.0	7.1	10.6	9.2	4.9
14	Renter – private landlord	%	2003-04	22.4	17.9	25.6	16.2	21.9	16.4	20.9	19.8	21.2
HOUSING COSTS												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
Rental												
15	Mean weekly public rent	\$	2003-04	91	84	77	79	80	71	95	92	84
16	Mean weekly private rent	\$	2003-04	231	187	186	158	167	127	211	257	198
17	Rental cost index(d)(e)	index no.	2006	149.6	143.6	139.3	146.3	129.5	139.7	134.3	154.7	145.7
Construction/purchase												
19	First home buyers – average loan(f)(g)	\$'000	2006	261.0	212.1	213.8	172.2	192.5	160.5	175.5	232.9	220.1
20	Project home price index(e)(h)	index no.	2006	107.7	105.9	107.4	106.2	130.3	116.8	119.8	105.4	110.3
21	Established house price index(e)(h)	index no.	2006	93.3	106.4	108.2	111.2	145.7	119.7	138.8	103.5	105.1
22	Materials used in house building price index(d)(e)	index no.	2006	149.5	137.0	140.8	145.8	136.0	151.0	n.a.	n.a.	142.0
Finance commitments(g)												
Construction/purchase of new dwellings												
23	Number	'000	2006	18.0	22.5	17.4	6.6	16.8	1.5	0.8	0.9	84.4
24	Value	\$m	2006	5 062	5 166	4 257	1 273	3 382	257	162	223	19 782
Purchase of established dwellings(i)												
25	Number	'000	2006	186.5	135.2	135.8	51.2	89.2	12.0	7.3	6.9	624.3
26	Value	\$m	2006	47 255	28 515	29 037	84 59	17 168	1 857	1 368	1 582	135 240
27	Value for alterations and additions	\$m	2006	1 720	1 020	1 194	585	747	167	38	84	5 555
HOUSING ASSISTANCE												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
28	Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	2006	123.3	64.8	49.6	44.8	31.0	11.7	5.4	10.9	341.4
29	Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	2006	58.2	41.1	37.2	27.9	13.1	3.4	2.4	3.6	186.9
30	Applicants accommodated	'000	2005-06	8.7	5.5	4.6	2.9	3.1	1.1	0.7	0.8	27.5
31	Income units receiving private rental assistance	'000	2006	324.6	209.9	232.6	68.5	82.2	24.5	5.4	8.1	956.2
32	Mean fortnightly rental assistance received	\$	2006	84	82	85	81	82	83	83	78	83
33	Mean fortnightly rent paid by rental assistance recipients	\$	2006	320	291	320	279	287	269	313	335	307

(a) Estimates for dwelling structure, housing utilisation, tenure type and mean weekly public and private rent for Northern Territory relate to mainly urban areas only.

(b) Components do not total 100% because other dwellings are not included.

(c) Tenure and landlord types do not total 100% because other renters (paying rent to the manager of a caravan park, an employer, a housing cooperative, or a church or community group), as well as other types of tenure (rent free and others), are not included.

(d) Base of each index: 1989-90=100.

(e) State and territory data refer to capital cities only.

(f) Measured at original prices.

(g) Data include owner occupied housing only.

(h) Base of each index: 2003-04=100.

(i) Data include refinancing commitments.

Reference periods: All data are for year ended 30 June except:
Data for indicators 1 and 28-29 are at June 30.
Data for indicators 31-33 are for a date in June.

Housing: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1	Data for 1996 to 2001 from <i>Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter</i> , (ABS cat. no. 3101.0); data for 2002 onwards from <i>Household and Family Projections, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3236.0).
2–3	<i>Building Activity, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 8752.0), Time series spreadsheets, Tables 37–38.
4–16	ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey; ABS Surveys of Income and Housing.
17	<i>Consumer Price Index, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).
18	Reserve Bank of Australia, <i>Indicator Lending Rates – F5</i> , viewed 3 April 2007, < http://www.rba.gov.au/statistics/bulletin/F05hist.xls >.
19, 23–27	<i>Housing Finance, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).
20–21	<i>House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities</i> (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).
22	<i>Producer Price Indexes, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6427.0).
28–30	Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision, <i>Report on Government Services 2007</i> , viewed 3 April 2007, < http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/reports/rogs/2007/housing/attachment16.pdf >.
31–33	Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs administrative data.

Housing: definitions

Alterations and additions

covers all approved structural and non-structural changes which are integral to the functional and structural design of the dwelling, e.g. garages, carports, pergolas, re-roofing, re-cladding etc., but excluding swimming pools, ongoing repairs, landscaping, and maintenance and home improvements not involving building work.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Applicants accommodated

the number of public rental applicants (households) accommodated in a year.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement national data reports 2002–2005, Public rental housing*.

Applicants on housing waiting lists

the number of applicants (households) waiting for public rental accommodation on 30 June.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement national data reports 2002–2005, Public rental housing*.

Average number of bedrooms per dwelling

the average number of bedrooms in occupied private dwellings.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Average number of persons per household

the average number of usual residents in occupied private dwellings.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Canadian National Occupancy Standard

for housing appropriateness, measures the bedroom requirements of a household by specifying that: there should be no more than two people per bedroom; children less than five years of age of different sexes may reasonably share a bedroom; children less than 18 years of age and of the same sex may reasonably share a bedroom; and single household members 18 years and over should have a separate bedroom, as should parents or couples.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Construction of dwelling

represents commitments made to individuals to finance, by way of progress payments, the construction of owner-occupied dwellings.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Established dwelling

is a dwelling which has been completed for 12 months or more prior to the lodgement of a loan application, or which has been previously occupied.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Established house price index

measures changes in the price of detached residential dwellings on their own block of land, regardless of age (i.e. including new houses sold as a house/land package as well as established houses) expressed as an index, with base year 2003–04=100.0. Price changes therefore relate to changes in the total price of dwelling and land.

Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

Finance commitments

firm offers to provide finance for owner-occupation or alterations and additions which have been, or are normally expected to be, accepted. Commitments to provide housing finance to employees and commitments accepted and cancelled in the same month are included. Owner-occupied dwellings being purchased can be either established (completed for more than 12 months or previously occupied) or new (completed for less than 12 months with the borrower being the first occupant).

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

First home buyers: average loan size

first home buyers are people entering the home ownership market for the first time. Their average loan is calculated by dividing the total value of lending commitments per month by the total number of dwellings financed per month.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Flat, unit or apartment

includes all self-contained dwellings in blocks of flats, units or apartments. These dwellings do not have their own private grounds and usually share a common entrance foyer or stairwell. This category includes houses converted into flats and flats attached to houses such as granny flats. A house with a granny flat attached is regarded as a separate house.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Household

a group of related or unrelated people who usually live in the same private dwelling or a lone person living in a private dwelling.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Housing: definitions continued

Households with insufficient bedrooms

households living in dwellings that do not have enough bedrooms to meet the requirements of community standards. See Canadian National Occupancy Standard.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements

households which have at least two bedrooms above that required to meet the Canadian National Occupancy Standard.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Housing interest rate

the financial year annual average of the interest rate applicable on the last working day of each month to standard variable rate loans for owner-occupation extended by large bank housing lenders. It is the predominant or representative rate of major banks, although some banks may quote higher or lower rates.

Reference: *Reserve Bank of Australia, Bulletin*.

Income units receiving private rental assistance

families or individuals who pay rent or similar payments for private accommodation and receive a rental assistance payment from the government. Rental assistance may be payable to pensioners without children, families receiving above the minimum family payment and people already receiving a government allowance or benefit.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

Materials used in house building price index

measures changes in prices of selected materials used in the construction of dwellings expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0. Data for national total are a weighted average of the six state capital cities.

Reference: *Producer Price Indexes* (ABS cat. no. 6427.0).

Mean rental assistance received

average rental assistance received fortnightly by eligible social security customers who pay rent in the private rental market.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

Mean rent paid by rental assistance recipients

the average rent paid fortnightly by social security customers who receive rental assistance.

Reference: Department of Families, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

New dwelling

is a dwelling that has been completed within 12 months of the lodgement of a loan application, and the borrower will be the first occupant.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Occupied private dwellings

the premises occupied by a household. For population estimation purposes, the total number of occupied private dwellings is treated as being equal to the total number of households of the usually resident population.

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

Other dwelling

includes caravans, houseboats, or houses or flats attached to a shop or other commercial premises.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Owner with a mortgage

a household in which at least one member owes an amount on a mortgage or loan secured against the dwelling. Includes people who have an outstanding mortgage amount but who are not making any payments.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Owner without a mortgage

a household in which at least one member owns the dwelling and does not owe any amount on a mortgage or loan secured against the dwelling. Includes people who have repaid a mortgage or loan but have not formally discharged the associated mortgage.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Private/public sector dwellings completed

when building activity has progressed to the stage where the building can fulfil its intended function. The ABS regards buildings as completed when notified as such by the respondents (builders) to the survey. Includes new residential buildings, i.e. houses, blocks of flats, home units, attached townhouses, etc., and conversions of non-residential buildings to residential buildings. Dwellings are classified into private and public sector ownership, according to the sector of the intended owner of the completed building as evident at the time of approval.

Reference: *Building Activity, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 8752.0).

Project home price index

measures changes in the price of dwellings available for construction on a client's block of land expressed as an index, with base year 2003–04=100.0. Price changes therefore relate only to the price of the dwelling (excluding land).

Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

Public sector rental dwelling stock

those rental dwellings held by State and Territory Housing Authorities.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Housing Assistance Act 1996 Annual Report*.

Refinancing

For investment housing finance, represents a commitment to refinance an existing loan. For secured housing finance for owner occupation, only those loans where the refinancing lender is not the original lender and the security is unchanged are included. The refinancing of a loan to fund a change of residence is treated as a new lending commitment.

Reference: *Housing Finance, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Rental cost index

measures changes in the average rent paid by private households for privately and government owned rental properties, expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0.

Reference: *Consumer Price Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).

Renter: private landlord

a household paying rent to a landlord who is: a real estate agent; a parent or other relative not in the same household; or another person not in the same household.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Renter: state housing authority

a household paying rent to a state or territory housing authority or trust.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Semidetached, row or terrace house or townhouse

a dwelling with its own private grounds and no dwelling above or below. A key feature is that they are attached in some structural way to one or more dwellings, or separated from neighbouring dwellings by less than half a metre. Examples include semi-detached, row or terrace houses, townhouses and villa units.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Separate house

a dwelling which is self-contained and separated from other houses (or other buildings or structures) by a space to allow access on all sides (of at least one-half metre). This category also includes houses with an attached flat (e.g. granny flat). The attached flat will be included in the flat, unit or apartment category.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Wealth in homes of owner-occupier households

In 2003–04, owner-occupier households had on average \$297,000 net equity in their homes, up 68% on the 1994–95 average.

Housing is a key component of individual and family wellbeing. In addition to being a place where family and friends can gather, housing is important for a sense of security and privacy. One significant aspect of security is the wealth in the homes of owner occupiers.

The wealth of households increases as the wealth (or equity) in the homes of owner occupiers increases through paying off outstanding housing loans, and/or as property values rise. In 2003–04, the primary residence was, on average, the most valuable asset of owner-occupier households, with the net value of owned homes accounting for an average of 55% of the net worth of those households.

This article analyses the change in the level of equity in owner-occupied dwellings, for owners both with and without a housing mortgage, over the 1994–95 to 2003–04 period. Changes in the house price index are also examined to give a capital city picture of recent trends in dwelling values.

Trends in home equity

In 2003–04, 70% of households owned their homes either with or without a housing mortgage, around the same proportion as in 1994–95 (71%). Despite the proportion of owner-occupied homes being owned without a housing mortgage declining over that period (from 60% to 55%), the level of home equity among owner-occupier households has increased markedly in real terms. In 2003–04, the mean equity of all owner-occupied homes

Data sources and definitions

The majority of data in this article are drawn from the ABS 1994–95 and 2003–04 Surveys of Income and Housing (SIH). Dollar values from SIH prior to 2003–04 have been adjusted to 2003–04 prices.

An *owner-occupier* household is a household in which at least one member owns the dwelling in which they reside, either with or without a housing mortgage on that dwelling.

Equity in the dwelling is defined in this article as the value of the dwelling (i.e. estimated sale price) minus the amount owing on any housing mortgages or loans with the primary purpose of buying or building, or adding to or altering the dwelling, or for other housing purposes. It does not include amounts owing on mortgages that are only for other purposes such as consumption or investment. The estimated sale price of dwellings was provided by owners in the SIH and estimates may differ from valuations by accredited valuers or the actual sale price.

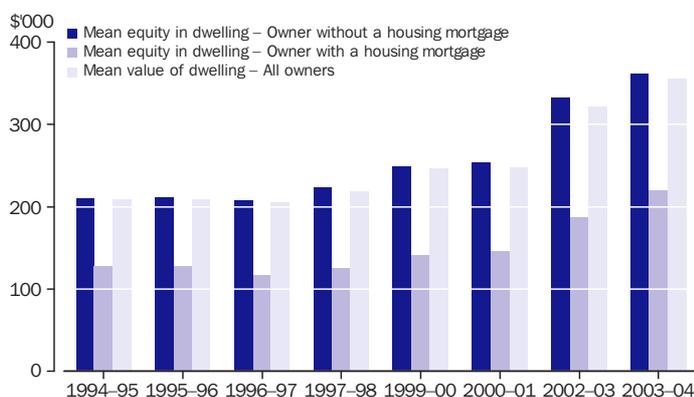
The equity, debt and value of dwellings measures in this article refer to the primary residence of each household. These measures are restricted to owner-occupier households only, where owners may be outright owners or owners with a housing mortgage.

was \$297,000, up 68% on the 1994–95 level (\$177,000). For owners without a housing mortgage in 2003–04, the mean home equity increased to \$361,000 (up 72% from \$210,000 in 1994–95), while for those with a housing mortgage, the mean equity increased to \$220,000 (up 72% from \$128,000 in 1994–95).

The increase in home equity over the period is due to the increase in the estimated value of dwellings, which has been only slightly offset by the rising cost of mortgages. Between 1994–95 and 2003–04 the mean estimated value of owner-occupied homes in Australia increased in real terms from \$209,000 to \$355,000, an average growth of 6% per year. The mean estimated value of homes held by households who had a housing mortgage (\$348,000) was lower than those who owned their homes outright (\$361,000).

The average amount of principal owed on the homes of owners with a housing mortgage increased by 61% between 1994–95 and 2003–04, less than the 72% increase in equity over the period. The slower rate of increase in the principal outstanding on homes owned with a housing mortgage is in part a reflection

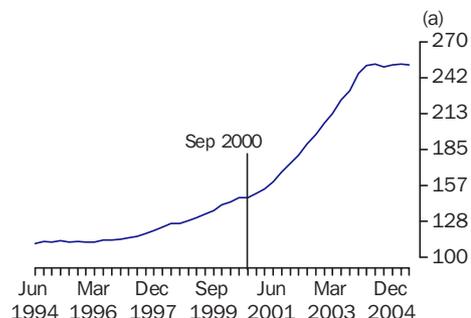
Mean equity in and estimated value of dwelling(a) by owner type



(a) Adjusted to 2003–04 prices.

Source: ABS Surveys of Income and Housing.

Established house price index, June 1994–June 2005



(a) Base year for index: 1989–90 = 100.

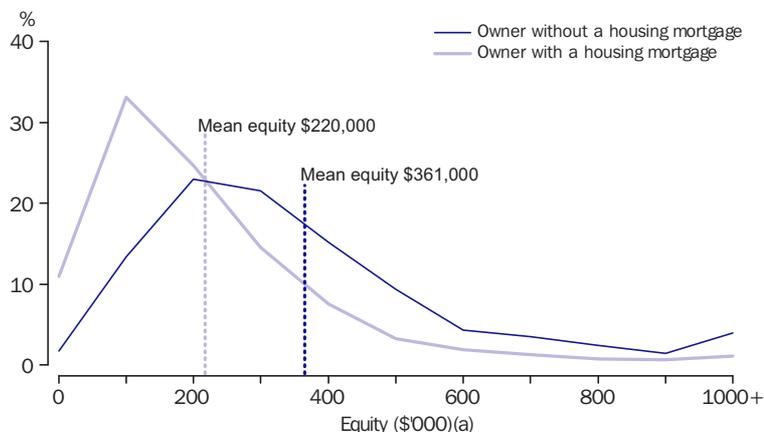
Source: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

of the fact that most (85%) home owners with a housing mortgage in 2003–04 bought either their current or a previous home before September 2000. After this date the annual rate of increase in the established house price index increased sharply for around three years.

Distribution of equity

As with overall household wealth, the level of equity that owner-occupier households have in their homes is not evenly distributed across households. In 2003–04, 41% of all households had less than \$200,000 in home equity, while 23% had equity of more than \$400,000.

Owner-occupier households: distribution of home equity — 2003–04



(a) Equity plotted in \$100,000 ranges where the data point represents the midpoint of each range.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Established house price index

The established house price index (EHPI) data are from *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0). The EHPI provides a measure of price change for the stock of established houses, including the land component, in the eight capital cities. It is expressed as an index, with a selected base year set to 100.0. Differences in the price in subsequent years from the price in the base year are expressed as an index number equivalent to 100 plus or minus the percentage change from the base year. Price changes therefore relate to changes in the total price of both the dwelling and the land.

It is important to note that the EHPI can only be used to compare the rate of change in prices among capital cities and not differences in the price levels. In this article, movements in the EHPI are calculated and presented as a percentage change. Percentage change is used to compare movements in house prices that are independent of the level of the index.

For more information on how the house price index is derived and what it means, see *A Guide to House Price Indexes, Australia, 2006* (ABS cat. no. 6464.0).

More than half (58%) of owners with housing mortgages had home equity of less than \$200,000, compared to just over a quarter (27%) of owners without housing mortgages. Very few owners with a housing mortgage (2%) had home equity of \$750,000 or more, compared with 8% of owners without a housing mortgage.

...across age groups

Because older people are more likely to have paid off a greater proportion of their mortgage or be outright owners than younger people, equity tends to increase with age. In 2003–04, younger households (with a reference person aged less than 35 years) were the least likely of all age groups of home owners to own their home without a housing mortgage, with 12% being outright owners. Households with a reference person aged under 35 years also had the lowest mean equity of all age groups (\$164,000). Those in the 55–64 years group had the second highest rate of outright ownership (78%) and the highest mean equity (\$365,000). In the older age group (aged 65 years and over) the relationship between increasing age and mean equity did not hold. Despite having the highest level of outright home ownership at 97%, the mean equity for older householders was \$342,000, \$23,000 less than the 55–64 years group.

The lower equity in their homes of households with a reference person aged 65 years and over reflects the lower value of their dwellings on average. This may be related to

the smaller size of their dwellings (averaging 2.8 bedrooms, compared with the average of 3.0 for all households) and also the higher proportion of home owners of this age living outside the capital cities (42% compared with 37% for all other home owner households).

For owners with a housing mortgage, younger households aged under 35 years had the lowest mean equity of \$147,000, while households aged 65 years and over had the highest mean equity at \$310,000.

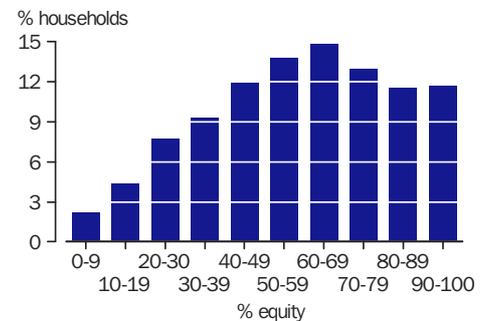
Among owners without a housing mortgage, the lowest mean equity (\$286,000) was in the households with a reference person aged less than 35 years, while the highest was in the age group 55–64 years (\$390,000). In the older population (aged 65 years and over), mean equity was less (\$343,000) than for all other age groups older than 35 years.

Relative equity and gearing

While the value of equity in the home has increased considerably for owner-occupier households in real terms over the period from 1994–95 to 2003–04, the amount of equity relative to the estimated value of the home (i.e. relative equity) has remained largely unchanged. In 2003–04, owner-occupier households held an average equity of 81% of their homes' estimated value, compared with 82% in 1994–95.

The relative equity for owners with a housing mortgage increased slightly, from an average of 57% in 1994–95 to 59% in 2003–04. Nearly two-thirds (65%) of home owners with a housing mortgage in 2003–04 held more than 50% of the estimated value of their home in equity, 12% held at least 90% relative equity, while 2% held less than 10% relative equity.

Owners with a housing mortgage: distribution of relative equity in home — 2003–04



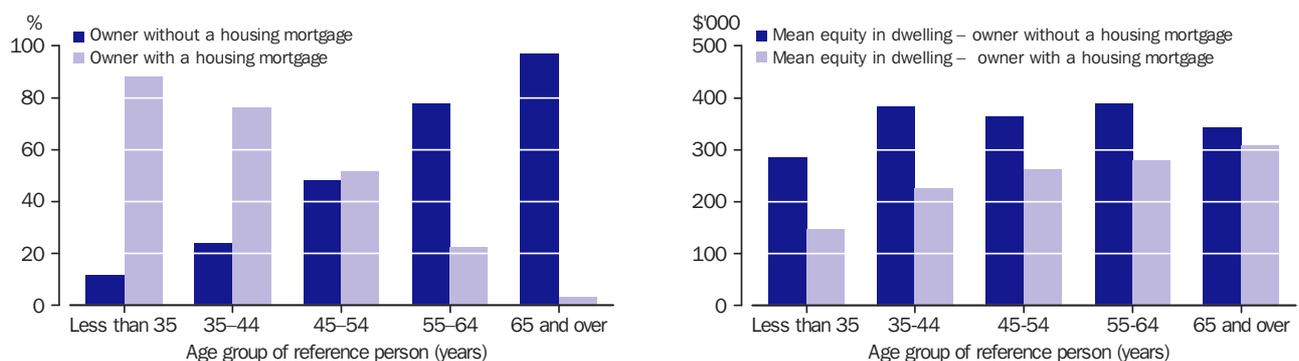
Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

A related concept to relative equity is property gearing, or mortgage debt as a proportion of home value. In 2003–04, the average gearing across all owner-occupier households was 19%. However, for the 45% of owner households with a housing mortgage, the average gearing was 41%. As expected, the younger households (aged under 35 years) with a housing mortgage had higher average gearing of 54%, and older households (aged 65 years and over) with a housing mortgage averaged 17%.

...recent first home buyers

There were 394,000 recent first home buyers in 2003–04, that is, households that purchased their first home within three years prior to the date of interview. All of these households purchased their first home after mid 2000 and 94% held a housing mortgage. Despite the less favourable market for first home buyers, these recent first home buyers with a housing mortgage in 2003–04 had mean equity in their homes of \$102,000. Their homes had an estimated mean value of \$266,000, giving them an average 37% equity

Owner occupier households: Age, tenure type and mean equity — 2003–04



Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Dwelling equity and values for recent first home buyers(a) with a housing mortgage

	1994–95(b)	2003–04
Equity (\$'000)	57.7	101.9
Equity (%)	30.1	37.1
Estimated home value (\$'000)	170.4	266.3
Households ('000)	175.5	370.2

(a) Recent first home buyers are households that purchased their first home in the 3 years before interview.

(b) Adjusted to 2003–04 prices.

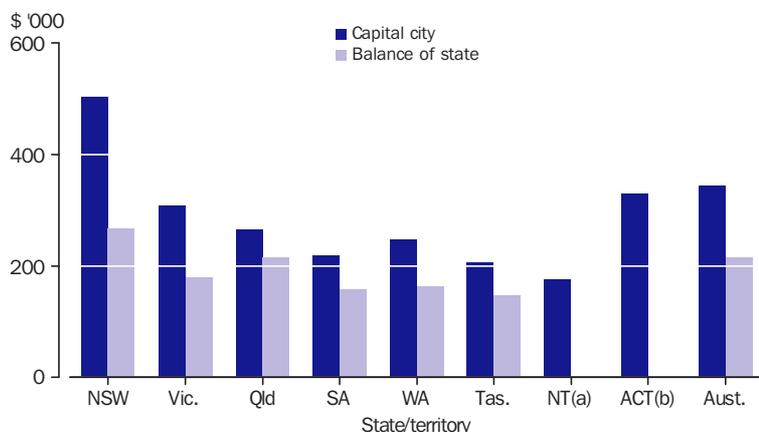
Source: ABS 1994–95, 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

in their home. In 1994–95, the mean equity of recent first home buyers with a housing mortgage was \$58,000 and they held an average 30% of their estimated home value in equity.

Capital city – balance of state differences

While estimated home values and equity have grown strongly overall, there have been geographic disparities among the states and between the capital cities and the states in growth over the nine years to 2003–04. The home equity in capital cities grew 73% between 1994–95 and 2003–04, compared with 53% for households outside the capital cities.

Equity of owner occupier households: Capital city, balance of state — 2003–04



(a) Balance of state not available for NT.

(b) Balance of state not available for ACT. Capital city estimate relates to total ACT.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Mortgages for non-housing purposes

In this article, one of the main components of equity is the amount owing on a mortgage taken out primarily for housing purposes. This includes amounts owing on mortgages that were used to purchase or renovate a home, and for any unsecured loans for housing purposes for the selected dwelling. Also included are portions of housing loans used for non-housing purposes such as consumption expenditure.

In 2003–04, 16% (403,000) of households with a housing mortgage used at least part of their mortgage for non-housing purposes. The mean value of the non-housing component was \$19,300.

Mortgages may also be taken out for a main purpose other than housing. In 2003–04, 5% (265,000) of owner occupied households had a non-housing mortgage. The mean value of these non-housing mortgages was \$64,500 and the mean equity in the dwelling for these households was \$297,000 – the same as for those without such a mortgage. However, for these households, if we were to calculate an alternative measure of equity by also including the amount owing on non-housing mortgages, this equity measure would be much lower at \$232,000.

The mean level of equity for a capital city owner in 2003–04 was \$344,000, \$129,000 more than the equity of home owners in the balance of state (\$215,000).

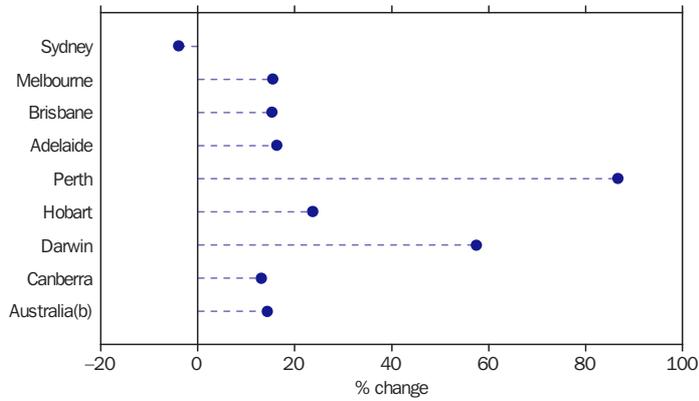
In 2003–04, Sydney had the highest mean equity with \$503,000, followed by Canberra with \$330,000 and Melbourne with \$307,000. Owner occupiers in Hobart and Darwin had the lowest levels of equity among the capital cities in 2003–04 with \$206,000 and \$174,000 respectively. Looking at areas outside of capital cities, Tasmanians living outside of Hobart had the lowest mean equity, at \$148,000 (data are not available for the Northern Territory balance of state).

Recent trends in capital cities

While data on the home equity of owner occupiers for the period since 2003–04 is not currently available, recent trends in the change in house prices from the established house price index may provide an indication of the direction and magnitude of the home equity differentials among the capital cities since that time.

Between June 2004 and March 2007 there is evidence that growth in house prices has slowed in some capitals but has surged in others. The established house price index shows rapid growth in Perth, with an 87% increase over the period, equivalent to an annual average growth of 26%. Darwin house prices also increased considerably, gaining 58% over the same period.

**Percentage change in capital city house price index(a):
June 2004 – March 2007**



(a) Based on established house prices.

(b) Data for Australia is for the weighted average of all capital cities.

Source: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

Sydney was the only capital to record a decrease in house prices over the period (4%). However, this followed the very large gains of the preceding decade in which Sydney house prices grew significantly faster than all other capital cities. Apart from Sydney, most of the remaining capitals had more modest growth in established house prices over the June 2004 to March 2007 period, ranging from 13% in Canberra to 24% in Hobart.

Larger dwellings, smaller households

In 2003–04, 57% of new separate houses purchased by owner occupiers had four or more bedrooms, compared with 36% of the existing stock.

The nature and composition of Australian households has undergone gradual change over recent decades. Traditional living arrangements associated with particular stages in the life cycle have given way to a more diverse array of household compositions that reflect demographic and social trends. Increasing life expectancy and declining fertility rates have contributed to an increase in the number of individuals living alone, more childless couples, and fewer children in those families that do have them. As a consequence, households are getting smaller. Over the nine years to 2003–04 the average number of people per household fell from 2.7 to 2.5.

Over the same time, the number of occupied dwellings has increased from 6.5 million to 7.7 million and house size (as indicated by the number of bedrooms) has increased slightly, from an average of 2.9 bedrooms per household in 1994–95 to 3.0 in 2003–04. Greater household incomes, low interest rates and easier access to existing equity in homes has allowed many home owners to 'trade up' or renovate existing homes in recent years. This is coupled with a desire by many 'empty nesters' to remain in the house in which they raised their children.¹

This article examines changes in household composition and size, and the increase in dwelling size between 1994–95 and 2003–04. The number of bedrooms per dwelling is used as a proxy for dwelling size.

Trends in household composition

In 2003–04, households composed of couple families with dependent children were the most common household type. They accounted for over a quarter (27%) of all households in 2003–04, down from 30% of all households in 1994–95.

Dwelling and household size

	1994–95	2003–04
	no.	no.
Average bedrooms	2.9	3.0
Average persons	2.7	2.5
	'000	'000
Estimated number of households	6,546.6	7,735.8

Source: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia, 2003–04* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Data sources and definitions

Most of this article is based on data from the ABS 1994–95 and 2003–04 Surveys of Income and Housing (SIH).

An *owner-occupied* household is a household in which at least one member owns the dwelling in which they reside, either with or without a mortgage.

A *new* owner-occupied dwelling is a dwelling that was purchased new in the three years prior to interview. To be classified as 'new', the dwelling had to have been completed within 12 months of the lodgement of a loan application, with the borrower being the first occupant.

An *established* owner-occupied dwelling is a dwelling which, when purchased, was completed 12 months or more prior to the lodgement of a loan application, or which has been previously been occupied.

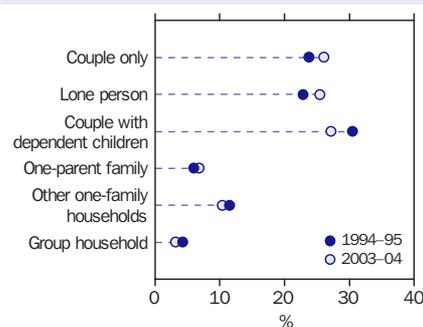
Recent home buyers are people who bought their dwelling in the three years prior to being interviewed.

Offsetting the proportional decline in couple families with dependent children in the past decade has been the increase in couple-only and lone-person households. Couple-only households comprised 26% of all households in 2003–04 and lone persons accounted for 25%, up from 24% and 23% respectively in 1994–95.

Household and dwelling size

Couple families with dependent children have larger homes than other households, averaging 3.5 bedrooms per dwelling, compared with 3.0 bedrooms per dwelling overall. However, with an average of 4.1 people per household in 2003–04, they

Household composition



Source: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia, 2003–04* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

(and multiple-family households) had more people than bedrooms on average. In contrast, lone-person and couple-only households have more bedrooms than residents, with lone-person households averaging 2.4 bedrooms per dwelling, and couple-only households averaging 3.0 bedrooms per dwelling.

The relationship between bedrooms and people is also affected by age and life cycle stage. For example, couple-only households with a reference person aged less than 35 years had an average of 2.6 bedrooms per dwelling, increasing to a peak of 3.3 bedrooms in the 55–64 years age group (perhaps indicating the relatively larger homes of 'empty nesters'). Likewise, lone-person households aged less than 35 years had an average of 2.2 bedrooms per dwelling, compared with 2.5 bedrooms per dwelling of lone persons aged 65 years and over.

According to the Canadian National Occupancy Standard, only a small proportion of Australian households might be considered overcrowded, with fewer bedrooms than required. In 2003–04, 77% of households had one or more spare bedrooms, with only 3% requiring extra bedrooms. The notable exception was

The Canadian National Occupancy Standard



The *Canadian National Occupancy Standard* for housing appropriateness is sensitive to both household size and composition. The measure assesses the bedroom requirements of a household by specifying that:

- ◆ there should be no more than two persons per bedroom
- ◆ children less than 5 years of age of different sexes may reasonably share a bedroom
- ◆ children less than 18 years of age and of the same sex may reasonably share a bedroom
- ◆ single household members aged 18 years and over should have a separate bedroom, as should parents or couples.

Households living in dwellings where this standard cannot be met are considered to be overcrowded.

Source: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia, 2003–04* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

multiple-family households, 27% (or 21,700) of whom had a requirement for one or more extra bedrooms. Nearly all (97%) of couple-only households had one or more spare bedrooms, while 85% of lone-person households also had surplus bedrooms.

Housing occupancy(a) by household composition — 2003–04

	Average number of persons in household	Average number of bedrooms in dwelling	Bedroom requirements				Total %	All households '000
			1 or more extra bedrooms needed	No extra bedrooms needed	1 bedroom spare	2 or more bedrooms spare		
			%	%	%	%		
Couple family with dependent children	4.1	3.5	4.8	30.4	44.6	20.2	100.0	2,094.8
One-parent family with dependent children	2.9	3.0	7.6	44.9	40.1	7.5	100.0	526.6
Couple only	2.0	3.0	**0.1	3.2	19.8	76.9	100.0	2,016.9
Reference person aged under 35 years	2.0	2.6	n.p.	n.p.	33.2	58.8	100.0	411.7
Reference person aged 65 years and over	2.0	3.0	n.p.	n.p.	20.3	77.5	100.0	656.7
Other one-family households	3.0	3.3	3.0	24.6	48.2	24.1	100.0	804.8
Multiple-family households	5.2	3.9	26.8	30.6	*17.2	25.4	100.0	80.8
Lone person	1.0	2.4	—	15.1	34.5	50.4	100.0	1,962.1
Aged under 35 years	1.0	2.2	—	23.4	39.6	37.0	100.0	336.1
Aged 65 years and over	1.0	2.5	—	11.4	34.9	53.8	100.0	717.0
Group households	2.4	2.8	8.6	54.1	31.5	5.8	100.0	249.7
All households	2.5	3.0	2.7	20.6	34.9	41.8	100.0	7,735.8

(a) Based on the Canadian National Occupancy Standard for housing suitability.

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

The average number of bedrooms per dwelling varies by type of dwelling. Separate houses contain on average the most bedrooms per dwelling (3.3), and flats, units and apartments the least (1.8), with semidetached, row or terrace houses or townhouses averaging 2.4 bedrooms per dwelling. The choice of dwelling type will in part reflect the life cycle stage of the household. Couple families with dependent children tend overwhelmingly to live in separate houses, with 92% living in this form of housing in 2003–04. Lone persons aged under 35 were least likely to live in separate houses (41%), but the most likely to live in either flats, units or apartments (41%) or semidetached, row or terrace houses or townhouses (17%). Couples aged 65 years and over were very likely to be living in a separate house (88%), with just 5% living in flats, units or apartments.

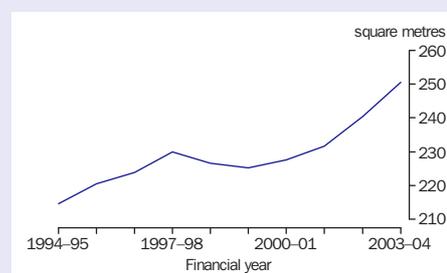
Owner-occupier households tended to have larger dwellings than renters. In 2003–04, there was an average 3.2 bedrooms in homes of owner occupiers, compared with an average of 2.5 bedrooms in rental dwellings. At the same time, owner occupiers had only slightly larger households with an average of 2.6 occupants, compared with 2.3 in rental households. The larger dwellings of owner-occupier households relative to renters is also reflected in the proportion

Case study: Perth

While an increase in the average number of bedrooms provides an indication of increasing dwelling size, the overall floor size of new houses can present a direct measure of the trend towards larger houses. Building Approvals data for Perth provide an example of recent trends for separate houses in capital cities between 1994–95 and 2003–04.

Between 1994–95 and 2003–04, the average size of new separate houses in Perth grew by 17%, from 215 to 250 square metres. During the same period, the average block size for residential housing in Perth declined by 7%, from 734 to 686 square metres.

Perth: floor size of new separate houses



Source: ABS Building Approvals, 1994–95 to 2003–04.

with spare bedrooms. In 2003–04, 84% of owner households had one or more spare bedrooms, compared with 59% of renter households.

Dwelling type by family composition — 2003–04

	Separate house	Semidetached, row or terrace house/ townhouse	Flat/unit/ apartment	Other dwelling	Total
	%	%	%	%	%
Couple family with dependent children	92.4	3.9	3.6	0.1	100.0
One-parent family with dependent children	81.6	9.2	8.8	0.4	100.0
Couple only	84.4	7.0	8.3	0.4	100.0
Aged under 35 years	68.6	11.8	19.1	0.6	100.0
Aged 65 years and over	87.9	6.8	5.1	0.2	100.0
Other one-family households	89.6	5.3	4.6	0.5	100.0
Multiple-family households	93.4	4.3	2.4	—	100.0
Lone person	60.5	14.7	23.7	1.1	100.0
Aged under 35 years	41.2	16.7	41.0	1.0	100.0
Aged 65 years and over	69.1	14.7	15.4	0.8	100.0
Group households	55.3	15.3	29.3	0.1	100.0
All households	80.0	8.3	11.2	0.5	100.0

Source: ABS 2003–04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Changes in housing stock

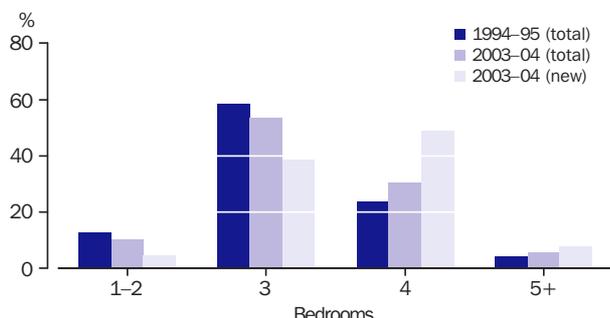
Changes in housing stock occur gradually over time through construction of new dwellings and alterations to existing homes. In the nine years from 1994–95 to 2003–04 an estimated 1.5 million new dwellings were completed in Australia (an average of 146,000 per year). These additional dwellings represent less than one-fifth (19%) of the 7.7 million households in 2003–04. Partly for this reason, the increase in the average number of bedrooms per household over the period (from 2.9 to 3.0) appears marginal.

To highlight the changing nature of dwelling size (as measured by bedrooms), the following discussion compares new owner-occupied dwellings with all owner-occupied dwellings. The analysis is restricted to the 70% of households which are owner-occupied, as 'new' housing among non-owners could not be determined.

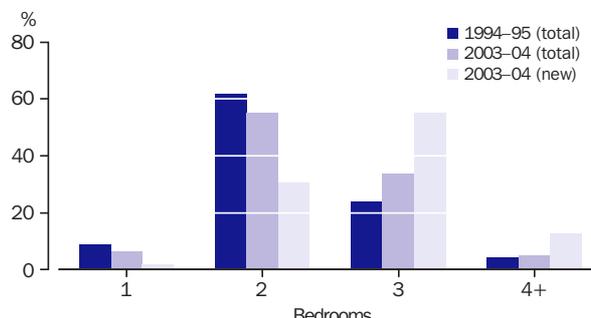
In 2003–04, there were 232,000 dwellings that were purchased by owner occupiers as new within the three years prior to 2003–04. These new dwellings had an average of

Number of bedrooms in owner-occupied dwellings

SEPARATE HOUSES



MEDIUM AND HIGH DENSITY DWELLINGS(a)



(a) Medium density dwellings include townhouses, terrace houses and semidetached-detached housing, high density dwellings include flats, units and apartments.

Source: ABS Surveys of Income and Housing 1994-95, 2003-04.

3.5 bedrooms each, and almost half (49%) had four or more bedrooms. In comparison, the total dwelling stock had 3.2 bedrooms on average, and one-third (33%) had four or more bedrooms.

The proportion of separate houses has remained at around 80% over the period from 1994-95 to 2003-04. Among separate houses, 57% of those purchased as new by owner occupiers in the 3 years prior to 2003-04 had four or more bedrooms, compared with 36% of the total stock held by owner occupiers in 2003-04 and 28% in 1994-95.

Among medium and high density housing, the trend has also been to more bedrooms. In the three years to 2003-04, 68% of new medium and high density owner-occupied dwellings (which includes townhouses, terrace houses and semidetached housing as

well as flats, units and apartments) had 3 or more bedrooms, compared with 38% of the total established owner-occupied stock in that period and 27% in 1994-95.

While new owner-occupied dwellings tend to be larger than established dwellings, they also contain slightly more people on average, with 2.8 persons per household, compared with an average of 2.6 in all owner-occupied households in 2003-04. This reflects the new housing market which attracts a higher proportion of couples with children (36%) than couple only (34%) or lone-person households (13%).

In 2003-04, nearly three-quarters (73%) of couple families with dependent children who were in a new dwelling had four or more bedrooms, compared with 52% for the total stock of owner-occupied dwellings. Other single family households in new dwellings also had a greater propensity for having four or more bedrooms. For example, 33% of couple only households in new dwellings had four or more bedrooms, compared with 26% for owner occupiers generally.

Owner occupiers: selected characteristics by household composition — 2003-04

	With 4 or more bedrooms		Average bedrooms per household	
	New dwellings	Total owner-occupied dwellings	New dwellings	Total owner-occupied dwellings
	%	%	no.	no.
Couple family with dependent children	73.0	51.8	3.9	3.6
Couple only	32.7	25.7	3.1	3.1
Lone person	*11.6	11.4	2.8	2.7
All households	48.6	32.8	3.5	3.2
	'000	'000	'000	'000
All households	112.9	1,778.6	232.2	5,416.7

Source: ABS 2003-04 Survey of Income and Housing.

Endnotes

- 1 Victorian Government, Department of Sustainability and Environment, 2006, *Housing Decisions of Empty Nesters*, viewed 5 June 2007, <<http://www.dse.vic.gov.au/DSE/dsenres.nsf/LinkView/63EFFEC76D06C2E6CA2571DF002830B7?Open&Layout=DSE~PrinterFriendly>>.

Other areas of social concern

	Page
National and state summary.....	190

Interpersonal violence.....	195
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Violence takes both a human and an economic toll on society, and can have serious consequences for people who experience it and for those around them. In 2005, 11% of men and 6% of women aged 18 years and over reported at least one experience of violence during the last 12 months. This article examines the prevalence of violence, the characteristics of those who experienced violence and their responses to it, as well as the characteristics of the violence and its consequences.

Women's experience of partner violence.....	200
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Partner violence is one of the most common forms of violence against women, and can affect the wellbeing of those who experience it, as well as having an impact on their families, communities and society as a whole. Using data from the 2005 Personal Safety Survey, this article examines women's experience of partner violence, including the characteristics of this violence and the women who experienced it.

Participation in sports and physical recreation.....	205
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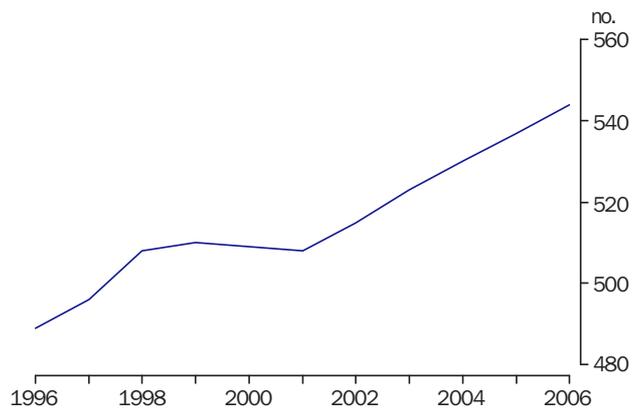
Regular physical activity is beneficial to people's health and wellbeing. This article investigates the types of sports and physical recreation Australians engaged in. Using data from the 2005–06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey, it focuses on the characteristics of participants as well as the main motivators for involvement and the main constraints given for not participating.

Household waste.....	208
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Despite apparent increases in the amount of solid waste being generated in Australia in recent years, the overall trend is towards reduced landfilling and increased recycling of waste. In 2002–03, 30% of municipal waste, 44% of commercial and industrial waste and 57% of construction and demolition waste was recycled. At the household level, recycling rates are increasing, with 99% of households reporting that they had recycled or reused some of their waste within the past year, up from 85% in 1992. This article examines recent trends in the generation and treatment of solid waste from all sources as well as treatment of household waste including recycling rates and reasons for not recycling or reusing materials.

Other areas of social concern: national summary — key points

Passenger vehicles per 1,000 population(a)(b)



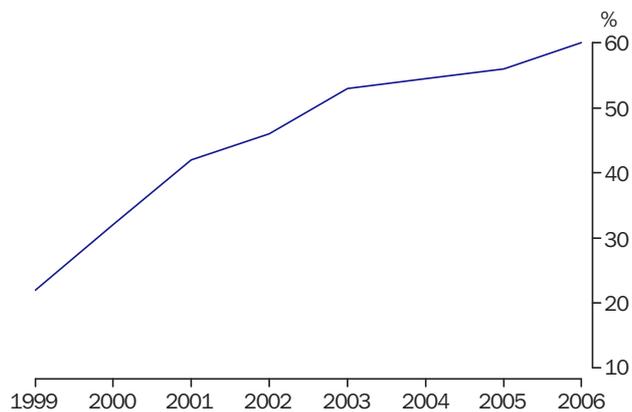
- Between 1996 and 2006, the number of passenger vehicles per 1,000 resident population in Australia increased from 489 to 544, an increase of 1% per year.

(a) Data not available for 2000.

(b) From 2001, number of passenger vehicles registered at 31 March from the motor vehicle census per 1,000 estimated resident population at 31 March. For years 1996 to 1999, registrations as at 31 October per 1,000 estimated resident population at 30 September.

Source: ABS Motor Vehicle Census, Australia (ABS cat. no. 9309.0); Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0). For further information see *Other areas of social concern: national summary*, page 192, indicator 8.

Households connected to the Internet(a)(b)



- Between 1999 and 2005–06, the proportion of total households connected to the Internet increased, from 22% in 1999 to 60% in 2005–06.

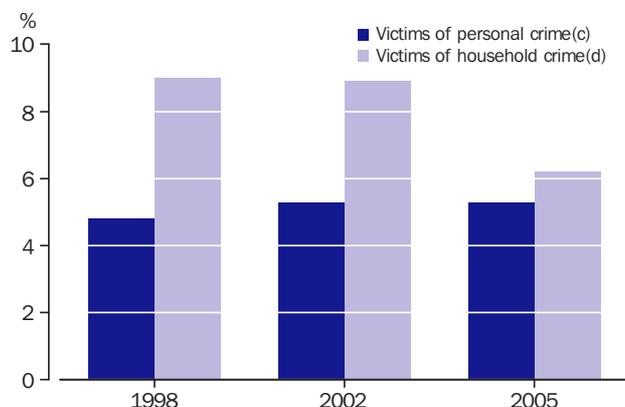
(a) From 1999 to 2003, data are at the point in time when surveys were conducted. For 2004–05, the reference period is from August 2004 to June 2005, and for 2005–06, the reference period is from July 2005 to June 2006.

(b) Data not available for 2004.

Source: *Household Use of Information Technology, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

For further information see *Other areas of social concern: national summary*, page 192, indicator 4.

Victims of selected crimes(a)(b)



- Though small, the changes in the victimisation prevalence rates for selected personal crimes between 1998 and 2005 showed an increase from 4.8% to 5.3%, the same level as in 2002.
- Between 1998 and 2005, the proportion of households that were the victim of selected household crimes fell from 9.0% to 6.2%.

(a) Data refer to the victimisation prevalence rate, which is the number of victims of an offence in a given population expressed as a percentage of that population.

(b) Data are for the 12 months prior to each survey.

(c) Assault and robbery among people aged 15 years and over. Sexual assault among people aged 18 years and over.

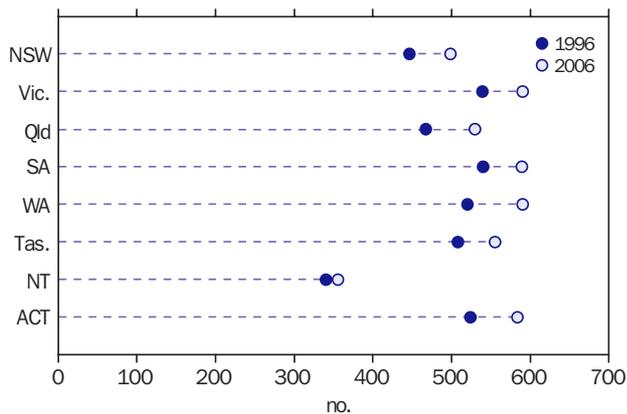
(d) Actual or attempted break-ins and motor vehicle theft.

Source: *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

For further information see *Other areas of social concern: national summary*, page 192, indicators 11 and 12.

Other areas of social concern: state summary — key points

Passenger vehicles per 1,000 population(a)



- In 2006, Victoria (590), Western Australia (590), South Australia (589) and the Australian Capital Territory (584) had the highest number of passenger vehicles per 1,000 Australian resident population.
- Western Australia experienced an increase of 70 passenger vehicles per 1,000 residents over the ten year period. This was the largest increase amongst all the states and territories, followed by Queensland, where there was an increase of 63 passenger vehicles per 1,000 residents.
- The Northern Territory reported the lowest number of passenger vehicles per 1,000 resident population in 2006, at 356 vehicles.

(a) For 2006, number of passenger vehicles registered at 31 March from the motor vehicle census per 1,000 estimated resident population at 31 March. For 1996, registrations as at 31 October per 1,000 estimated resident population at 30 September.

Source: ABS Motor Vehicle Census, Australia (ABS cat. no. 9309.0); Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

For further information see *Australian Social Trends: Other areas of social concern, 2007*, data cube, tables 2.1 to 2.8, indicator 8 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0).

Other areas of social concern: national summary

COMMUNICATIONS												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
1 Households with a computer	'000	n.a.	n.a.	3 083	3 337	3 803	4 311	4 556	5 038	n.a.	5 266	5 527
2 Households with a computer	%	n.a.	n.a.	44	47	53	58	61	66	n.a.	67	70
3 Households connected to the Internet	'000	n.a.	n.a.	1 098	1 538	2 340	3 114	3 445	4 039	n.a.	4 393	4 730
4 Households connected to the Internet	%	n.a.	n.a.	16	22	32	42	46	53	n.a.	56	60
5 Households with broadband type Internet connection	'000	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1 244	2 251
6 Households with broadband type Internet connection as a proportion of those with Internet connection	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	28	48
TRANSPORT												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
7 Number of passenger vehicles(a)	'000	8 989	9 206	9 527	9 686	n.a.	9 836	10 101	10 366	10 629	10 896	11 189
8 Passenger vehicles per 1,000 population(b)	no.	r489	r496	r508	r510	n.a.	r508	r515	r523	r530	r537	544
ENVIRONMENT												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
9 Total water consumption(c)(d)	GL	19 875	22 186	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r21 703	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18 767	n.a.
10 Household water consumption(d)	GL	1 691	1 829	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r2 278	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2 108	n.a.
CRIME												
	Units	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
11 Victims of personal crime(e)(f)	%	n.a.	n.a.	4.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.3	n.a.	n.a.	5.3	n.a.
12 Victims of household crime(e)(g)	%	n.a.	n.a.	9.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.9	n.a.	n.a.	6.2	n.a.

(a) The number of passenger vehicles refers to the total number of passenger vehicles registered in the ABS motor vehicle census. From 2001, registrations were measured as at 31 March. For years 1996 to 1999 registrations were measured as at 31 October.

(b) From 2001, number of passenger vehicles registered at 31 March from the motor vehicle census per 1,000 estimated resident population at 31 March. For years 1996 to 1999, registrations as at 31 October per 1,000 estimated resident population at 30 September.

(c) Water consumption estimates cannot be compared from 1996–1997 to 2001 and 2005. This is due to the differences in data sources and the methodologies used to calculate estimates.

(d) One gigalitre (GL) equals 1,000 megalitres (ML). One ML equals 1 million litres.

(e) Data refer to the victimisation prevalence rate, which is the number of victims of an offence in a given population expressed as a percentage of that population.

(f) Assault and robbery among people aged 15 years and over. Sexual assault among people aged 18 years and over.

(g) Actual or attempted break-ins and motor vehicle theft.

Reference periods: Until 2003, data for indicators 1–6 are at the point in time when the surveys were conducted. For 2004–05, the reference period is from August 2004 to June 2005, and for 2005–06, the reference period is from July 2005 to June 2006.

Data for indicators 7–8 are at 31 October in 1996–1999; 31 March in 2001–2006.

Data for indicators 9–10 are for year ending 30 June.

Data for indicators 11–12 are for the 12 months prior to the survey.

Other areas of social concern: state summary

COMMUNICATIONS												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
1	Households with a computer	'000	2006	1 822	1 361	1 092	429	560	121	41	101	5 527
2	Households with a computer	%	2006	69	69	72	67	71	60	70	82	70
3	Households connected to the Internet	'000	2006	1 570	1 161	937	356	484	99	35	89	4 730
4	Households connected to the Internet	%	2006	60	59	61	56	62	49	60	72	60
5	Households with broadband type Internet connection	'000	2006	746	591	452	128	236	35	15 *	49	2251
6	Households with broadband type Internet connection as a proportion of those with Internet connection	%	2006	48	51	48	36	49	35	42	55	48
TRANSPORT												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
7	Number of passenger vehicles(a)	'000	2006	3 396	2 998	2 138	915	1 205	271	73	192	11 189
8	Passenger vehicles (per 1000 population)(b)	no.	2006	498	590	530	589	590	555	356	584	544
ENVIRONMENT												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
9	Total water consumption(c)	GL	2004-05	5 922	4 993	4 361	1 365	1 495	434	141	56	18 767
10	Household water consumption(c)	GL	2004-05	573	405	493	144	362	69	31	31	2 108
CRIME												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(d)	ACT	Aust.	
11	Victims of personal crime(e)(f)	%	2005	5.4	4.5	6.1	5.0	5.6	4.7	6.6	5.8	5.3
12	Victims of household crime(e)(g)	%	2005	6.8	4.6	6.1	6.6	7.8	4.5	13.0	7.6	6.2

(a) The number of passenger vehicles refers to the total number of passenger vehicles registered at 31 March from the motor vehicle census.

(b) Number of passenger vehicles registered at 31 March from the motor vehicle census per 1,000 estimated resident population at 31 March.

(c) One gigalitre (GL) equals 1,000 megalitres (ML). One ML equals 1 million litres.

(d) Data for NT refers to mainly urban areas only.

(e) Data refer to the victimisation prevalence rate, which is the number of victims of an offence in a given population expressed as a percentage of that population.

(f) Assault and robbery among people aged 15 years and over. Sexual assault among people aged 18 years and over.

(g) Actual or attempted break-ins and motor vehicle theft.

Reference periods: Until 2003, data for indicators 1-6 are at the point in time when the surveys were conducted. For 2004-05, the reference period is from August 2004 to June 2005, and for 2005-06, the reference period is from July 2005 to June 2006.

Data for indicators 7-8 are at 31 March for vehicles and 31 March for ERP.

Data for indicators 9-10 are for year ending 30 June.

Data for indicators 11-12 are for the 12 months prior to the survey.

Other areas of social concern: data sources

INDICATORS	DATA SOURCE
1-6	<i>Household Use of Information Technology, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).
7-8	<i>ABS Motor Vehicle Census, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 9309.0); <i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).
9-10	<i>Water Account, Australia, 1996-97, 2000-01, 2004-05</i> (ABS cat. no. 4610.0).
11-12	<i>Crime and Safety, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Other areas of social concern: definitions

Broadband

defined by the ABS as an "always on" Internet connection with an access speed equal to or greater than 256 Kilobits per second.

Reference: *Household Use of Information Technology* (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

Estimated resident population (ERP)

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

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

Household

a group of related or unrelated people who usually live in the same private dwelling or a lone person living in a private dwelling.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

Household crime

a break-in, attempted break-in or motor vehicle theft, in which a household is considered to be the victim of the crime.

Reference: *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Internet

a world-wide public computer network. Organisations and individuals can connect their computers to this network and exchange information across a country and/or across the world. The Internet provides access to a number of communication services including the World Wide Web and carries email, news, entertainment and data files.

Reference: *Household Use of Information Technology* (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

Passenger vehicles

motor vehicles constructed primarily for the carriage of persons and containing up to nine seats (including the driver's seat). Includes cars, station wagons, four-wheel drive passenger vehicles and forward-control passenger vehicles. Excludes campervans.

Reference: *Motor Vehicle Census, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 9309.0).

Personal crime

a robbery, assault or sexual assault, in which an individual is considered to be the victim of the crime.

Reference: *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Victims of household crime

households reporting victimisation for at least one of the household crime offences surveyed. Households were counted once only, regardless of the number of household crime offences reported.

Reference: *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Victims of personal crime

persons reporting victimisation for at least one of the personal crime offences surveyed. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of personal crime offences reported.

Reference: *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Water consumption

water consumption is equal to distributed water use (delivered by suppliers) plus self-extracted water use plus reuse water use minus distributed water supplied to other users minus in-stream use (where applicable) and less distributed water use supplied for the environment.

Reference: *Water Account Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4610.0).

Interpersonal violence

In 2005, 11% of men and 6% of women aged 18 years and over reported experiencing violence during the 12 months prior to interview.

Violence occurs as a result of a combination of individual, interpersonal and societal factors, and takes both a human and an economic toll on society.¹ The incidence of violent crime raises much community concern due to the potential severity of the consequences arising from it, and fear that it may affect us, or people we know. High crime rates can reduce levels of community trust, confidence and freedom. People who experience violence and those around them can suffer in many ways. The consequences of violence can range from physical injuries to psychological and physiological health problems.¹

In 2005, 50% (3.7 million) of men aged 18 years and over and 40% (3.1 million) of women aged 18 years and over had experienced violence at some point since the age of 15 years. That is, they had experienced physical or sexual assault, or an attempt or threat of these.

Prevalence of violence

Men and women experience different levels and types of crimes (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Crime victimisation and feelings of safety, pp. 187–189). In 2005, men were at a greater risk of having experienced violence, with 11% (808,000) of men reporting at least one experience of violence during the 12 months prior to interview, compared with 6% (444,000) of women.

Data source and definitions

Data in this article are from the 2005 Personal Safety Survey (PSS), which collected information from people aged 18 years and over. Both urban and rural areas in all states and territories were included, but very remote areas of Australia were excluded. Survey respondents were asked questions about their experience of violence since the age of 15 years, including the type of violence and the type of perpetrator. More detailed information was collected about the most recent incident of each type of violence by a male and a female perpetrator, such as where it occurred and whether the police were told. The sample of men interviewed was smaller than the sample of women, therefore the standard errors for similar sized estimates will be greater for men than for women. This article focuses on violence that occurred during the 12 months prior to interview in 2005, unless otherwise specified.

Violence is any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of either physical or sexual assault which occurred since the age of 15 years.

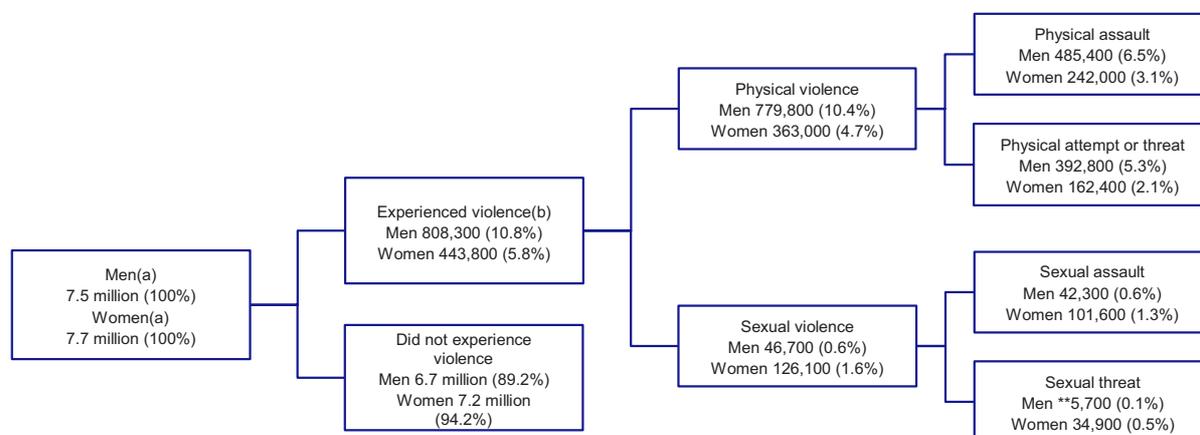
Physical assault involves the use of physical force with the intent to harm or frighten.

Physical threat is defined as an attempt or threat to inflict physical harm that the respondent believed was likely to be carried out.

Sexual assault is defined as an act of a sexual nature carried out against a person's will, including attempts to force a person into sexual activity.

Sexual threat involves a threat of sexual assault that the respondent believed was likely to be carried out.

Experience of violence during the last 12 months — 2005



(a) Aged 18 years and over.

(b) Components do not add to total as some respondents experienced more than one type of violence.

Source: Personal Safety Survey, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4906.0).

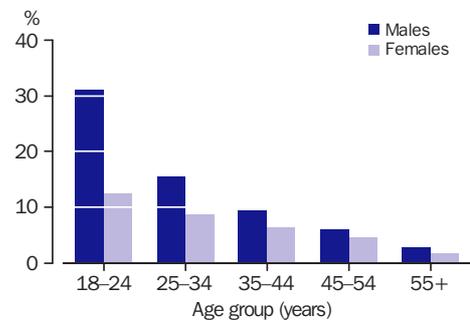
Measuring violence

Violence is a sensitive issue and a challenging phenomenon to measure. There are a number of sources from which data on violence can be obtained. Victimization rates obtained from surveys are generally higher than rates from administrative records.² Data from administrative sources are limited in that incidents may never be reported to authorities such as the police, whereas surveys provide the opportunity to ask people directly about their experience of violence. However, in an interview respondents may choose not to report incidents of violence that they have experienced.²

Physical violence refers to physical assault, and threatened or attempted physical assault. In 2005, physical violence was experienced by 10% (780,000) of men and 5% (363,000) of women during the last 12 months. Physical assault was the largest component of physical violence, with 6% (485,000) of men and 3% (242,000) of women experiencing physical assault in 2005.

Sexual violence refers to sexual assault (including attempted sexual assault) and threatened sexual assault. In the 12 months prior to 2005, 46,700 (0.6%) men and 126,100 (1.6%) women had experienced sexual violence. Most of these men and women were sexually assaulted (0.6% of all men and 1.3% of all women).

Proportion of persons who experienced violence during the last 12 months by age — 2005



Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Characteristics of people who experienced violence

In 2005, half (50%) of the people who experienced violence in the 12 months prior to interview were under 30 years of age. Men and women aged 18–24 years were more likely than the other age groups to have experienced recent violence, with 31% of men and 12% of women in this age group having reported at least one experience of violence in the last 12 months.

Greater proportions of unmarried men and women experienced violence, for example, 17% of unmarried men experienced violence, compared with 6% of men who were in a registered or de facto marriage; and 8% of unmarried women experienced violence, compared with 3% of married women.

Men who were unemployed were more likely to have experienced violence than those employed (24% compared with 12%). This was also the case for women, as 16% of unemployed women had experienced violence compared with 6% of employed women.

Characteristics of violent incidents

An incident of physical assault may involve one or more of a range of behaviours. The most common form of physical assault by a male perpetrator reported by both men and women was being pushed or grabbed (66% and 76% respectively of those who had experienced physical assault). Almost half (47%) of the men and 32% of the women had been kicked, bitten or hit with a fist. A small proportion of men and women had been choked, stabbed with a knife or shot with a gun (11% and 14% respectively).

Most men (89% or 430,000) who had been physically assaulted said that the perpetrator was male. A smaller proportion (16% or

Experience of violence during the last 12 months: levels among persons with selected characteristics(a) — 2005

	Males		Females	
	'000	%	'000	%
Aged 18–24 years	304.3	31.0	117.0	12.4
Living in a Regional or Remote area(b)	257.6	10.2	135.1	5.4
Born in Australia	671.0	12.2	363.2	6.4
Not in a registered or de facto marriage	580.4	17.0	313.1	8.1
No non-school qualification	362.0	10.8	232.5	5.7
Unemployed	50.7	23.8	32.5	16.1
Living in area of greatest socio-economic disadvantage(c)	141.0	11.4	94.0	6.9
Total aged 18 years and over	808.3	10.8	443.8	5.8

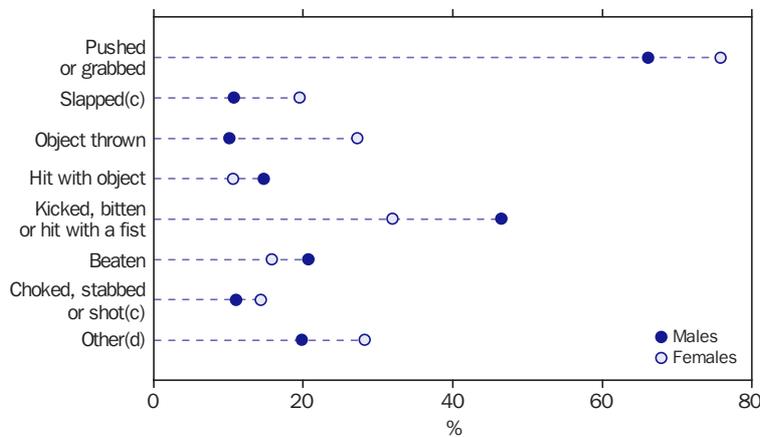
(a) Although a number of the characteristics are related to age, the rates presented have not been age standardised. While removing the influence of age through age standardising reduces the level of prevalence for certain populations (particularly males experiencing violence by 'Not married' and 'Unemployed') it does not change the patterns of prevalence.

(b) Based on the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA). Data for Very Remote and Migratory areas are not available.

(c) Those in the lowest Socio-Economic Index for Areas (SEIFA) quintile, using the Index of Advantage/Disadvantage.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Nature of physical assault reported(a)(b) — 2005



- (a) Most recent incident of physical assault by a male perpetrator during the last 12 months.
 (b) Some respondents reported more than one type of behaviour in the physical assault.
 (c) Estimate for males has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.
 (d) Includes burns, scalds, being dragged by the hair and deliberately hit by a vehicle.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

79,500) of men were physically assaulted by a woman. Some men (5%) experienced different incidents of physical assault, one of which was perpetrated by a man and the other by a woman. Almost half (48%) of the men physically assaulted by a man said that there was more than one person involved in the incident. In contrast, 90% of men physically assaulted by a woman said there was only one person involved. Of women who experienced physical assault, 81% (195,000) said that the perpetrator was male, with 27% (66,500)

reporting that the perpetrator was female. The majority (93%) of women physically assaulted by a man reported that there was only one person involved in the incident, as did 79% of those physically assaulted by a woman.

The majority (87% or 36,800) of men who had been sexually assaulted said that the perpetrator was female. Almost all (99% or 101,000) women who were sexually assaulted, reported that the perpetrator was male.

...relationship to perpetrator

Around two-thirds (66%) of men physically assaulted during the last 12 months said that the perpetrator was a stranger. In contrast, women were less likely to be physically assaulted by a stranger (22%) than by someone they knew (82%). Almost a third (31%) of women physically assaulted said that the perpetrator was a current or previous partner, and 37% reported their attacker as being a family member or friend (see *Australian Social Trends 2007 Women's experience of partner violence*, pp. 200–204). Women were also most likely to be sexually assaulted by someone known to them (89%), with 29% of those sexually assaulted reporting that the perpetrator was a current or previous partner, and 39% a family member or friend.

...location

In keeping with the high proportion of men physically assaulted by a stranger, men most frequently reported that they were physically assaulted by a man in the open (35% or

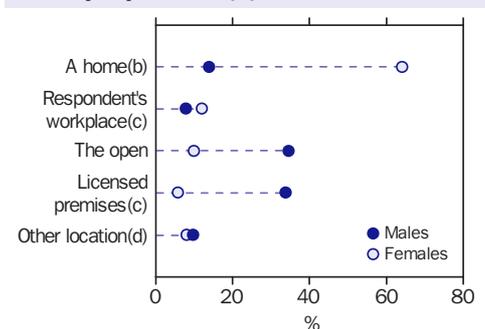
Experience of assault during the last 12 months, relationship to perpetrator(a) — 2005

	Physical assault		Sexual assault	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
	%	%	%	%
Partner	*4.4	30.5	n.p.	28.8
Family or friends(b)	17.4	36.8	*43.7	39.0
Other known persons(c)	21.2	20.5	*35.1	32.0
Stranger	65.7	21.9	*32.9	21.8
Total(d)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total persons who experienced assault	485.4	242.0	42.3	101.6

- (a) Includes both male and female perpetrators.
 (b) Includes boyfriend, girlfriend or date.
 (c) Includes ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend.
 (d) Components do not add to total as some respondents experienced assault by more than one type of perpetrator.

Source: Personal Safety Survey, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4906.0).

Location of physical assault by a male perpetrator(a) — 2005



- (a) Most recent incident during the last 12 months.
 (b) Includes respondent's and another person's home.
 (c) Estimate for males at respondent's workplace, and estimate for females at licensed premises, have relative standard errors of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.
 (d) Includes in a private vehicle, using public transport, in an institution, at a sporting venue and other locations.

Source: Personal Safety Survey, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4906.0).

149,000) or at licensed premises (34%). Of those who were physically assaulted by a woman, just over three-quarters (77% or 60,900) said that this violence occurred in their home or another person's home.

The most common location where women were physically or sexually assaulted by a man was in their home or another person's home (64% or 125,000, and 74% or 75,100 respectively). This was also the case where the perpetrator of the physical assault was female (38% or 25,300).

...alcohol or drugs

Consumption of alcohol or certain drugs increases the likelihood of a violent incident occurring for both biological and social reasons.¹ Most (72% or 310,000) men who were physically assaulted by another male said that the perpetrator had been drinking or taking drugs, and 28% said that they themselves had done so. Almost half (47% or 92,300) of the women physically assaulted and the majority (84% or 50,600) of women who were sexually assaulted by a man said that the perpetrator had been drinking or taking drugs.

...more than one violent incident

Most men and women who had experienced violence during the last 12 months said that there had been more than one incident (71% and 76% respectively). However, a small proportion (11%) of men and 14% of women who had experienced violence during this time reported that there had been incidents by different types of perpetrator (these being: a partner; a boyfriend, girlfriend or date; an other known person; and a stranger). For

example, 9% of men and 9% of women had experienced violence from both a stranger and a person known to them.

...stalking and harassment

Besides physical or sexual violence, other less physical threats to a person's sense of safety and wellbeing include stalking and harassment. Stalking refers to a range of activities which the respondent believed were intended to harm or frighten them, and of which the respondent had experienced more than one incident. Examples include following the respondent or giving them offensive material. Harassment refers to a range of disturbing situations, such as indecent exposure or unwelcome brief sexual touching (that did not constitute a sexual assault).

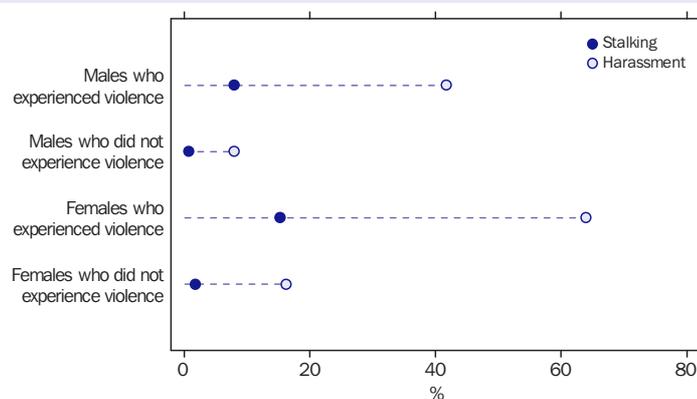
In 2005, men and women who had experienced violence during the last 12 months were more likely than those who had not experienced violence to have also experienced stalking or harassment during this time, although the violence, stalking and harassment may not have been committed by the same perpetrator. A higher proportion of men who had experienced violence had been stalked (8% or 63,900) compared with 1% of men who had not experienced violence. Women's experience of stalking and harassment followed a similar pattern. A greater proportion of women who had experienced violence had been stalked (15% or 67,800) than those that had not experienced violence (2%). A considerable proportion of men who had experienced violence had been harassed (42%) and 64% of women who had experienced violence had also experienced harassment.

Consequences of assault

Compared with assault by male perpetrators, relatively small numbers of men and women reported physical or sexual assault by female perpetrators in 2005. This affects the reliability of estimates and the significance of comparisons drawn between these and other estimates. For this reason discussion of the consequences of and responses to assault refer to male perpetrators only.

In 2005, almost half (47% or 203,000) the men who were physically assaulted by a male perpetrator during the last 12 months were injured as a result. Among women physically assaulted by a man, just over half (55% or 107,000) reported being injured, and 27% (27,300) of those sexually assaulted were injured in the assault. Bruises were the most common type of injury inflicted, as reported by 77% of men and 89% of women injured in the physical assault, and 87% of women injured in the sexual assault.

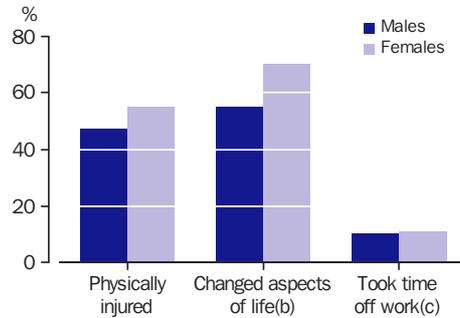
Proportion of males and females who experienced stalking or harassment during the last 12 months(a) — 2005



(a) Of males or females who experienced or did not experience violence during the last 12 months.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Consequences of physical assault by a male perpetrator(a) — 2005

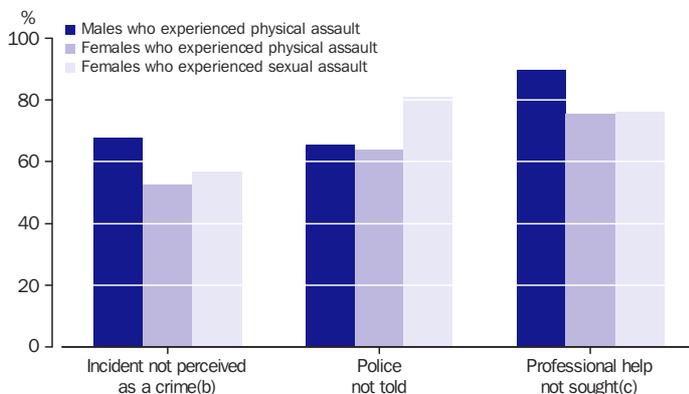


- (a) Most recent incident during the last 12 months.
 (b) Includes aspects changed due to fear and/or injury, such as household tasks, social or leisure activities, work and child care.
 (c) Includes time off to appear in court, meet with police or lawyer, see doctor or counsellor or because respondent was unable to work due to injuries or emotional distress.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

As a result of injuries, or even the anxiety or fear caused by violence, a person's life may change in a variety of ways, ranging from changes to social and leisure activities such as playing organised sport, neglect of relationships with people, or altered sleeping patterns. Over half (55%) of the men who were physically assaulted by a male perpetrator reported having changed at least one such aspect of their life because of injury or fear. Most (70%) women who were physically assaulted, and 66% of those sexually assaulted by a man, said that they had been affected in this way.

Selected responses to assault by a male perpetrator(a) — 2005



- (a) Most recent incident during the last 12 months.
 (b) Includes do not know, could not remember and refused to answer.
 (c) Professional help includes doctor, counsellor, minister or priest.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Violence takes an economic toll on society through absenteeism from work and lost productivity. Similar proportions of men and women who were physically assaulted by a male perpetrator had taken time off work as a result of the assault (10% and 11% respectively).

Responses to assault

Significantly more men (68%) than women (52%) who were physically assaulted by a male perpetrator during the 12 months prior to the survey reported that they did not consider this violence to be a crime. Over half (57%) the women sexually assaulted by a man reported that they did not consider the incident to be a crime.

A significantly higher proportion of men (90%) reported that they had not sought professional help after being physically assaulted by a male perpetrator, compared with women (75%). The proportion of women who reported that they had not sought professional help after being sexually assaulted by a male perpetrator (76%) was similar to women who had experienced physical assault.

Rates of reporting to police for personal crimes like assault are quite low compared to reporting rates for property crimes such as motor vehicle theft (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Reported crimes, pp. 167–170). Many incidents of violence are not reported to the police. In 2005, 65% of men physically assaulted by a male perpetrator said that the incident was not reported to the police (by them or by anyone else). A similar proportion of women (64%) said that the police were not told of the physical assault. In contrast, significantly more women (81%) said that the sexual assault was not reported to the police.

The most common main reason given by men for not reporting their experience of physical assault by a male perpetrator was that they did not consider it a serious offence (43% or 120,000 of those who said the police were not told). The most frequent main reason given by women was that they felt they could deal with it themselves (30% or 36,900).

Endnotes

- 1 Krug, EG et al. (eds) 2002, *World report on violence and health*, World Health Organization, Geneva.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Information Paper: Measuring Crime Victimisation, Australia – The Impact of Different Collection Methodologies*, cat. no. 4522.0.55.001, ABS, Canberra.

Women's experience of partner violence

In 2005, 1% of women aged 18 years and over reported experiencing partner violence during the 12 months prior to interview.

One of the most common forms of violence against women is that perpetrated by a husband or an intimate male partner.¹ In 2005, for women who experienced violence during the last 12 months, over three-quarters (76%) of the violence was perpetrated by someone they knew, with over one-quarter (26%) of women reporting that the violence was perpetrated by a partner.

Partner violence can affect the physical, mental and reproductive health of those who experience it.¹ This impact can go beyond the wellbeing of individuals, affecting families, particular communities or society as a whole.

Increased use of services and lost productivity can have an economic impact on society. In 2002–03, Access Economics estimated the total cost of partner violence in Australia (using a broad definition that included emotional and social abuse, and financial deprivation) to be \$8.1 billion, including a \$3.5 billion estimate of pain, suffering and premature death.²

In this article, partner violence refers to a range of behaviours, such as physical assault, that are recognised as criminal offences. The article discusses the prevalence of partner violence in Australia, as well as the characteristics of the violence and the women who experienced it.

Data sources and definitions

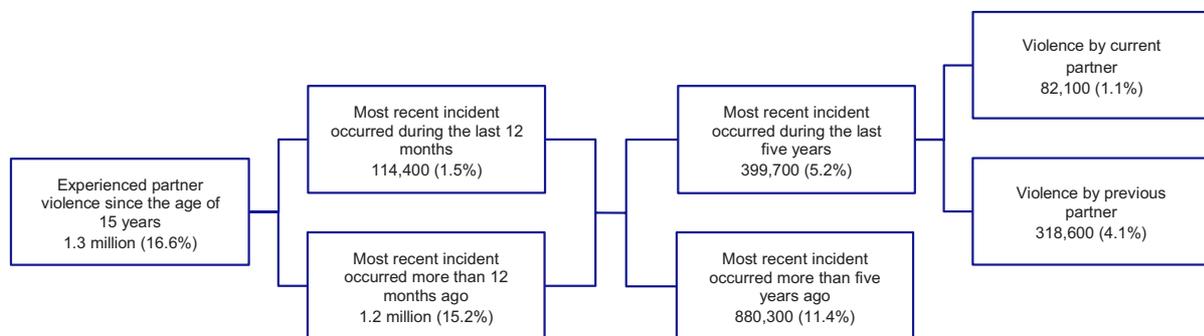
Data in this article are from the 1996 Women's Safety Survey (WSS) and the 2005 Personal Safety Survey (PSS), which collected information from women aged 18 years and over. Both urban and rural areas in all states and territories were included, but very remote areas of Australia were excluded. Survey respondents were asked questions about their experience of violence since the age of 15 years, including the type of violence and their relationship to the perpetrator. More detailed information was collected about the most recent incident of each type of violence, such as where it occurred and whether the police were told. This article focuses on violence that occurred during the five years prior to interview, unless otherwise specified.

Partner violence is any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of either physical or sexual assault which was perpetrated by a current and/or previous partner, and which occurred since the age of 15 years. Sources other than the WSS and PSS may use a broader definition of partner violence, including for example, emotional or economic violence.

Current partner includes both married and de facto relationships. If the incident occurred while the person was dating a person they later partnered, the perpetrator was classified as boyfriend/girlfriend or date.

Previous partner includes both married and de facto relationships. Includes partners at the time of the incident from whom a person is now separated and partners a person was no longer living with at the time of the incident.

Women's(a) experience of partner violence(b) — 2005



(a) Aged 18 years and over.

(b) Components do not add to total as some respondents experienced violence from both a current and a previous partner.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Prevalence of partner violence

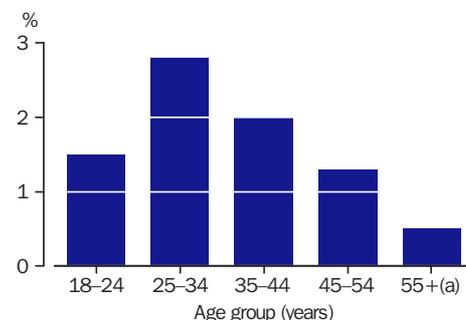
In 2005, an estimated 1.3 million women aged 18 years and over had ever experienced partner violence since the age of 15 years. This was 17% of all women aged 18 years and over in 2005.

More recently, 114,000 women (1%) had experienced partner violence during the 12 months prior to interview in 2005. This compares with 3% of women in 1996. During the five years prior to interview in 2005, 400,000 women (5%) had experienced partner violence. This compares with 8% of women in 1996. Most of these women in 2005 (80% or 319,000) had experienced violence from a previous partner during the last five years, with 21% reporting that they had experienced violence from their current partner.

Characteristics of women who experienced partner violence during the last 12 months

Women with particular characteristics may be at a higher risk of experiencing violence. In the 12 months prior to interview in 2005, women aged 25–34 years had the highest rate of partner violence (2.8%) compared with women aged 55 years and over (0.5%).

Proportion of women who experienced partner violence during the last 12 months by age — 2005



(a) Estimate has a relative standard error of 25% to 50% and should be used with caution.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

A higher proportion of women born in Australia had experienced partner violence (1.7%) than those born overseas (1.0%).

The rate of partner violence differed among women with different levels of education. Women with no non-school qualification were more at risk of partner violence (1.8%) than those with a degree, diploma or higher as their highest non-school qualification (1.0%).

Experience of partner violence during the last 12 months: levels among women with selected characteristics — 2005

	Number of women who experienced partner violence '000	Partner violence rate among all women with selected characteristic %
Aged 25–34 years	39.4	2.8
Born in Australia	93.7	1.7
Born overseas	20.8	1.0
Degree, diploma or higher qualification	21.8	1.0
No non-school qualification	73.0	1.8
Employed	60.3	1.4
Unemployed	*10.3	*5.1
Living in area of greatest socio-economic disadvantage(a)	28.1	2.0
Living in area of least socio-economic disadvantage(b)	*14.4	*0.9
Experienced child abuse	48.9	3.5
Experienced violence from an other known person(c)	20.0	8.2
Experienced violence from a stranger	*11.3	*7.9
Total women aged 18 years and over	114.4	1.5

(a) Women in the lowest Socio-Economic Index for Areas (SEIFA) quintile, using the Index of Advantage/Disadvantage.

(b) Women in the highest Socio-Economic Index for Areas (SEIFA) quintile using the Index of Advantage/Disadvantage.

(c) Includes boyfriend, girlfriend or date and other known person.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Although partner violence occurs throughout society, women from lower socioeconomic groups are at a greater risk of experiencing it.¹ Those women living in areas with the greatest socioeconomic disadvantage had the highest rate of partner violence (2.0%) while those living in areas with the lowest socioeconomic disadvantage had the lowest rate (0.9%).

Women were also at a higher risk of partner violence if they had a past history of child abuse. The partner violence rate for women who had experienced abuse as a child (before the age of 15 years) was 3.5%.

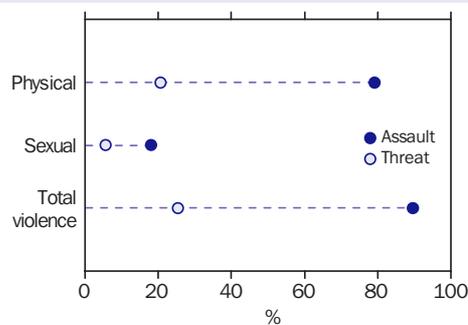
Women who had experienced partner violence were also more likely to have experienced violence from an other known person during the 12 months prior to the survey (8.2% compared with 1.5% of women overall).

Characteristics of partner violence

Partner violence can take the form of physical or sexual violence, or both. Physical violence is defined as physical assault, and threatened or attempted physical assault. In 2005, the vast majority (90% or 359,000) of women who had experienced violence from a partner in the last five years had experienced physical violence. Most (79%) had been physically assaulted, and 21% had been physically threatened.

Sexual violence refers to sexual assault (including attempted sexual assault) and threatened sexual assault. Just over one-fifth (22% or 88,600) of women who had experienced partner violence during the last five years had experienced sexual violence, with 18% having been sexually assaulted and

Women who experienced partner violence during the last five years: type of violence(a) — 2005



(a) Some women experienced more than one type of violence.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Partner violence during pregnancy during the last five years(a)(b) — 2005

	'000	%
Violence did not occur during pregnancy	140.3	62.7
Violence occurred during pregnancy	83.5	37.3
Did not occur for the first time	46.6	20.8
Did occur for the first time	36.9	16.5

Total women who were pregnant during relationship with violent partner **223.8 100.0**

(a) Of women who were pregnant during relationship with violent partner during the last five years.

(b) Excludes women who were not living with their most recent violent previous partner when the incident occurred.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

6% experiencing threatened sexual assault. Of women who had experienced partner violence during the five years prior to interview, a small proportion (12% or 48,100) had experienced both physical and sexual violence, although this was not necessarily from the same partner.

The most common form of physical assault in 2005 described by women whose most recent experience of physical assault was by a partner, was being pushed or grabbed by the partner (79% or 239,000). A considerable proportion (43%) had been kicked, bitten, or hit with a fist or object, and 37% were beaten or choked.

In 2005, just over three-quarters (77% or 306,000) of women who had experienced violence from a partner during the last five years said that there had been more than one incident of partner violence. This was higher than in 1996, when 66% (360,000) had experienced more than one incident of partner violence.

Partner violence most often occurs in the home. In 2005, the majority (87% or 263,000) of women whose most recent experience of physical assault during the last five years was by a partner said that it took place in their home, with a further 8% reporting that it occurred in someone else's home. A vast majority (93% or 61,100) of women reporting incidents of sexual assault by a partner also said they took place in their home or another person's home.

Violent behaviour is often associated with consumption of alcohol or certain drugs. In 2005, of women whose most recent experience of physical or sexual assault was by a partner, a considerable proportion (50% and 46% respectively) said that their partner's consumption of alcohol or drugs had contributed to the incident.

Some women experience partner violence while they are pregnant. In 2005, 37% (83,500) of women who were pregnant during the relationship with a violent partner had experienced violence while pregnant. A small proportion (16%) said that the violence occurred for the first time while they were pregnant.

Consequences of partner violence

Partner violence can have serious consequences for the individual who experiences it, ranging from death or injury to fear and depression.¹ In 2004–05, there were 87 female homicides, with 57% of these having been perpetrated by intimate partners (including boyfriends, girlfriends and extra-marital partners).³

In 2005, 66% of women, whose most recent experience of physical assault was by a partner, reported being injured in the assault. The most common type of injury was bruises (59%). Almost one-fifth (19%) had cuts, and 9% had fractured or broken bones.

Type of injury received in most recent incident of physical assault — 2005

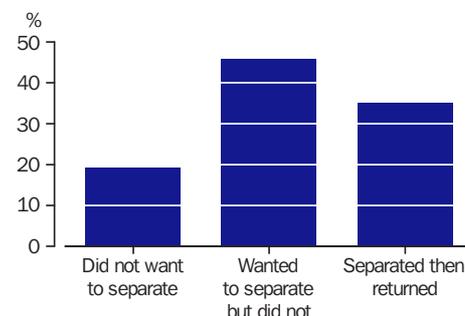
	'000	%
Total injured(a)	198.8	65.8
Bruises	179.0	59.3
Cuts	57.7	19.1
Scratches	47.8	15.8
Fractured or broken bones	26.7	8.9
Penetrative, gun shot or stab injury	*6.8	*2.3
Broken teeth	*6.3	*2.1
Other injury(b)	*18.6	*6.2
Not injured	103.1	34.2
Total women whose most recent incident of physical assault during the last five years was by a partner	301.8	100.0

(a) Components do not add to total as women may have experienced more than one type of injury, or been physically assaulted by both a male and a female partner.

(b) Other injury includes miscarriage; burns; bites; loss of digits, limbs, eyes or hearing; internal injuries; sexually transmitted diseases and loss of consciousness.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Separation during relationship(a) — 2005



(a) Of women who experienced current partner violence during the last five years.

Source: ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

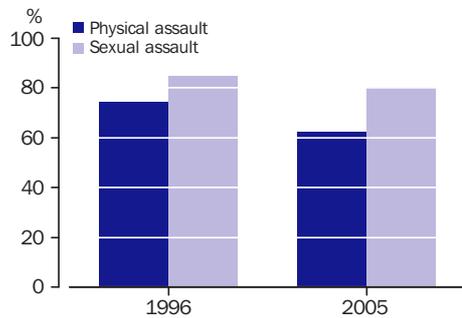
In addition to, or because of, such acts of violence an element of fear may exist during violent relationships, or may continue after they have ended. Almost a third (30% or 24,400) of women in 2005 who had experienced current partner violence during the last five years said that they had experienced anxiety or fear for their safety at least once during the last 12 months as a result of the violence, with 13% reporting that they had felt this way every day. Of women who had experienced violence from a previous partner during the last five years, 10% (31,400) said that they had experienced anxiety or fear for their safety every day during the last 12 months.

Violence that occurs between partners may also affect children living with them.¹ In 2005, 60% (214,000) of women who had experienced partner violence in the last five years had children in their care. Just over two-thirds of these women (68% or 145,000) said that the children had witnessed the violence.

Women's responses to partner violence

Women who experience violence from their partner may respond in different ways. They may feel shame or self-blame, and cope by denying or understating the seriousness of their situation.¹ They may also report the violence to the police, and/or leave their partner. Some women may leave and return to their partner several times.¹ In 2005, 35% (or 28,800) of women who had experienced violence in the previous five years from their current partner had separated from, then returned to their partner at least once. Almost half (46% or 13,300) of these women said that the main reason they initially left was because of the violence.

Police not told about assault(a)



(a) Of women whose most recent experience of physical assault or sexual assault during the last five years was by a partner.

Source: ABS 1996 Women's Safety Survey and ABS 2005 Personal Safety Survey.

Over half (57% or 159,000) the women who had experienced previous partner violence said that they had separated from, then returned to their partner at least once. A similar proportion (59%) of women who had experienced violence from a previous partner said that the main reason the relationship had ended was because of the violence. A further 12% said it ended because they wanted a better life for their children or they had found someone else.

A woman may experience violence from a partner while separated from them. In 2005, one in four (25% or 46,700) women, who had experienced partner violence and temporarily separated from their partner, reported that they had experienced violence from their partner during the temporary separation.

Of women who had experienced violence from a previous partner during the last five years, 25% (79,700) reported violence from a previous partner they were not living with at the time, including 19% who said that they had never experienced violence from their previous partner while living with them.

After ending a violent relationship, some women are stalked by their previous partner. Stalking refers to a range of activities, such as repeatedly waiting outside a person's workplace and/or home. In 2005, one-fifth (20% or 65,300) of women who had experienced previous partner violence during the last five years had also been stalked by a previous partner during this time, although this was not necessarily the same previous partner.

In response to violence, women may seek help from the police and/or turn to family or friends, or professionals like doctors or counsellors. In 2005, the majority (81% or 245,000) of women, whose most recent

experience of physical assault during the last five years was by a partner, said that they had told other people, such as family, friends, neighbours or colleagues. Just over a third (36%) said they had sought professional help, that is, from a doctor, counsellor, minister or priest. Just over three-quarters (77% or 50,700) of women sexually assaulted said that they had told other people, and 31% had sought professional help.

In 2005, 63% (189,000) of women, whose most recent experience of physical assault during the last five years was by a partner, said that the police were not informed about the incident (by them or by anyone else). This was significantly lower than in 1996, when 74% (327,000) said the physical assault was not reported. The majority of women who experienced sexual assault said that the police were not told (81% or 52,900 in 2005, and 85% or 76,900 in 1996).

The two most common main reasons given by women who said in 2005 that the police were not told of the physical assault was that they felt they could deal with it themselves (40% or 75,600) and fear of their partner (14%). That they felt they could deal with it themselves was also the most common main reason given by women who said that the sexual assault was not reported to the police (39% or 20,800).

Almost two-thirds (63% or 71,300) of women who reported the physical assault to the police said that the partner was not charged.

In some cases women need to seek a violence order against their partner. In 2005, 34% (108,000) of women who experienced violence from a previous partner during the last five years said that a violence order had been issued against their partner.

Endnotes

- 1 Krug, EG et al. (eds) 2002, *World report on violence and health*, World Health Organization, Geneva.
- 2 Access Economics 2004, *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I*, Office of the Status of Women, Canberra, viewed 25 September 2006, <<http://www.accesseconomics.com.au/publicationsreports/showreport.php?id=23&searchfor=2004&searchby=year>>.
- 3 Mouzos, J and Houliaras, T 2006, *Homicide in Australia: 2004–2005 National Homicide Monitoring Program (NHMP) annual report*, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, viewed 23 February 2007, <<http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/rpp/72/>>.

Participation in sports and physical recreation

In 2005-06, two-thirds (66%) of Australians aged 15 years and over took part in some sport or physical recreation with 27% of men and 32% of women participating more than twice each week.

Participating regularly in physical activity has been shown to benefit an individual's health and wellbeing. Regular physical activity is important in reducing the risk of chronic diseases, such as heart disease and stroke, obesity, diabetes and some forms of cancer.¹ The National Physical Activity Guidelines for Adults recommend at least 30 minutes of moderate-intensity physical activity, preferably every day of the week, to obtain health benefits.²

The national guidelines do not prescribe what kinds of physical activities may be most beneficial for improving health. Health related campaigns tend to focus on promoting activities such as walking, as this is likely to be of benefit across all age groups, and has minimal risk of injury. People participate in a wide range of sports and physical recreation, all of which may be important for general fitness. Participation in sports and physical recreation also provides important leisure and social activities for many people.

This article investigates the types of sports and physical recreation engaged in and the characteristics of participants. In particular, those who regularly participated more than twice a week are examined.

Participation rates

In 2005-06, 10.5 million Australians aged 15 years and over (66%) took part in sports and physical recreation. These included 29% of the population (or 4.7 million) who regularly participated more than twice a week and 36% (or 5.8 million) who participated up to twice

Data sources and definitions

Data presented in this article are primarily from the 2005-06 ABS Multi-Purpose Household Survey (MPHS) which, among other topics, collected information from those aged 15 years and over on participation in sports and physical recreation activity.

Sports and physical recreation activities were defined as including all types of activity other than gardening, housework, manual labouring and other forms of occupational physical activity.

Participation was defined as playing a sport or physically undertaking an activity at least once during the year before interview.

The *participation rate* for any group was calculated by expressing the number of people who participated in an activity at least once during the year as a percentage of the population aged 15 years and over.

Measures of the weekly frequency and regularity of participation throughout the year were also obtained from the MPHS and include:

More than twice a week refers to participation 105 times or more per year and in each month of the year.

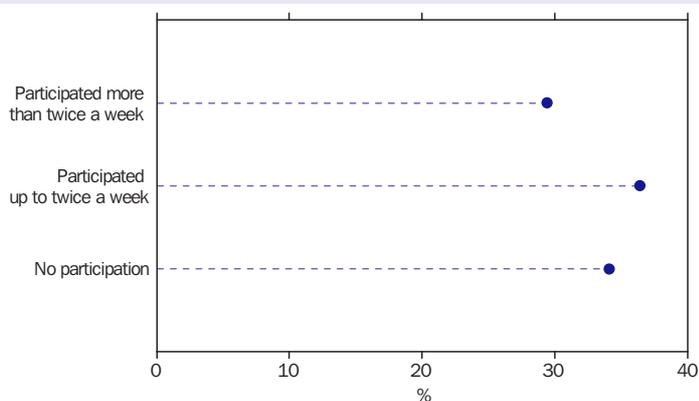
For this article, those who participated less frequently and regularly, are grouped as:

Participating *up to twice a week*, that is up to 104 times per year and in one to twelve months of the year.

Source: *Participation in Sports and Physical Recreation, Australia, 2005-06* (ABS cat. no. 4177.0).

a week. The remainder, approximately 5.5 million people (34%), reported that they did not participate in any such activity in the 12 months before interview.

Regularity of participation in sports and physical recreation — 2005-06



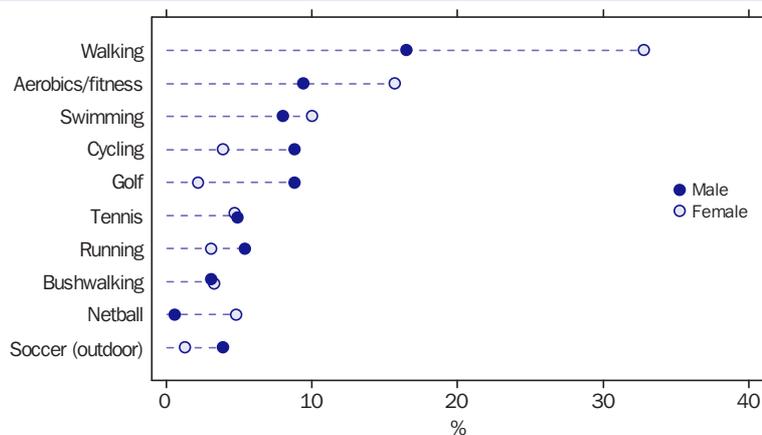
Source: ABS 2005-06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey.

Most popular activities

While there are a great variety of sports and physical recreational activities that people participate in, the ten most popular activities accounted for 76% of participation in 2005-06.

Walking was the most commonly reported physical recreation activity among Australians. One quarter of the population aged 15 years and over (almost 4 million people) participated in the 12 months prior to interview, with the female rate (33%) being almost double the male rate (17%). Walkers also accounted for over half of those who participated in sports and physical recreation more than twice a week (15% of the population).

Participation level of most popular activities — 2005–06



Source: ABS 2005–06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey.

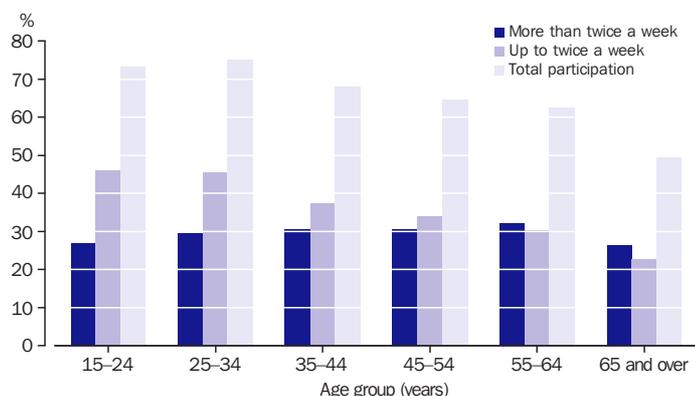
Aerobics/fitness was the second most popular activity, with 13% of the population aged 15 years and over participating. This activity was more popular with women (16%) than men (9%).

Swimming, the third most popular activity, had a participation rate of 9% with more women (10%) than men (8%) involved.

Over 1.0 million people (6% of the population) participated in cycling, and a further 875,000 (6%) played golf. Unlike the top three activities, these tended to be male dominated, with cycling being reported by 9% of males and 4% of females, while golf was played by 9% of males compared with 2% of females.

Males also had higher rates of participation in running, soccer, and cricket, while women were more active in netball, yoga and dancing.

Regularity of participation by age — 2005–06



Source: ABS 2005–06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey.

Characteristics of participants

Earlier analysis on the characteristics of participants in sports and physical recreation from the ABS 2002 General Social Survey found considerable variation in rates among different groups of the population.³

Controlling for other variables, the key associations with high levels of participation were demonstrated to be socio-demographic factors such as having a relatively high household income, living in an area with low socioeconomic disadvantage and having a post school qualification such as a degree or diploma. Other factors associated with participation were living alone or in a couple family without children, as well as being young (aged 18–24 years) and male.³

...age and sex

In the most recent 2005–06 survey, the participation rates for sports and physical recreation were higher for the younger age groups. Of those aged 15–24 years and 25–34 years, 73% and 75% (respectively) participated in the 12 months prior to interview. Participation rates declined with increasing age, with the lowest level (49%) being reported for those aged 65 years and over.

The age pattern for total participation was driven mainly by the age-specific rates of those who participated up to twice a week. For the latter group, the rate of participation was highest in the 15–24 and 25–34 years groups (at 46%) and lowest for those aged 65 years and over (23%).

However, the age-specific pattern of people who participated more than twice-weekly showed relatively consistent proportions engaging at this frequent and regular level, with a range of 27% (for those aged 65 years and over) to 32% (for those aged 55–64 years). Almost one-third (32%) of females participated more than twice a week compared with 27% of males. The peak age group for females participating at this level was the 55–64 year age group (37%), while the for males, the peak was in the 15–24 years age group (29%).

...country of birth

People born overseas in main English speaking countries had the highest rate of participation, with 72% reporting participation in 2005–06. This compared with 68% for those born in Australia and 52% for other overseas born people. A similar pattern in participation rate occurred for those participating more than twice-weekly, with the highest rate (38%) for those born

Participation rate, selected characteristics — 2005–06

	Participation	
	Total participation	more than twice a week
	%	%
Country of birth		
Australia	68.3	30.1
Other main English-speaking countries	72.4	37.8
Other countries	51.6	21.1
Labour force status		
Employed	72.0	31.0
Not in labour force	54.5	26.5
Education level		
Tertiary	80.8	39.4
Year 12 or below	58.7	25.3
Total	65.9	29.4
	'000	'000
Total	10 542.1	4 747.3

Source: ABS 2005–06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey.

overseas in main English speaking countries, compared with 30% for those born in Australia and 21% for those born in other overseas countries.

...labour force status

Employed people had a much higher overall participation rate (72%) than those who were not in the labour force (55%). However, this difference in rates was less for those who participated more than twice a week. For this

group, employed people had a participation rate of 31%, while those not in the labour force participated at a rate of 27%.

...education level

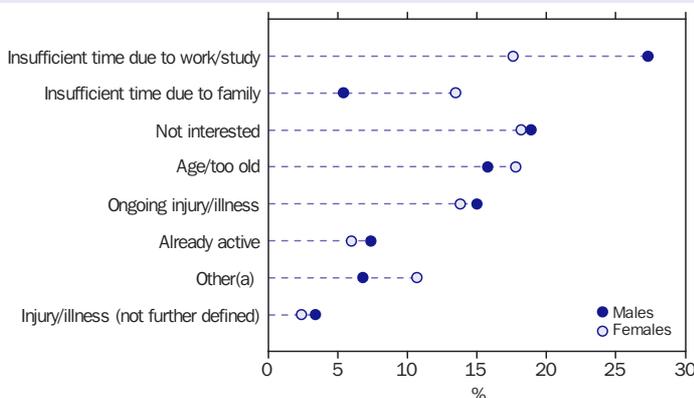
One of the strongest associations with participation rates was with education level attained. In 2005–06, those with tertiary qualifications had a participation rate of 81%, compared with 59% for those whose highest level of attainment was Year 12 or below. Similarly, for those who participated more than twice-weekly, those with tertiary qualifications had a higher participation rate (39%) than those with qualifications to Year 12 or below (25%).

Constraints and motivators

For those who did not take part, or who reported participating 12 times or less, in any sports or physical recreation in the 12 months before interview, the main constraint cited by 22% (or 1.4 million) was insufficient time because of work or study commitments. This was the most common main reason for males (27%), while for females, lack of interest was cited as the most common main reason (18%).

For those who participated more than 12 times within the 12 month period before interview, the majority of people (54% or 5.2 million) reported health and fitness as the most common main motivator. This was the main reason listed by 59% of females (2.9 million) and 50% of males (2.3 million) who participated more than 12 times in a year.

Main constraint for non or occasional participants — 2005–06



(a) Includes temporary injury/illness, cost and insufficient time for reasons other than work, study or family.

Source: ABS 2005–06 Multi-Purpose Household Survey.

Endnotes

- 1 World Health Organisation 2006, Chronic Disease Information Sheets: Physical Activity, WHO, viewed 1 May 2007, <<http://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/publications/facts/pa/en/index.html>>.
- 2 Department of Health and Ageing 1999, *An active way to better health. National Physical Activity Guidelines for Adults*, DoHA, viewed 1 May 2007, <<http://www.health.gov.au/internet/wcms/publishing.nsf/content/phd-physical-activity-adults-pdf-cnt.htm>>.
- 3 Stratton, M, Conn, L, Liaw, C and Conolly, L 2005, *Sport and Related Recreational Physical Activity - The Social Correlates of Participation and Non-Participation*, paper presented at the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Conference, Canberra.

Household waste

In 1992, 85% of households said that they recycled some of their waste. In 2006, 99% of households reported that they had recycled or reused some of their waste within the past year.

Over recent decades there has been a trend away from burning and burying waste in favour of recycling and reusing it. Since the 1970s, backyard incineration and open burning at landfills has been declining because of concern for the impact on human and environmental health. Less burning resulted in more landfilling, reducing the intake capability of existing landfills and creating demand for new ones.

Communities often object to proposed sites for landfills. This method of waste disposal is perceived by some to pose hazards for human and environmental health from possible soil and water contamination, greenhouse gas emissions and disease-carrying pests. Odours and visual aesthetics also contribute to the difficulty in establishing new landfills.

Since the early 1990s, conservation and sustainable development ideals have led to waste management policies seeking to minimise the disposal of waste by reducing its generation, and by reusing and recycling. In recent years, resource recovery has extended to extracting energy from waste, with some landfill gas being captured for fuel or electricity generation.

Waste generated from all sources

While there are no national, comprehensive, comparable data on the amount of waste generated by households in Australia, there are indicative data on the total amount of solid waste generated from all sources and how it has changed over time.

In 2002–03, an estimated 32 million tonnes of solid waste was generated from all sources in Australia (excluding Tasmania and the Northern Territory). Solid waste generation has risen at

Data sources and definitions

Most of the data in this article are from the ABS Survey of Waste Management and Transport Use. Data on the amount of waste generated are from the Department of Environment and Heritage, as published in the Productivity Commission Inquiry Report on Waste Management in October 2006.¹

A *household* is one or more persons, at least one of whom is at least 18 years of age, usually resident in the same private dwelling.

Waste is generally defined as any product or substance that has no further use for the person or organisation that generated it, and which is, or will be, discarded. It may be solid, liquid or gaseous.

Hazardous waste contains corrosive, toxic, ignitable, or reactive ingredients.

Reuse is recovering value from a discarded item without reprocessing or remanufacture. This typically involves using an item again for its originally intended purpose. An item can receive minor treatment such as washing, reconditioning or painting prior to reuse.

Recycling is the recovery of used products and their reformation for use as raw materials in the manufacture of new products, which may or may not be similar to the original.

A *landfill* is an area (usually a pit) into which solid waste is placed for permanent burial.

around 6% a year on average from an estimated 23 million tonnes in 1996–97. Increases in population and in consumption levels over the period are likely to have contributed to this increase. The estimated resident population of Australia increased by just over 1% a year between the start of 1997 and the end of 2002, while real household final consumption expenditure per person rose by almost 3% per year between 1996–97

Generation and treatment of solid waste from all sources(a)

	Total			Per person		
	1996–97 megatonnes	2002–03 megatonnes	Change %	1996–97 kilograms	2002–03 kilograms	Change %
Waste to landfill	21.2	17.4	-19	1 150	880	-23
Waste recycled	1.5	15.0	825	80	759	849
Total waste generated	22.7	32.4	42	1 230	1 639	33

(a) Figures should be regarded as indicative. Data are not complete for every state and territory and are not strictly comparable between time periods. Estimates for 1996–97 are considered less reliable than estimates for 2002–03.

Source: Department of Environment and Heritage (DEH) 2006 submission to the Productivity Commission Inquiry into Waste Generation and Resource Efficiency; DEH data published in the Productivity Commission 2006, Waste Management, Report no. 38, Canberra.

Solid waste generated by source(a) — 2002–03

Source of waste	Waste to landfill megatonnes	Waste recycled megatonnes	Total waste generated megatonnes	Proportion of waste recycled %
Municipal	6.2	2.7	8.9	30
Commercial and industrial	5.3	4.2	9.5	44
Construction and demolition	5.9	7.8	13.7	57
Total	17.4	14.9	32.4	46

(a) Figures should be regarded as indicative. Data are not complete for every state and territory.

Source: DEH data published in Productivity Commission 2006, Waste Management, Report no. 38, Canberra.

and 2002–03 (see *Australian Social Trends 2007*, Trends in Household Consumption, pp. 158–163).

In the absence of national statistics, Victorian and ACT data suggest that waste generation has continued to increase since 2002–03. Between 2002–03 and 2004–05, total solid waste generation rose from about 1.8 to 2.0 tonnes per person in Victoria, and from around 2.1 to 2.3 tonnes per person in the ACT. The average annual increase during this two year period was 6% in both jurisdictions.¹

Despite the apparent sizeable increase in the amount of solid waste being generated, the overall trend is towards reduced landfilling and increased recycling of waste. An estimated 19% less solid waste was buried as landfill in Australia (excluding Tasmania and the Northern Territory) during 2002–03 (17 million tonnes) than during 1996–97 (21 million tonnes). This was accompanied by a strong increase in the amount of solid

waste recycled, from an estimated 80 kilograms per person during 1996–97 to 759 kilograms per person during 2002–03.

...municipal waste

Just over one quarter (27% or 8.9 megatonnes) of the solid waste generated in 2002–03 was municipal waste, that is, waste collected and treated by or for municipalities. Most of the municipal waste was generated by households, but some would also have come from commercial activities, offices, institutions and some small businesses. On a per person basis, Australians generated 450 kilograms of municipal waste per person in 2002–03.

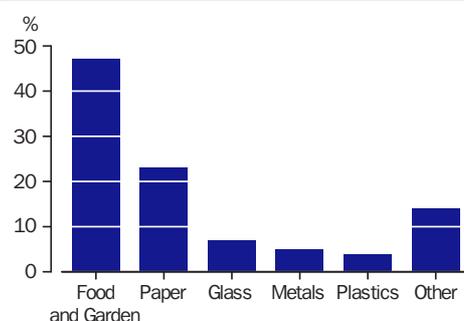
A smaller proportion of municipal waste was recycled compared with waste from other sources. Less than a third (30%) of municipal waste was recycled compared with 44% of commercial and industrial waste and 57% of construction and demolition waste.

One reason for the lower level of recycling of municipal waste compared with waste from other sources is the greater prevalence of food and garden waste in municipal waste. The presence of food and garden waste in waste streams can make extraction of recyclable materials more difficult to reprocess, without first having it sorted by householders. In 2002–03, nearly half (47%) of Australian municipal waste generated was food and garden waste. In comparison 13% of commercial and industrial waste, and 1% of construction and demolition waste was food and garden waste.

Treatment of household waste

Recycling of household waste appears to have become more commonly practised since the early 1990s. In May 1992, 85% of households said that they recycled at least one of the waste materials listed in the following graph. In March 2006, 99% of households reported that they had recycled or reused one or more of the listed waste materials within the past year.

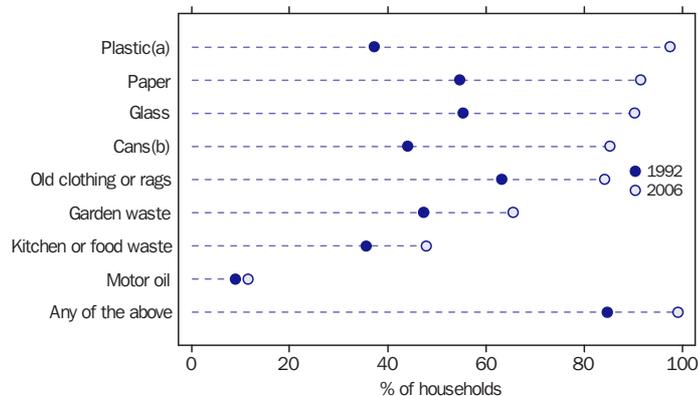
Composition of municipal waste(a) — 2002–03



(a) Figures should be regarded as indicative. Data are for all states and territories except South Australia, the Northern Territory and Tasmania.

Source: Department of Environment and Heritage data published in Productivity Commission 2006, Waste Management, Report no. 38, Canberra.

Rates of waste recycling/reuse by households



(a) Plastic in 1992 and plastic bottles or plastic bags in 2006.
 (b) Cans in 1992 and aluminium cans or steel cans in 2006.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, May 1992, March 2000 and March 2006 editions (ABS cat. no. 4602.0); ABS 2006 Survey of Waste Management and Transport Use.

More widespread household recycling activity has been observed for a range of materials. Notably, 92% of households recycled or reused paper in the year to March 2006, up from the 55% who declared themselves to be paper recyclers in May 1992. Over the same period, there was a similar increase in the proportion who recycled/reused glass (from 55% to 90%), and substantial but smaller rises in the proportions who recycled/reused old clothing or rags (63% to 84%), garden waste (47% to 66%), and kitchen or food waste (36% to 48%).

Of the other listed recyclable waste materials, there was a large increase in the proportion of households recycling/reusing cans between 1992 (44%) and 2006 (around 85%). Yet plastic was the material subject to the largest increase in the rate of recycling. In May 1992, when PET was the only type of plastic that could be recycled widely in Australia, 37% of households reported recycling plastic. In March 2006, when many types of plastic were being recycled, 97% of households reported having recycled or reused plastic bags or plastic bottles within the previous 12 months.

There are several possible explanations for increased rates of waste recycling/reuse between 1992 and 2006. Access to kerbside recycling in urban areas has greatly increased since the early 1990s. Kerbside collection methods have also improved with increased provision of easy use wheelie bins increasing yields of recyclable materials.

Rising commodity prices have raised the incentive to recover some used products for transformation into raw material for the manufacture of new products. At the same time, increased landfill levies in many states and territories have discouraged waste burial in favour of waste recycling. Recycling rates

Motor oil

Used motor oil is considered to be a potentially hazardous waste as it is capable of polluting land, waterways, underground reservoirs and the marine environment. One litre of used oil has the capacity to contaminate up to one million litres of water. It can also pose a fire hazard if stored improperly.²

In March 2006, 12% of households reported recycling or reusing some motor oil in the previous 12 months. At the same time, 35% of households reported disposing of some motor oil, including car service oil change, in the previous 12 months.³

Of those households who reported disposing of motor oil, most (81%) disposed through a business or shop. Some (8%) disposed through a special area at a dump or waste transfer station, and 2% disposed at another central collection point. Only 1% used a special collection service, and less than 1% sold or gave it away. Similarly small proportions disposed of oil at a dump/waste transfer station's general area (2%) or via their usual household rubbish collection (2%), poured it down a drain, burnt or buried it (under 1%) or used another method (4%).³

Much of the motor oil disposed of by households is ultimately recycled or reused, as used oil can be cleaned and reused. Recycled oil can serve as industrial burner fuel or hydraulic oil, be re-refined back into new lubricating oil, or be incorporated into other products. Supported by the Australian Government's *Product Stewardship for Oil Program*, around 220 of the estimated 280 to 300 million litres of used oil generated by industry and the community in 2004–05 was recycled.²

for particular waste materials may also have been boosted by the introduction of industry product stewardships and/or campaigns encouraging householders to recycle.

Reasons for not recycling/reusing

There are various reasons why households do not recycle or reuse waste materials that are recyclable or reusable. In 2006, the major reasons for not recycling or reusing waste varied according to the type of material.

Just over half (52%) of all Australian households did not recycle or reuse kitchen or food waste between March 2005 and March 2006. Not producing any or enough kitchen or food waste to warrant recycling or reusing it was the most commonly cited reason (38%). One-fifth (21%) were not interested in recycling or reusing such waste, or felt that too much effort was required to do so. A similar proportion did not recycle or reuse kitchen or food waste because a recycling service or facility was either unavailable, inadequate or unknown to them. Some (10%) did not recycle or reuse kitchen or food waste because there was no room in

Reasons households do not recycle or reuse selected waste materials — 2006

	Kitchen or food waste	Garden waste	Old clothing or rags	Glass	Paper
	%	%	%	%	%
Don't have any or enough waste	38.1	60.0	67.9	35.5	23.6
No service or facilities available	13.0	7.0	3.2	36.3	46.0
Inadequate services or facilities	3.8	1.9	*0.6	4.2	4.7
Uncertain of services or facilities	2.1	1.3	2.1	2.6	2.1
Not interested or too much effort	20.6	12.4	12.4	15.7	17.5
No storage area at home	10.0	5.9	*0.3	*0.9	*0.7
Other reason	7.0	7.2	5.6	3.2	4.1
No reason given	8.6	6.1	8.6	4.8	4.8
Total(a)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Proportion of all households not recycling or reusing the selected waste material	52.1	34.4	15.8	9.7	8.5

(a) Reasons may sum to more than 100% as a household may have more than one reason for not recycling/reusing a material.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2006* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

their dwelling or yard to compost organic matter (e.g. households living in units without yards).

Just over one-third (34%) of Australian households did not recycle or reuse garden waste between March 2005 and March 2006. Most (60%) of them did not recycle or reuse garden waste because they did not generate any, or enough, to make it worthwhile. Many households do not have a garden, and therefore generate little or no garden waste.

Only 16% of households did not recycle or reuse old clothing or rags between March 2005 and March 2006. Of these households, 68% did not have any or enough old clothing or rags to warrant doing so. About 12% either lacked interest in recycling or reusing this waste material or felt that too much effort was needed to do so.

Relatively small proportions of households did not recycle or reuse glass (10%) or paper (8%) between March 2005 and March 2006. The most frequently nominated reason for not recycling or reusing these waste materials was the unavailability, inadequacy or lack of awareness of recycling services and facilities.

Differences between jurisdictions

Some of the reasons households do not recycle or reuse various waste materials partly explain observed differences in waste material recycling/reuse rates among Australian states and territories, and among local councils within these areas. The availability of kerbside recycling as part of regular household garbage collection is a major determinant of

recycling/reuse rates. Recycling services and facilities are more likely to be available in jurisdictions with a higher population density than in those with a lower density, as kerbside recycling schemes are more expensive to introduce and maintain in rural areas than in urban areas.² For example, the costs and benefits of collecting newspapers in a city could favour their recycling, whereas it might not be cost effective to do so in more sparsely populated areas.

Between March 2005 and March 2006, households in the Australian Capital Territory and Victoria were those most likely to recycle or reuse paper products, glass, plastic bottles, and aluminium and steel cans. These items are typically collected from kerbside wheelie bins dedicated to recyclable materials.

Tasmanian households were most likely to recycle or reuse kitchen or food waste (63%) while those in New South Wales were least likely to do so (44%). Households in New South Wales were also less likely to recycle or reuse garden waste than Tasmanian households, reflecting the greater proportion of households living in medium and high density housing in New South Wales.

Endnotes

- 1 Productivity Commission 2006, *Waste Management*, Report no. 38, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Australia's Environment: Issues and Trends 2006*, cat. no. 4613.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006, *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2006*, cat. no. 4602.0, ABS, Canberra.

International comparisons



	Page
Population	214
Population composition, population growth, population projections.	
Health	217
Life expectancy, health services and expenditure.	
Education	219
Educational attainment, educational participation and expenditure, student performance, unemployment rates and educational attainment.	
Work	223
Labour force, employment and unemployment.	

Caution

Statistics presented in this chapter have been reproduced from international statistical compendia. National statistical systems differ from country to country and therefore caution should be exercised when comparing international data. Source publications may differ in their classification of China, specifically in regards to the inclusion or exclusion of Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. Details of national differences and country classifications can be found in the country specific notes in the source publications.

**Population composition(a)**

Country	Reference year	Total population '000	0–14 years %	15–59 years %	60 years and over %
Australia	2005	20 310	19.5	62.7	17.8
Canada	2005	32 271	17.6	64.5	17.8
China	2005	1 312 979	21.6	67.4	11.0
France	2005	60 991	18.4	60.8	20.8
Greece	2005	11 100	14.2	62.5	23.3
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2005	7 057	15.1	69.5	15.4
Indonesia	2005	226 063	28.4	63.3	8.3
Italy	2005	58 646	13.9	60.7	25.3
Japan	2005	127 897	13.9	59.7	26.4
Korea (Republic of)	2005	47 870	18.6	67.6	13.7
Malaysia	2005	25 653	31.4	61.9	6.7
New Zealand	2005	4 097	21.5	62.0	16.6
Papua New Guinea	2005	6 070	40.6	55.5	3.9
Singapore	2005	4 327	19.5	68.2	12.3
Sweden	2005	9 038	17.4	59.2	23.4
United Kingdom	2005	60 245	18.0	60.8	21.2
United States of America	2005	299 846	20.8	62.6	16.6
Viet Nam	2005	85 029	29.6	62.8	7.6

(a) Medium variant projection.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2005 Revision*, viewed 25 May 2007, <<http://esa.un.org/unpp/>>.



Population growth(a)

Country	Reference year	Annual average growth rate(b) %	Crude birth rate(c) rate	Crude death rate(c) rate	Total fertility rate rate
Australia	2005–2010	1.0	12.4	7.1	1.8
Canada	2005–2010	0.9	10.3	7.4	1.5
China	2005–2010	0.6	13.1	7.1	1.7
France	2005–2010	0.5	12.2	8.9	1.9
Greece	2005–2010	0.2	9.3	9.9	1.3
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2005–2010	1.0	7.6	5.9	1.0
Indonesia	2005–2010	1.2	18.7	6.3	2.2
Italy	2005–2010	0.1	9.2	10.5	1.4
Japan	2005–2010	—	8.3	9.0	1.3
Korea (Republic of)	2005–2010	0.3	9.3	5.9	1.2
Malaysia	2005–2010	1.7	20.6	4.5	2.6
New Zealand	2005–2010	0.9	13.7	7.1	2.0
Papua New Guinea	2005–2010	2.0	29.6	9.6	3.8
Singapore	2005–2010	1.2	8.2	5.3	1.3
Sweden	2005–2010	0.5	11.3	10.1	1.8
United Kingdom	2005–2010	0.4	12.0	9.9	1.8
United States of America	2005–2010	1.0	14.0	8.2	2.1
Viet Nam	2005–2010	1.3	18.8	5.1	2.1

(a) Medium variant projection.

(b) Data is the average exponential rate of growth.

(c) Per 1,000 population.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2005 Revision*, viewed 25 May 2007, <<http://esa.un.org/unpp/>>.



Population projections(a)

Country	Population			Median age			0–14 years			65 years and over		
	2010 million	2030 million	2050 million	2010 years	2030 years	2050 years	2010 %	2030 %	2050 %	2010 %	2030 %	2050 %
Australia(b)	21.4	25.3	28.0	38.0	41.6	43.4	18.5	17.3	16.3	14.2	21.3	24.3
Canada	33.8	39.1	42.8	40.0	43.9	45.3	16.2	15.3	15.6	14.2	23.2	25.7
China	1,351.5	1,458.4	1,408.8	34.9	41.3	45.0	19.6	17.3	15.3	8.4	16.2	23.7
France	62.5	66.6	68.3	40.0	43.3	44.7	18.2	16.4	16.0	16.5	23.2	25.9
Greece	11.2	11.2	10.8	41.9	48.4	50.1	13.9	12.6	13.3	18.8	24.2	31.7
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	7.4	8.5	9.0	41.1	48.5	52.1	13.3	11.2	11.2	12.5	25.8	32.6
Indonesia	239.6	279.7	296.9	28.2	35.4	41.1	26.6	20.0	17.5	6.1	10.7	18.6
Italy	59.0	57.5	54.6	43.8	50.2	50.4	13.8	12.2	13.3	20.6	27.0	32.6
Japan	127.8	118.3	102.5	44.6	52.1	54.9	13.4	10.8	11.3	22.5	30.6	37.7
Korea (Republic of)	48.7	48.4	42.3	38.0	48.1	54.9	15.9	11.8	10.4	11.3	23.4	35.1
Malaysia	27.9	35.3	39.6	26.3	33.2	39.3	29.2	21.8	18.3	4.8	10.4	16.3
New Zealand	4.3	4.9	5.2	36.8	41.0	44.1	20.2	17.5	16.1	13.0	20.6	24.1
Papua New Guinea	6.7	9.2	11.2	20.3	25.7	30.9	38.7	30.2	23.8	2.5	4.4	7.3
Singapore	4.6	5.2	5.0	40.6	48.3	53.7	15.5	13.0	11.1	10.1	27.4	32.8
Sweden	9.2	10.0	10.5	41.1	42.6	43.3	16.3	17.1	16.4	18.4	22.8	24.1
United Kingdom	61.5	66.2	68.7	40.0	42.2	43.4	17.3	16.9	16.2	16.6	21.6	24.1
United States of America	314.7	366.2	402.4	36.5	39.1	41.1	20.1	18.2	17.3	12.8	19.4	21.0
Viet Nam	90.8	110.4	120.0	26.9	35.8	41.6	26.3	20.4	17.2	5.6	10.9	19.2

(a) Medium variant projection.

(b) United Nations projections for Australia may not agree with ABS projections owing to differences in assumptions and methodology.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2005 Revision*, viewed 25 May 2007, <<http://esa.un.org/unpp/>>.



Life expectancy

Country	Reference year	Infant mortality rate(a)(b)	Life expectancy at birth(b)		Reference year	Healthy life expectancy at birth(c)	
			Males	Females		Males	Females
			years	years		years	years
Australia	2005–2010	4	78.9	83.6	2002	70.9	74.3
Canada	2005–2010	5	78.3	82.9	2002	70.1	74.0
China	2005–2010	23	71.3	74.8	2002	63.1	65.2
France	2005–2010	4	77.1	84.1	2002	69.3	74.7
Greece	2005–2010	7	77.1	81.9	2002	69.1	72.9
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2005–2010	4	79.4	85.1	..	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	2005–2010	27	68.7	72.7	2002	57.4	58.9
Italy	2005–2010	5	77.5	83.5	2002	70.7	74.7
Japan	2005–2010	3	79.0	86.1	2002	72.3	77.7
Korea (Republic of)	2005–2010	4	75.0	82.2	2002	64.8	70.8
Malaysia	2005–2010	9	72.0	76.7	2002	61.6	64.8
New Zealand	2005–2010	5	78.2	82.2	2002	69.5	72.2
Papua New Guinea	2005–2010	61	54.6	60.4	2002	51.4	52.4
Singapore	2005–2010	3	78.0	81.9	2002	68.8	71.3
Sweden	2005–2010	3	78.7	83.0	2002	71.9	74.8
United Kingdom	2005–2010	5	77.2	81.6	2002	69.1	72.1
United States of America	2005–2010	6	75.6	80.8	2002	67.2	71.3
Viet Nam	2005–2010	20	72.3	76.2	2002	59.8	62.9

(a) Per 1,000 live births.

(b) Medium variant projection.

(c) Healthy life expectancy is based on life expectancy, but indicates an adjustment for time spent in poor health. This indicator measures the equivalent number of years in full health that a newborn child can expect to live based on current mortality rates and prevalence distribution of health states in the population.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2005 Revision*, viewed 25 May 2007, <<http://esa.un.org/unpp/>>; The World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2004: Changing History*, viewed 28 March 2007, <<http://www.who.int/whr/2004/annex/topic/annex4.xls>>.



Health services and expenditure

Country	Reference year	Health expenditure as % of GDP	Health expenditure per capita(a) \$US '000	Reference year	Doctors per 1,000 population	Reference year	Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population
		%			no.		no.
Australia	2003	9.5	2.9	2003	r2.6	2003	3.6
Canada	2003	9.9	3.0	2004	2.1	2003	r3.0
China	2003	5.6	0.3	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
France	2003	10.1	2.9	2004	3.4	2004	3.8
Greece	2003	9.9	2.0	2004	4.9	2002	3.8
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Indonesia	2003	3.1	0.1	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Italy	2003	8.4	2.3	2004	4.2	2003	r3.7
Japan	2003	7.9	2.2	2004	2.0	2004	8.4
Korea (Republic of)	2003	5.6	1.1	2004	1.6	2003	5.9
Malaysia	2003	3.8	0.4	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
New Zealand	2003	8.1	1.9	2003	2.2	..	n.a.
Papua New Guinea	2003	3.4	0.1	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Singapore	2003	4.5	1.2	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Sweden	2003	9.4	2.7	2003	3.3	2004	2.2
United Kingdom	2003	8.0	2.4	2004	2.3	2004	3.6
United States of America	2003	15.2	5.7	2004	2.4	2004	2.8
Viet Nam	2003	5.4	0.2	..	n.a.	..	n.a.

(a) The per capita values are presented in international dollar estimates (using US dollars), derived by dividing each country's health expenditure by an estimate of its purchasing power parity (PPP) compared with US dollars, i.e. a rate or measure that minimises the consequences of differences in price levels existing between countries.

Source: The World Health Organisation 2006, *The World Health Report 2006: Working together for health*, viewed 12 March 2007, <www.who.int/whr/2006/annex/06_annex2_en.pdf>, <www.who.int/whr/2006/annex/06_annex3_en.pdf>; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD in Figures 2006-07*, viewed 30 March 2007, <http://www.oecdobserver.org/news/get_file.php3/id/25/file/OECDInFigures2006-2007.pdf>.



Distribution of persons aged 25–64 years by level of educational attainment

Country	Reference year	Upper secondary education and post-secondary non-tertiary education(b)				Tertiary type B education(c)	Tertiary type A and advanced research programs(d)	Total(e)
		Below upper secondary education(a)	%	%	%			
Australia	2004	36	34	9	22	100		
Canada	2004	16	39	22	22	100		
China	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
France	2004	35	41	10	16	100		
Greece	2004	42	37	6	14	100		
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
Italy	2004	51	37	(f)	11	100		
Japan	2004	16	47	17	21	100		
Korea (Republic of)	2004	26	44	8	22	100		
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
New Zealand	2004	22	53	8	18	100		
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		
Sweden	2004	17	48	15	19	100		
United Kingdom	2004	15	56	9	20	100		
United States of America	2004	13	49	9	29	100		
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.		

(a) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 0, 1 and 2. For Australia this includes Preschool, Primary School and lower Secondary School levels as well as the Basic Vocational level.

(b) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 3 and 4. For Australia this includes Year 12 completion as well as the Skilled Vocational level.

(c) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 5B. For Australia this includes Associate Diplomas and Undergraduate Diplomas.

(d) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 5A and 6. For Australia this includes Bachelor degree level or higher.

(e) Component totals when added may not equal 100% due to rounding.

(f) Data included in Tertiary Type A and advanced research programs.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2006*, OECD, Paris, viewed 3 April 2007, <<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/47/51/37363421.xls>>.



Educational participation(a) and expenditure

Enrolment rates by age group (years)

Country	Reference year(b)	Enrolment rates by age group (years)				Reference year(b)	Total public expenditure as a proportion of GDP(c)	Total public and private expenditure as a proportion of GDP(d)
		15–19 %	20–29 %	30–39 %	40 and over %		%	%
Australia	2004	81.6	32.6	14.0	6.1	2003	4.3	5.8
Canada	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2003	4.6	5.9
China	2003	13.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
France	2004	87.1	20.8	2.6	n.a.	2003	5.8	6.3
Greece	2004	85.5	28.0	0.4	n.a.	2003	4.0	4.2
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	2003	51.5	3.9	—	—	2002	1.2	1.9
Italy	2004	78.8	19.4	3.1	—	2003	4.6	5.1
Japan	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2003	3.5	4.8
Korea (Republic of)	2004	85.2	27.4	1.9	0.4	2003	4.6	7.5
Malaysia	2003	56.0	8.4	1.2	0.2	2002	8.1	n.a.
New Zealand	2004	72.5	30.0	12.0	4.7	2003	5.7	6.8
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2004	87.5	35.8	13.5	3.1	2003	6.5	6.7
United Kingdom	2004	79.0	27.8	15.6	7.8	2003	5.1	6.1
United States of America	2004	76.5	23.4	5.2	1.5	2003	5.4	7.5
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Participation rates are based on full-time and part-time enrolments.

(b) 1 January of the reference year is considered a good proxy for the midpoint of the school year except for New Zealand, Australia and Korea where 1 July is used as the midpoint of the reference period.

(c) Includes both purchases by the government agency itself on educational resources and also appropriations by the government agency to educational institutions which have been given responsibility to purchase educational resources themselves. Also includes public subsidies to households attributable for educational institutions, and direct expenditure on educational institutions from international sources.

(d) Public expenditure refers to the spending of public authorities at all levels. Private expenditure refers to expenditure funded by private sources i.e. households, private business firms and nonprofit organisations of religious, charitable or business and labour associations.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2006*, OECD, Paris, viewed 5 April 2007, <<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/46/4/37368607.xls>>, <<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/7/34/37344667.xls>>.


Student performance on combined reading, mathematical and scientific literacy scales(a)

Country	Reference year	Combined reading literacy		Mathematical literacy		Scientific literacy	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
		Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score
Australia	2003	506	545	527	522	525	525
Canada	2003	514	546	541	530	527	516
China	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
France	2003	476	514	515	507	511	511
Greece	2003	453	490	455	436	487	475
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2003	494	525	552	548	538	541
Indonesia	2003	369	394	362	358	396	394
Italy	2003	455	495	475	457	490	484
Japan	2003	487	509	539	530	550	546
Korea (Republic of)	2003	525	547	552	528	546	527
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	2003	508	535	531	516	529	513
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2003	496	533	512	506	509	504
United Kingdom	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
United States of America	2003	479	511	486	480	494	489
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) A scaling method assigns scores so that 500 is the OECD average in each domain.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *PISA 2003 Country Profiles*, viewed 12 March 2007, <http://www.pisa.oecd.org/document/5/0,2340,en_32252351_32236173_33917573_37627442_1_1_1_1,00.html>.



Unemployment rate(a)(b) by level of educational attainment and gender of 25–64 year olds

Country(c)	Reference year	Below upper secondary education		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education		Tertiary non-university education		University education		All levels of education	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia	2004	6.8	5.6	3.4	4.9	3.3	2.7	2.7	2.9	4.2	4.3
Canada	2004	9.9	9.9	6.2	6.0	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.8	6.0	5.7
China	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
France	2004	11.5	13.0	5.8	9.7	5.1	5.2	6.6	7.0	7.5	9.7
Greece	2004	5.2	13.7	5.8	16.0	3.1	11.6	4.8	9.5	5.2	13.5
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Italy	2004	6.2	11.5	4.3	6.8	4.7	7.5	3.5	6.0	5.0	8.2
Japan	2004	8.0	4.6	5.5	5.3	4.8	4.5	3.1	3.3	5.1	4.7
Korea (Republic of)	2004	3.5	1.9	3.9	2.9	3.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	3.5	2.5
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	2004	3.7	4.8	2.0	3.0	1.1	4.3	2.5	3.1	2.4	3.8
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2004	6.4	6.9	6.0	5.6	5.6	3.9	4.3	3.6	5.7	5.0
United Kingdom	2004	7.9	5.1	2.4	2.0	2.9	1.7	2.5	2.0	3.8	3.3
United States of America	2004	9.5	12.3	6.2	5.0	5.2	3.6	3.0	2.9	5.4	4.7
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Unemployment rate is the number of unemployed persons aged 25–64 years as a percentage of people in the labour force.

(b) Derived from unemployment rate and educational attainment by gender.

(c) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on unemployment rates.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2006, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2006*, viewed 12 March 2007, <<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/22/35/35282639.xls>>, <<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/22/6/35282844.xls>>.



Labour force

Country(d)	Reference year	Economically active population aged 15 years and over (a)(b)(c) '000	Reference year	Participation rate of persons aged 15 years and over		
				Total %	Males %	Females(b) %
Australia	2005	10 492.3	2004	62.7	70.4	55.3
Canada	2005	17 342.5	2004	67.6	73.3	62.1
China	2003	760 800.0	1990	79.2	85.0	73.0
France	2004	27 447.4	2004	55.4	62.0	49.2
Greece	2005	4 848.8	2004	53.2	65.0	42.2
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2005	3 586.3	2003	61.4	72.0	51.6
Indonesia	2005	105 802.4	1999	67.9	84.6	51.5
Italy	2005	24 509.4	2004	49.4	61.3	38.3
Japan	2005	66 500.0	2004	60.4	73.4	48.2
Korea (Republic of)	2005	23 744.0	2004	62.0	74.8	49.8
Malaysia	2000	9 616.1	2000	65.5	83.3	46.7
New Zealand	2005	2 152.1	2004	67.0	74.5	59.9
Papua New Guinea	2000	2 257.9	2000	72.5	73.5	71.3
Singapore	2005	2 367.3	2000	68.6	81.1	55.5
Sweden	2005	4 533.0	2004	70.6	73.3	67.9
United Kingdom	2005	29 517.2	2004	62.6	70.1	55.7
United States of America	2005	149 320.0	2004	66.0	73.3	59.2
Viet Nam	2004	43 242.0	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Economically active population are all those persons who during the specified reference period are classified either as employed or as unemployed. Reference: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 2003, p.3.

(b) Participation rates for women are frequently not comparable internationally since, in many countries, relatively large numbers of women assist on farms or in other family enterprises without pay. There are differences among countries in the criteria used to count economically active workers.

(c) For most countries the Economically active populations are aged 15 years and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: Malaysia – 15–64 years; Sweden – 16–64 years; China, UK and USA – 16 years and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(d) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on the labour force.

Source: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics LABORITE*, viewed 5 January 2007, <<http://laborsta.ilo.org/>>; International Labour Office, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market 2003*; International Labour Market, 2005, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market*, 4th edn, CD-ROM, International Labour Office, Geneva.

**Employment and unemployment**

<i>Country(b)</i>	<i>Reference year</i>	<i>Employment(a)</i> '000	<i>Unemployment(a)</i> '000	<i>Unemployment rate(a)</i> %
Australia	2005	9 957.3	535.0	5.1
Canada	2005	16 169.7	1 172.8	6.8
China	2005	n.a.	8 390(c)	4.2
France	2004	24 720.2	2 727.2	9.9
Greece	2005	4 382.1	466.7	9.6
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2005	3 385.5	200.7	5.6
Indonesia	2005	94 948.1	10 854.0	10.3
Italy	2005	22 620.9	1 888.5	7.7
Japan	2005	63 560.0	2 940.0	4.4
Korea (Republic of)	2005	22 856.0	887.0	3.7
Malaysia	2004	9 986.6	369.8	3.6
New Zealand	2005	2 072.9	79.3	3.7
Papua New Guinea	2000	n.a.	68.6	2.8
Singapore	2005	2 266.7	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2005	4 263.0	270.0	6.0
United Kingdom	2005	2 8165.6	1,351.6	4.6
United States of America	2005	141 729.0	7,591.0	5.1
Viet Nam	2004	42 315.6	926.4	2.1

(a) For most countries the employed and unemployed populations are aged 15 years and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: Malaysia – 15–64 years; Sweden – 16–64 years; UK - Males 16 to 64 years and females 16-59 years; USA – 16 years and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(b) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on employment and unemployment.

(c) Unemployment relates to urban areas only.

Source: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics LABORITE*, viewed 12 March 2007, <<http://laborsta.ilo.org/>>.

Cumulative topic list

	Page
Population	226
Family and community	227
Health	228
Education and training	229
Work	229
Economic resources	230
Housing	231
Other areas of social concern	232

Cumulative topic list

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Population					
Population characteristics					
20th century: beginning and end.	2000.	6			
Ancestry of Australia's population.	2003.	12			
Australia's babies.	2007.	18			
Populations of Australia and New Zealand: a comparison.	2001.	7			
Seachange — new residents in coastal areas.	2004.	11			
Social conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.	2000.	21			
Social circumstances of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.	2005.	12			
Socioeconomic disadvantage across urban, rural and remote areas.	2000.	16			
Young Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.	2006.	13			
Population composition					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.	1994.	5			
Asian-born Australians.	2001.	12			
Australian citizenship.	1996.	5			
Birthplace of overseas-born Australians.	1997.	12			
Changing links with Europe.	1997.	16			
Expanding links with Asia.	1996.	10			
Indigenous languages.	1999.	16			
Languages spoken in Australia.	1999.	11			
New Zealanders in Australia.	2002.	22			
Older overseas-born Australians.	2002.	17			
People in institutional settings.	2003.	17			
People in their 20s: then and now.	2005.	18			
People in their 50s: then and now.	2006.	7			
Regional population ageing.	2002.	7			
Second generation Australians.	1995.	5			
Population distribution					
Aged Australia.	1994.	22			
Australian expatriates in OECD countries.	2006.	19			
Internal migration.	1995.	16			
Interstate migration.	1998.	5			
Island populations.	1999.	21			
Population characteristics and remoteness.	2003.	7			
Regional populations: growth and decline.	2000.	11			
Small towns: which ones are in decline?.	1998.	10			
Where do overseas-born people live?	2004.	22			
Youth migration within Australia.	2003.	22			
Population growth					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander fertility.	1994.	18			
Australia's child population.	1997.	8			
Australia's population growth.	1996.	17			
Birthplaces of Australia's settlers.	1994.	9			
Capital city growth and development.	1996.	23			
Changes in immigration intake.	1998.	18			
Coming to Australia.	2001.	16			
Echoes of the baby boom.	2004.	7			
Emigration.	1994.	13			
Growth and distribution of Indigenous people.	1998.	15			
International fertility comparison.	2007.	13			
International population comparison.	1997.	5			
Leaving Australia.	2001.	21			
Migration: permanent additions to Australia's population.	2007.	24			
Net overseas migration.	1995.	11			
Pace of ageing: Australia and Japan.	2006.	23			
Recent fertility trends.	2005.	23			
Recent increases in Australia's fertility.	2007.	9			
Population projections					
Fertility futures.	2002.	12			
Future living arrangements.	2005.	7			
Our ageing population.	1999.	6			
Population projections for the 21st century.	2001.	26			
Projections of the aged population.	1994.	27			
Projections of the working age population.	1995.	21			
Scenarios for Australia's ageing population.	2004.	16			

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Family and community			Services and assistance		
Community functioning			Before and/or after school care.	2007...	54
Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant.	2004...	51	Carers.	2005...	39
Community participation of people with a disability.	2006...	53	Caring in the community.	2001...	46
Social interactions outside home.	2004...	35	Child care.	1994...	47
Social participation of young people.	2006...	49	Child care.	1998...	38
			Child care arrangements.	2001...	41
Family formation			Child protection.	2003...	50
Adoptions.	1998...	33	Community service workers.	2004...	124
Age at first marriage.	1997...	27	Formal child care.	2004...	57
Cultural diversity within marriages.	2000...	52	Formal respite care.	2000...	47
Family planning.	1998...	29	People with a disability: need for guidance. ...	2002...	41
Lifetime marriage and divorce trends.	2007...	43	Principal carers and their caring roles.	1996...	44
Older mothers.	2001...	55	Services in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. ...	2003...	55
Remarriage trends of divorced people.	1999...	45	Support for people with a disability.	2004...	41
Trends in childlessness.	2002...	37			
Trends in de facto partnering.	1995...	38			
Trends in fertility.	1996...	36			
Trends in marriage and divorce.	1995...	33			
Family functioning					
Balancing family and work.	2003...	40			
Families and work.	1997...	30			
Family support.	1995...	41			
Families with no employed parent.	2004...	46			
Fathers' work and family balance.	2006...	39			
Grandparents raising their grandchildren. ...	2005...	44			
Informal child care provided by grandparents.	2005...	47			
Looking after the children.	1999...	39			
Children with parents with a disability.	2000...	35			
Spending time alone.	1999...	35			
War veterans and their carers.	1996...	41			
Living arrangements					
Caring for children after parents separate. ...	1999...	42			
Changes across Australian generations.	2002...	46			
Changes in living arrangements.	1994...	35			
Changing families.	2003...	35			
Children in families.	1995...	29			
Children living apart from one parent.	2006...	44			
Farming families.	2003...	45			
Future living arrangements.	2001...	51			
Living with parents.	1994...	43			
Lone fathers with dependent children.	1994...	40			
One-parent families.	1997...	34			
One-parent families.	2007...	48			
People who live alone.	1996...	33			
People without partners.	2000...	43			
Rural families.	1998...	42			
Selected risks faced by teenagers.	2002...	57			
Transitions in living arrangements.	2002...	52			
Young adults living in the parental home.	2000...	39			

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Health					
Health expenditure					
Private health insurance: who has it?	1994...	73	Drug-related deaths	2001...	71
Private health insurance	2001...	80	Infant mortality	2002...	91
Health related actions					
Cancer screening	2000...	78	Infectious diseases	1997...	54
Food and energy intake	1998...	64	Injuries	2003...	79
How women care for their health	2004...	77	Living with asthma	2004...	69
Organ donation	2002...	73	Mortality in the 20th century	2001...	67
Use of medication	1998...	60	Mortality of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples	2002...	86
Health risk factors					
Alcohol use	1995...	62	Mortality trends of people aged 50 years and over	2006...	74
Children's immunisation	1994...	66	Selected chronic conditions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples	2007...	82
Health risk factors among adults	2003...	74	Suicide	2000...	65
Health risk factors and Indigenous people	1996...	62	Youth suicide	1994...	55
Overweight and obesity	2007...	71			
Tobacco use	1994...	60			
Trends in smoking	2000...	73			
Work-related injuries	2002...	77			
Health services					
Distribution of general practitioners	1994...	70			
Medical practitioners	2003...	69			
Medicare: the first ten years	1996...	66			
Private hospitals	2001...	85			
Health status					
Disability among adults	2001...	75			
Disability among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples	2006...	78			
Health and socioeconomic disadvantage of area	1999...	62			
Health experiences of men and women	1998...	55			
Health of older people	1999...	57			
Health of the population	1997...	45			
Health of Indigenous people	1996...	55			
Mental health	1999...	71			
Life expectancy trends	1995...	51			
Older people in cared accommodation	2006...	84			
Older people with disabilities	1995...	55			
Older people with disabilities	2005...	74			
Protecting the health of our children	1997...	49			
Mortality and morbidity					
Accidental death of children	1996...	59			
Accidental drowning	2000...	69			
Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome	1997...	60			
Asthma	1999...	67			
Cancer trends	1995...	58			
Cancer trends	2004...	72			
Cardiovascular disease: 20th century trends ..	2002...	82			
Children's accidents and injuries	2005...	79			
Chronic conditions and disability	2006...	69			
Colorectal cancer	2005...	69			
Diabetes	1998...	68			
Diabetes mellitus	2007...	76			

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Mature age workers.	2004.	114	Household income.	2004.	142
Migrants in the labour force.	1998.	107	Household income redistribution.	1996.	117
Nursing workers.	2005.	120	Income distribution and life cycle.	1998.	130
Public sector employment.	1998.	115	Income of Indigenous people.	1996.	121
School teachers.	1997.	75	Income sharing and income distribution.	1999.	129
School teachers.	2003.	101	Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians.	2004.	146
Trends in employment population ratios.	2001.	133	Interstate income inequality.	2000.	154
Trends in women's employment.	1998.	111	Lower income working families.	1999.	134
Trends in women's employment.	2006.	121	Poverty: different assumptions, different profiles.	1998.	125
Work and Indigenous people.	1996.	101	Taxes and government benefits: the effect on household income.	2003.	158
Young people in employment.	2004.	109	Trends in earnings distribution.	1994.	137
Youth employment.	1996.	97	Trends in earnings distribution.	2000.	145
			Trends in household disposable income.	1997.	117
Underutilised labour			Value of unpaid work.	1995.	118
Geographic distribution of unemployment.	2003.	124	Value of unpaid work.	2001.	162
Labour force transitions.	2005.	115	Women's contribution to couple earnings.	1995.	115
Long-term unemployment.	1994.	114	Women's incomes.	2001.	153
Long-term unemployment.	2000.	120	Youth income.	1997.	121
Men and women wanting work.	1999.	110			
Multiple spells of looking for work.	2003.	139	Income growth		
Older jobseekers.	1999.	114	Purchasing power.	2007.	153
Retrenchment and redundancy.	2000.	125			
Searching for work.	2002.	136	Income support		
Underutilised labour.	2003.	129	Income support for children.	2000.	159
Unemployment trends and patterns.	2001.	137	Income support among people of workforce-age.	2001.	166
Young jobseekers.	1998.	103	Social security transfer payments.	1994.	147
Youth unemployment.	1995.	98	Trends in disability support.	2002.	165
Unpaid work			Sources of income		
How couples share domestic work.	1999.	119	Employee superannuation.	2002.	175
Time spent on unpaid household work.	2001.	142	Retirement income.	1994.	143
Unpaid household work.	1994.	120	Sources of personal income across Australia.	2005.	145
Voluntary work.	1997.	109	Special employee benefits.	1996.	126
Voluntary work.	2002.	146	Superannuation: who will pay for the future?.	1995.	120
			Tertiary student income.	1994.	139
Economic resources			Taxation		
Expenditure			How much tax do we pay?.	1998.	139
Community services sector.	2003.	162			
Expenditure in low-income households.	2001.	157	Wealth		
Expenditure on gambling.	1999.	141	Components of household wealth.	2006.	151
Household debt in the 1990s.	2002.	180	Distribution of household wealth.	2006.	145
Household expenditure on recreation.	1997.	130	Low income low wealth households.	2007.	164
Household expenditure patterns.	2006.	156			
Household expenditure patterns by life cycle.	2006.	160			
Households in financial stress.	2002.	170			
Purchasing power.	1995.	124			
Spending patterns and life cycle.	1998.	134			
State differences in household expenditure.	1996.	129			
Trends in household consumption.	2007.	158			
Income distribution					
Charity at home and overseas aid.	1997.	125			
Differences in men's and women's earnings.	1995.	111			
Economic resources of older Australians.	1999.	138			
Female/male earnings.	2000.	149			
Female/male earnings.	2005.	150			
Geography of income distribution.	2003.	153			
Household assets, liabilities and financial stress.	2004.	137			

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Housing			Wealth in homes of		
Housing and lifestyle			owner-occupier households. 2007. . 179		
Energy efficiency in the home.	2002.	203	Wealth in the family home. 1998. . 154		
Environment and the home.	1997.	152			
First home buyers.	1999.	153			
First home buyers.	2003.	171			
High-rise living.	2004.	166			
Home renovation.	2002.	191			
Household amenities.	2001.	182			
Housing experience through life-cycle stages.	2001.	177			
Youth housing.	1997.	148			
Housing arrangements					
Homelessness.	2004.	157			
Home ownership.	2004.	162			
Home ownership across Australia.	2003.	180			
Housing after separation.	1996.	146			
Housing for older Australians.	2005.	168			
Housing for older people.	1996.	150			
Housing for young adult households.	2006.	173			
Housing of recent immigrants.	1998.	149			
Renter households.	2002.	195			
Housing assistance					
Government assistance for housing.	1997.	143			
Home care, hostels and nursing homes.	1999.	157			
Public tenants.	1994.	171			
Housing costs					
Housing affordability.	1994.	167			
Housing costs.	2000.	171			
Housing finance.	2001.	190			
Low income private renters.	1995.	143			
Purchasing a home.	1997.	139			
Housing stock					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander					
housing in non-remote areas.	2001.	186			
Caravan park residents.	1994.	163			
Caravan park residents.	2000.	179			
Changes in Australian housing.	2003.	175			
Home fire safety.	2000.	184			
Home ownership.	1996.	137			
Housing condition and maintenance.	2002.	199			
Housing conditions of Indigenous people.	1996.	142			
Housing in remote Aboriginal and					
Torres Strait Islander communities.	2000.	175			
Housing in Sydney –					
consolidation and spread.	2006.	179			
Housing the population.	1994.	159			
Inner city residential development.	1999.	167			
Investment in residential rental property.	1995.	139			
Larger dwellings, smaller households.	2007.	184			
Rental investors.	1999.	162			
Safe as houses?.	1995.	136			
Smaller households, larger dwellings.	1998.	157			
Supply of housing.	2005.	163			
Trends in housing.	1995.	133			

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
Other areas of social concern					
Crime and justice					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples:					
contact with the law.	2005.	187	Overseas travel and recent world events.	2004.	173
Crime victimisation and feelings of safety.	2003.	187	Public transport use.	1996.	167
Criminal justice system.	1997.	161	Registered cars.	1996.	159
Higher criminal court outcomes.	2005.	177			
Interpersonal violence.	2007.	195			
Murder and manslaughter.	1997.	171			
Prisoners in Australia.	1997.	184			
Reported crimes.	1997.	167			
Victims of assault.	1997.	175			
Violence against women.	1997.	179			
Women in prison.	2004.	185			
Women's experience of partner violence.	2007.	200			
Culture and leisure					
A sporting nation.	1995.	151			
Children's out of school activities.	2003.	190			
Culture-leisure workers.	1995.	161			
Household pets.	1995.	168			
How Australians use their free time.	1999.	173			
Interests in the arts and cultural activities.	1999.	177			
Leisure at home.	1995.	164			
Music and performing arts.	1995.	147			
Participation in sports and physical recreation	2007.	205			
Social and sporting activities of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.	2005.	52			
Sporting Australians.	1999.	183			
Travel and tourism in Australia.	1995.	156			
Environment					
Environmental concerns and related					
activities.	2004.	177			
Environmental impact					
of household energy use.	2006.	191			
Household energy use.	1998.	171			
Household waste.	2007.	208			
Household waste management.	1998.	180			
Household water use and conservation.	2005.	182			
People and the environment.	1998.	163			
People's concerns about environmental					
problems.	1998.	167			
Transport choices and the environment.	1998.	175			
Religion					
Geographic distribution of religions.	1994.	183			
Religion and education.	1994.	190			
Religion and marriage.	1994.	186			
Religious activity.	1994.	194			
Religious affiliation and activity.	2004.	181			
Trends in religious affiliation.	1994.	177			
Transport and communication					
Car use.	1996.	163			
Household use of computers and the					
Internet.	2003.	194			
Information technology in the home.	1999.	189			
Motor vehicle traffic accidents.	1996.	170			

FOR MORE INFORMATION . . .

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