

# Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: key indicators 2003 Report

*Steering Committee for  
the Review of  
Government Service  
Provision*

November 2003



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### **Suggestions:**

*The Steering Committee welcomes suggestions on the performance indicators contained in this Report. Please direct your suggestions to the Productivity Commission Secretariat at the above address.*

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# Foreword

Notwithstanding many years of policy attention, this Report confirms that Indigenous Australians continue to experience marked and widespread disadvantage. This is shown most fundamentally by the 20 year gap in average life expectancy between Indigenous and other Australians.

The commissioning of this Report by the Council of Australian Governments demonstrates a new resolve, at the highest political level, not only to tackle the root causes of Indigenous disadvantage, but also to monitor the outcomes in a systematic way that crosses jurisdictional and portfolio boundaries. In so doing, the Report also raises the transparency of governments' performance.

This Report, therefore, is more than just another collection of data. It documents outcomes for Indigenous people within a framework that has both a vision of what should be for Indigenous people and a strategic focus on key areas that need to be targeted if that longer term vision is to be realised.

The strategic framework that distinguishes this Report had its genesis in work undertaken by the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs. It has evolved considerably as a result of widespread consultations across the country, particularly with Indigenous people and organisations.

Implicit in the framework is recognition of the need to account for the diversity of Indigenous people and their circumstances. It is apparent that data collections will need to be improved to realise this. In some key areas, such as disability, very little data are available at all. There is also recognition that some central factors, such as culture and governance, are inherently difficult to quantify but remain important to document. In such respects, this first Report in the series needs to be seen as a work in progress, one which will benefit from further feedback and consultation.

During our consultations, we learned of many initiatives that were making a difference at the community level. However, progress at this level may not be evident in aggregate statistics. Such initiatives underline the importance of governments' contribution, but they also show that other ingredients are needed. As one Indigenous leader has publicly declared, 'man cannot live by service delivery alone'. Contributions from the private sector and, not least, Indigenous people themselves, will also be important to overcoming Indigenous disadvantage.

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On behalf of the Steering Committee, I should like to record my appreciation for the spirit of cooperation and commitment displayed by all those involved in the preparation of this Report. That includes in particular the many Indigenous people who gave freely of their time and opinions to help ensure the utility of the reporting framework.

Gary Banks  
Chairman

November 2003

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# Acronyms and abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
ADWG	Australian Drinking Water Guidelines
AIC	Australian Institute of Criminology
AIEW	Aboriginal and Islander Education Worker
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ANTA	Australian National Training Authority
ARIA	Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia
ASC	Australian Sports Commission
ATSIC	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission
ATSIS	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Services
Aust	Australia
AWA	Australian Water Association
CAR	Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation
CD-ROM	Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CDEP	Community Development Employment Project/Program
CHINS	Community Housing and Infrastructure Survey
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CSDA	Commonwealth-State Disability Agreement
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
EFTSU	Equivalent Full Time Student Unit
EQ	Education Queensland
ERP	Estimated resident population
GWEH	Gross weekly equivalent household
GWI	Gross weekly individual

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ICD	International classification of diseases
IESIP	Indigenous Education Strategic Initiatives Programme
ILC	Indigenous Land Corporation
ILUA	Indigenous Land Use Agreements
ISS	Indigenous Social Survey
JJNMDS	Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set
LBOTE	language background other than English
LGA	Local Government Association
MCATSIA	Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research
NDSHS	National Drug Strategy Household Survey
NHMP	National Homicide Monitoring Program
NHMRC	National Health and Medical Research Council
NHS	National Health Survey
NIPC	National Indigenous Pre-school Census
NNTT	National Native Title Tribunal
NSSC	National Schools Statistics Collection
NSW	New South Wales
NT	Northern Territory
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PCYC	Police and Community Youth Clubs
POI	Persons of interest
Qld	Queensland
QSA	Queensland Studies Authority
Review	Review of Government Service Provision
ROGS	Report on Government Services
SA	South Australia

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SCRGSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision
SIHC	Survey of Income and Housing Costs
TAFE	technical and further education
Tas	Tasmania
VET	vocational education and training
Vic	Victoria
WA	Western Australia
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSAA	Water Services Association of Australia
YPLL	Years of potential life lost

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# Glossary

**Age standardised rates**

Age standardised rates enable comparisons to be made between populations which have different age structures. Where possible, direct standardisation is used, in which the age-specific rates are multiplied by a constant population. This effectively removes the influence of the age structure on the summary rate. Where populations are small, or where there is some uncertainty about the stability of age specific death rates, it is more appropriate to use indirect age standardisation.

**CDEP**

Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) provides employment and training opportunities to Indigenous people in a range of activities that benefit themselves and their communities. The CDEP scheme comprises community determined and managed activities and organisations.

**Core activity restriction (ABS definition)**

Self care, mobility and communication are defined as core activities. The ABS defines levels of core activity restriction as follows: mild, where a person has no difficulty with self care, mobility or communication, but uses aids or equipment; moderate, where a person does not need assistance, but has difficulty with self care, mobility or communication; severe, where a person sometimes needs assistance with self care, mobility or communication; and profound, where a person is unable to perform self care, mobility and/or communication tasks, or always needs assistance.

**Disability (ABS definition)**

A person has a disability if he or she has a limitation, restriction or impairment, which has lasted, or is likely to last, for at least six months and restricts everyday activities. These activities include: loss of sight (not corrected by glasses or contact lenses); or an aid to assist with, or substitute for, hearing is used; speech difficulties; shortness

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of breath or breathing difficulties causing restriction; chronic or recurrent pain or discomfort causing restriction; blackouts, fits, or loss of consciousness; difficulty learning or understanding; incomplete use of arms or fingers; difficulty gripping or holding things; incomplete use of feet or legs; nervous or emotional condition causing restriction; restriction in physical activities or in doing physical work; disfigurement or deformity; mental illness or condition requiring help or supervision; long-term effects of head injury, stroke or other brain damage causing restriction; receiving treatment or medication for any other long-term conditions or ailments and still restricted; or any other long-term conditions resulting in a restriction.

**Geographic region**

Geographic regions have been derived from the Australian Standard Geographic Classification of Remoteness, developed by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, and refers to the six remoteness area categories:

- major cities of Australia: which consists of the Census Collection Districts (CDs) with an average Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA) index value of 0 to 0.2;
- inner regional Australia (consisting of the CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 0.2 and less than or equal to 2.4);
- outer regional Australia (consisting of the CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 2.4 and less than or equal to 5.9);
- remote Australia (consisting of the CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 5.9 and less than or equal to 10.5);
- very remote Australia (consisting of the CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 10.5); and
- migratory regions which consists of off-shore, shipping and migratory CDs.



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<b>Hospital separation</b>	A hospital separation refers to 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 beginning or ending in a change of type of care (for example, from acute to rehabilitation). It is also defined as the process by which an admitted patient completes an episode of care by being discharged, dying, transferring to another hospital or changing type of care. For measuring a hospital's activity, separations are used in preference to admissions because diagnoses and procedures can be more accurately recorded at the end of a patient's stay and patients may undergo more than one separation from the time of admission. Admitted patients who receive same day procedures (for example, renal dialysis) are recorded in separation statistics.
<b>Indigenous status not stated</b>	Where either a Census form is not collected from people who have been identified during the collection process or where the Indigenous origin question is not answered.
<b>Indigenous</b>	A person of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin who identifies as an Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander.
<b>Non-Indigenous</b>	A person who is not of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin.

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# Terms of reference



PRIME MINISTER

CANBERRA

**3 MAY 2002**

Mr Gary Banks  
Chairman  
Steering Committee for the  
Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision  
C/- Productivity Commission  
Locked Bag 2  
Collins Street East Post Office  
MELBOURNE VIC 8003

Dear Mr Banks

I am writing in my capacity as Chairman of the Council of Australian Governments (COAG). As you would be aware, COAG met on 5 April 2002 and agreed to undertake further work to advance reconciliation. A copy of the communique from the recent COAG meeting is attached for your information.

COAG agreed to commission the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision (SCRCSSP) to produce a regular report to COAG against key indicators of indigenous disadvantage. The key task will be to identify indicators that are of relevance to all governments and indigenous stakeholders and that can demonstrate the impact of programme and policy interventions.

The development of the indicators will be progressed in the first instance through discussions at officials level between COAG, the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs (MCATSIA) and the SCRCSSP. I understand that the SCRCSSP proposed at its recent meeting to progress this matter through a working group that will include representatives of the COAG senior officials working group on reconciliation and MCATSIA officials. Such an approach is consistent with the COAG decision.

In May 1997, I wrote to your predecessor, Mr Bill Scales, requesting that the SCRCSSP give particular attention to improving indigenous data. The development of the new COAG reconciliation report should not reduce the emphasis on indigenous data that is

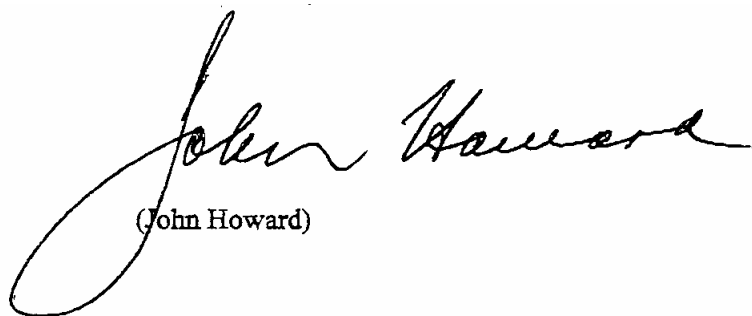
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now a feature of the annual *Report on Government Services*. This emphasis has helped ensure that indigenous data in mainstream and targeted programmes are as comprehensive and comparable as possible.

I would appreciate further advice from you when the SCRCSSP has completed its work in developing a proposal for the report against indicators of indigenous disadvantage so that COAG members may consider the detail of the proposed approach.

I have copied this letter to the Chairman of MCATSIA and New South Wales Minister for Aboriginal Affairs, the Hon Dr Andrew Refshauge, and to the Minister for Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, the Hon Philip Ruddock MP.

Yours sincerely



(John Howard)

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# COAG endorsement



PRIME MINISTER

CANBERRA

**22 AUG 2003**

Mr Gary Banks  
Chairman  
Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth  
and State Service Provision  
C/- Productivity Commission  
Locked Bag 2  
Collins Street East Post Office  
MELBOURNE VIC 8003

Dear Mr Banks

I am writing in my capacity as Chairman of the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) to formally endorse the framework for reporting against key indicators of indigenous disadvantage.

The framework will provide relevant and meaningful indicators that can demonstrate the impact of government policies and programmes on outcomes for indigenous people. I commend the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth and State Service Provision for its excellent work on this important project.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "John Howard".

(John Howard)

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# Overview

This Report has been prepared at the request of the Council of Australian Governments. Its key task is to provide indicators of Indigenous disadvantage ‘that are of relevance to all governments and Indigenous stakeholders, and that can demonstrate the impact of programme and policy interventions’ (see page xvii).

## **Why another report?**

A vast amount of information has already been gathered on Indigenous Australians by a range of people and organisations. Some may therefore ask – do we really need another report, and what makes this one different?

Driving this Report is a commitment by Australian governments at the highest level to reducing Indigenous disadvantage. Behind the Report is the vision of an Australia in which Indigenous people come to enjoy the same overall standard of living as other Australians — that they are as healthy, live as long and are as able to participate in the social and economic life of the nation.

This means that this Report must be more than a collection of data – it provides policy makers with a broad view of the current state of Indigenous disadvantage and where things need to change if the vision is to be realised.

## **Important role of consultations**

The reporting framework had its genesis in work undertaken by the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs. In developing further the framework and indicators, public consultations had a vitally important role to play. The report has benefited greatly from the feedback of many people within government and the wider community, and particularly from Indigenous people and their organisations. (A list of those consulted is in appendix 2.)

This first Report nevertheless remains a work in progress. Further consultations will be undertaken, including with Indigenous people, to ensure that it can improve over time, as well as maintain its currency and relevance.

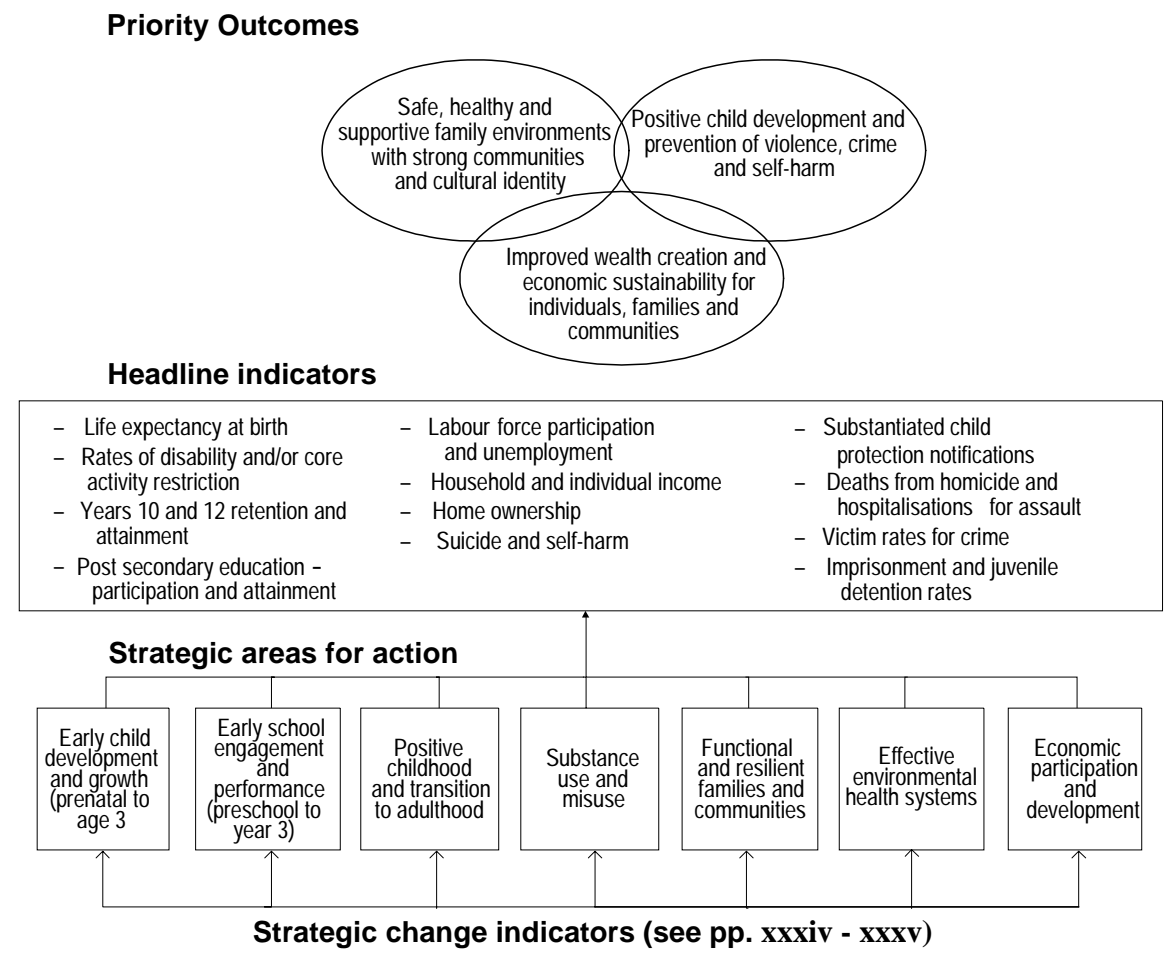
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# The reporting framework

The Report’s indicator framework is depicted in figure 1. Three priority outcomes sit at the top of this framework. They reflect a vision for how life should be for Indigenous people that is shared by governments and Indigenous people alike. The outcomes are linked and should not be viewed in isolation from each other.

**Figure 1 The framework**

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Sitting beneath the priority outcomes are two tiers of indicators. The goal is that improvements in these will, in time, make it possible to overcome the sources of disadvantage which currently lead the circumstances of many Indigenous people and communities to fall short of the priority outcomes.

## Headline indicators

The first tier (or ‘headline indicators’) provides an overview of the state of Indigenous disadvantage. These indicators are measures of the major social and

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economic factors that need to improve if the vision is to be achieved. But because these measures (for example, life expectancy) are at such a high level, they do not provide a sufficient focus for policy makers to act on.

In some respects, reporting just at the headline level could create the perception that the task is too big to handle. The problems observed at this level come at the end of a chain of other factors which may be of long-standing (for example, birthweight, diet and school attendance). No single government agency is, therefore, responsible for creating the policies and programs which will make for overall improvements. That is why COAG has sought a whole of government approach to meeting the needs of Indigenous people.

### **Strategic areas for action**

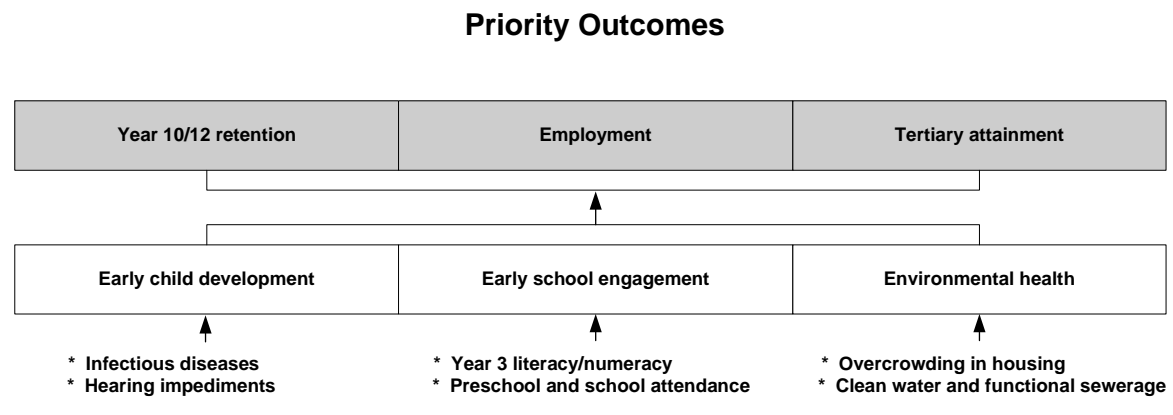
At the second tier of the framework, there are seven ‘strategic areas for action’. They have been chosen for their potential to have a significant and lasting impact in reducing Indigenous disadvantage and for their amenability to policy action.

They assist policy makers to address the *causes* of disadvantage so that, over time, improvements in the headline indicators and priority outcomes will be achieved. For example, a focus by governments on improving outcomes in the area of ‘Early Child development’ has the potential to improve such headline indicators as ‘years 10 and 12 retention’ and ‘employment’. While it may take some time for improvement in the strategic areas to show up in the headline indicators, they serve as intermediate measures of progress. The diagram at figure 2 provides an illustration of the connections.

### **Strategic change indicators**

For each of the strategic areas for action, a few key indicators have been developed with their potential to be affected by government policies and programs in mind (see pp. xxxiv and xxxv). However, the indicators are linked to actual outcomes for Indigenous people, not the operations of specific policy programs.

Figure 2      **Multi-causality of outcomes for Indigenous people**



The framework is based on the idea that individual agencies in every government will need to look at their capacity to contribute to improving outcomes in these indicators. Take for example the strategic change indicator, ‘year 3 literacy and numeracy’. The school system is not solely responsible for improvements in this area. Early school engagement is also affected by many factors outside the education system, including transport availability, housing arrangements, health and (outside of the service system) parental support.

### Data limitations

The data for this Report have been drawn from three types of sources – census, survey and administrative data. Each has strengths and weaknesses. Analysis of information compiled from each of these sources needs to be taken into account. Particular limitations arise from variability in the identification of people as being of Indigenous origin, both across collections and over time. Relevant factors are whether people are asked or choose to identify themselves as Indigenous, and the restriction of administrative data sets generally to people interacting with the administrative process from which those data are drawn. The data in this Report are the most recent available, and generally reflect the frequency of the data collections.



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## Headline indicators

The first part of the Report focuses on the headline indicators – the measures of the major social and economic factors that need to improve if COAG’s vision for a better standard of living for Indigenous people is to become a reality. The headline indicators are set out below.

### Headline indicators

- Life expectancy at birth
- Rates of disability and/or core activity restriction
- Years 10 and 12 retention and attainment
- Post secondary education – participation and attainment
- Labour force participation and unemployment
- Household and individual income
- Home ownership
- Suicide and self-harm
- Substantiated child protection notifications
- Deaths from homicide and hospitalisations for assault
- Victim rates for crime
- Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates

Some key messages arising out of the data in each area are also included, with references to where more information can be found in the main Report.

### Life expectancy at birth

The life expectancy of Indigenous people is currently 20 years less than other Australians.

This indicator refers to the average number of years a person could expect to live if there were no change to the population’s death rates throughout his or her lifetime. In other words, a reduction in the current age specific death rates would result in an improvement in life expectancy

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Better outcomes in such strategic action areas as ‘Early child development and growth’, ‘Substance use and misuse’, ‘Effective environmental health systems’, and ‘Economic participation and development’, could lead to improvements in the life expectancy of Indigenous people.

**Key message**

The life expectancy of Indigenous people is around 20 years lower than that for the total Australian population (figure 3.1.1).

The consumption of tobacco and excessive alcohol, poor nutrition and lack of exercise can all influence life expectancy.

Environmental factors can also play a significant role. For example, lack of clean drinking water or inadequate sanitation can increase health risks, particularly for infants and young children. Other factors are overcrowding of housing, and access to health professionals. Life expectancy can also be influenced by differences in income and education levels. People from lower socioeconomic groups tend to suffer higher rates of ill health and premature death.

**Rates of disability and/or core activity restriction**

Research suggests that although Indigenous people have similar rates of genetic disability to the rest of the population, they have a higher rate of disability resulting from environmental and trauma-related factors. Unfortunately, only very limited data are available on the prevalence of disability amongst Indigenous people.

Frequently cited predisposing factors include:

- diabetes combined with failure to access early treatment;
- ongoing infectious diseases (for example, otitis media – especially among young children);
- accidents and violence;
- mental health problems; and
- substance abuse.

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### **Key messages**

- Nationally comparable data on the prevalence of disability within the Indigenous population are currently not available (section 3.2).
- The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) new Indigenous Social Survey will provide some data, but only every six years. However, the ABS is also investigating the possibility of including a question on disability in the 2006 Census.

## **Years 10 and 12 retention and attainment**

Lack of formal education and training has a big impact on employment options. This can lead to unskilled, low income jobs or welfare dependency.

Retaining students from year 10 is essential to achieving successful completion of year 12, which in turn is a crucial element in proceeding to post secondary education and gaining better paid employment.

Over the period 1998 to 2002, apparent retention rates for Indigenous students to year 10, and particularly to years 11 and 12, have been below the rates for non-Indigenous students.

### **Key messages**

- Indigenous students have a tendency to leave school once they reach the age when attendance is no longer compulsory (section 3.3).
- Nationally in 2002, non-Indigenous students were twice as likely to continue to year 12 as Indigenous students (figure 3.3.3).
- From 1998 to 2002, Indigenous apparent retention rates increased slightly (figure 3.3.1).

## **Post secondary education – participation and attainment**

Post secondary study can significantly improve a person's employment prospects. This indicator examines participation at universities, as well as technical and further education (TAFE) institutes. However, participation in itself need not lead to improved employment outcomes. It generally needs to be accompanied by success – the attainment of a qualification or completion of a course of study.

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Positive outcomes in virtually all of the strategic areas for action could contribute to better Indigenous educational achievement.

**Key messages**

- While TAFE participation among Indigenous people in 2001 was typically higher than for the rest of the population, university attendance was lower, with other Australians being 1.8 times more likely to attend university than Indigenous people (figure 3.4.1).
- Indigenous post secondary attainment in 2001 was significantly lower, with 12.5 per cent of Indigenous people having attained a level 3 certificate or above, compared to 33.5 per cent of non-Indigenous people (figure 3.4.3).

At university, Indigenous students are more likely to undertake enabling and non-award courses than non-Indigenous students, and less likely to be enrolled in post-graduate courses.

**Labour force participation and unemployment**

Having a job is important to wellbeing, particularly in terms of remuneration and opportunity for self development and social interaction.

Groups with characteristics in low demand (for example, low levels of educational attainment, limited relevant work experience, or poor health) are likely to find it more difficult to secure a job.

The labour force participation rate for Indigenous people will, to some extent, reflect the limited employment opportunities available to Indigenous people in remote areas, along with the employment opportunities provided by CDEP (that is, employment may be higher in areas where there are CDEP opportunities).

**Key messages**

- Labour force participation for Indigenous people in 2001 was 50.4 per cent of the population aged 15 years and over, compared to 62.6 per cent for non-Indigenous people (table 3.5.2).
- Unemployment in 2001 was 2.8 times higher for Indigenous than for non-Indigenous people (table 3.5.3).
- CDEP participation significantly reduces recorded Indigenous unemployment rates (section 11.3).

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There are links between unemployment and various dimensions of people's wellbeing. For example, studies generally suggest that unemployment can be a factor contributing to crime, poorer health, higher risks of poverty and lower levels of social attachment. Policy interventions within the relevant strategic areas for action have the potential to improve these characteristics. In time, these improvements should lead to increased employment for Indigenous people.

### **What is meant by the 'labour force'?**

The labour force refers to the number of people contributing to, or actively seeking to contribute to, the supply of labour and comprises two groups:

- the employed (people who have worked for at least one hour in the reference week – including CDEP); and
- the unemployed (people who are without work, but are actively looking for work and available to start within four weeks).

## **Household and individual income**

The economic wellbeing of individuals is largely determined by their income and wealth. In the absence of data on wealth, the extent to which income for Indigenous people is lower than for non-Indigenous people is a major indicator of material disadvantage.

Income may be derived from employment, assets and welfare. While income is usually received by individuals, it is normally shared between partners in a couple relationship and with dependent children. In some situations, there may also be sharing with other members of a household.

The average income of Indigenous people is significantly below that of non-Indigenous people. All of the strategic areas for action are relevant to addressing this income differential.

### **Key message**

In 2001, both household and individual incomes were lower on average for Indigenous than non-Indigenous people across all regions, and they are much lower in remote locations (section 3.6).

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## Home ownership

Home ownership is an important indicator of wealth and saving, and is likely to be positively related to employment and income. Home ownership provides a secure asset base that can contribute to financial stability and against which people can borrow.

During the consultation process for this Report, many Indigenous people stressed the importance of home ownership in overcoming disadvantage. Improvements in the strategic areas for action, particularly those relating to education and economic participation and development, could increase the level of Indigenous home ownership in the future.

### Key message

Indigenous individual home ownership rates in 2001 were much lower than those for non-Indigenous people in all regions (section 3.7).

Home ownership is significantly lower among Indigenous people than among non-Indigenous people. In 2001, 31.9 per cent of Indigenous households owned or were buying their own homes, compared with nearly 69.5 per cent of non-Indigenous households.

The proportion of those actually owning their own homes (no mortgage) was around 41.4 per cent for non-Indigenous households compared to 12.6 per cent of Indigenous households.

Two factors (among others) contribute to the difference in home ownership rates. First, the age profile of the Indigenous population is younger (home ownership increases with age). Second, in remote areas, a significant number of Indigenous people live on communally owned or controlled land. While this means the ongoing ownership of the land by Indigenous people is assured, it usually precludes the sale of land for housing and restricts the capacity to borrow.

## Suicide and self-harm

Suicide death rates are significantly higher in the Indigenous population (particularly for young Indigenous males) than in the rest of the population.

The 1991 Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody found that those Indigenous people most at risk of suicide were the young, those affected by alcohol

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and those confined alone in custody. Substance abuse, such as excessive alcohol consumption, has also been identified as a contributing factor in self-harm.

Other risk factors are unemployment and poor long-term job prospects, particularly in rural and remote areas. A 1993 study showed that broad movements in (all) male suicide deaths broadly corresponded with periods of economic downturn and high unemployment rates. The implications are greater for Indigenous people, for whom unemployment is generally persistently higher.

**Key messages**

- In 2001, the suicide rate for Indigenous people (35.5 per 100 000) was considerably higher than the rate for other Australians (13.1 per 100 000) (based on Queensland, WA, SA and the NT) (figure 3.8.2).
- Suicide death rates for the Indigenous population were particularly high in the 25-34 year age group (67.2 per 100 000) (figure 3.8.2).

Policy action across a range of strategic areas may be needed to bring about improvements in the circumstances that lead to suicide and self-harm, particularly for young people.

**Substantiated child protection notifications**

Information on substantiated child protection notifications provides an insight into the extent of abuse, neglect and/or harm to children in the family environment.

Child abuse and neglect are often associated with complex social and personal factors, including the mental health of care givers, substance abuse and violence within the family, overcrowded living conditions, unemployment and lack of access to health care and education.

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### **Key messages**

- In most jurisdictions, the substantiation rate for Indigenous children was higher than for non-Indigenous children in 2001-02 (table 3.9.1).
- In 2001-02, the *pattern* of substantiated abuse and neglect for Indigenous and non-Indigenous children appears to differ (with most non-Indigenous cases related to abuse and most Indigenous cases related to neglect) (table 3.9.2).
- Particular care should be taken in interpreting substantiation data. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community (section 3.9).

Children who come into contact with community services for protective reasons include:

- those who are abused, neglected or otherwise harmed; and
- those whose parents cannot provide adequate care or protection.

### **Deaths from homicide and hospitalisations for assault**

Although Indigenous people account for only 2.4 per cent of the population, they represented around 15 per cent of all homicide victims and around 16 per cent of all homicide offenders (in the period 1989 to 2000).

The impact of homicide and hospitalisations for assault extends beyond the offender and immediate victim. Although not reflected in the statistics, families are severely affected, as are the communities in which they live.

### **Key messages**

- During 1999–2001, homicides, as a proportion of total deaths, were far greater in the Indigenous population — 2.1 per cent compared with 0.2 per cent in the non-Indigenous population (figure 3.10.1).
- Hospital separation rates for assault in 2001-02 were higher for Indigenous people (13.3 per 1000) than non-Indigenous people (1.0 per 1000). The main category was assault by bodily force (table 3A.10.6).

Substance abuse is a key factor in homicides and assaults. A much larger share of Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence, compared with non-Indigenous homicides. In a less direct way, actions in other strategic areas for action also have the potential to



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make a difference, by addressing the socioeconomic circumstances which can lead to violent behaviour – for example, improvements in ‘Economic participation and development’.

## **Victim rates for crime**

Violence and criminal behaviour have direct implications for health outcomes and safety, as well as having a negative influence on child development.

Socioeconomic factors are critical determinants of crime. Often the focus of socioeconomic considerations has been their influence on criminal offenders. But these factors are just as important when it comes to victims of crime. The Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody acknowledged that low education and income levels, crowded housing, and unemployment are just a few of the factors that lead to an over-representation of Indigenous people ‘as both perpetrators and victims’ of crime.

Domestic violence and substance misuse, in particular, are critical issues in Indigenous families and communities and may contribute to increased rates of victimisation.

### **Key messages**

- On the limited data available, Indigenous people were much more likely to be victims of murder, assault, sexual assault and domestic violence than non-Indigenous people in 2000 and 2002 (tables 3.11.1 and 3.11.2).
- Of all the offences examined, robbery was the only one which showed victimisation rates to be lower for Indigenous people in 2000 and 2002 (tables 3.11.1 and 3.11.2).

## **Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates**

Over-representation of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system is of long standing. Many factors outside the system create the conditions which result in incarceration. Actions from ‘Early child development and growth’ onwards have the capacity to improve outcomes in Indigenous imprisonment and juvenile detention rates.

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### **Key messages**

- On 30 June 2002, Indigenous people were some 15 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to be in prison (figure 3.12.1).
- On 30 June 2002, around one quarter of all sentenced Indigenous prisoners had assault as their most serious offence (figure 3.12.3).
- The rate of juvenile detention has declined over the last five years (although on 30 June 2002, it was still higher for Indigenous people as a whole) (figure 3.12.4).
- Indigenous juveniles were still 19 times more likely to be detained than non-Indigenous juveniles on 30 June 2002 (figure 3.12.4).

Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates provide an insight into the level of involvement of Indigenous people in the justice system. This, however, is only one aspect of possible involvement. The data exclude:

- arrests that do not proceed to court (for example, as a result of diversion or restitution); and
- convictions that lead to outcomes that are not administered by prisons (for example, community service orders).

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## Strategic areas for action

This second part of the Report focuses on the strategic areas for action and provides information on the strategic change indicators. These have been chosen for their potential to have a significant and lasting impact in reducing Indigenous disadvantage. Some key messages arising out of the data in each area are also included, with references to where more information can be found in the main Report.

Strategic areas for action	Strategic change indicators
<b>Early child development and growth (prenatal to age 3)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Rates of hospital admission for infectious diseases</li><li>• Infant mortality</li><li>• Birthweight</li><li>• Hearing impediments</li></ul>
<b>Early school engagement and performance (preschool to year 3)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Preschool and school attendance</li><li>• Year 3 literacy and numeracy</li><li>• Primary school children with dental caries</li></ul>
<b>Positive childhood and transition to adulthood</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy</li><li>• Retention at year 9</li><li>• Indigenous cultural studies in school curriculum and involvement of Indigenous people in development and delivery of Indigenous studies</li><li>• Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities</li><li>• Juvenile diversions as a proportion of all juvenile offenders</li><li>• Transition from school to work</li></ul>

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<b>Substance use and misuse</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Alcohol and tobacco consumption</li> <li>• Alcohol related crime and hospital statistics</li> <li>• Drug and other substance use</li> </ul>
<b>Functional and resilient families and communities</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Children on long term care and protection orders</li> <li>• Repeat offending</li> <li>• Access to the nearest health professional</li> <li>• Proportion of indigenous people with access to their traditional lands</li> </ul>
<b>Effective environmental health systems</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health (including water and food borne diseases, trachoma, tuberculosis and rheumatic heart disease)</li> <li>• Access to clean water and functional sewerage</li> <li>• Overcrowding in housing</li> </ul>
<b>Economic participation and development</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Employment (full-time/part-time) by sector (public/private), industry and occupation</li> <li>• CDEP participation</li> <li>• Long term unemployment</li> <li>• Self employment</li> <li>• Indigenous owned or controlled land</li> <li>• Accredited training in leadership, finance or management</li> <li>• Case studies in governance arrangements</li> </ul>

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## Early child development and growth (prenatal to age 3)

Health and educational outcomes in later life are greatly influenced by the health, growth and development of children in their first three years of life. A wide range of social, cultural, physical and economic factors influence the health of children.

The four indicators in this section have been shown to be of particular relevance to Indigenous people. Policy actions leading to improvements in these areas have the capacity to change the lives of Indigenous people for the better in the long term.

### *Rates of hospital admission for infectious diseases*

This indicator examines a range of infectious diseases experienced by children that result in them being admitted to hospital. Most childhood diseases are generally successfully treated or prevented.

#### **Key message**

In 2001-02, the rate of hospitalisation of Indigenous children aged four years and under for infectious diseases (115.4 per 1000) was more than double the rate for non-Indigenous children (48.0 per 1000) (table 5.1.1).

### *Infant mortality*

The survival of infants in their first year of life is commonly viewed to be a key indicator of the general health and wellbeing of a population.

There has been a dramatic decline in infant mortality rates in the past century, with Australia having amongst the lowest in the world in 2001. However, the Indigenous infant mortality rate is still more than twice that of all Australians.

#### **Key message**

The Indigenous infant mortality rate during 1999–2001, at 12.7 per 1000 live births, was more than double that for all Australians (table 5.2.1).

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### *Birthweight*

Infants with a low birthweight are more likely to die or have health difficulties early in life. Low birthweight may also have an influence on the development of chronic diseases in adulthood, including diabetes.

The birthweight data used in this Report relate only to babies born to Indigenous mothers (and not to the babies born of non-Indigenous mothers and Indigenous fathers).

#### **Key message**

The proportion of live births during 1998–2000 with low birthweight was almost twice as high for Indigenous than for non-Indigenous mothers (11.9 per cent compared with 6.0 per cent) (table 5.3.2).

### *Hearing impediments*

The true burden of hearing loss on Indigenous people is unclear. However, studies on hearing loss and ear infections amongst the Indigenous population suggest that hearing impediments can have a substantial impact on the future of Indigenous children.

Otitis media (or middle ear infection) is the main cause of hearing problems faced by Indigenous children. Repeated infections in early childhood can lead to ongoing hearing problems and future learning difficulties at school.

#### **Key messages**

- Due to data deficiencies, particularly for the age category 0–3 years, it is difficult to assess nationally the level of ear infections and the extent of hearing loss across Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations (section 5.4).
- In 2001, an estimated 9 per cent of Indigenous children aged 0–4 years suffered from long-term diseases of the ear and mastoid, compared with 4 per cent for non-Indigenous children (section 5.4).
- In 2001–02, hospital admissions for suppurative and unspecified otitis media were significantly higher for Indigenous children aged 0–3 (6.1 per 1000) than non-Indigenous children aged 0–3 (4.2 per 1000) (table 5.4.2).

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## Early school engagement and performance (preschool to year 3)

The extent to which Indigenous children begin formal learning at an early age, attend school regularly, and are safe, healthy and supported by their families and communities, all have a bearing on educational outcomes.

Research shows that the children most likely to have learning difficulties often have nutritional, hearing, or other health problems. Poor dental health can cause impaired speech and language development.

### *Preschool and school attendance*

Early participation in education provides young children with opportunities to develop socially and may also have a significant bearing on their future educational performance.

A threshold issue in improving Indigenous learning outcomes is attendance. Unfortunately, it was not possible to obtain attendance data for pre-school and year 1-3 school students. Participation rates (that is the number of children enrolled expressed as a proportion of the relevant population group) are only a weak proxy measure. (They do not account for rates of absenteeism or other non-attendance).

#### **Key message**

In 2002, the early school participation rate was lower for Indigenous children than for other children (figure 6.1.1).

### *Year 3 literacy and numeracy*

The level of achievement in the early years of schooling has major implications for retention and attainment in later years. Children who have already fallen behind in year 3 are less likely to remain at school beyond the compulsory age. This in turn has implications for employment options and disadvantage in the long-term.

#### **Key message**

Indigenous primary school students in 2001 had significantly lower literacy and numeracy achievement than non-Indigenous students (section 6.2).

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### *Primary school children with dental caries*

Decayed teeth can cause illness and pain, potentially detracting from school attendance and performance. The loss of permanent teeth can lead to eating difficulties as well as stress and social isolation.

#### **Key messages**

- The proportion of children in 1999 in need of immediate dental care, with five or more decayed teeth, was higher for Indigenous than non-Indigenous children for all ages between 4 and 12 years (figure 6.3.1).
- A large proportion of these Indigenous children live in remote areas of Australia (section 6.3).

### **Positive childhood and transition to adulthood**

The later years of childhood, adolescence and the transition to adulthood are important phases, which build on early child development and education.

The indicators in this section cover a range of factors with the potential to improve long term outcomes for Indigenous people. They reflect the continuing importance of educational outcomes for young people and their futures, of participation in organised sport, art and community group activities, and finding alternatives to detention for juvenile offenders.

### *Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy*

Achievement in literacy and numeracy in the earlier years of schooling has a direct influence on options and choices in years 11 and 12. This in turn can have an impact on future education and employment possibilities.

#### **Key message**

In 2001, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 5 reading, writing and numeracy benchmarks was significantly lower than that for all students (section 7.1).

Low achievement in the early years also increases the likelihood that a student may withdraw prematurely from school.



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### *Retention at year 9*

Generally, compulsory schooling begins at age 5 and ends at age 15. For most students, therefore, compulsory schooling ends in years 9 or 10.

Consultations with Indigenous people suggested that year 9 was a critical time for Indigenous children dropping out of school. Although the data in this section suggest only a two per cent gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, data are collected in August and do not reflect the number of children who failed to complete the year.

#### **Key messages**

- Over the period 1998 to 2002, Indigenous apparent retention rates to year 9 increased (figure 3.3.1).
- The two percentage points gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students at year 9 does not reflect the number of children who did not complete the year (table 3A.3.2).
- In 2002, there was a significant decrease in apparent retention rates from year 9 to year 10 for Indigenous students (figure 3.3.1).

### *Indigenous studies in school curriculum and involvement of Indigenous people in their development and delivery*

Indigenous people and others have argued that including Indigenous cultural studies in a school's curriculum would be beneficial for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students alike. Approaches to incorporating Indigenous content into the curriculum vary widely both among education systems and schools.

#### **Key messages**

- Data are limited, but in 2001 it appeared that Indigenous teachers and education workers generally comprised a much smaller proportion of school staff than Indigenous students comprised of all students (section 7.3).
- Several schools with significant proportions of Indigenous students have incorporated Indigenous languages and cultural activities into their curricula (section 7.3).

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### *Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities*

Taking part in organised sport, arts or community group activities can enhance self esteem and the development of social and other skills, and teamwork.

There are currently no national data on the participation of Indigenous youth in these activities. Some descriptive information is available about individual community programs that have been in operation. However, this information mainly relates to participation and intended outcomes.

#### **Key message**

A wide range of community programs exist, but there are no national data on the participation of Indigenous youth in these programs or on the associated outcomes, although the ABS ISS when it is released will contain some information (section 7.4).

### *Juvenile ‘diversions’*

When police apprehend offenders, they have two options (depending on the severity of the offence). The offender can be charged, in which case criminal proceedings occur through the traditional court processes. Alternatively, the offender may be ‘diverted’. Diversionary mechanisms range from cautions to attendance at community and family conferences.

Unfortunately, there are no national data on the extent of juvenile diversions. This section of the Report presents (non-comparable) data from NSW, WA and the NT.

#### **Key message**

The importance of diversions in Indigenous juvenile justice outcomes necessitates the collection of better data (section 7.5).

### *Transition from school to work*

Two approaches are used to analyse the important transition from school to work. The first is the ‘at risk’ approach, which examines the proportion of people aged 15–24 who are not in full or part time employment, nor engaged in study. These people are considered to be ‘at risk’ of long-term disadvantage. The second approach looks at outcomes from education.

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### **Key messages**

- In 2001, Indigenous people aged 15–24 were much more likely to be ‘at risk’ of long term disadvantage than their non-Indigenous counterparts, as they were less likely to have a job or to be in school (section 7.6).
- An educational attainment of certificate level 3 or above significantly reduced an Indigenous person’s chance of being unemployed in 2001 (table 7.6.1).

## **Substance use and misuse**

Substance use and, particularly, misuse have the capacity to impact on every aspect of a person’s life. Life expectancy, disability, employment, income, imprisonment, domestic violence and sexual abuse are all headline indicators affected by substance use and misuse. According to some studies, cigarette smoking, excessive alcohol consumption and illicit drug use are particularly prevalent in lower socioeconomic groups. The relative socioeconomic disadvantage experienced by Indigenous people may place them at greater risk than the rest of the population.

### *Alcohol and tobacco consumption*

Cigarette smoking and excessive alcohol consumption are associated with increased illness and mortality. High levels of alcohol consumption can lead to diseases such as alcohol dependence syndrome and alcohol cirrhosis; in the case of pregnant women, it can also adversely affect the health of new born infants.

### **Key messages**

- In 2001, Indigenous people were more than twice as likely as other Australians to be regular smokers (table 8.1.1).
- Nationally, in 2001 there was little difference between the proportion of Indigenous and non-Indigenous people consuming alcohol at the low risk (or no alcohol) level (table 8.1.1).
- In 2001, a slightly greater proportion of Indigenous people (7 per cent) was considered to consume alcohol at a high risk level compared with non-Indigenous people (4 per cent) (table 8.1.1). Indigenous people consuming alcohol at the risky and high risk levels were more likely to reside in remote areas (table 8.1.2).

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### *Alcohol related crime and hospital statistics*

There are no reliable data on the overall extent of alcohol related crime. Data on alcohol related homicides are derived from police records, with their accuracy depending on the Indigenous status of the victim and offender being appropriately recorded.

Hospital data are also very limited, dealing only with admissions for alcohol related illnesses. Cases that involved a visit to a general practitioner or an emergency department, but did not result in admission, are not included.

#### **Key messages**

- During 1999-2000 to 2001-02, 72.9 per cent of Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence — four times the rate for non-Indigenous homicides (figure 8.2.1).
- In 2001-02, mental and behavioural disorders were the most common reason for admissions to hospital for alcohol related conditions for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people (table 8.2.1).

### *Drug and other substance use*

Drug and other substance use can lead to social and economic disadvantage at the individual, family and community levels. In recent years, illicit drug consumption has played a major role in the involvement of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system. There is a significant correlation between domestic violence and drug and alcohol use in Indigenous communities. The consumption of other substances such as inhalants (for example, petrol and glue) can lead to long-term brain damage, disability or even death.

#### **Key messages**

- In 2001, marijuana/cannabis was the most common illicit drug used by both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people (table 8.3.1).
- In some jurisdictions, prescription drug misuse was a major cause of hospital admissions in 2001-02 (tables 8A.3.3 to 8A.3.8).

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## Functional and resilient families and communities

Families and communities are the mainstay of our society. The extent to which either are dysfunctional can have direct impacts on a range of outcomes for Indigenous people, including: life expectancy, education, imprisonment, violence, employment and income. Dysfunctional families and communities can lead to breakdown in relationships and social alienation – significant factors leading to Indigenous disadvantage.

### *Children on long term care and protection orders*

Data in this section only relate to children who have been on a protection order continuously for a year or more. Given that legal intervention is usually a last resort, after other interventions have failed or considered not feasible, it provides some insight into the most serious or long-term instances of child abuse and neglect. Not all orders, however, are due to neglect and abuse – in some cases family difficulties such as a parent being hospitalised or dying may be the reason why a child is placed in care.

#### **Key messages**

- Nationally, of those Indigenous children discharged during 2001-02 from a care and protection order, 39.6 per cent had been on the order for at least a year, only slightly more than for non-Indigenous children (37.3 per cent) (table 9.1.1).
- Caution is needed in interpreting these data. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community (section 9.1).

An increase in notifications and subsequently, care and protection orders, may be a reflection of increased awareness and identification of the problem within the community.

### *Repeat offending*

The cycle of Indigenous imprisonment has severe impacts on families and communities. Rehabilitation and employment prospects for the individual are impaired; so too is the capacity for families to function. Those caught (directly or indirectly) within the imprisonment cycle face an increased likelihood of also being caught in a cycle of disadvantage.

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**Key messages**

- Nationally, the proportion of Indigenous prisoners experiencing prior adult imprisonment was higher than for non-Indigenous prisoners from 1998 to 2002 (figure 9.2.1).
- On 30 June 2002, around four in every five Indigenous prisoners had a previous prison record (figure 9.2.1).

Prior imprisonment is used as a proxy for repeat offending. The true level of repeat offending is under-represented, as not all offences are resolved. As a result, juvenile detentions, convictions which do not lead to imprisonment, and arrests which do not proceed to court are not included in the data.

***Access to the nearest health professional***

Access to health services is important both in identifying and treating diseases or other problems in a timely way. One indicator relates to the distance clients must travel to access services and facilities.

Health services include primary care and public health services. These services include those provided by: general practitioners; nurses; allied health professionals; acute care in hospitals; and specialist services (such as those provided by obstetricians and eye specialists).

**Key message**

In 2001, 85 per cent of people living in discrete Indigenous communities were within 10 kilometres of a health facility (table 9A.3.3).

***Proportion of Indigenous people with access to their traditional lands***

Land is important to Indigenous people both culturally and economically. The aim of this indicator is to evaluate the extent to which Indigenous people have access to their traditional lands.

While no data are available for this year's Report, next year data for this indicator of access will be based on three items in the Indigenous Social Survey which asked people:

- about recognition of their homelands/traditional country;

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- whether they currently were living on homelands; and
  - whether they were allowed to visit their homelands.

## **Effective environmental health systems**

The conditions in which people live and work have a major influence on their health. Environmental health is about providing safe and healthy living conditions. This includes the houses in which people live, the water they drink, the food they eat and the safe removal of waste.

### *Rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health*

Hospital admissions data suggest that environmental-based diseases are more common among Indigenous than non-Indigenous people. Improvements in sanitation, drinking water quality, food safety, disease control and housing conditions are major contributors to improved health and quality of life.

Research in Indigenous communities has found that infected secretions from eyes, nose, ears and coughs play a major role in transmitting infectious diseases, especially in overcrowded households. Inadequate waste disposal, leading to a pool of potentially infected material in the immediate living environment, is also a major source of infectious disease.

#### **Key messages**

- In 2001-02, influenza and pneumonia (114.5 per 1000), followed by bacterial disease (62.7 per 1000) and intestinal infectious diseases (58.2 per 1000), accounted for most hospital admissions for environmental diseases for the Indigenous population (table 10.1.1).
- For those three categories of disease, the rates for Indigenous people were respectively around four times, two and a half times and three times higher than for non-Indigenous people (section 10.1).

### *Access to clean water and functional sewerage*

Most Indigenous people live in cities and towns with water supply and sewerage systems common to the general population. Data on water and sewerage services are available for some discrete communities.

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**Key message**

In 2001, the reliability of water supplies and sewerage systems was poor in many discrete Indigenous communities (section 10.2).

During the 12 month period to mid-2001, 35 per cent of all Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more people, experienced water restrictions (with almost 10 per cent of communities experiencing restrictions five times or more in that time).

*Overcrowding in housing*

Indigenous people were five and a half times more likely to live in overcrowded households than non-Indigenous people in 2001. Overcrowding in housing can be a significant contributor to poor health, family violence and poor educational performance.

**Key message**

Overcrowding was more common among Indigenous households in all regions in 2001, but it was significantly higher in very remote locations (section 10.3).

The proxy occupancy standard used in the Report compares the number of bedrooms with the number of people in a dwelling to determine overcrowding. However, particularly in larger households, the number of bathrooms and toilets, and the size of kitchens, bedrooms and other living spaces may be just as important as the number of bedrooms.

**Economic participation and development**

The extent to which people participate in economic life is closely related to their living standards and broader wellbeing. It also influences how they interact at the family and community levels.

This Report examines employment, long term unemployment, land resources and governance as factors in Indigenous economic participation and development.



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### *Employment by sector, industry and occupation*

Having a job or being involved in a business activity leads to improved incomes for families and communities (which in turn has a positive influence on health, the education of children etc). It also enhances self-esteem and reduces social alienation.

The type of employment that people are engaged in may also have an impact on their wellbeing – for example, the level of job satisfaction involved.

#### **Key messages**

- The rate of full time employment in 2001 for Indigenous people was much lower than that for non-Indigenous people in all age groups and geographic regions. Nationally, full time employment as a proportion of the labour force was 41.5 per cent for Indigenous people, compared to 60.2 per cent for non-Indigenous people (figure 11.1.1).
- Indigenous employment had a significant part time component in 2001, with 34.0 per cent of the Indigenous labour force employed part time compared to 30.0 per cent of the non-Indigenous labour force (figure 11.1.2).
- Recorded Indigenous employment is significantly affected by CDEP participation, particularly in very remote areas (section 11.1 and 11.2).

### *Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) participation*

The CDEP scheme provides employment and training opportunities to over 34 000 Indigenous people in a range of activities that can benefit them and their communities. To participate in the scheme, unemployed members of a community or group choose to give up their Centrelink (unemployment) entitlements. ATSIC offers a grant to the CDEP community organisation to enable it to undertake community-managed activities and pay wages to participants.

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**Key message**

CDEP comprises a significant proportion of Indigenous employment, especially in remote and very remote areas, where it can account for the overwhelming majority of jobs (sections 11.1 and 11.2).

***Long term unemployment***

People who have been unemployed for long periods generally experience greater financial hardship, and have more difficulty finding employment because of the loss of relevant skills, and employers' perceptions of their 'employability'.

For the purpose of this Report, long term unemployment is defined as people who have been looking for work and receiving payments (youth allowance, newstart allowance or mature age allowance) for a year or more. The data exclude people who participated in CDEP who may otherwise have received these allowances.

**Key message**

Nationally, in 2003 an Indigenous person was slightly more likely to have been in receipt of unemployment benefits while looking for work for a year or more (figure 11.3.1). (This excludes long term CDEP participation.)

***Self employment***

Self employed people in this Report comprise those conducting their own business, either with or without employees. Owner-managers of incorporated enterprises have not been included. Some Indigenous people form themselves into cooperative commercial arrangements – for example, artists – and they may not have identified themselves as being self employed in the Census.

**Key message**

Nationally, non-Indigenous people are three times more likely than Indigenous people to be self-employed in 2001; this increases to nine times more likely in very remote areas (figure 11.4.1 and table 11A.4.1).

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### *Indigenous owned or controlled land*

Ownership and control of land can provide both economic and cultural benefits to Indigenous people. Land areas and proportions reported for this indicator are for communally owned or controlled Indigenous land. No data are available on the ownership of land by individuals, other than for home ownership.

The extent to which a parcel of Indigenous-owned land yields economic benefits will depend (among other things) on geographic factors such as climate, soil type and location, the strength of landowners' property rights, and the aspirations of Indigenous landowners themselves.

#### **Key message**

Nearly all Indigenous owned or controlled land is in very remote areas of Australia (section 11.5).

### *Accredited training in leadership, finance or management*

Governance has been highlighted during consultations as a major issue for Indigenous communities and organisations. Key issues associated with governance are: culturally informed governance structures, capacity to govern, accountability, civic engagement, and self determination.

For this year's Report, proxy indicators of capacity to govern have been included using data on relevant courses – namely, management and commerce, economics and business law – although students in other courses may be equally well equipped to engage in the work environment (see section 3.4).

#### **Key messages**

- A non-Indigenous person was nearly five times more likely to undertake training relevant to the capacity to govern than an Indigenous person in 2001 (figure 11.6.1).
- Indigenous women were more likely to undertake this type of training than Indigenous men (table 11A.6.1).

### *Case studies in governance*

Governance has been closely linked with economic development and disadvantage, because it is a key determinant of the ability of Indigenous organisations and

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communities to make and implement decisions that achieve outcomes in a sustainable way.

Indicators of good governance are difficult to construct, but case studies can provide useful insights. While a number of potential case studies were identified, time did not allow for the investigations at first hand needed to ensure their accuracy and usefulness for inclusion in this year's Report. This will be redressed next year.

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## Future directions in data

Data for Indigenous people are deficient in a number of key areas. Some priorities for data development are listed below:

Indicator	Data priority
Rates of disability and/or core activity restrictions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Collect data on prevalence of disability.</li></ul>
Drug and other substance use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• More robust data by jurisdictional and geographic levels are required.</li></ul>
Birthweight	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Extend data collections to babies born to non-Indigenous mothers who have Indigenous fathers.</li></ul>
Hearing impediments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Collect data to enable the assessment of the type and severity of ear infections in the Indigenous population.</li></ul>
Years 3, 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Collect learning outcomes data to provide timely data by geographic regions.</li></ul>
Preschool and school attendance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Collect uniform national data.</li><li>• Ensure consistency and comparability of data across geographic regions.</li></ul>
Transition from school to work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• State and Territory breakdowns of data on the proportion of Indigenous people aged 15-24 'at risk of long term disadvantage' are required.</li></ul>
Education, labour force, unemployment and income	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Better income, education and employment data are required for the Indigenous population.</li><li>• Better data on CDEP participation, and to enable CDEP to be distinguished from other employment, are required.</li></ul>
Home ownership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ensure age standardisation of census and survey data.</li><li>• Provide separate identification of remote areas.</li></ul>
Access to clean water and functional sewerage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Data to be made consistent between ABS Community Housing Infrastructure Needs Survey and other collections.</li></ul>

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# 1 Introduction

*This chapter describes the background to the Council of Australian Government's request that the Review of Government Service Provision produce this Report. It also outlines the processes followed by the Review's Steering Committee in developing the Report.*

Reconciliation as a standing item on the Council of Australian Government's (COAG) agenda has given rise to a number of initiatives focussing on the need for governments to cooperate in the objective of overcoming Indigenous disadvantage.

Included amongst COAG's initiatives have been the need to develop action plans, improve the monitoring of performance of government programs and the establishment of benchmarks. While Ministerial Councils have been charged with implementing those decisions, COAG has also been looking towards the 'bigger picture' – whether those actions are leading to the achievement of improved outcomes for Indigenous people. To that end, the Council has commissioned this Report.

## 1.1 Not just another statistical report

A vast amount of information has been gathered on Indigenous Australians by a range of people and organisations. There is no shortage of detailed reports and academic publications. There are also substantial lists of performance indicators in a number of portfolio areas. They are all valuable, and it is not the aim of this Report simply to replicate what has already been done elsewhere.

COAG and the Prime Minister have nominated two core objectives for the Report. The first is to inform Australian governments about whether policy programs and interventions are achieving improved outcomes for Indigenous people. The second is that the Report should be meaningful to Indigenous people.

The Report on *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage* therefore needs to be more than a collection of data. Its purpose is both visionary and strategic. The vision is that Indigenous people will one day enjoy the same overall standard of living as other Australians. They will be as healthy, live as long, and participate as fully in

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the social and economic life of the nation. The information collected for this Report aims to provide policy makers with a broad view of the current state of Indigenous disadvantage and where things need to change if that vision is to be achieved.

This Report is strategic in concept, providing governments with areas of focus for policy effort. It provides a practical tool for government agencies to incorporate the indicators in the framework into their strategic policy development, and it encourages agencies to think beyond their existing policy frameworks. In partnership with the Indigenous community, this Report will be able to track over time where governments have had an impact on Indigenous disadvantage – and where work still needs to be done.

In seeking to provide an overall picture of the state of Indigenous people, the Steering Committee has not resiled from using data that would be, for the purposes of other statistical reports, imperfect. In this area, in particular, data are not perfect. But the review has taken the position that, providing it is not misleading, imperfect information is better than none. Moreover, it can lay the foundation for developing better data over time. There is a clear need for improvements in data, if COAG's objectives in commissioning this Report are to be fully met.

While concentrating on the broad outcomes, the Report is cognisant of the diversity of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture and experience; and that disadvantage may come in different forms for urban, regional and remote dwellers.

The Report also has a long-term focus, and recognises that many factors bear on change – no one action is going to eradicate Indigenous disadvantage.

## **1.2 Background**

### **COAG's Reconciliation Agenda**

During the Corroboree 2000 celebrations, the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation (CAR) presented its *National Strategies to Advance Reconciliation* to governments. Contained within the Report was CAR's National Strategy to Overcome Disadvantage, which aimed:

...for a society where Aboriginal people and Torres Strait Islanders enjoy a similar standard of living to that of other Australians, without losing their cultural identity (CAR 2000).

In acknowledging the Council's extensive work and contribution, at its November 2000 meeting, COAG noted that reconciliation was an important issue for Australia that would require a concerted and sustained effort over many years.

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COAG acknowledged the unique status of Indigenous Australians, and agreed that ‘many actions are necessary to advance reconciliation, from governments, the private sector, community organisations, Indigenous communities, and the wider community’ (COAG 2000, see appendix 1). Heads of governments committed themselves to a partnership approach, which recognised the contributions that all of these elements could bring to addressing Indigenous disadvantage. Priority actions in three areas were agreed:

- Investing in community leadership initiatives.
- Reviewing and re-engineering programmes and services to ensure they deliver practical measures that support families, children and young people. In particular, governments agreed to look at measures for tackling family violence, drug and alcohol dependence and other symptoms of community dysfunction.
- Forging greater links between the business sector and Indigenous communities to help promote economic independence (COAG 2000, see appendix 1).

In agreeing to take a lead role in driving necessary changes, COAG directed Ministerial Councils (where they had not already done so), to develop action plans, performance monitoring strategies and benchmarks.

At its meeting in April 2002, COAG commissioned the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision<sup>1</sup>:

to produce a regular report against key indicators of indigenous disadvantage. This report will help to measure the impact of changes to policy settings and service delivery and provide a concrete way to measure the effect of the Council’s commitment to reconciliation through a jointly agreed set of indicators (COAG 2002, see appendix 1).

The Review comprises representatives from all Australian governments and is chaired by the Chairman of the Productivity Commission, which also provides the secretariat.

In his letter to the Chairman of the Steering Committee, formally requesting a regular report to COAG against key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage, the Prime Minister noted that the task will be to:

identify indicators that are of relevance to all governments and indigenous stakeholders and that can demonstrate the impact of programme and policy interventions (see page xvii).

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<sup>1</sup> Now called the Review of Government Service Provision



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## 1.3 The process in brief

The Review's principal output to date has been the annual Report on Government Services ('Blue Book'), now in its eighth edition. The Blue Book provides information on the efficiency and effectiveness of mainstream services in the areas of education, justice, emergency management, health, community services and housing. It brings together data that provide a national overview of government service delivery.

From the outset, it was clear to the Steering Committee that the present task would require a significantly different approach to the Blue Book. For one thing, it is focussed almost entirely on outcomes from a whole-of-government perspective, rather than the performance of particular government services. And it requires consultations ranging well beyond the governments concerned, including in particular Indigenous people and their representative organisations.

### Developing the framework

The Steering Committee's first task was to set up a Working Group comprising representatives from central agencies in all governments, as well as the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs (MCATSIA), the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC), and the Local Government Association (LGA).<sup>2</sup> The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) were also asked to participate.

From the beginning, the Working Group operated on the basis of shared commitment and endeavour. The role of the central agency representatives was to coordinate responses on the draft framework – which had its origins in the work of MCATSIA – from the various agencies in their jurisdictions. The representatives from MCATSIA and ATSIC provided feedback from their respective constituencies; while the ABS and AIHW were asked to provide their expertise as primary data providers.

After a number of meetings of the Working Group and several iterations, a draft framework was submitted to the Steering Committee, which agreed to its release for consultation purposes in early October.

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<sup>2</sup> Although initially agreeing to provide a representative, the LGA did not participate in the process.

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## **The consultation process**

All parties were conscious that consultation on the draft framework was vitally important and that, within the timing restraints, it should be as extensive and meaningful as possible. In particular, it should encompass many Indigenous people and organisations. To that end, a consultation strategy was developed, which involved all participants in the Review.

The Australian, State and Territory governments conducted consultations on the draft framework in their respective jurisdictions in October and November 2002. Officials representing MCATSIA and ATSIC also consulted within their organisations in this period.

As well, the Chairman of the Steering Committee and head of the Secretariat held discussions with a number of Indigenous leaders and organisations, and a range of officials and researchers across the country. The Chairman also wrote to key organisations and individuals seeking written comments on the framework.

The consultation period was extended until February 2003, to allow for consultations with the newly elected members of the ATSIC Board.

Once all of the consultations had been completed, they were summarised in a paper. This was distributed to all of those who had participated in the process, in order to provide feedback about the range of insights and suggestions that had emerged. A list of those consulted is at appendix 2. (The Consultation Report can be found on the Review's web page: [www.pc.gov.au/gsp/index.html](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/index.html).)

## **Finalising the framework**

Comments received from Indigenous people reflected a diversity of views. Not surprisingly, Indigenous people were not always in agreement with each other. Nevertheless, some common themes emerged and it was apparent that some significant changes to the framework were warranted. Some involved deleting aspects of the draft framework, some involved changing or enhancing the indicators, and others involved introducing new indicators.

A revised draft framework was agreed by the Steering Committee in April 2003 and referred to the COAG Senior Officials Meeting in May. It was then submitted by the Steering Committee's Chairman to COAG for agreement out-of-session. COAG's endorsement of the framework was confirmed by the Prime Minister in August (see page xx).

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This inaugural Report is very much a work in progress. As time goes by and, hopefully, data quality and availability improves, aspects of the Report may change. At the back of each chapter there is a 'Future directions in data' section which sets out some imperatives in this respect. In addition, the Review will continue to consult with stakeholders, and particularly with Indigenous people, with a view to ensuring that this Report maintains its currency and relevance.

## 1.4 References

CAR (Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation) 2000, *National Strategies to Advance Reconciliation*, Sydney.

COAG (Council of Australian Governments) 2000, *Communiqué* Meeting 3 November 2000, Canberra.

—— 2002, *Communiqué* Meeting 5 April 2002, Canberra.

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## 2 The framework

*This chapter describes the development of the framework and its underpinnings. It provides a brief overview of how the framework evolved in response to the consultation process, including feedback from Indigenous people and organisations. The chapter concludes with some discussion on data issues, and the composition of the Indigenous population.*

### 2.1 The underpinnings

A large amount of information has been gathered and published on Indigenous Australians by a range of people and organisations. This Report, however, has specific objectives which distinguish it from other data collections.

The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) has been clear in its direction that this Report must be useful in informing policy development within jurisdictions.

Generally, programs are developed by government agencies for the purpose of delivering a suite of services, to achieve outcomes which are specific to that particular policy area. Health departments, for example, deliver a range of services which have as their primary objective good health outcomes for the Australian people. Within that primary objective are a number of services with specific objectives. For example, breast cancer detection services seek to improve the survival rate for women with breast cancer through early detection and diagnosis. Program development is, therefore, generally portfolio specific and runs parallel to program development in other agencies.

Without detracting from the importance of individual agencies being responsible and accountable for the services they deliver, the structure of this Report seeks to facilitate interaction between sectors and between governments on programs that are delivered to Indigenous people. Furthermore, it can assist agencies to consider how they can strategically develop programs which have the capacity to deliver outcomes outside of their traditional sphere of action.

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In doing so, the Report is predicated on the view that achieving improvements in the wellbeing of Indigenous Australians in a particular area will generally require the involvement of more than one government agency, and that improvements will need preventive policy actions on a whole-of-government basis.

## **2.2 The preventive model**

This approach was adopted because of the poor connection between high level measures of disparity in outcomes (for example, life expectancy) and the actions of policy makers and service delivery agencies. Such measures do not provide a sufficient catalyst or focus for action among the policy makers most able to influence changes over the long term.

Because of necessarily long lead times, current policy interventions which aim to improve, for example, Indigenous health or employment outcomes, may take many years to show up in the ‘headline’ statistics. In the intervening period, the statistics of disparity may incorrectly suggest inactivity, when much is being done to ultimately close the gap. Such statistics, while important to gauging overall progress in the long term, cannot assist policy makers to target the causes of disadvantage at the key times in the lifecycle when interventions can most effectively be made.

In some respects, reporting at the headline level (for example, life expectancy), can create a perception that the problem is too big to handle. The problems being reported on with headline indicators generally arise at the end of long chains of causal factors (for example, birthweight, diet and smoking) that cross many sectoral boundaries. Recognition of these complex inter-connections is responsible for COAG’s decision to adopt a whole-of-government approach to meeting the needs of Indigenous people.

The indicator framework is based on a preventive model which attempts to tackle outcome inequalities by focusing on the causal factors (in the ‘strategic areas for action’) that are likely to result in the greatest impact on population-wide differentials. It encourages policy makers and service delivery staff to look to those areas for the factors that are ultimately causing disadvantage at the headline level.

By way of example, it is predictable that a child who is not performing well at the year 3 literacy and numeracy levels, will probably not be performing well by the time he or she reaches year 12. Indeed, it is likely that this child will already have left school by then. A focus by policy makers on year 3 literacy and numeracy is therefore likely to contribute to improved year 10 and 12 retention rates and, in turn, with university enrolments and employment outcomes. However, to achieve these

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better overall outcomes, policy actions would be needed not only in the provision of education, but also in other areas of service delivery.

## **2.3 The framework**

The indicator framework is depicted in figure 2.1. Three priority outcomes sit at the apex of this framework. They reflect COAG's vision for reducing disadvantage and were widely endorsed by Indigenous people. These outcomes are interlinked and should not be viewed in isolation from each other. The goal is that improvements in the next two tiers of the framework will in time overcome the disadvantage which, at this time, precludes these outcomes for a large number of Indigenous people and communities.

- The first tier (the headline indicators) provides an overview of the state of Indigenous disadvantage. It serves to keep a national focus on the challenge of reducing disadvantage.
- The second tier is of more immediate relevance to policy. It contains seven 'strategic areas for action', which can make inroads into headline disadvantage over time. A series of strategic change indicators has been identified which shed light on whether policy actions are making a difference in the strategic areas for action (see below).

### **Strategic areas for action**

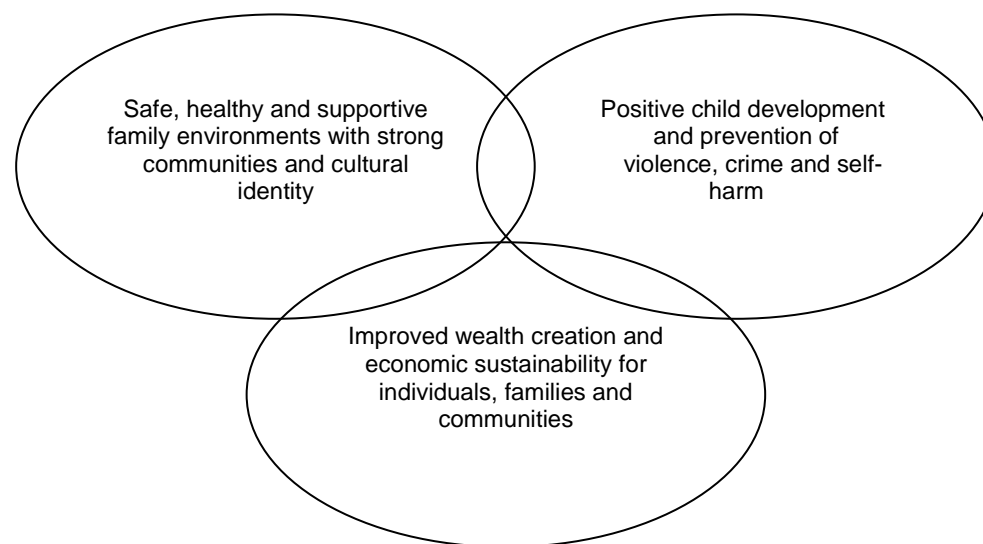
The seven strategic areas for action have been chosen for their potential to have a significant and lasting impact in reducing Indigenous disadvantage.

As noted, in order to achieve better outcomes in these areas, actions of more than one government agency will typically be required. For example, the school system is not the only service area responsible for achieving outcomes in the area of 'Early school engagement'. This is also affected by such factors as transport availability, housing arrangements, health, and (outside of the service system), parental support.

The diagram at figure 2.2 provides an illustration of the multi-causal mechanisms for achieving better outcomes.

Figure 2.1 Framework diagram

## Priority Outcomes



## Headline indicators

- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| – Life expectancy   | – Labour force participation and unemployment | – Substantiated child protection                        |
| – Rates of disability and/or core activity restrictions   | – Household and individual income             | – Deaths from homicide and hospitalisations for assault |
| – Years 10 and 12 retention and attainment                | – Home ownership                              | – Victim rates for crime                                |
| – Post secondary education – participation and attainment | – Suicide and self-harm                       | – Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates             |

## Strategic areas for action

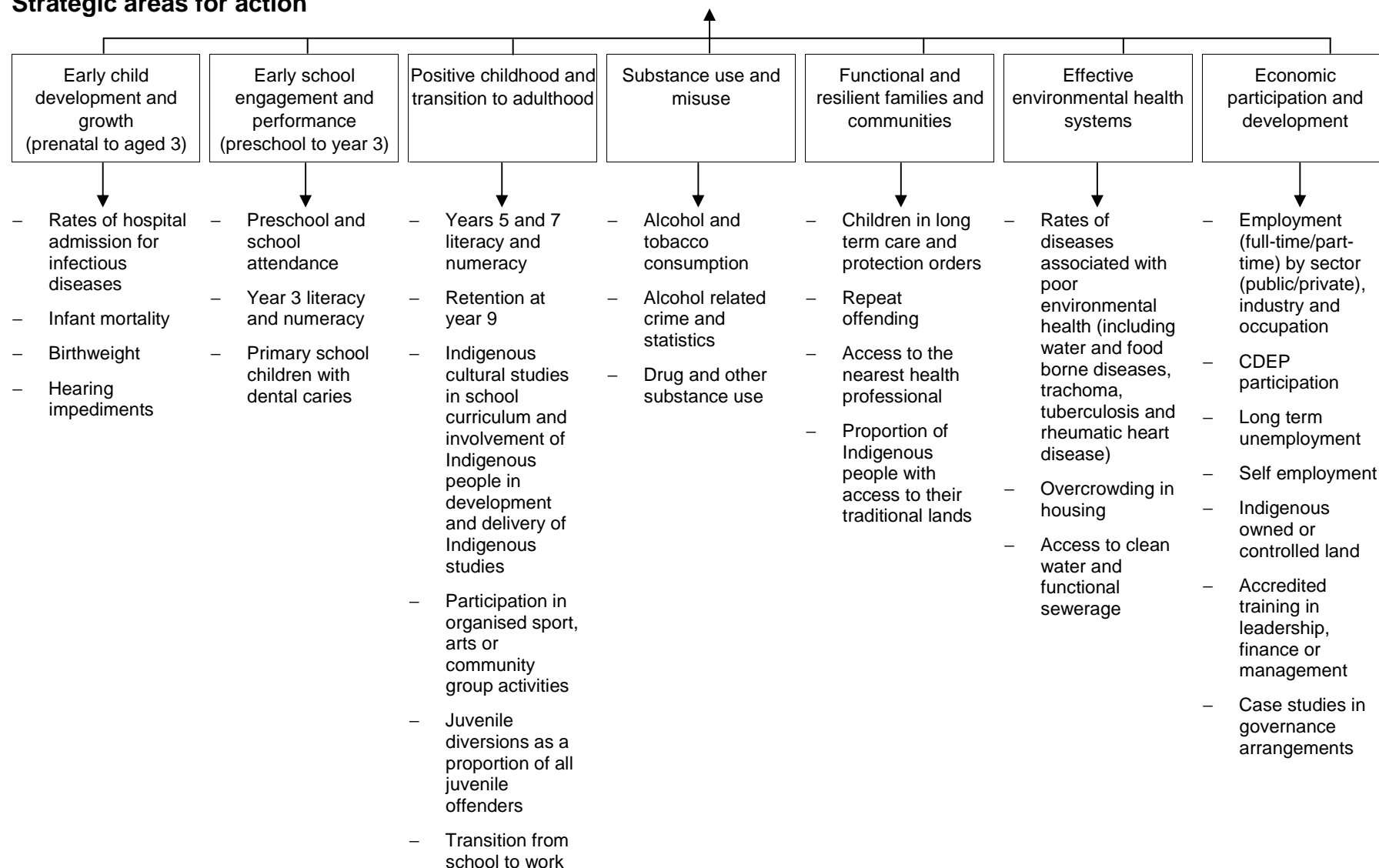
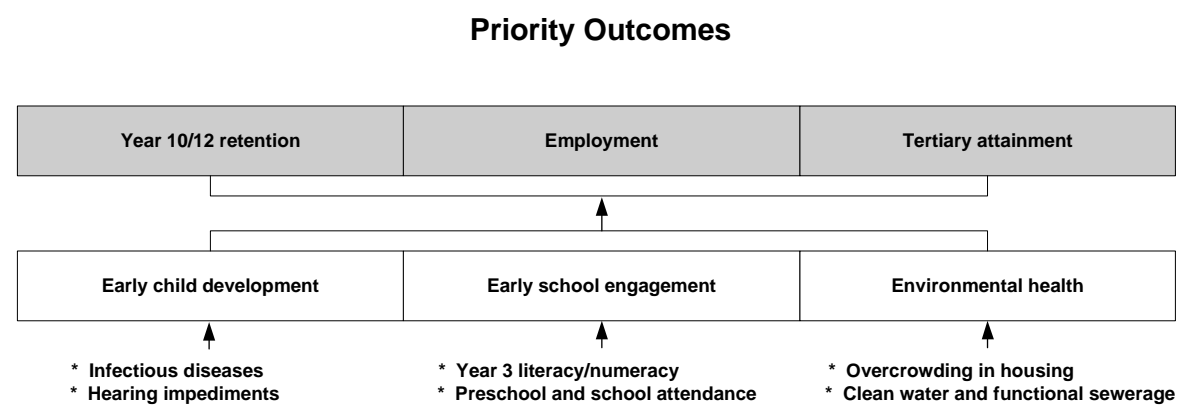




Figure 2.2 **Multi-causality of outcomes for Indigenous people**



## Strategic change indicators

The strategic change indicators have been chosen for their potential to effect change in the headline indicators in the longer term. The indicators are linked to outcomes and not specific policy interventions. That said, some outputs are so closely tied to outcomes that they have been included: for example, water, sewerage, and access to health professionals).

The framework is predicated on the understanding that individual agencies in each jurisdiction will examine their capacity to contribute to improvements in these indicators. As noted in chapter 1, Ministerial Councils have been charged by COAG with the role of developing action plans, performance monitoring strategies and benchmarks. Ideally, the outcome indicators in this Report should reflect the work undertaken by government agencies in implementing their action plans.

A brief rationale for the choice of each strategic area for action with accompanying strategic change indicators, follows:

### *Early child development and growth (prenatal to age 3)*

Early school engagement is important in establishing a foundation for educational achievement, retention in secondary schooling, opportunities in employment and minimising contact with the justice system later in life. Key indicators are:

- Rates of hospital admission for infectious diseases
- Infant mortality
- Birthweight

- 
- Hearing impediments

### *Early school engagement and performance (preschool to year 3)*

Early school engagement is important for establishing a foundation for educational achievement, retention in secondary schooling, opportunities in employment and minimising contact with the justice system later in life. Key indicators are:

- Preschool and school attendance
- Year 3 literacy and numeracy
- Primary school children with dental caries

### *Positive childhood and transition to adulthood*

Ongoing participation in school and vocational education; and community, cultural and recreational activities, encourages self-esteem and a more positive basis for achieving employment. Such participation also assists in avoiding contact with the justice system. Key indicators are:

- Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy
- Retention at year 9
- Indigenous cultural studies in school curriculum and involvement of indigenous people in development and delivery of Indigenous studies
- Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities
- Juvenile diversions as a proportion of all juvenile offenders
- Transition from school to work

### *Substance use and misuse*

Abuse of alcohol and other substances affects later physical and mental health, family and community relationships and can result in contact with the justice system. Tobacco use is the greatest single contributor to poor health outcomes. Key indicators are:

- Alcohol and tobacco consumption
- Alcohol related crime and hospital statistics
- Drug and other substance use

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### *Functional and resilient families and communities*

Functional and resilient families and communities influence the physical and mental health of adults and children and contact with the justice system. Problems in families and communities can lead to breaks in schooling and education, disrupted social relationships and social alienation. Key indicators are:

- Children on long term care and protection orders
- Repeat offending
- Access to the nearest health professional
- Proportion of Indigenous people with access to their traditional lands

### *Effective environmental health systems*

Clean water, adequate sewerage, housing and other essential infrastructure are important to physical wellbeing and health, nutrition and physical development of children. Key indicators are:

- Rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health (including water and food borne diseases, trachoma, tuberculosis and rheumatic heart disease)
- Access to clean water and functional sewerage
- Overcrowding in housing

### *Economic participation and development*

Having a job or being involved in a business activity not only leads to higher incomes for families and communities (which has a positive influence on health, education of children, etc) it also enhances and reduces social alienation. Key indicators are:

- Employment (full-time/part-time) by sector (public/private), industry and occupation
- CDEP participation
- Long term unemployment
- Self employment
- Indigenous owned or controlled land
- Accredited training in leadership, finance or management
- Case studies in governance arrangements

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## Criteria for selection of strategic change indicators

The criteria used to select the strategic change indicators are shown in box 2.1. One of the most important is the existence of an underlying theory of causality and the availability of an evidence base.

### Box 2.1      **Criteria used to select strategic change indicators**

- Relevance to priority outcomes.
- Actions in the strategic areas for action result in positive outcomes over time in the headline indicators.
- Meaningful to stakeholders and principally to the Indigenous community.
- Sensitive to policy interventions and changes in policy settings.
- Supported by strong logic or empirical evidence.
- Unambiguous and clear in meaning and interpretation.
- The existence of, or ease of developing, supporting data sets.

*Source:* SCRCSSP 2003.

Without strong evidence or logic for the selection of each strategic area for action, the framework would lose its predictive power, and with it, much of its utility. For the most part, empirical evidence has provided the basis for satisfying this criterion. There were some indicators, however, where even though there was little empirical evidence, the logic and feedback from consultations were considered compelling.

The existence of data sets or ease of developing them is clearly an important practical consideration. In many cases, the selected indicators are a compromise, due not only to the absence of data, but also to the unlikelihood of any data becoming available in the foreseeable future. An example here would be the indicator ‘Alcohol related crime and hospital statistics’ within the ‘Substance use and misuse’ action area. Initially, the preferred indicator, supported by extensive research evidence, was ‘domestic violence’. The lack of reliable data, however, meant that a proxy indicator was needed if this important issue was to be incorporated into the framework.

In some cases, however, an indicator has been included even when the data are not available on a national basis, or are substantially qualified. These are indicators where there is some likelihood that data quality and availability will improve over time. (For more information on data, see section 2.5 in this chapter.)

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In two cases where there were no reliable data available, the indicators were nevertheless considered to be so important that qualitative indicators have been included in the Report (see section 2.4 below).

There is also the potential for some data to yield ambiguous results. For example, an increase in notifications of child abuse or neglect does not necessarily mean that there has been an increase in the incidence of such behaviour. Because of its importance, child protection has nevertheless been included in the framework (see sections 3.9 and 9.1).

Not surprisingly, there were numerous suggestions as to what should be included in the framework, and all were assessed against the criteria. For the most part, the indicators which have been included in the framework met most or all of the criteria. They have been broadly accepted by Indigenous people as meaningful, and by governments as relevant to policy actions.

## **2.4 Feedback from consultations**

The Australian, State and Territory government representatives on the Working Group were responsible for coordinating comments on the draft framework document from within their jurisdictions. Generally speaking, they sought the views of government agencies and local Indigenous organisations or communities. Some also sought advice from academics working in the area. The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission circulated the framework to all of its regional councillors for comments; and the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs (MCATSIA) representative consulted with relevant officials in all jurisdictions.

The Chair of the Steering Committee also consulted widely with Indigenous leaders, organisations and academics, and visited some communities along the way. Not surprisingly, there was considerable diversity of views amongst Indigenous people themselves. Extensive though these consultations were, further consultations, particularly with Indigenous people, will be needed following the release of this Report.

While there were comments critical of aspects of the framework, and numerous suggestions for additional indicators, there was general agreement on the objectives of the exercise and how the framework had been put together. In particular, there was agreement on the framework's focus on outcomes and strategic purpose, and its whole-of-government approach.

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On the basis of the consultations, a number of changes were made to the framework. Some were significant but largely presentational in nature. For example, the strategic area for action ‘Breaking the substance abuse cycle’ became the more neutral ‘Substance use and misuse’. Other changes were more substantive.

### *Culture*

The draft framework sought feedback and ideas on the possible inclusion of indicators in the areas of Indigenous culture and spirituality. There was a strong response from Indigenous people that there could be no single indicator of culture. Furthermore, the overwhelming view was that spiritual matters were not something that the framework should seek to address.

Insofar as it was acknowledged that culture did have a place in the framework, there was a general view that it should not be a headline indicator, but belonged within the strategic areas for action.

The primary message was that culture was indeed important, but would not easily sit in one area as it was enmeshed in every aspect of Indigenous peoples’ lives. Another strong message was that Indigenous culture was not static – like other cultures it had a strong basis in tradition, but it also evolved. Finally, it became clear that Indigenous culture is diverse; while there are common elements, Aboriginal people living in say, Sydney or Canberra, celebrate their culture in different ways to the people of Arnhem Land.

Notwithstanding all of these reservations, Indigenous people felt that it would be appropriate to include within the strategic areas for action, one or more specific indicators of culture. Amongst the indicators suggested were: Indigenous languages, Indigenous studies in school curricula, heritage management and access to land for cultural purposes.

It had been suggested in the draft framework that a land indicator may be an appropriate indicator of culture, and this was to some extent validated. However, it was also emphasised that land was important to economic development, and that both dimensions should be captured in the framework.

Finally, there was widespread agreement that Indigenous languages would represent an appropriate generic indicator (that is, one that would be culturally relevant in all areas from the far remote to metropolitan). While no indicator has thus far been developed, descriptive data on Indigenous languages spoken at home have been included in the Statistical Appendix (appendix 4). In future years it is intended that language data be used as a measure for some of the other indicators in the Report.

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### *Roles and responsibilities*

A key message from consultations with Indigenous people was that the Report should not imply that the efforts of governments acting alone would be enough to achieve fundamental, long term change. Many said that the drivers of change must include actions on the part of the private sector and, not least, Indigenous people themselves. Capacity building and governance within Indigenous communities were raised as critical issues during the consultations, being seen as intrinsic to the aspiration of Indigenous people to achieve self-empowerment.

There were many facets to these discussions, and no indicator could adequately capture all the various dimensions. In terms of governance, only one quantitative indicator could be included in the framework at this stage. ‘Accredited training in leadership, finance or management’ reflects the skills acquisition needed for good governance practices to be initiated and managed by Indigenous bodies. In addition, however, there was support for a more qualitative indicator in this area, involving ‘Case studies of governance arrangements’ — which will enable the reporting of what is happening in some organisations and communities as a result of governance initiatives. There were a number of examples given where good outcomes were being achieved although the issues and, therefore, the answers may vary considerably from one place to the next.

The notion of individual and community responsibility was also highlighted as a basic requirement for better outcomes. For example, the view was often put that children who are undernourished, live in overcrowded housing, or are subject to domestic violence have limited prospects for achievement. While the need for adequate government services was emphasised, so too was the need for families to ensure that their children were properly fed and lived in a nurturing environment. Parental responsibility, respect for elders, and community leadership were all seen as major factors. The role of the private sector was also highlighted by many as integral to economic development outcomes. A number of examples were given where partnerships between the private sector and Indigenous communities have resulted in positive outcomes. The role of these other actors can be critical to the success of government policies and interventions.

## **2.5 Data issues**

The data in this Report are the most recent available, and generally reflect the frequency of the data collections. There are some significant data issues of which readers need to be aware when interpreting data in this Report.

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## Ambiguities in interpretation

Particular limitations arise from variability in the identification of people as being of Indigenous origin, both across data collections and over time. Relevant factors are whether people are asked or choose to identify themselves as Indigenous, and the restriction of administrative data sets generally to people interacting with the administrative process from which those data are drawn.

This is particularly relevant to interpreting time series data. Where possible, time series data have been included in this Report and these will be expanded over time. However, the accuracy of data on Indigenous people depends in part on their willingness to identify themselves as Indigenous, and this can vary across data collections and has shown a general tendency to increase over time (see box 2.2).

### Box 2.2 Indigenous population 'growth'

Based on current trends in fertility and mortality, Australia's Indigenous population could be projected to increase from 386 000 in 1996 to 469 000 in 2006 at an annual average rate of 2.0 per cent per year. However, the growth in the identified Indigenous population in recent decades is much higher and cannot be explained by natural increases alone. Much of the unexplained growth can be attributed to an increasing willingness of people to identify themselves as Indigenous on statistical forms.

Under either assumption the Indigenous population is growing much faster than the total Australian population (1.2 per cent during the 1996-97 financial year).

*Source:* ABS (1998).

Some indicators may also yield ambiguous results due to differences in data collections (box 2.3) and propensities to access services. For example:

- different rates of substantiated child protection notifications (section 3.9) across jurisdictions or over time may be a result of different tendencies to report child abuse, rather than differences in its incidence; and
- different rates of hospitalisation for assault (section 3.10) across jurisdictions or over time may be a result of a different propensities to present at a hospital and/or indicate that an injury was caused by assault.

## Disaggregation

The Indigenous population has different characteristics to the non-Indigenous population, in terms of both location and age profile. As such, it is not always sensible to talk about Indigenous people as an homogeneous group. Some indicators may not indicate disadvantage at a national level, but may reveal that particular



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groups are particularly disadvantaged compared to their counterparts in the non-Indigenous population.

To demonstrate these differences, some indicators have been broken down by various categories — for example, age and geographic region — along with the State and Territory breakdowns. For others, however, disaggregation by jurisdiction was found to create undue complexity and result in an excessive number of tables.

Geographic regions have been derived from the Australian Standard Geographic Classification of Remoteness, developed by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Some tables are disaggregated into major cities, inner regional, outer regional, remote, very remote and migratory, or collapsed into major cities, regional (inner and outer), and remote (including very remote and migratory).

Most of the indicators in this Report are expressed as rates, or as a proportion of a particular population. This facilitates comparison between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, as well as within the Indigenous population itself (for example, males compared to females, or Indigenous people in major cities compared to those in remote areas).

Such analysis will often indicate that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people. However, the extent of disadvantage may vary between different groups – for example, people in remote areas or young people. It is useful in such cases to use rate ratio analysis, as it indicates the extent to which Indigenous people in particular age groups or regions are disadvantaged.

## **Age standardisation**

As mentioned, the Indigenous population has a different age profile to the non-Indigenous population, in that the Indigenous population tends to be younger. Age standardisation improves the comparison of populations with different age structures, in particular for health and justice outcomes, by adjusting the data to that which would have prevailed if the studied population had the standard age composition. Data in this Report that have been age standardised include ABS mortality data, AIHW hospital data and some home ownership data. Age standardisation of other data will be examined for future reports, although not all data lends itself to it.

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## Sources

The data for this Report have been drawn from three types of sources — census, survey and administrative data. Each has strengths and weaknesses:

- *Census* data are generally robust, rich in information and in their potential for disaggregation. However, censuses take place infrequently. For Indigenous data, they are also subject to errors due to people not participating or filling the form in correctly (see box 2.3);
- *Survey* data, such as the Indigenous Social Survey (ISS) and the National Health Survey, are usually more accurate for Indigenous data. However these surveys are run infrequently and data are subject to sample error, especially when disaggregated. Questions on specific subject matter may not be maintained over multiple surveys, or survey methodology can evolve, so time series comparisons may not always be possible.
- *Administrative* data are frequent (often annual) but are prone to errors regarding the identification of Indigenous people. Furthermore, there may be disparities amongst jurisdictions in the definitions used within collections which can render national comparisons problematic (see box 2.4).

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### Box 2.3      **Indigenous status ‘not stated’**

The Indigenous data from the Census are derived from a question about whether a person is of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin (question 17). This question enables data about both Aboriginal peoples and Torres Strait Islanders. Through the Indigenous Enumeration Strategy, ABS takes special measures to enhance the quality of Indigenous data collected in the Census.

The Census, which aims to count every person in Australia on Census night, is a rich source of information on the whole population and allows for a large number of disaggregations by population sub-groups and geographic areas. Nevertheless, it is subject to:

- net undercount, where some people are missed and others are counted more than once; and
- Indigenous status unknown, where either a census form is not collected from people who have been identified during the collection process or where the Indigenous origin question is not answered.

A proportion of people in these categories will be Indigenous.

There are a large number of people in the ‘Indigenous status not stated’ category relative to the Indigenous population. Nationally, 4.1 per cent of people were classified as ‘Indigenous status not stated’, compared to 2.2 per cent who identified as Aboriginal, Torres Strait Islander or both. The proportion of unknown Indigenous status varied across ages, geographic regions and states and territories – ranging from 6.0 per cent in the NT to 3.0 per cent in SA (table A.1). In most cases these records are separately identified in the attachments to this Report.

In its Estimated Resident Population (ERP) series, the ABS adjusts the Census data to account for net undercount and allocates records with unknown Indigenous status between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.

*Source:* ABS (2001) and ABS 2001 Census.

Because Census and survey data are not collected annually, there will be some gaps in the Report from year to year. For example, the ISS and Indigenous data from the Labour Force Survey will not be published until after this year’s Report is released. They will provide a rich source of data for next year’s Report.

### Box 2.4 Indigenous identification in administrative collections

A range of administrative collections was used to provide data for this Report. The quality of the data relating to Indigenous identification, however, varies considerably across collections and jurisdictions. This is due to differences in the definitions used to determine Indigenous status, the processes used to collect the data and the likelihood of a person identifying as Indigenous.

For some administrative data collections, such as death registrations, Indigenous identification in a number of jurisdictions is not accurate enough to enable national reporting. In others, the quality of the Indigenous data is affected by the high proportion of records with missing Indigenous status. The likelihood of a person identifying as Indigenous is likely to be influenced by the type of service being provided (for example, health or justice), the nature of contact with the service (for example whether it is voluntary or involuntary) and perceptions about how the information will be used.

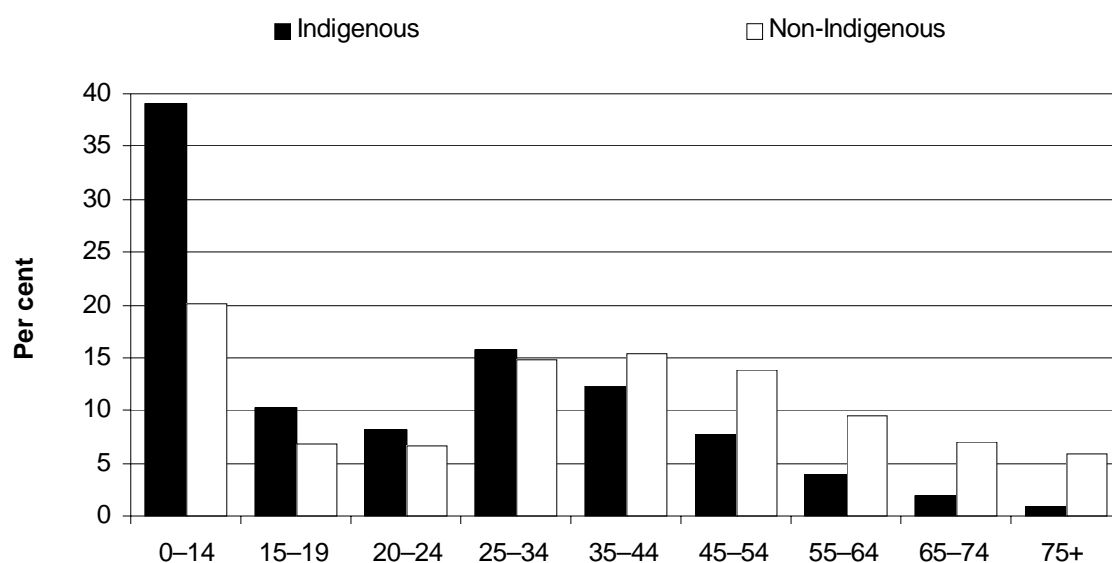
More information on data quality issues in this Report is available in appendix 3.

Source: AIHW.

## 2.6 Composition of the Indigenous population

Throughout this Report, the term ‘Indigenous’ is used to refer to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, with the exception of references to specific organisations, people or programs.

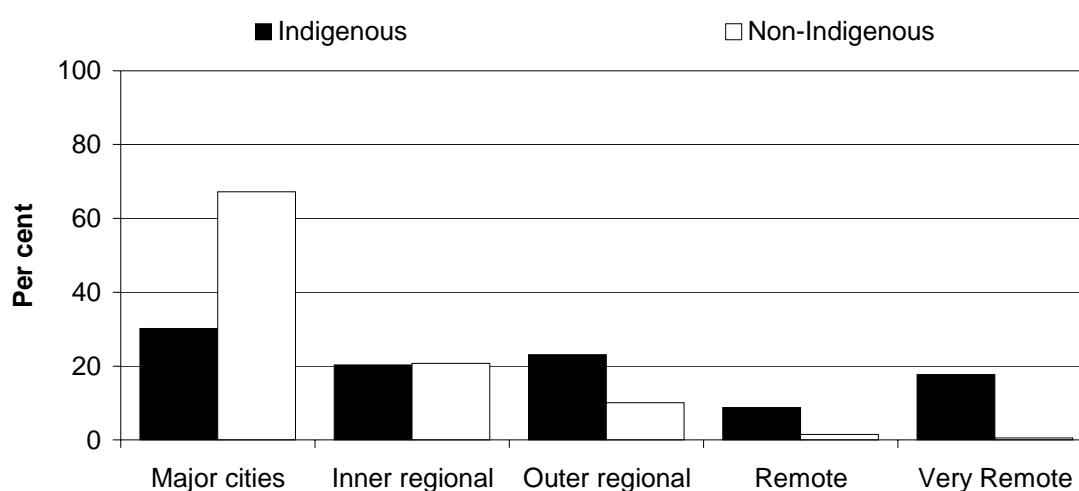
Figure 2.3 Proportion of the population in each age category, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 ERP; table A.5.

- The Indigenous population has a significantly different structure to the non-Indigenous population. It tends to be younger, with 39.3 per cent of the Indigenous population being 14 years or under, compared to 20.4 per cent for the non-Indigenous population.
- Moreover, the proportion of the Indigenous population over the age of 75 years is only 0.9 per cent, compared to 5.6 per cent for the rest of the population (figure 2.3).

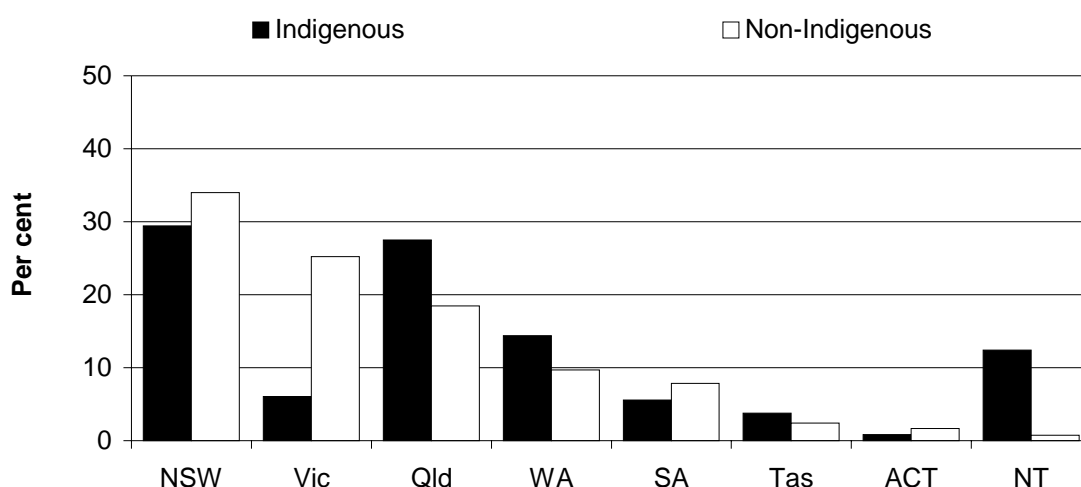
**Figure 2.4 Proportion of the population in each geographic region, 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 ERP; table A.6.

- The two populations also differ in their geographic distribution. Both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people tend to live predominantly in the major cities, but the relevant proportion of the Indigenous population is less than half that of the non-Indigenous population (30.5 and 66.7 per cent respectively).
- Indigenous people have a much higher proportion of the population living in very remote areas: 17.5 per cent, compared to 0.7 per cent for non-Indigenous people. The migratory population for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people was similar at 0.05 per cent and 0.04 per cent respectively (figure 2.4).

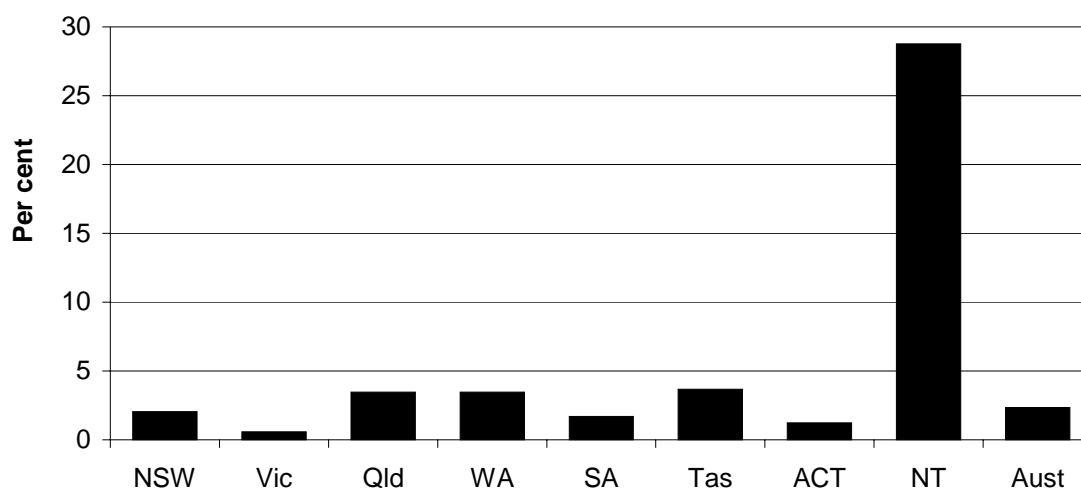
Figure 2.5 Proportion of the population in each State and Territory, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 ERP; table A.5.

- The proportion of the population who are Indigenous also differs across jurisdictions. A higher proportion of the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations live in NSW than other states (29.2 per cent 33.5 per cent respectively). A relatively high proportion of the Indigenous population also lives in Queensland, WA and the NT (figure 2.5).

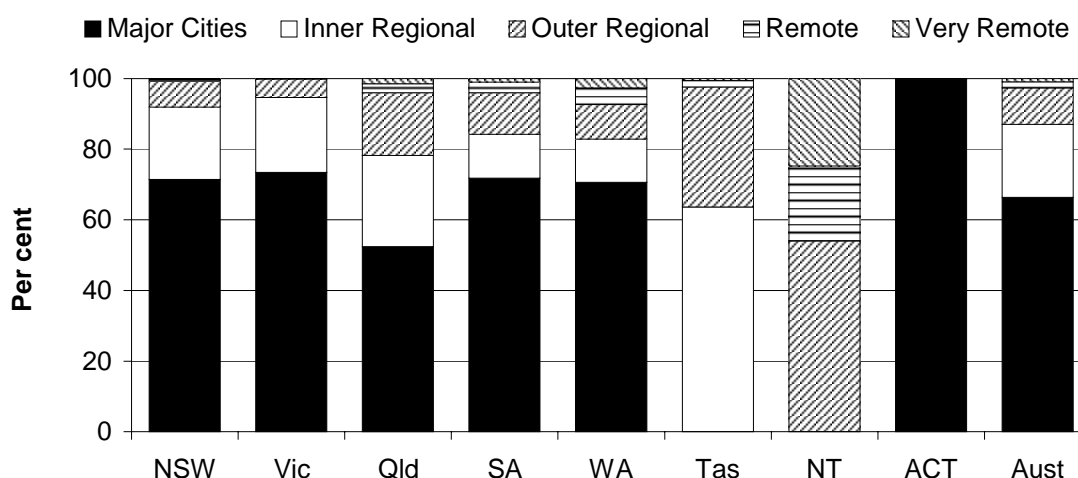
Figure 2.6 Proportion of the population who are Indigenous by State and Territory, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 ERP; table A.5.

- As a proportion of the population *within* each state and territory, the NT has the highest proportion of Indigenous people (28.8 per cent), with Victoria having the lowest (0.6 per cent) (figure 2.6).

Figure 2.7 **Population across geographic regions, 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 ERP; table A.6.

- The proportion of the population living in different geographic regions also varies across jurisdictions (figure 2.7). The ACT has the highest proportion of its population living in major cities (99.8 per cent) and the NT has the highest living in remote and very remote areas (46.0 per cent).

More information on the composition of population by age and geographic region for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people can be found in the Statistical Appendix (Appendix 4 — tables A.1, A.2, A.5 and A.6).

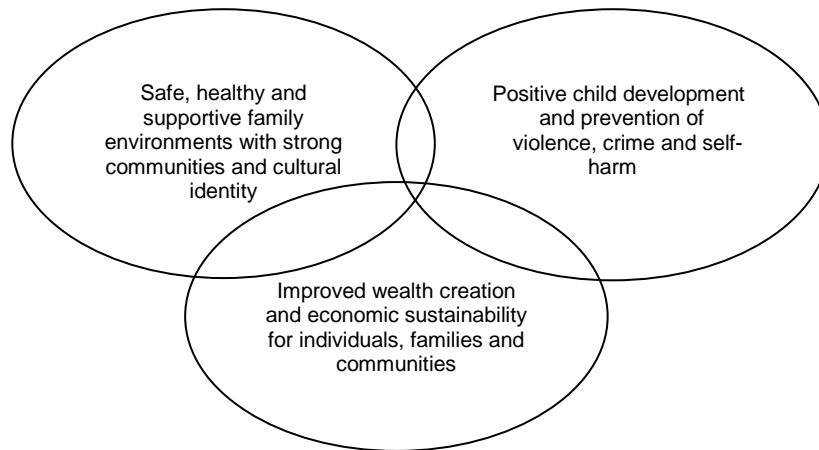
## 2.7 References

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2001, *Population Distribution, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians*, Cat no. 4705.0, Canberra.

— 1998, *Experimental Projections of the Indigenous Population*, Cat. no. 3231.0, Canberra.

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## 3    Headline indicators



### Headline indicators

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| • Life expectancy at birth                                | • Household and individual income                       |
| • Rates of disability and/or core activity restriction    | • Home ownership  |
| • Years 10 and 12 retention and attainment                | • Suicide and self-harm                                 |
| • Post secondary education — participation and attainment | • Substantiated child protection notifications          |
| • Labour force participation and unemployment             | • Deaths from homicide and hospitalisations for assault |
|   | • Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates             |

As noted, the three priority outcomes which sit at the apex of this Report’s framework depict wellbeing at the highest level. They are not isolated outcomes, but are interdependent. ‘Positive child development and prevention of violence, crime and self harm’ are key determinants in the achievement of ‘safe, healthy and supportive family environments with strong communities and cultural identity’. And, without these conditions in place, the potential to achieve ‘improved wealth creation and economic sustainability’ is impaired.

The headline indicators reflect the extent to which this vision is becoming a reality. However, improvements in those indicators are only likely to be apparent over the



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medium to long-term, and then only if there have been effective strategies in place in the 'strategic areas' identified in the framework (see following chapters).

As discussed previously few of the headline indicators are likely to improve solely as the result of a single policy or a single agency. Positive change will generally require action across a range of areas. In keeping with the priority outcomes themselves, there is a strong thread of interdependence in the headline indicators. For example, post-secondary educational attainment is linked to years 10 and 12 retention and attainment; they in turn are linked to household income and victim rates for crime, and so on. Again, none of these in isolation is going to achieve the priority outcomes, but have the capacity collectively to make a positive impact.

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 3A.2.3). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **3.1 Life expectancy**

Life expectancy is a fundamental indicator in its own right. Life expectancy is an indicator of mortality and refers to the average number of years a person of a given age and sex can expect to live if current age specific death rates continued throughout his or her lifetime.

There are a number of indicators in the strategic areas for action that might influence life expectancy. For example, positive outcomes in the areas of 'Early child development and growth', 'Substance use and misuse', 'Effective environmental health systems' and 'Economic participation and development' have the potential to impact on the life expectancy of Indigenous people.

Lifestyle factors such as the consumption of tobacco and excessive alcohol, poor nutrition, and lack of exercise can influence life expectancy. Environmental factors can also influence life expectancy. The lack of clean drinking water and adequate sanitation, for example, can accentuate risks to health, particularly for infants and young children. Further, the overcrowding of households can increase the chances of contracting and spreading diseases. Improving the quality and level of access to

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health professionals and services can have a positive impact on life expectancy through increased early diagnosis of diseases (such as diabetes), effective treatment of chronic diseases and increased level of preventative care.

Disparities in life expectancy can also be influenced by differences in income and education levels. Individuals from lower socioeconomic groups tend to suffer from higher rates of ill health and death among family and friends, and higher levels of depression, hostility and violence. All of these can adversely affect the life expectancy of these individuals.

**Box 3.1.1 Key message**

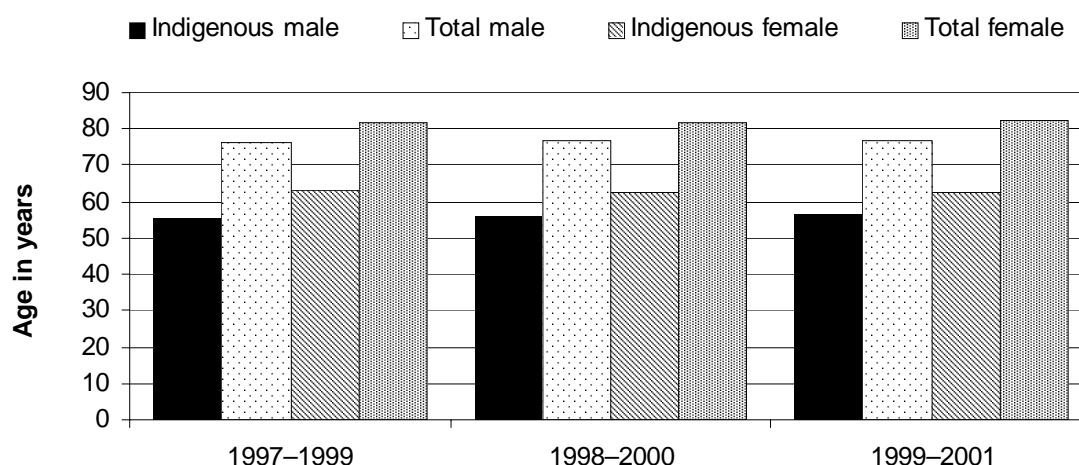
The life expectancy of Indigenous people is around 20 years lower than that for the total Australian population (figure 3.1.1).

Indigenous Australians experience far higher death rates than Australians in general across all age groups. According to the Australian Medical Association, Indigenous Australians in the late 1990s had the same life expectancy as that experienced by the Australian population in the early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (AMA 2002).

In both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, females tend to live longer than males. However, both Indigenous males and females live much shorter lives than the total population. The life expectancy of Indigenous males born in 1999–2001 is 56.3 years compared with 77.0 years for total males, while the life expectancy of Indigenous females is 62.8 years compared with 82.4 years for total females.

International comparisons indicate that the life expectancy at birth for Indigenous Australians is lower than for the Indigenous populations in New Zealand and the United States of America. (Life expectancy of all people is comparable across the three countries (ABS 2002, p. 92).)

Figure 3.1.1 Life expectancy at birth<sup>a, b, c</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Indigenous data are for the Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population, and include an adjustment for undercoverage of Indigenous deaths. <sup>b</sup> Indigenous life expectancy excludes Tasmania and the ACT. <sup>c</sup> Although the life expectancies for Indigenous males and females have been adjusted for under-coverage, these estimates are still likely to be conservative. Indigenous life expectancy estimates are experimental and expected to be within four years of the actual estimate. See Appendix 3 (ABS mortality data) for an explanation of some of the assumptions underlying the life expectancy estimates in this Report, and the availability of updated experimental estimates.

Source: ABS (2001, 2002); table 3A.1.1.

- The life expectancy of Indigenous males is generally around 21 years less than that for total males, while the life expectancy for Indigenous females is generally between 19 and 20 years less than that for total females (figure 3.1.1).
- Across states and territories (excluding Tasmania and the ACT), the life expectancies at birth for Indigenous males and females for 1999–2001 were highest in Victoria (57.0 years and 63.8 years, respectively), and lowest in SA (55.2 years and 61.7 years, respectively) (table 3A.1.2).
- Life expectancies at birth for total Australian males and females were highest in the ACT and lowest in the NT (table 3A.1.2).

## 3.2 Rates of disability and/or core activity restriction

Rates of disability and core activity restriction have been selected as headline indicators because they can have both a bearing on and reflect the relative wellbeing of a population group.<sup>1</sup> Some research has found that although Indigenous people might have around the same rate of genetic disabilities as the rest of the population,

<sup>1</sup> See glossary for definition of core activity restriction.

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they have a higher rate of disability owing to environment and trauma-related disabilities.

The disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal rates of disability corresponds to disparities in rates of injury, accident, violence, self-destructive or suicidal behaviour and illness (such as diabetes) that can result in permanent impairment (Durst and Bluechardt 2001, p. 19).

Frequently cited predisposing factors of non-genetic disabilities among Indigenous people include diabetes combined with a general failure to access early treatment, ongoing problems with some infectious diseases (for example, otitis media, especially among young children), accidents and violence, mental health problems, and substance abuse. These factors tend to relate more to issues facing Indigenous communities, where there are higher rates of unemployment, lower levels of income, poorer diet and living conditions, and poorer access to adequate health care (mainly due to geographical remoteness).

**Box 3.2.1 Key messages**

- Nationally comparable data on the prevalence of disability within the Indigenous population are currently not available.
- The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) new Indigenous Social Survey will provide some data, but only every six years. However, the ABS is also investigating the possibility of including a question on disability in the 2006 Census.

Table 3.2.1 highlights some of the areas where disease might be a factor in disability. After adjusting for age differences, Indigenous people were over three times more likely than non-Indigenous people to report some form of diabetes. Indigenous people were also more likely to suffer from mental and behavioural disorders, hearing loss, and diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue.

A number of indicators in the strategic areas for action influence the incidence of environment and trauma-related disabilities. Positive outcomes in these areas, particularly ‘Substance use and misuse’, ‘Functional and resilient families and communities’ and ‘Effective environmental health systems’, have the potential to impact on the overall level of disability amongst Indigenous people.

**Table 3.2.1 Selected types of condition, age standardised proportions, 2001 (per cent)**

<i>Type of condition</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>
Diabetes mellitus	11	3
Mental and behavioural disorders	12	9
Total diseases of the eye and adnexa <sup>a</sup>	46	51
cataract	3	2
disorders of ocular muscles, binocular movement accommodation and refraction <sup>b</sup>	41	48
other diseases of eye and adnexa <sup>c</sup>	8	8
Total diseases of the ear and mastoid <sup>a</sup>	18	14
partial deafness/hearing loss	13	10
diseases of middle ear and mastoid process <sup>d</sup>	2	1
other diseases of the ear and mastoid process <sup>c</sup>	4	3
Diseases of musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	35	32

<sup>a</sup> Components may not add to total as people may have more than one type of condition. <sup>b</sup> Includes astigmatism, presbyopia, short sighted/myopia and long sighted/hyperopia. <sup>c</sup> The difference between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations is statistically not significant. <sup>d</sup> Includes otitis media.

Source: ABS 2001 (unpublished).

It is difficult to collect data on disability. The term ‘disability’ is a social construct. There are variable cultural perceptions of what constitutes disability and some people are reluctant to identify as having a disability. Even in-depth surveys with personal interviews might not reveal the prevalence of disability in a population, because of complex definitional and identification issues.

According to the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (endorsed by the World Health Organization):

Disability is the umbrella term for any or all of: an impairment of body structure or function; a limitation in activities; or a restriction in participation (AIHW 2001, p. 259).

In Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) surveys, a person has a disability if he or she:

has a limitation, restriction or impairment, which has lasted, or is likely to last, for at least six months and restricts everyday activities (ABS 1998, p. 67).

Even when accepted concepts of disability are measured in sample surveys, these concepts may be inappropriate for application to the Indigenous population. Definitions of disability and/or core activity restriction used by non-Indigenous health professionals might not be the same definitions as those used by Indigenous people. This may have substantial impact on reporting rates of disability and handicap, particularly when the methodology depends on self reporting.

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In trying to assess Indigenous perceptions of disability, a 1994 study undertaken for the Commonwealth Rehabilitation Service made the following points about social perceptions of disability in remote Indigenous communities:

- social stigma is not attached to disability;
- an impairment was only of concern to a person if it led to handicap; people identified as having a handicap were those who needed assistance with the activities of daily life; and
- elderly people were not regarded as being disabled; their limitations were considered to be a normal part of ageing (Senior 2000, p. 5).

Other studies have found that there is significant social stigma associated with being labelled as ‘handicapped’, and some Indigenous people, especially those with obvious physical impairments, are ashamed and embarrassed about their appearance, to the point of avoiding other people. It has also been found that a person’s perception of their own disability was dependent on the knowledge of available aids and services (ABS, AIHW and DHFS 1998).

Apart from definitional issues, the coverage of Indigenous people in surveys is often quite small. Therefore, in attempting to identify from the data the proportion of Indigenous people who suffer from disability, the numbers are likely to be too small to provide any detailed analyses and may produce biased results.

Although a number of studies have attempted to assess the level of disability among Indigenous people in particular regions, national data on the incidence and prevalence of disability, the type of disability, and the core activity restriction experienced among Australian Indigenous people are limited. The ABS/Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) publication (ABS and AIHW 2003) provides some data, by Indigenous status, on the level of use of disability services funded under the Commonwealth-State Disability Agreement. However, data on level of service use is not necessarily an adequate reflection of the level of disability in a community, nor the need for assistance, since there may be significant numbers of people with disabilities who do not access the services available.

The ABS Indigenous Social Survey (ISS), expected to be published in 2004, will provide information at a national level, and possibly at a jurisdictional level, on the prevalence of disability in the Indigenous population.

### **3.3 Years 10 and 12 retention and attainment**

A lack of formal education and training impacts greatly on future employment options. Limited employment opportunities or unemployability renders people

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dependant on welfare, or relegated to unskilled work that attracts low incomes (Buckskin 2000; MCEETYA 2001a; MCEETYA 2001b). This is especially true for Indigenous people where limited education and training is common and household income is significantly lower than that of the total population (see sections 3.4 and 3.6). Action in the strategic areas for actions, commencing with 'Early school engagement and performance' (chapter 6) have the capacity to impact positively on years 10 and 12 educational outcomes.

**Box 3.3.1 Key messages**

- Indigenous students have a tendency to leave school once they reach the age when attendance is no longer compulsory.
- Nationally in 2002, non-Indigenous students were twice as likely to continue to year 12 as Indigenous students (figure 3.3.3).
- From 1998 to 2002, Indigenous apparent retention rates increased slightly (figure 3.3.1).

Successful completion of year 12 is important to securing continuous, profitable employment. This indicator focuses on two important aspects of secondary school education, retention and attainment. The apparent retention rate from the commencement of the secondary school system to year 10 and to year 12 measures student progression through to the final years of secondary school. Apparent retention rates estimate the percentage of full time students who progress through secondary school. It is calculated by dividing the total number of full time students in a designated year/level of school education by the number of full time students in the respective cohort group at the commencement of their secondary schooling (year 7 or 8).<sup>2</sup> Retention rates are termed 'apparent' because the method of calculation does not take into account impacts of migration and overseas students, students repeating a year level or moving interstate.

Apparent retention rates do not measure completion. It is successful completion — that is, attaining a year 12 certificate — which is particularly important to future employment opportunities.

The impact of location on Indigenous retention rates has not been explored in this Report, as data are not available by geographic regions. However, given that a higher proportion of Indigenous than non-Indigenous Australians live in rural and

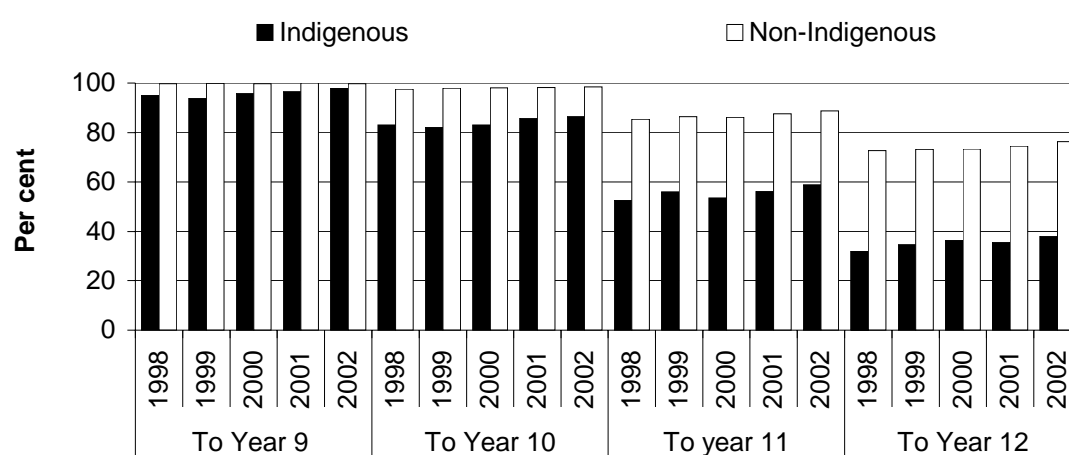
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<sup>2</sup> Students in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT commence secondary school in year 7, whereas students in Queensland, SA, WA and the NT commence in year 8.

remote areas, any effect location might have on retention would probably be more pronounced for Indigenous students.

Enrolment at a particular level is not an indicator of attainment. Attainment is the ability to complete the year and achieve graduation. This Report derived attainment data from the Indigenous Education Strategic Initiatives Programme (IESIP) performance reports. The IESIP performance reports collected data on students achieving a year 12 certificate in 2001 as a percentage of students who commenced year 11 in 2000. There is, however, no acknowledged year 10 qualification in some jurisdictions, so that educational attainment data for year 10 were not available for this Report.

**Figure 3.3.1 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary school students, all schools<sup>a, b</sup>**



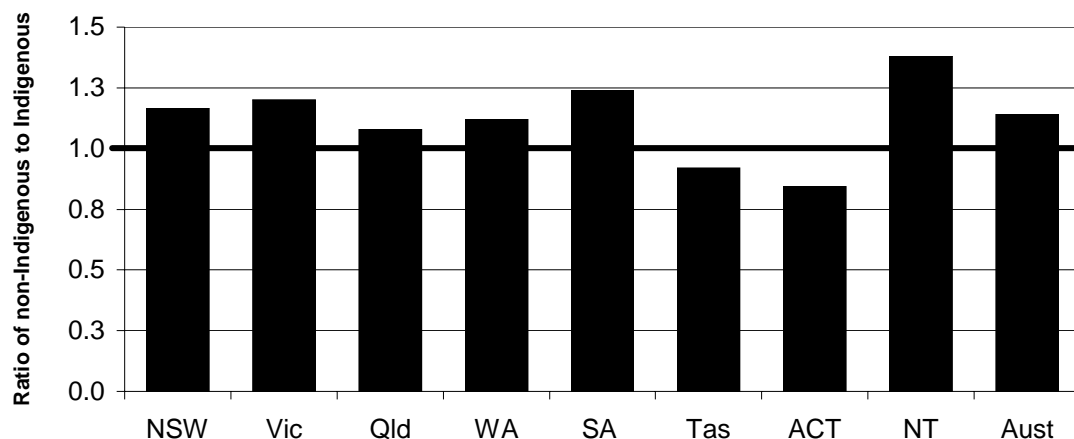
<sup>a</sup> The apparent retention rate is the percentage of full time students who continued to year 9, 10, 11 and 12 from respective cohort groups at the commencement of their secondary schooling (year 7/8). See notes to table 3A.3.2 for more detail. <sup>b</sup> Part time students and ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates.

Source: ABS 2003; table 3A.3.1.

- Figure 3.3.1 shows that over the period 1998 to 2002, apparent retention rates for Indigenous students from the commencement of secondary school have been below rates for non-Indigenous students. The gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students increases with year level, and the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students from commencement to years 11 and 12 is significant.
- From 1998 to 2002, both non-Indigenous and Indigenous apparent retention rates have increased slightly.



**Figure 3.3.2 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students to year 10, all schools, 2002 (rate ratio)<sup>a, b, c</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The apparent retention rate is the percentage of full time students who continued to year 10 from respective cohort groups at the commencement of their secondary schooling (year 7/8). See notes to table 3A.3.2 for more detail. <sup>b</sup> Apparent retention rates were higher than expected in Queensland because of a significant net gain in interstate migration compared with other states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous apparent retention is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous apparent retention rate by the Indigenous apparent retention rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

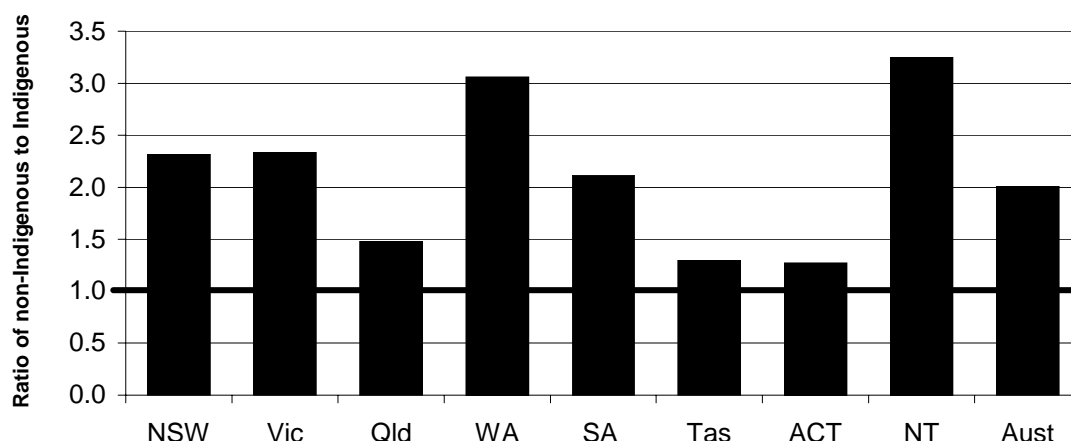
Source: ABS 2003; table 3A.3.2.

- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention was 1.1 nationally, and ranged from 1.4 in the NT to 0.8 in the ACT (figure 3.3.2).
- Nationally, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention was higher to year 12 (2.0) (figure 3.3.3) compared to year 10 (1.1) (figure 3.3.2).

Apparent retention rates to year 10 for Indigenous students in 2002 were highest in the ACT (118.3 per cent) and lowest in the NT (61.3 per cent) (table 3A.3.2). The low retention rate in the NT may be due to a significant number of ungraded Indigenous students in the NT.<sup>3</sup> Indigenous females tend to have higher apparent retention rates to year 10 than Indigenous males (table 3A.3.2).

<sup>3</sup> Ungraded students are excluded because their ungraded status means they cannot be placed in a particular year level.

Figure 3.3.3 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students to year 12, all schools, 2002 (rate ratio)<sup>a, b, c</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The apparent retention rate is the percentage of full time students who continued to year 12 from respective cohort groups at the commencement of their secondary schooling (year 7/8). See notes to table 3A.3.2 for more detail. <sup>b</sup> Apparent retention rates were higher than expected in Queensland because of a significant net gain in interstate migration compared with other states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous apparent retention is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous apparent retention rate by the Indigenous apparent retention rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

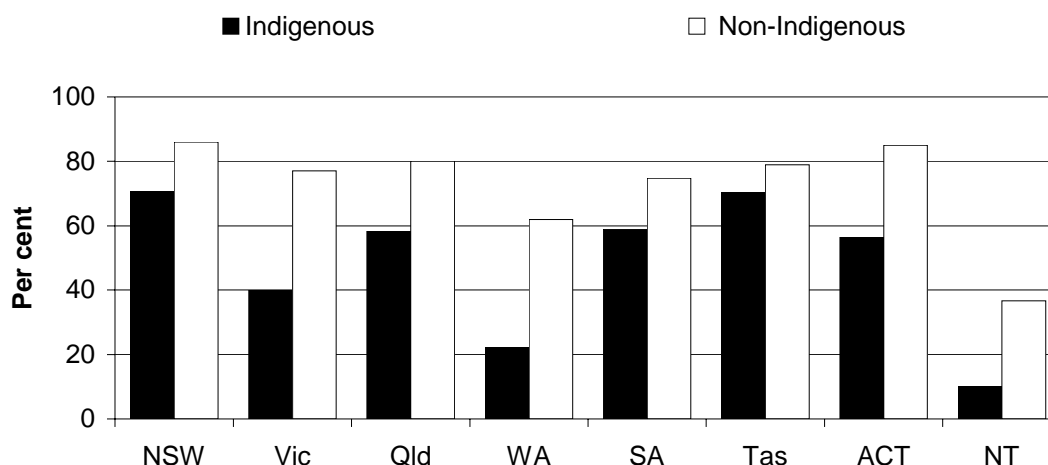
Source: ABS 2003; table 3A.3.2.

- Nationally, non-Indigenous students were 2.0 times more likely to continue to year 12. Across jurisdictions, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention ranged from 3.3 in the NT to 1.3 in Tasmania and the ACT (figure 3.3.3).

In 2002, apparent retention rates to year 12 for non-Indigenous students were considerably higher than for Indigenous students in all jurisdictions. The apparent retention rate to year 12 for Indigenous students was the highest in the ACT (69.5 per cent) and lowest in the NT (20.0 per cent) (table 3A.3.2).

In terms of gender differences, females tend to have higher apparent retention rates to year 12 than males. The retention rate for Indigenous males was 34.1 per cent nationally, compared to 42.0 per cent for Indigenous females. For non-Indigenous males the apparent retention rate was 70.9 per cent, and 81.9 per cent for non-Indigenous females (table 3A.3.2).

**Figure 3.3.4 Students who achieved a year 12 certificate in 2001 as a proportion of students who commenced year 11 in 2000, government and Catholic systems<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Includes year 12 students who were not in year 11 the previous year. For example, students repeating the year level. <sup>b</sup> The requirements for the awarding of a year 12 certificate vary in each jurisdiction. <sup>c</sup> IESIP agreements with Catholic systems in some states and territories include a small number of non-systemic Catholic schools. <sup>d</sup> Queensland government data for the number of students who attain a year 12 certificate were obtained from the Queensland Studies Authority (QSA), while the number of students who commenced year 11 in 2000 was obtained from Education Queensland (EQ) data. Differences in the way in which students are identified as Indigenous between the QSA and EQ, and other general differences between the collections, results in the numbers of Indigenous senior secondary school students enumerated by the QSA to be typically lower than the number of Indigenous senior secondary school students enumerated by EQ. Typically the QSA data had about 46 per cent fewer Indigenous students than the EQ data set. This suggests that the Queensland government data which contributes to the Queensland outcome in the table may underrepresent the attainment of year 12 certificates by Indigenous students, as a percentage of Indigenous students who commenced year 11. <sup>e</sup> The non-Indigenous outcome in Queensland is an estimate based on the separate percentages reported by the government and Catholic systems.

Source: DEST 2002; table 3A.3.3.

- In all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved a year 12 certificate was lower than the proportion for non-Indigenous students (figure 3.3.4).
- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved a year 12 certificate was highest in NSW (70.8 per cent) and lowest in the NT (9.9 per cent) (figure 3.3.4).

### 3.4 Post secondary education – participation and attainment

Post secondary education was chosen as a headline indicator because of the strong links between post secondary education participation and attainment, and

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employment outcomes. The post secondary participation measures in this section focus on the extent to which people over 15 years attend post secondary educational institutions. Further examination is then undertaken of the types of post secondary education being undertaken; that is, the types of institutions and courses.

**Box 3.4.1 Key messages**

- While TAFE participation among Indigenous people in 2001 was typically higher than for the rest of the population, university attendance was lower, with other Australians being 1.8 times more likely to attend university than Indigenous people (figure 3.4.1).
- Indigenous post secondary attainment in 2001 was significantly lower, with 12.5 per cent of Indigenous people having attained a level 3 certificate or above, compared to 33.5 per cent of non-Indigenous people (figure 3.4.3).

Participation in itself, however, will not lead to improved outcomes unless it is accompanied by success; that is, attainment of a qualification or completion of a course of study. This chapter uses Census data to examine the extent to which people aged over 15 years have attained a particular level of qualification. The chapter also examines the pass and success rates for vocational education and training (VET) and higher education respectively.

Participation and attainment rates are presented in this section as a proportion of the population aged 15 years and over, or as a proportion of all students.

## **Post secondary participation**

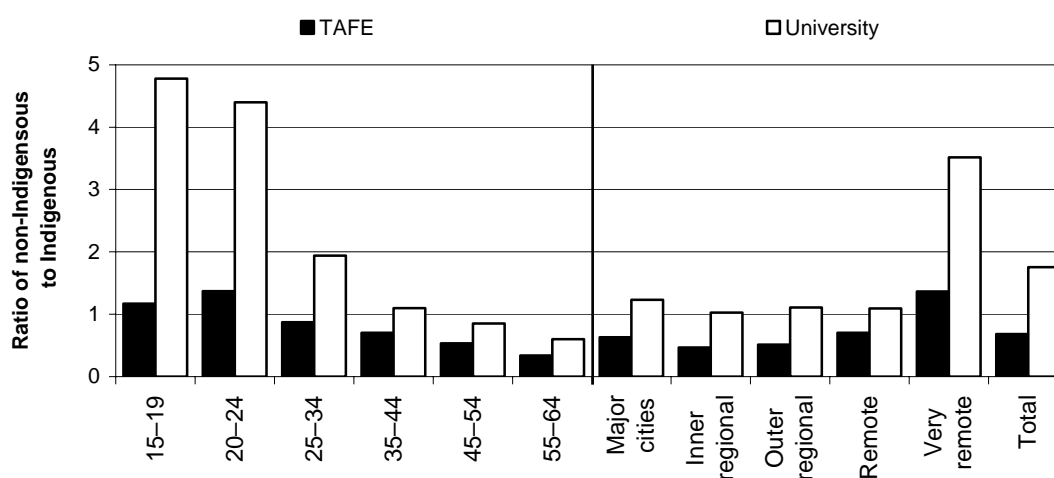
Data from the Census on post secondary participation include the number of people aged 15 years and over who were attending a technical or further educational institution (including TAFE colleges), or university or other higher educational institution, as either a full time or part time student.

- These data show that, nationally, participation in post secondary education by Indigenous and non-Indigenous people is similar, with the national ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation being 1.1, although this varies significantly across ages and across geographic regions (table 3A.4.1).
- Young non-Indigenous people (aged 15–34), and those who are in very remote areas are more likely to participate in post secondary education than Indigenous people; while older Indigenous people (aged 35 and over), and those in major cities, and regional and remote areas, are more likely to

participate in post secondary education than non-Indigenous people (table 3A.4.1).

There is however, a large difference in the types of institutions attended, that is, at technical or further educational institutions (including TAFE colleges), and universities or other higher educational institution.

**Figure 3.4.1 Post secondary participation as a proportion of the population age 15 years and over, 2001 (rate ratio)<sup>a, b</sup>**



**a** TAFE refers to TAFE institutions (including TAFE colleges). **b** The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous post secondary participation rate by the Indigenous post secondary participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

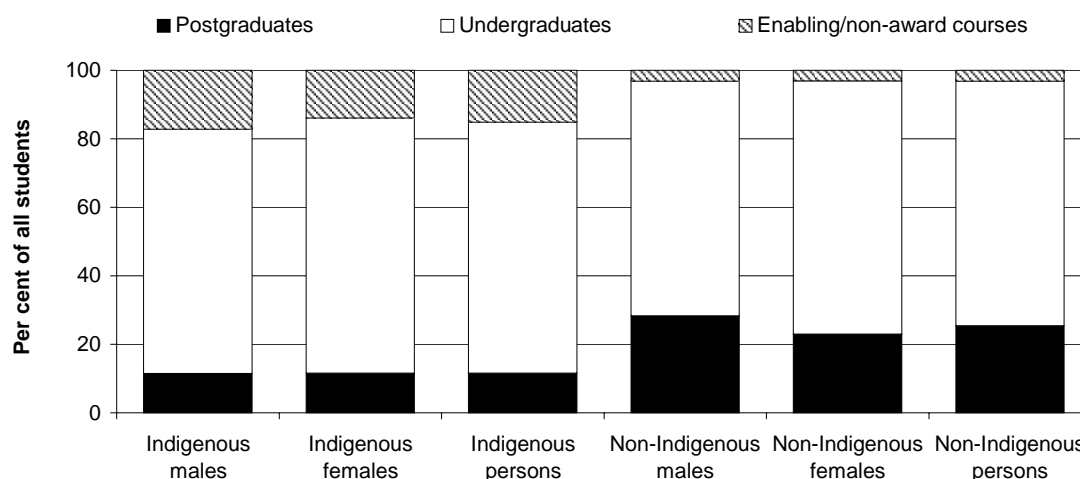
Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.4.1.

- Figure 3.4.1 shows that, nationally, non-Indigenous people are 1.8 times more likely to attend a university, while Indigenous people are more likely to attend a TAFE institution (with a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation of 0.7).
- Again this varied significantly across ages and geographic regions, with non-Indigenous people in the ages 15 to 34, and living in very remote areas, significantly more likely to attend universities than Indigenous people (figure 3.4.1).

More data on post secondary participation by age and geographic region can be found in table 3A.4.1.

It is also useful to examine the types of courses Indigenous people are undertaking.

**Figure 3.4.2 Post secondary participation at higher education institutions, 2002**



Source: DEST selected higher education statistics (unpublished); table 3A.4.2.

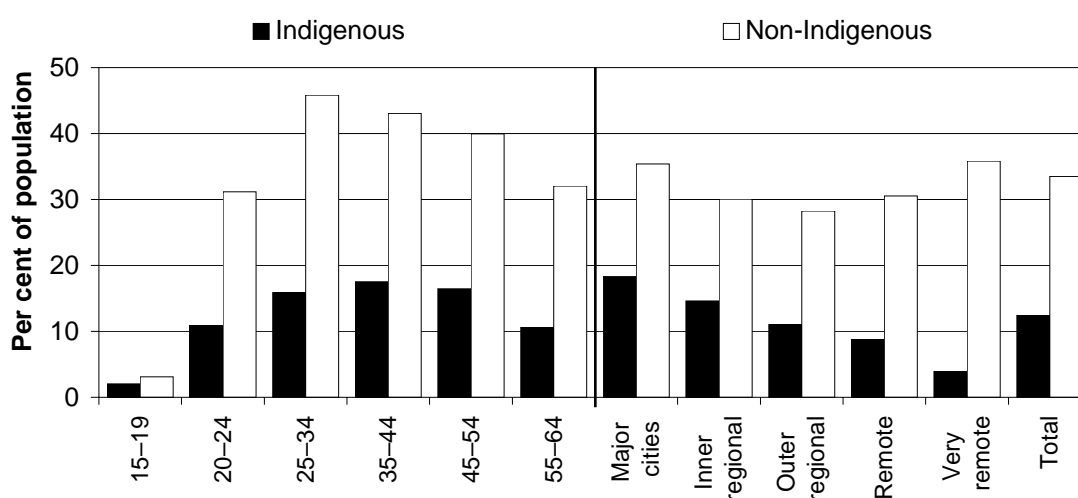
- As a proportion of the total student population, Indigenous people are more likely to be undertaking enabling and non-award courses, and less likely to be undertaking post graduate courses, than non-Indigenous people (figure 3.4.2).
- Between genders, non-Indigenous males are generally more likely than non-Indigenous females to undertake post graduate courses, but this does not translate to Indigenous males, whose participation in post graduate courses is similar to that of Indigenous females (figure 3.4.2).

More data on post secondary participation by State and Territory can be found in table 3A.4.2.

## Post secondary attainment

One measure of attainment is the proportion of the population that has completed a particular level of qualification. For the purpose of this indicator, Census data on the number of people aged 15 years and over who indicated that their highest level of qualification completed was a level 3 certificate or above (that is, post graduate degree, graduate diploma or certificate, bachelor degree, advanced diploma, diploma, and certificate levels 3 and 4) are used to indicate educational attainment. In the Census data, 43 per cent of Indigenous people and 16 per cent of non-Indigenous people who indicated that they had completed a post secondary qualification did not state the level. These data, therefore, need to be interpreted with caution.

**Figure 3.4.3 Post secondary attainment of certificate level 3 or above, 2001<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> A level 3 certificate or above is a post graduate degree, graduate diploma or certificate, bachelor degree, advanced diploma, diploma, or certificate levels 3 and 4.

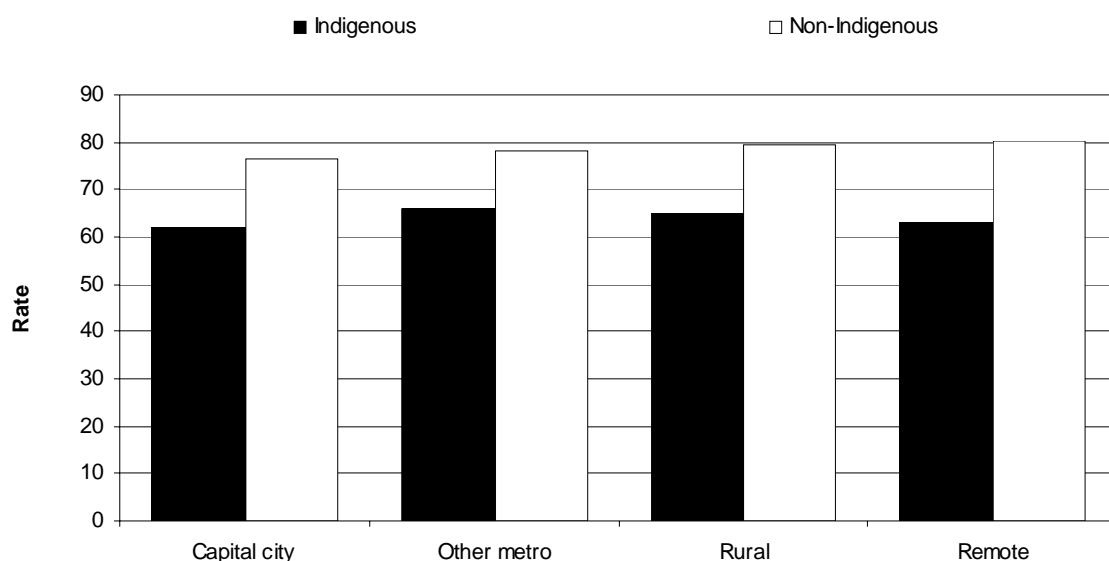
Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.4.3.

- That said, 12.5 per cent of the Indigenous population aged 15 years and over reported as having attained a post secondary level 3 certificate or above, compared to 33.5 per cent for non-Indigenous people (figure 3.4.3).
- The post secondary attainment of Indigenous people is significantly below that of non-Indigenous people in very remote areas (table 3A.4.3).
- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous post secondary attainment is similar across ages after the age of 20 until age 65, when it starts to increase (table 3A.4.3).

Another measure of attainment is the extent to which people complete or pass the course they are undertaking. This is shown in the VET system as the load pass rate and in the higher education system as the success rate.

The VET load pass rate indicates the extent to which students pass assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency. Load pass rates are calculated as the ratio of hours attributed to students who passed assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency to all students who were assessed and either passed, failed or withdrew. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or unit of competency. Care needs to be taken in comparing data because average module durations and standard of competencies achieved by students vary across jurisdictions.

Figure 3.4.4 VET load pass rate, 2002<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> In Victoria nominal hours supervised have not been recorded for all units of competency, which now represent a significant amount of training effort. Basing the load pass rate on these hours would exclude this activity. Scheduled hours have been used in the calculation of load pass rates instead.

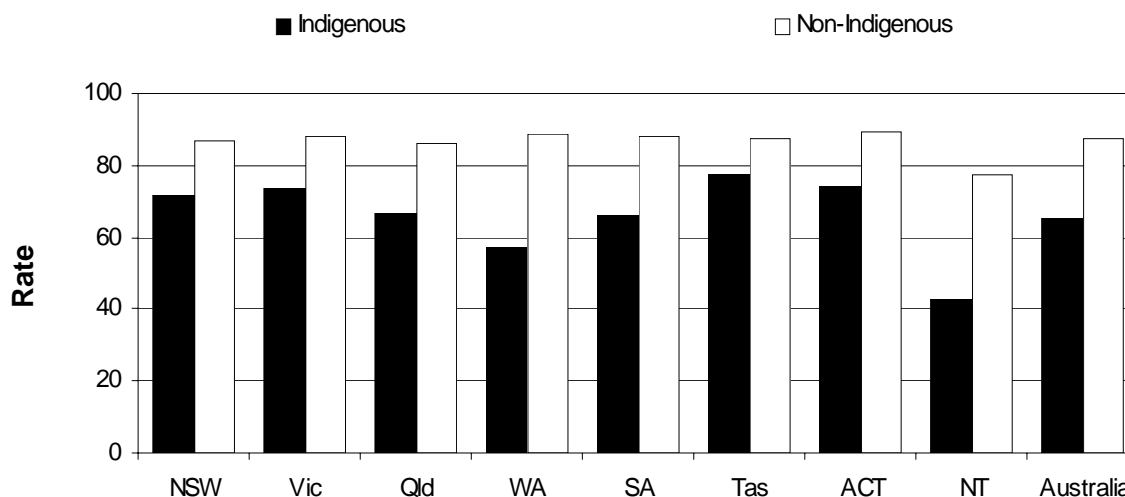
Source: NCVET 2002 national vocational education and training collection (unpublished); table 3A.4.4.

- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous load pass rate is around 1.2, and this is consistent across geographic regions (figure 3.4.4).
- The load pass rate is higher for non-Indigenous students compared to Indigenous students in all jurisdictions. The load pass rate for Indigenous students was the highest in the ACT (75.9) and the lowest in WA (50.1). For non-Indigenous students, the load pass rate was highest in SA (88.0) and lowest in WA (74.1) (table 3A.4.5).

The success rate for higher educational institutions shows similar results to the load pass rate for TAFEs, although the measures are based on different calculations. The higher education success rate is calculated by dividing the equivalent full time student units (EFTSU) passed by the EFTSU certified. This is the number of units successfully completed compared with the number of units which students successfully completed or failed, or from which students withdrew without penalty.



Figure 3.4.5 Higher education success rate, 2001<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Non-Indigenous students include those whose Indigenous status is unknown.

Source: DEST selected higher education statistics collection (unpublished); table 3A.4.6.

- Across jurisdictions, the success rate for Indigenous students, ranged from 77.1 in Tasmania to 42.6 in the NT. For non-Indigenous students the success rate ranged from 89.3 in the ACT to 77.2 in the NT (figure 3.4.5).
- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous success rate was 1.3 nationally, and ranged from 1.8 in the NT to 1.1 in Tasmania (table 3A.4.6).

### 3.5 Labour force participation and unemployment

Labour force participation and unemployment have been chosen as headline indicators because of the importance of participation in employment to overall wellbeing, particularly in terms of remuneration, opportunity for self development and interaction with people outside the home. Employment is discussed in more detail in chapter 11. The focus of this section is the extent to which people are participating in the labour force or are unemployed.

The labour force is the most widely used measure of the economically active population or the formal supply of labour. It is defined by the ABS as comprising 'all persons who, during a specified time reference period, contribute to or are available to contribute to the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations System of National Accounts' (ABS 2001b). Factors which influence the supply of labour include: population composition and growth;

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immigration; skill base; health; the willingness of people to work; policies that affect levels of remuneration from work (for example, minimum wages and taxation); income support policies; attitudes to combining work and family responsibilities; retirement; and participation in education and training (ABS 2002a).

The labour force measures of the number of people contributing to, or willing to contribute to, the supply of labour and, as defined by the ABS, comprises two mutually exclusive categories of population:

- the employed (people who have worked for at least one hour in the reference week, including Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP)); and
- the unemployed (people who are without work, but are actively looking for work and available to start work within four weeks).

Groups with characteristics that are in low demand (for example, those with low levels of educational attainment, limited relevant work experience, or in relatively poor health) are likely to have greater difficulty securing a job at given wage rates than those with more desirable attributes. Moreover, a higher proportion of the Indigenous population live in remote and very remote areas, where there is generally very little economic development and very few employment opportunities, particularly in the private sector.

There are links between unemployment and other aspects of people's wellbeing. For example, studies generally suggest that unemployment is associated with crime, poorer health, higher risks of poverty and lower levels of social attachment (Borland and Kennedy 1998). These links tend to be more pronounced for those who are unemployed for longer periods of time. People who have been unemployed for long periods may experience greater financial hardship, and may have more difficulties in finding employment because of the loss of relevant skills and employers' perceptions of their 'employability' (see section 11.3 on long term unemployment).

**Box 3.5.1 Key messages**

- Labour force participation for Indigenous people in 2001 was 50.4 per cent of the population aged 15 years and over, compared to 62.6 per cent for non-Indigenous people (table 3.5.2).
- Unemployment in 2001 was 2.8 times higher for Indigenous than for non-Indigenous people (table 3.5.3).
- CDEP participation significantly reduces recorded Indigenous unemployment rates.

The labour force and unemployment data used in this section are sourced from the ABS 2001 Census. The population aged 15 years and over is used in all ABS labour statistics, as this is the lowest practical limit above compulsory schooling age at which it is feasible and cost effective to measure the participation of young people in economic activity with acceptable accuracy. The ABS classifies people who participate in CDEP as employed, which has a large impact on the rate of Indigenous unemployment, especially in remote and very remote areas. Chapter 11 explores this issue in more detail.

## Labour force participation

The labour force participation rates used in this section are calculated as the number of people in the labour force who are aged 15 years and over divided by the population aged 15 years and over. In general, levels of labour force participation vary through life cycle stages, initially increasing with age as young people move from education and training (often combined with part-time work) into full-time jobs, then remaining relatively high during prime working ages, and then declining towards the years of retirement.

**Table 3.5.1 Labour force participation as a proportion of the population aged 15 years and over, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>
15–19	41.8	36.0	38.9	50.4	53.2	51.7	1.2	1.5	1.3
20–24	68.8	48.0	58.3	83.5	76.6	80.1	1.2	1.6	1.4
25–34	68.9	46.1	56.9	90.5	70.6	80.4	1.3	1.5	1.4
35–44	67.2	51.8	59.1	90.1	71.7	80.7	1.3	1.4	1.4
45–54	61.8	48.8	55.1	86.4	71.8	79.0	1.4	1.5	1.4
55–64	40.3	24.0	31.7	62.2	38.3	50.3	1.5	1.6	1.6
65–74	11.2	6.0	8.3	15.4	6.8	11.0	1.4	1.1	1.3
75+	10.5	5.1	7.3	5.1	1.9	3.2	0.5	0.4	0.4
All people	58.6	42.8	50.4	70.6	55.0	62.6	1.2	1.3	1.2

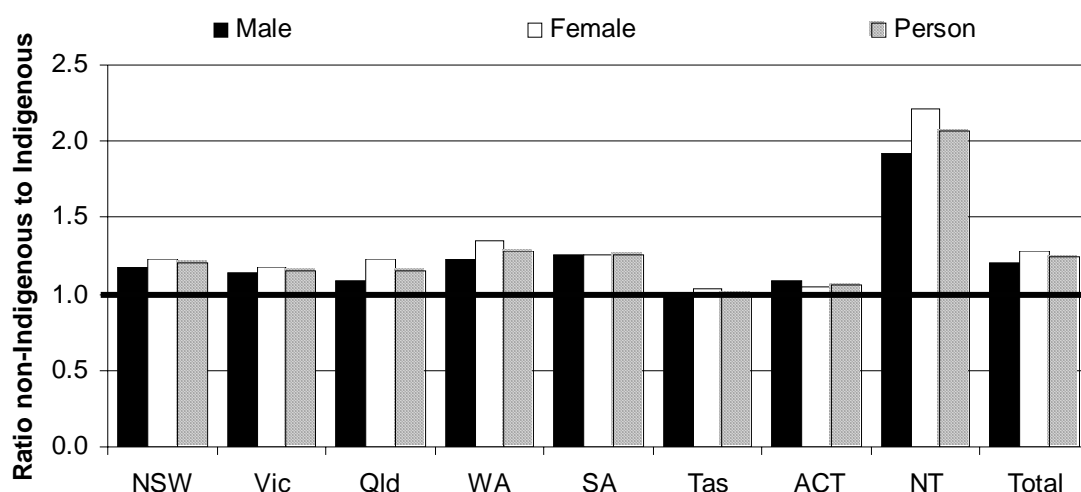
<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous labour force participation rate by the Indigenous labour force participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.1.

- The labour force participation rate for Indigenous people is generally lower than that for non-Indigenous people, with a national non-Indigenous labour force participation rate of 62.6 per cent and a national Indigenous labour force participation rate of 50.4 per cent (table 3.5.1).

- In terms of gender differences, females are less likely to participate in the labour force than males, except for non-Indigenous females aged 15–19. The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation is higher for females than males in all age groups to age 64, suggesting that Indigenous females are less likely to participate in the labour force relative to their male counterparts (table 3.5.1).

**Figure 3.5.1 Labour force participation as a proportion of the population aged 15 years and over, 2001 (rate ratio)<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous labour force participation rate by the Indigenous labour force participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.1.

- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation is the highest in the NT (2.1) and the lowest in Tasmania (1.0) (figure 3.5.1).
- The labour force participation rate for Indigenous people differs across jurisdictions, ranging from 67.2 per cent in the ACT to 36.2 per cent in the NT (table 3A.5.1).

Labour force participation rates for each State and Territory by age and geographic region can be found in table 3A.5.1.

**Table 3.5.2 Labour force participation as a proportion of the population aged 15 years and over, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>
Major cities	63.7	48.0	55.5	71.6	56.0	63.5	1.1	1.2	1.1
Inner regional	58.9	43.0	50.7	67.1	51.5	59.1	1.1	1.2	1.2
Outer regional	57.5	41.0	48.7	70.0	54.1	62.1	1.2	1.3	1.3
Remote	55.7	40.4	47.8	76.4	59.8	68.8	1.4	1.5	1.4
Very remote	52.8	36.8	44.7	77.5	61.3	70.8	1.5	1.7	1.6
Total	58.6	42.8	50.4	70.6	55.0	62.6	1.2	1.3	1.2

<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous labour force participation rate by the Indigenous labour force participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.1.

- Across geographic regions, the labour force participation rate for Indigenous people falls the further they live from the major cities. For non-Indigenous people, the labour force participation rate is higher in remote and very remote areas than it is in the major cities (table 3.5.2).
- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation increases the further people live from the major cities (table 3.5.2).
- The labour force participation rate for Indigenous people will, to some extent, reflect the limited employment opportunities available to Indigenous people in remote and very remote areas, although it will also reflect the employment opportunities provided by CDEP (that is, labour force participation may be higher in areas where there are CDEP opportunities).

## Unemployment

The unemployment rate, which is the number of unemployed people expressed as a percentage of the labour force, is a widely used measure of potentially underutilised labour resources in the economy. For most of the groups analysed, the unemployment rate for Indigenous people is above that for non-Indigenous people.

Data on unemployment needs to be considered alongside the data on employment in chapter 11. While the unemployment rate for Indigenous people is significantly higher than for non-Indigenous people, Indigenous people who are employed tend to be employed on a part time basis (less than 35 hours during the reference week). Moreover, the ABS defines participation in CDEP as employment, which accounts for a large number of Indigenous people who would otherwise be defined as

unemployed or not in the labour force. Table 3A.5.3 provides information on the extent of CDEP participation by full/part time status compared to other employment.

**Table 3.5.3 Unemployment as a proportion of the labour force, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>
15–19	32.2	29.4	30.9	17.6	15.0	16.3	1.8	2.0	1.9
20–24	27.8	23.4	26.0	13.0	9.9	11.5	2.1	2.4	2.3
25–34	22.7	17.9	20.7	7.7	6.3	7.1	3.0	2.8	2.9
35–44	18.1	13.6	16.0	5.9	5.4	5.7	3.1	2.5	2.8
45–54	13.1	9.9	11.7	5.4	4.2	4.9	2.4	2.4	2.4
55–64	12.4	7.4	10.4	6.9	3.7	5.7	1.8	2.0	1.8
65–74	9.0	7.5	8.4	2.4	1.8	2.2	3.8	4.2	3.8
75+	18.5	23.0	20.4	3.7	5.5	4.3	5.0	4.2	4.7
Total	21.8	17.6	20.0	7.7	6.5	7.2	2.8	2.7	2.8

<sup>a</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is calculated by dividing the Indigenous unemployment rate by the non-Indigenous unemployment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.2.

- The national unemployment rate in 2001 (including CDEP participation as employed) for Indigenous people was 20.0 per cent, compared to 7.2 per cent for non-Indigenous people (table 3.5.3).
- Females tend to have lower rates of unemployment than males. The unemployment rate of Indigenous males was 21.8 per cent nationally, compared to 17.6 per cent for Indigenous females. For non-Indigenous males the unemployment rate was 7.7 per cent, and 6.5 per cent for non-Indigenous females (table 3.5.3).
- The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment was about the same for males and females (2.8 and 2.7 respectively) (table 3.5.3).

The likelihood of being unemployed is related to life cycle stages.

- The unemployment rate for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people tends to be highest among young people (those aged 15–24 years). The unemployment rate for Indigenous people aged 15–19 years was 30.9 per cent for the labour force, compared to 16.3 per cent for non-Indigenous people. The rate for Indigenous people aged 20–24 was 26.0 per cent compared to 11.5 per cent for non-Indigenous people. The unemployment rates in these age groups

were higher than the total unemployment rates (table 3.5.3). Young people typically have less developed work-related skills and who are more likely to be entering the labour force for the first time than older people, leading to higher unemployment.

- Relative to the non-Indigenous population, and excluding people aged 65 and over, the most disadvantaged group of Indigenous people in terms of unemployment is in the age group 25–34 years, followed by the age group 35–44 years, which are the prime stages for people's work and career development. The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is 2.9 and 2.8 respectively for these age groups.

Opportunities for work vary across Australia with the nature and strength of the economic base, the relative growth of industries and skill base of residents (ABS 2001a).

**Table 3.5.4 Unemployment as a proportion of the labour force, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>
NSW	25.4	20.2	23.1	7.5	6.2	7.0	3.4	3.2	3.3
Vic	19.8	15.6	17.9	7.0	6.3	6.7	2.8	2.5	2.7
Qld	21.5	18.1	20.0	8.5	7.3	7.9	2.5	2.5	2.5
WA	20.8	16.5	18.9	8.0	6.3	7.3	2.6	2.6	2.6
SA	22.7	17.3	20.3	8.3	6.5	7.5	2.7	2.7	2.7
Tas	22.1	16.7	19.7	11.4	7.8	9.8	1.9	2.1	2.0
ACT	16.6	10.3	13.6	5.7	4.4	5.1	2.9	2.4	2.7
NT	14.4	12.5	13.6	5.2	4.4	4.9	2.8	2.8	2.8
Total	21.8	17.6	20.0	7.7	6.5	7.2	2.8	2.7	2.8

<sup>a</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is calculated by dividing the Indigenous unemployment rate by the non-Indigenous unemployment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.2.

- The unemployment rate for Indigenous people ranges from 23.1 per cent in NSW to 13.6 per cent in the ACT and NT. For non-Indigenous people, the unemployment rate ranges from 9.8 per cent in Tasmania to 4.9 per cent in the NT (table 3.5.4).
- The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is highest in NSW (3.3) and lowest in Tasmania (2.0) (table 3.5.4).

**Table 3.5.5 Unemployment as a proportion of the labour force, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Person</i>
Major cities	22.7	17.8	20.5	7.5	6.3	6.9	3.0	2.9	3.0
Inner regional	27.9	22.1	25.3	8.9	7.5	8.2	3.1	3.0	3.1
Outer regional	25.8	20.3	23.3	8.1	6.5	7.4	3.2	3.1	3.1
Remote	21.6	16.9	19.5	5.3	4.4	4.9	4.1	3.8	4.0
Very remote	8.4	8.0	8.2	3.5	3.2	3.4	2.4	2.5	2.4
Total	21.8	17.6	20.0	7.7	6.5	7.2	2.8	2.7	2.8

<sup>a</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is calculated by dividing the Indigenous unemployment rate by the non-Indigenous unemployment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.5.2.

- Table 3.5.5 shows that across geographic regions, the unemployment rate was highest in inner regional areas for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, at 25.3 per cent and 8.2 per cent respectively. The unemployment rate was lowest in very remote areas, at 8.2 per cent and 3.4 per cent respectively, which largely reflects the classification of CDEP participation as employment for Indigenous people (table 3A.5.3).

## 3.6 Household and individual income

The economic wellbeing of people is largely determined by their income and wealth. The main sources of income are employment, assets and welfare payments. In the absence of data on wealth, the extent to which income for Indigenous people is lower than for non-Indigenous people is a major indicator of material disadvantage. In addressing this income disparity, all of the strategic areas for action are relevant, from early childhood onwards.

This Report examines household and individual income. The data used for this indicator are from the ABS 2001 Census. Census data have been used because the detailed household income surveys (the preferred approach to income measurement) do not have an Indigenous identifier.

While income is usually received by individuals, it is normally shared between partners in a couple relationship and with dependent children. To a lesser degree, there may be sharing with other members of the household. Even when there is no transfer of income between members of a household, nor provision of free or cheap accommodation, members are still likely to benefit from the economies of scale that



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arise from the sharing of dwellings. Notwithstanding the economies of scale, larger households normally require a greater level of income to maintain the same material standard of living as smaller households, and the needs of adults are normally greater than the needs of children.

The household income estimates are therefore adjusted by equivalence factors to standardise the income estimates to take into account household size and composition, and the economies of scale that arise from the sharing of dwellings. The equivalised gross household income estimates can be viewed as an indicator of the economic resources available to each individual in a household. Box 3.6.1 provides more information about the derivation of the income measures used in this Report.

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### Box 3.6.1 Derivation of income measures

The ABS 2001 Census collected the gross (before the deduction of taxes) weekly income for each person aged 15 years and over (individual income) in ranges, not specific dollar amounts received, as this has proven to be the most reliable way to collect gross income data in the Census.

Data from the 1999-2000 ABS Survey of Income and Housing Costs (SIHC), in which income was collected in actual dollars received rather than ranges, were used to impute an income value for each person. The ABS analysis found that the median imputation method gave the best results, through comparing the resulting imputed income distributions to the actual income distribution from the SIHC. The result was gross weekly individual (GWI) income and is the measure used for individual income in this Report.

The imputed values for each person were then aggregated to create imputed household level income in order to obtain gross weekly household income.

Equivalised income is the income of households adjusted for the different income needs of households of different size and composition. An equivalence scale is often used to adjust raw income data to account for the cost of maintaining households and families. These costs, especially housing, are believed to vary with household size and composition, and sometimes the number of employed people in the household and other household characteristics.

The conventional technique of adjusting for the income needs of households with different characteristics is to apply an equivalence scale to the raw household income. The equivalence scale used to obtain equivalised incomes in the 2001 Census was developed for 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 to the first adult in the household, and for each additional adult (persons aged 15 years and over) a weight of 0.5, and for each child a weight of 0.3. Equivalised household income is derived by dividing the total household income by the sum of the weights for the members of that household. The resulting measure of income is gross weekly equivalised household (GWEH) income, and is the measure used for household income in this Report. The GWEH income of each person in the household, Indigenous or non-Indigenous, is the same as that of the household in which they are resident.

*Source:* ABS 2003.

While for most income analysis, disposable (after tax) income is the preferred basis of income measurement, no attempt is made to adjust for taxes. Nor is any adjustment made for the cost of living. This is particularly relevant for people living in remote areas, where costs for some goods and services are high, and the costs for some are low. For example, the cost of fresh food can be high in remote areas, which has an impact on health outcomes. In contrast, the cost of rent in remote areas is, on average, less than half the rent levels experienced in major cities. The availability of affordable housing can also impact on health outcomes.

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**Box 3.6.2 Key message**

In 2001, both household and individual incomes were lower on average for Indigenous than non-Indigenous people across all regions, and they were much lower in remote locations.

The income of Indigenous people is generally below that of non-Indigenous people, and there tends to be a higher proportion of Indigenous people with lower incomes, and a lower proportion with higher incomes, compared to non-Indigenous people.

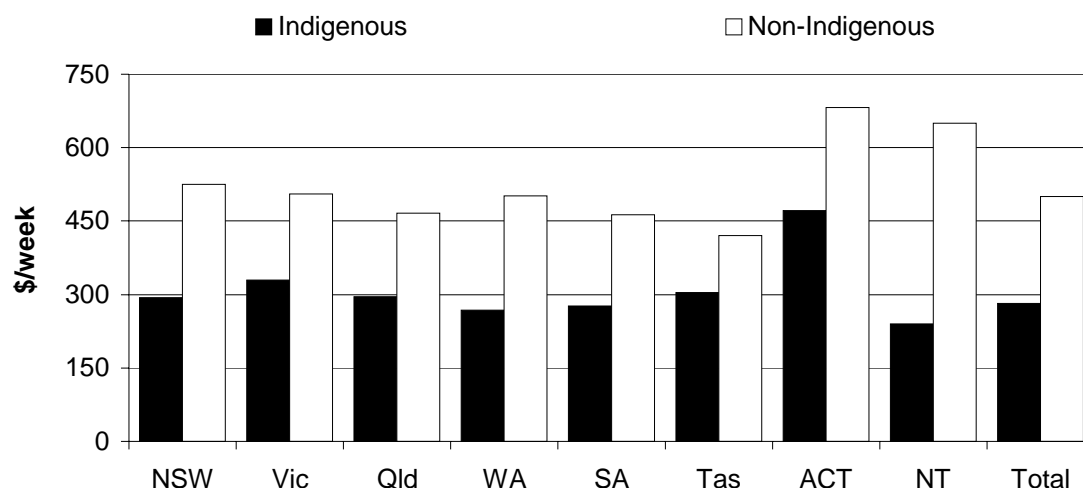
## **Household income**

The measure used in this Report for household income is gross weekly equivalised household (GWEH) income (box 3.6.1). GWEH income calculated for Indigenous people, while adjusting for household size and composition to some extent, may not reflect adequately the household circumstances of Indigenous people, and the data needs to be considered with this in mind. For example, Daly and Smith (1995), Gray (1990), and Hunter, Kennedy and Smith (2003) have found that there are substantial differences in family size and composition (structure) between Indigenous households and non-Indigenous households.

- Indigenous people are more likely to live in larger households with large numbers of dependents and smaller incomes.
- Indigenous households are more likely to extend over generations, than non-Indigenous households.
- High adult mortality in Indigenous households means that many children are forced to live with other relatives or friends.
- Indigenous people are substantially more likely to live in single parent households.
- Indigenous people, especially those living outside the cities, may live in households with resource commitments to their extended families living elsewhere.
- Indigenous households tend to have a large number of visitors, which are not necessarily accounted for in a data collection that takes a snapshot on a particular day, such as the Census.

While equivalised household income is the generally preferred measure for the analysis of people's income, the different concepts and structures of households where Indigenous people live compared with those where no Indigenous people live can result in income measurement that is not fully reflective of the circumstances for Indigenous household incomes (Hunter et al 2003).

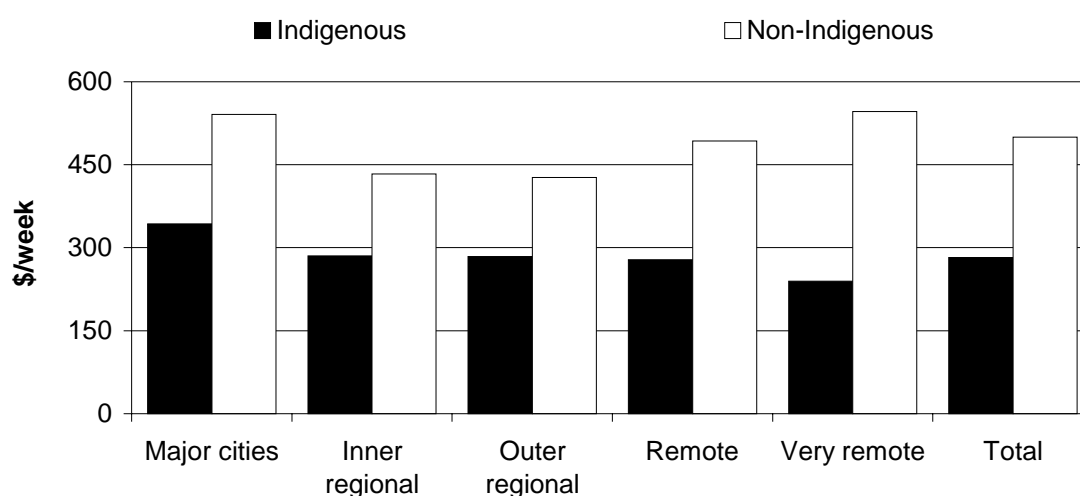
**Figure 3.6.1 Median gross weekly equivalised household income, 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.6.1.

- Nationally, median GWEH income for non-Indigenous people was \$500, compared to \$282 for Indigenous people (figure 3.6.1).
- Across jurisdictions, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous median GWEH income ranges from 2.7 in the NT to 1.4 in Tasmania and the ACT (table 3A.6.1).

Figure 3.6.2 Median gross weekly equivalised household income, 2001<sup>a</sup>



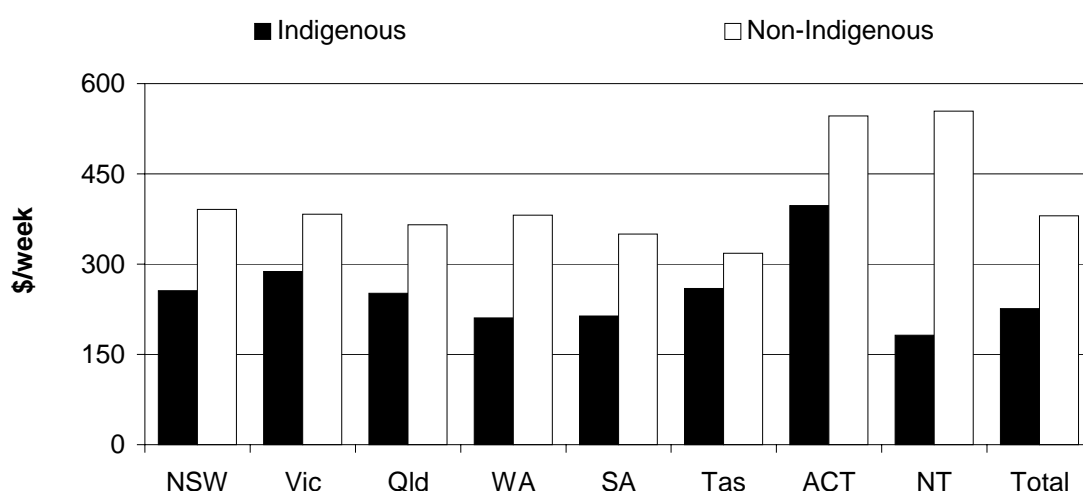
Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.6.1.

- Across geographic regions, Indigenous median GWEH income was highest in major cities, and fell the further the household was located from a major city. For non-Indigenous people, median GWEH income was relatively high in remote areas. This in part reflects the high proportion of non-Indigenous people employed in remote and very remote areas, a comparatively higher proportion of people working in the mining industry and the high average rates of pay associated with this industry (figure 3.6.2).
- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous median GWEH income was the highest in remote and very remote areas (1.8 and 2.3 respectively), and around the same in the major cities, and in inner and outer regional areas (around 1.5) (table 3A.6.1).

## Individual income

Individual income in this Report is derived by imputing an income value for each person from the income ranges collected in the Census to obtain gross weekly individual (GWI) income (box 3.6.1). Geographic region, age and gender breakdowns within each State and Territory can also be found in table 3A.6.2.

Figure 3.6.3 Median gross weekly individual income, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.6.2.

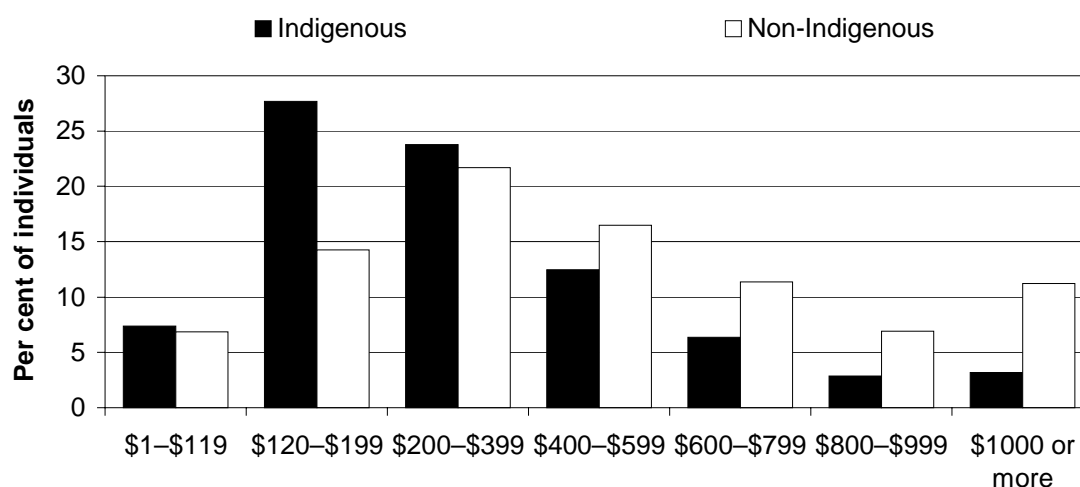
- Nationally, median GWI income for non-Indigenous people was \$380, compared to \$226 for Indigenous people (figure 3.6.3).
- Across jurisdictions, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous median GWI income ranges from 3.0 in the NT to 1.2 in Tasmania (table 3A.6.2).
- Nationally, median GWI income for non-Indigenous males was \$506 per week, compared to \$210 for Indigenous males, a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous median GWI income of 2.4.
- For females, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous median GWI income was 1.2, with non-Indigenous females median GWI income being \$293, compared to \$236 for Indigenous females.
- Median GWI income for non-Indigenous people was higher than Indigenous people in all age groups except 15–19 year olds reflecting a lower rate of participation in education for young Indigenous people (see section 3.4).
- Across geographic regions, Indigenous median GWI income is lower the further people live from major cities. For non-Indigenous people, however, median GWI income is higher for people living in remote and very remote areas than for those living in major cities (table 3A.6.2).

The percentage of individuals who have incomes that lie in particular ranges is also a measure of material disadvantage.

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Figure 3.6.4 **Gross weekly individual income ranges, 2001**

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Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.6.3.

- In most cases, lower individual income ranges contain a higher proportion of Indigenous individuals than non-Indigenous individuals, while the opposite is true for the higher income ranges (figure 3.6.4)
- The income range that contains the highest proportion of Indigenous individuals is \$120–\$199 per week, while the income range that contains the highest proportion of non-Indigenous individuals is \$200–\$399 per week (figure 3.6.4).

The proportion of individuals in particular income ranges varies considerably across geographic regions, with the greatest contrast between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people being found in remote areas (table 3A.6.4).

- 15.5 per cent of non-Indigenous individuals in remote and very remote areas earn more than \$1000 per week, compared to 1.9 per cent of Indigenous individuals, and the gap is also large for other high income ranges.
- 24.0 per cent of non-Indigenous individuals in remote and very remote areas earn less than \$200 per week (including nil and negative income), compared to 56.0 per cent of Indigenous individuals.

More data on the proportion of individuals in particular income ranges across geographic regions can be found in table 3A.6.4.

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## 3.7 Home ownership

Home ownership is an important economic indicator of wealth and saving, and is likely to be positively related to employment and income indicators. Home ownership provides a secure asset base that can contribute to financial stability and against which people can borrow. A home can be passed from one generation to another. Home ownership allows households to build or modify a dwelling to suit their particular needs, something that may not be possible with rental accommodation. Improvements in the strategic areas for action, particularly those relating to education, and economic participation and development, could increase the level of Indigenous home ownership in the future.

During consultations on the indicator framework for this Report, some people suggested that not all Indigenous people aspired to home ownership, especially those in more remote areas and living more traditional lifestyles. Others, including Indigenous people, said that home ownership was an important part of improving Indigenous wellbeing and an essential indicator in the framework. Some Indigenous people said that home ownership was important to them as a connection to the land, particularly in closely settled regions where opportunities for land grants and determinations that native title exists, are unlikely.

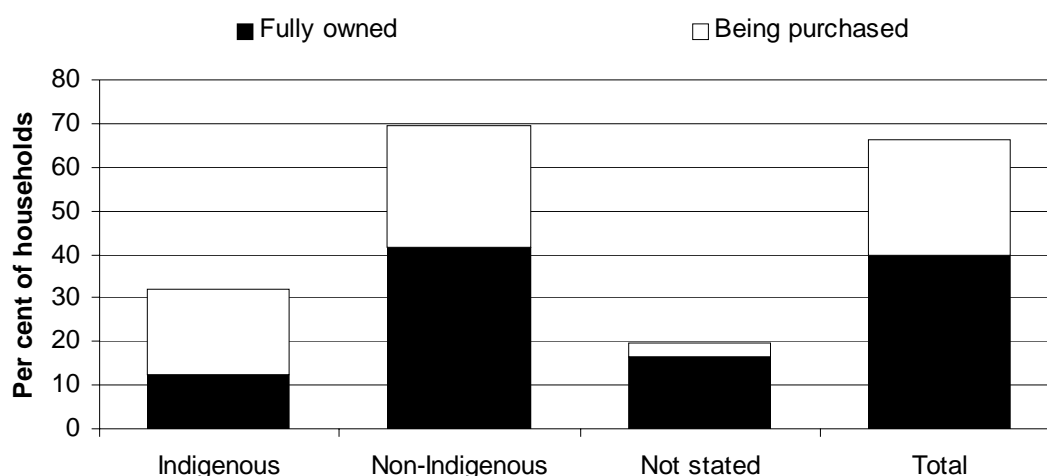
### Box 3.7.1 Key message

Indigenous individual home ownership rates in 2001 were much lower than those for non-Indigenous people in all regions.

Data on Indigenous home ownership in this Report are from the ABS 2001 Census and the ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey.



Figure 3.7.1 Home ownership, 2001<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories in this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Indigenous — households with at least one Indigenous resident; non-Indigenous — households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident; not stated — households (family/group/one person only) where no residents present on Census night answered the Indigenous status question; total — total households.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.7.1.

- Home ownership among Indigenous people is significantly lower than among non-Indigenous people. In 2001, 31.9 per cent of households with Indigenous residents owned or were buying their own homes compared with 69.5 per cent of non-Indigenous households (figure 3.7.1).
- A large part of the difference is in the proportion of households that fully own their homes, although there is also a significant difference in the proportion buying homes. For non-Indigenous households, 41.4 per cent fully owned their own homes compared with only 12.6 per cent of households with Indigenous residents.
- Non-Indigenous households are 2.2 times more likely to own or be purchasing their own homes than households with Indigenous residents. Non-Indigenous households are 3.3 times more likely to fully own their homes.

The difference can be partly explained by the younger age structure of the Indigenous population given that paying off a home loan takes a number of years. Home ownership is higher among middle aged and older people. As an older population (table A.5 in the Statistical Appendix), non-Indigenous people would be expected to have a higher rate of home ownership than Indigenous people, all other things being equal.

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Data from the ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey (ABS 2001) show that the likelihood of owning a home increased with age for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, although the pattern is stronger for non-Indigenous people. Seventy-five per cent of non-Indigenous people aged 55 and over were owners without mortgages compared to 37 per cent of Indigenous people aged 55 and over.

Data from the Australian Housing Survey have been age-standardised to account for the different age structures of the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. On an age-standardised basis, non-Indigenous households were nearly twice as likely to be owners without a mortgage than Indigenous households (39 per cent and 21 per cent respectively). Non-Indigenous households were more likely to be owners with a mortgage (31 per cent) than Indigenous households (22 per cent).

Census data include all households in Australia, whereas, the Australian Housing Survey excluded households in sparsely settled or remote areas. A significant proportion (26.4 per cent) of Indigenous people live in remote and very remote areas (table A.6 in the Statistical Appendix). While using Census data allows complete coverage of all geographic regions, Census data on households are not as easily age-standardised as Australian Housing Survey data and have not been age-standardised for this Report.<sup>4</sup>

Another factor influencing the different rates of home ownership between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people is the significant number of Indigenous people living on communally owned or controlled land, particularly in remote and very remote areas. Usually, such land cannot be sold and the land itself cannot be mortgaged. This ensures its continuing ownership by Indigenous people, but means that developments on the land involving home ownership and private sector financing need to be pursued through sub-leasing arrangements. Unlike the United States and Canada, where similar situations arise on Indigenous communally owned land, in Australia the legislative provisions which provide for sub-leasing and private sector financing have yet to be fully explored and used.

Long term leases for home ownership on Indigenous communal land are possible under land tenure arrangements in some states and territories but are not common. One community where it has been tried is Kowanyama in Queensland, where about

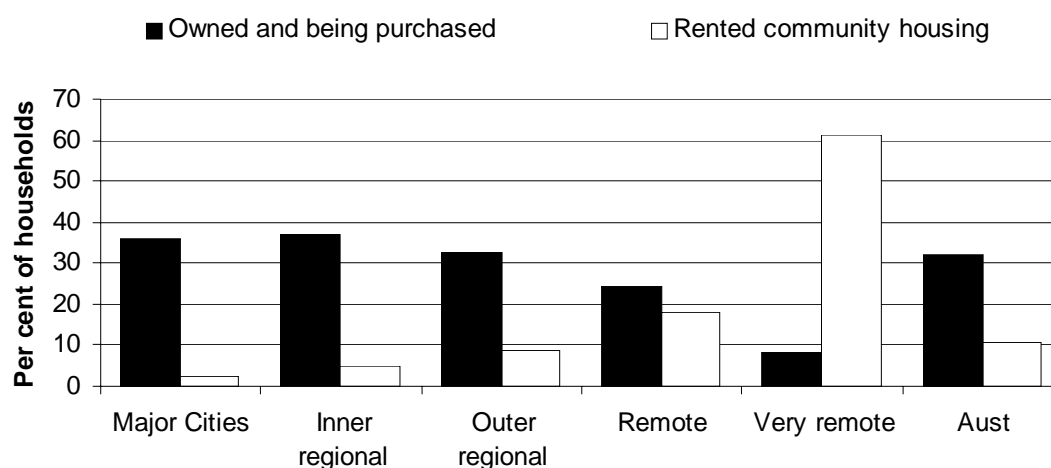
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<sup>4</sup> The Australian Housing Survey (ABS 2001) identified a reference person in each household by asking if each person over 15 was an owner, purchaser or renter of the house, and asking their income and age. The reference person was the person with highest tenure type from owner without a mortgage, owner with a mortgage, renter, other tenure, then the highest income and finally the eldest, until a single reference person was identified. Age standardisation was done according to the age of reference persons. Census data do not identify the person or persons in a household who are the owners or renters of a dwelling, so age standardisation is more difficult.

85 perpetual leases were registered in the late 1980s. Many of the houses on these leases were close to the end of their life cycles in the 1980s and have deteriorated since then. The Kowanyama Aboriginal Community Council has more recently been taking over the leases in order to replace the houses (Moran *et al.* 2001). Moran *et al.* (2001) surveyed Indigenous people in several communities in Queensland and suggested a range of issues that would need to be addressed for home ownership to be successful in Indigenous communities. They also noted that some Indigenous people have enjoyed secure long-term tenure in their rental homes in Indigenous communities. Jamieson (2002) reported Canadian examples of lending for home ownership on Indian reserves with secured (or partly secured) loans for homes.

Most housing on Indigenous communally owned land is owned by Indigenous community or cooperative housing organisations, which rent houses to families and individuals. Community rental housing is different to home ownership by individual households and families, however, it is a communal form of Indigenous ownership and control of housing.

**Figure 3.7.2 Indigenous home ownership and rental from community housing organisations, 2001<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Indigenous status for this chart is based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. Indigenous is defined as follows — households with at least one Indigenous resident.

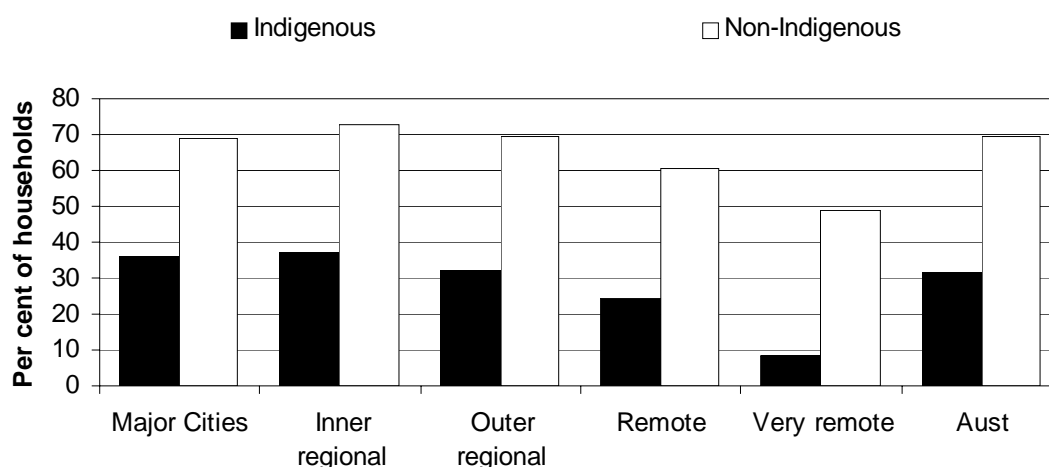
Source: ABS 2001 Census; tables 3A.7.3 and 3A.7.4.

- Figure 3.7.2 shows that 10.9 per cent of households with Indigenous residents rented their homes from community or cooperative housing groups (not including public housing).

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- In contrast to home ownership, rental of community owned housing by households with Indigenous residents ranged from 61.1 per cent in very remote areas to 2.2 per cent in major cities (figure 3.7.2).
  - Table 3A.7.4 shows that rental of community housing by households with Indigenous residents also varied between jurisdictions.
  - Only 0.4 per cent of non-Indigenous households rented from community or cooperative housing groups (not including public housing) in 2001. Very few (0.4 per cent) non-Indigenous households rented community owned housing in major cities or regional areas with a small increase to 2.1 per cent in very remote areas (table 3A.7.4).

Indigenous community housing does not include housing rented from government housing authorities, which is also a more significant source of housing for Indigenous people (20.4 per cent) than for non-Indigenous people (4.3 per cent) (table 3A.7.1). It is likely that Census data understate the number of households with Indigenous residents in community rental housing. Table 3A.7.1 (from the ABS 2001 Census) shows that 15 733 households with Indigenous residents rented from community housing organisations, whereas the ATSIIC/ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey counted 21 287 permanent dwellings managed by Indigenous housing organisations, of which 19 618 were occupied (ABS 2002). It is likely that some households with Indigenous residents have recorded a State/Territory housing authority or private owner as their landlord on the Census form when they were actually renting community housing. The distinction between community and public housing may not always be obvious to tenants because governments provide funding to many Indigenous community housing organisations. Table 3A.7.1 provides more detailed information on housing tenure by Indigenous status. Further information on rental of public housing and community housing by Indigenous and non-Indigenous people can be found in the *Report on Government Services 2003* (SCRCSSP 2003).

Figure 3.7.3 Home ownership, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories for this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Indigenous — households with at least one Indigenous resident; non-Indigenous — households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident. <sup>b</sup> Home ownership includes fully owned and being purchased (including being purchased under a rent/buy scheme).

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 3A.7.3.

- Figure 3.7.3 shows that Indigenous home ownership in 2001 varied significantly by geographic region, ranging from 37.0 per cent of households in inner regional areas down to 8.1 per cent in very remote areas.
- Non-Indigenous households were between 1.9 and 2.5 times more likely than households with Indigenous people to own their own homes in major cities, inner and outer regional areas and remote areas. Non-Indigenous households were 6.0 times more likely than households with Indigenous people to own their own homes in very remote areas.
- Indigenous home ownership also varied significantly between jurisdictions, with the highest rate in Tasmania (53.0 per cent) and the lowest rate in the NT (15.2 per cent) (table 3A.7.5).
- Indigenous home ownership was significantly below non-Indigenous home ownership in all states and territories.
- Indigenous home ownership was higher for families without children under 15 than those with children under 15 (table 3A.7.2).

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## 3.8 Suicide and self-harm

Suicide accounts for just under 2 per cent of total deaths in Australia (ABS 2002). In 2001, 1935 males and 519 females committed suicide in Australia (ABS 2002). The age groups of 25–34 years and 35–44 years experienced the highest age specific death from suicide rates in 2001.

### Box 3.8.1 Key message

- In 2001, the suicide rate for Indigenous people (35.5 per 100 000) was considerably higher than the rate for other Australians (13.1 per 100 000) (based on Queensland, WA, SA and the NT) (figure 3.8.2).
- Suicide death rates for the Indigenous population were particularly high in the 25–34 year age group (67.2 per 100 000) (figure 3.8.2).

Evidence indicates that people with a mental disorder are at a higher risk of suicide than the general population. Various types of mood disorders, such as depression or the feeling of isolation, have particularly been identified as possible risk factors for increased suicide attempts. Mental and behavioural disorders, linked with substance abuse have also been suggested as factors that increase the risk of suicide attempts. Suicide and self-harming behaviours are frequent in Aboriginal communities and are associated with alcohol and other mental disorders (Swan and Raphael 1995).

Environmental, sociocultural and economic risk factors can also increase the risk of suicide. Studies have found that young people who had attempted suicide were more likely to come from disadvantaged family backgrounds. These included having parents who were more likely to be substance dependent (for example, being an alcoholic), to have been imprisoned, and/or to have violent tendencies (including sexually and/or physically abusing family members). These young people were also more likely to have no formal educational qualifications, be unemployed, and have relatively lower income levels.

Unemployment and poor long-term job prospects are considered risk factors for increasing suicide attempts, particularly in rural and remote areas. A 1993 study showed that broad movements in male suicide deaths corresponded with periods of economic downturn and high unemployment rates (DHA 2000).

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As suicide deaths tend to occur in the younger age groups, the number of years of potential life lost (YPLL) due to suicide is substantial.<sup>5</sup> According to the ABS, the YPLL due to suicide deaths are 68 503 years for males and 17 010 years for females — which is 37.5 per cent and 31.7 per cent of the estimated YPLL due to death from ‘all external causes’ for males and females, respectively.<sup>6</sup>

Suicide death rates are significantly higher in the Indigenous population (particularly with young Indigenous males) than in the non-Indigenous population. The 1991 Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody found that Indigenous people most at risk of attempting suicide were the young, those affected by alcohol, and those confined alone in custody. Substance abuse, such as excessive alcohol consumption, has been identified as a contributing factor of self-harm as the consumption of these substances can intensify the psychological and social problems faced by people (DHA 2003).

A study in 1993, focussing on self-harming among Indigenous people under 35 years of age, found that younger Indigenous people who had attempted suicide had reported a high level of anxiety and depression. There might be significantly different levels and forms of stress faced by Indigenous people residing in urban and rural areas (DHA 2000).

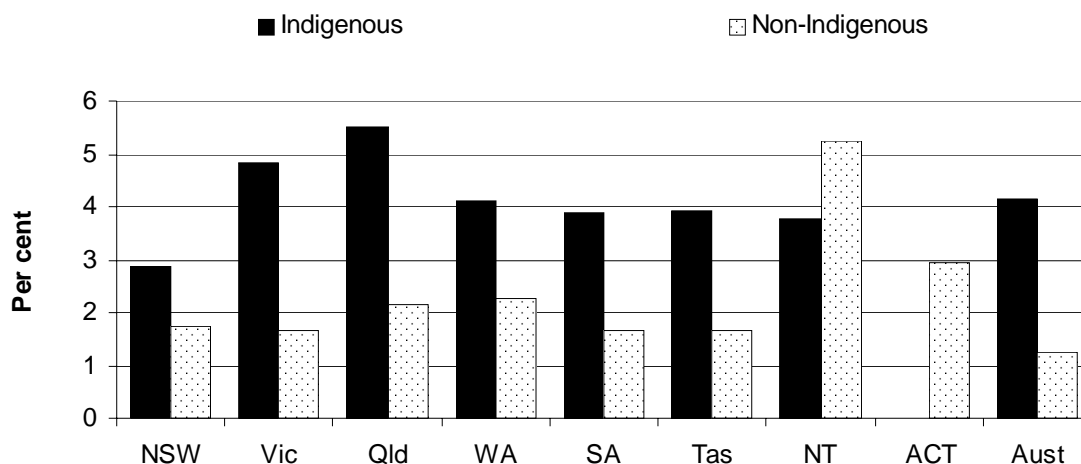
Available mortality data and hospital separations data suggest that suicide is more prevalent in Indigenous than non-Indigenous populations.

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<sup>5</sup> YPLL measures the extent of ‘premature’ mortality occurring between the ages of 1 and 75 years inclusive. By estimating YPLL for deaths of people aged 1–75 years, it is possible to assess the significance of specific diseases or trauma as a cause of premature death.

<sup>6</sup> According to the ABS, calculating YPLLs for the Indigenous population as a result of suicide is possible on an annual basis, but the issue of what median age to use would need to be established before meaningful long term data could be produced. The median age of 76 years used to calculate YPLL for the total population could not be used for the Indigenous population.

**Figure 3.8.1 Intentional self harm (suicide) deaths as a proportion of total deaths, 1999–2001<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>**



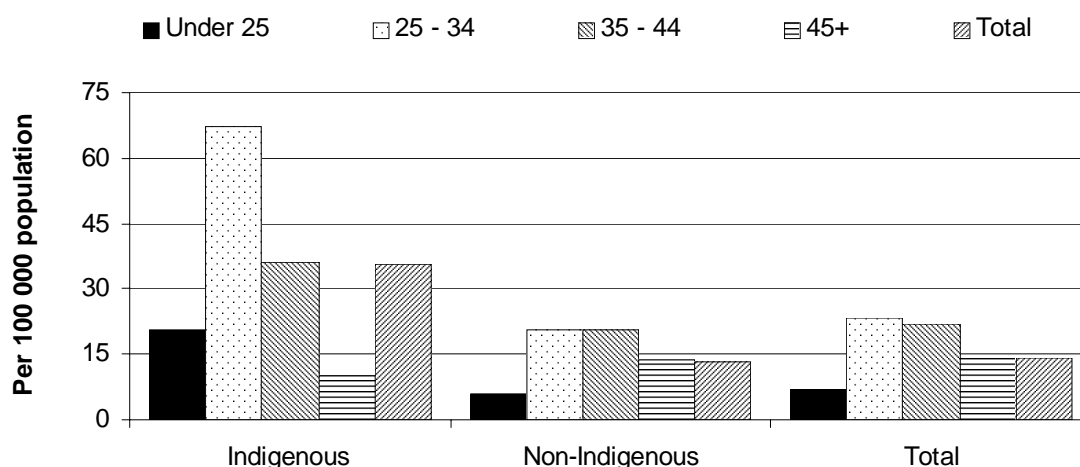
<sup>a</sup> Excludes Indigenous origin not stated. <sup>b</sup> Indigenous death registration data coverage varies across jurisdictions. While it is considered likely that virtually all Indigenous deaths are registered, there may be a proportion of deaths that are not identified as Indigenous. Therefore, the number of Indigenous deaths registered in 2001 is an underestimate of the actual number. <sup>c</sup> The proportion of homicides in the Indigenous population is derived by dividing the number of Indigenous homicides by total Indigenous deaths during 1999–2001. The proportion of homicides in the non-Indigenous population is derived by dividing the number of non-Indigenous homicides by total non-Indigenous deaths during 1999–2001. <sup>d</sup> The proportion of Indigenous suicide deaths in Tasmania was based on very low numbers.

Source: table 3A.8.1.

- During 1999–2001, suicide deaths in Australia, as a main cause of death, were higher as a proportion of total deaths in the Indigenous than in the non-Indigenous population (figure 3.8.1).
- Except for the ACT (where there were no deaths by suicide for Indigenous people) and the NT, the proportion of deaths by suicide was higher for Indigenous people than for non-Indigenous people across all jurisdictions (figure 3.8.1).
- Queensland and Victoria had significantly larger proportions of suicide deaths in the Indigenous population during 1999–2001 compared with the non-Indigenous population.



Figure 3.8.2 **Suicide death rate across four jurisdictions 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Only Queensland, WA, SA and the NT data are included. <sup>b</sup> The rates are presented as per 100 000 population. For Indigenous population, the rates would be as per 100 000 Indigenous population, and for non-Indigenous population the rates would be as per 100 000 non-Indigenous population.

Source: ABS (unpublished); table 3A.8.2.

The following analyses are based on figure 3.8.2 and the rates are expressed per 100 000 relevant population. The data were derived from four jurisdictions — Queensland, SA, WA and the NT (for more detail on the reason for including only these jurisdictions, see appendix 3).

- In 2001, the total suicide death rates (based on the four jurisdictions) were 35.5 for the Indigenous population and 13.1 for the non-Indigenous population.
- Suicide death rates for the Indigenous population tended to vary across a range of age groups. The highest rate occurred in the 25–34 year age group (67.2), followed by the 35–44 year age group (35.9).
- Suicide death rates for the non-Indigenous population were also highest in the 25–34 and 35–44 year age groups, with a rate of just under 20 for both these age groups.
- The 45 years and over age group is the only one where the non-Indigenous population had a higher death rate than the Indigenous population.

**Table 3.8.1 Non-fatal hospital separations for Intentional self-harm, 2001-02<sup>a, b</sup>**

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Not stated</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>Males</b>					
total	no.	556	11 041	175	11 772
age standardised rate <sup>c</sup>	per 1000	2.5	1.2	2.2	1.2
<b>Females</b>					
total	no.	714	16 565	244	17 523
age standardised rate <sup>c</sup>	per 1000	3.1	1.8	1.8	1.8
<b>All people</b>					
total	no.	1 270	27 606	419	29 295
age standardised rate <sup>c</sup>	per 1000	2.8	1.5	1.9	1.5

<sup>a</sup> Non-fatal refers to records where the mode of separation was not equal to 'died'. <sup>b</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition). <sup>c</sup> Rates were directly age standardised to rate as per 1000 population. The population data were based on the Estimated Residential Population as at 30 June 2001 (based on the ABS 2001 Census).

Source: AIHW National hospital morbidity database (unpublished).

- In 2001-02, the age standardised non-fatal hospital separation rate for intentional self-harm was higher for Indigenous people than for non-Indigenous people — 2.8 per 1000 Indigenous people compared with 1.5 per 1000 non-Indigenous people (table 3.8.1).
- The age standardised hospital separation rate was higher for Indigenous females (3.1 per 1000 Indigenous females) than for Indigenous males (2.5 per 1000 Indigenous males.). The same was true for non-Indigenous females and males (table 3.8.1).

Table 3A.8.3 contains data on standardised non-fatal separations for intentional self-harm for all jurisdictions except Tasmania and the ACT for 2001-02.

- The separation rates for Indigenous males were highest in WA and SA (3.8 per 1000 in each jurisdiction) and lowest in NSW (2.0 per 1000). The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous separation rates for males was highest in the NT, where Indigenous males were 5.4 times (2.8 per 1000) more likely to be in hospital for intentional self-harm compared to non-Indigenous males.
- The separation rate for Indigenous females was highest in SA (5.7 per 1000) and lowest in the NT (2.0 per 1000). The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous separation rate for females was highest in SA, where Indigenous females were 3.0 times more likely to be in hospital for intentional self-harm compared with non-Indigenous females.

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### 3.9 Substantiated child protection notifications

This headline indicator has been chosen because of compelling evidence indicating that many Indigenous children are at risk. Actions in a number of the strategic areas would reduce child abuse and neglect.

Information on substantiated child protection notifications provides an insight into the extent of abuse, neglect and/or harm to children in the family environment. Child abuse and neglect is often associated with complex social and personal factors including the mental health of care givers, substance abuse within the family unit, family violence, overcrowded living conditions, unemployment and lack of access to health care and education.

Children who come into contact with community services for protective reasons include those:

- who have been or are being abused, neglected or otherwise harmed; and
- whose parents cannot provide adequate care or protection (AIHW 2003).

Before a matter is considered ‘substantiated’ by authorities, the matter must initially be notified and investigated. A notification will be substantiated where it is concluded after investigation that the child has been, is being, or is likely to be abused, neglected or otherwise harmed. The criteria for substantiation vary across jurisdictions. Some jurisdictions substantiate situations where child abuse and neglect have occurred or is likely to occur, while others substantiate situations where the child has been harmed or is at risk of harm, and the parents have failed to act to protect the child (AIHW 2003).

Care should be taken in interpreting the substantiation data. The number and rate of substantiations are a proxy indicator because no credible data exist on actual levels of child abuse or neglect. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community.

In some instances, increases in notifications (and subsequent substantiations) may be a result of reduced tolerance in Indigenous families and the broader Indigenous community to abuse or neglect of the young. An increased rate, therefore, in these instances will signify an increased awareness and identification of the problem — which is a progression towards a more desirable solution than abuse and neglect occurring in an environment where a community does not have the knowledge, resources and trust towards the government to tackle the issues in its current systematic form. An increased rate may also be due to improvements in the

identification of Indigenous status and an increase in resources in the protection and support area.

The practices used to identify and record the Indigenous status of children in the child protection system vary across states and territories. The data on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children should therefore be interpreted with care. Over the last few years, a number of jurisdictions have introduced measures to improve the identification of Indigenous clients. In some jurisdictions, however, there are a significant proportion of children whose Indigenous status is unknown and this impacts on the quality of the data on Indigenous status (AIHW 2003).

#### Box 3.9.1 Key messages

- In most jurisdictions, the substantiation rate for Indigenous children was higher than for non-Indigenous children in 2001-02 (table 3.9.1).
- In 2001-02, the *pattern* of substantiated abuse and neglect for Indigenous and non-Indigenous children appears to differ (with most non-Indigenous cases related to abuse and most Indigenous cases related to neglect) (table 3.9.2).
- Particular care should be taken in interpreting substantiation data. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community.

Table 3.9.1 **Children aged 0–16 years who were the subject of substantiations, 2001-02<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>**

	Number of children			Rate per 1000 children			Ratio Indigenous to non- Indigenous
	Indigenous	Non- Indigenous	All children	Indigenous	Non- Indigenous	All children	
NSW	913	6 361	7 274	15.3	4.3	4.8	3.6
Vic	579	6 569	7 148	48.1	6.1	6.5	7.9
Qld	795	6 553	7 348	14.3	7.9	8.3	1.8
WA	386	718	1 104	13.5	1.7	2.4	7.9
SA	346	1 407	1 753	31.6	4.4	5.3	7.2
Tas <sup>e</sup>	np	np	np	np	np	np	np
ACT	11	191	202	6.5	2.6	2.7	2.5
NT	222	109	331	9.7	3.2	5.8	3.0

<sup>a</sup> During 2001-02 practices were introduced to improve the identification of Indigenous status that resulted in an increase in the number of Indigenous clients. <sup>b</sup> The Indigenous rates were calculated using ABS 2001 Census data. <sup>c</sup> Rates of children in substantiations are calculated for children aged 0-16 years, given differences in jurisdictions' legislation, policies and practices regarding children aged 17 years. <sup>d</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous substantiations is calculated by dividing the Indigenous substantiation rate by the non-Indigenous substantiation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people. <sup>e</sup> Data for Tasmania not shown due to the very small number of Indigenous children who were the subject of a substantiation. **np** Not published.

Source: AIHW (2003); table 3A.9.1.

Each State and Territory has its own legislation, policies and practices in relation to child protection. For example, in Victoria there is a greater preparedness to report incidences of abuse as investigations are now conducted in conjunction with the Victorian Aboriginal Child Care Agency. As a result, there are differences between jurisdictions in the data provided. The Australian total is not provided for this reason (table 3.9.1).

- The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous substantiation provides a summary measure of the proportion of Indigenous children who were the subject of a substantiation compared with the proportion of non-Indigenous children (table 3.9.1).
- In 2001-02, where data are available, the substantiation rate for Indigenous children was higher than the rate for non-Indigenous children (table 3.9.1).
- In Victoria and WA, the proportion of Indigenous children who were the subject of a substantiation was nearly eight times higher than that of non-Indigenous children. In SA it was more than seven times (table 3.9.1).

**Table 3.9.2 Children aged 0–16 years who were the subject of a substantiation: type of abuse or neglect, 2001-02 (per cent)<sup>a, b, c</sup>**

<i>Type of abuse/neglect</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld<sup>d</sup></i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas<sup>e</sup></i>	<i>ACT<sup>f</sup></i>	<i>NT</i>
Indigenous children								
Physical abuse	31	22	23	25	30	np	18	43
Sexual abuse	17	4	5	15	4	np	9	8
Emotional abuse	13	50	21	9	27	np	46	12
Neglect	26	24	50	50	40	np	27	37
Other	13	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>np</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Non-Indigenous children								
Physical abuse	29	26	24	28	32	np	29	45
Sexual abuse	29	8	6	37	10	np	5	9
Emotional abuse	10	44	33	11	23	np	40	26
Neglect	16	23	37	24	35	np	26	20
Other	15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>np</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

<sup>a</sup> If a child was the subject of a substantiation for more than one type of abuse or neglect, then type of abuse and/or neglect is assigned to the category nearest the top of the list. <sup>b</sup> The category of 'other' used for NSW comprises children identified as being at high risk but with no identifiable injury. <sup>c</sup> Totals may not add as a result of rounding. <sup>d</sup> Queensland data relate to children aged 0-17 years. <sup>e</sup> Data for Tasmania not shown due to the very small number of Indigenous children who were the subject of a substantiation. <sup>f</sup> The ACT sample size is small, meaning that the percentages may easily be skewed which may affect comparisons with other jurisdictions. .. Not applicable. np Not published.

Source: AIHW (2003); table 3A.9.2.

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Variations in the distribution of types of abuse or neglect across jurisdictions are likely to be the result of differences in the classification of the substantiation as well as differences in the types of incidents that are substantiated (table 3.9.2).

- The pattern of substantiated abuse and neglect for Indigenous children appears to differ from the pattern for non-Indigenous children in some jurisdictions in 2001-02 (table 3.9.2).
- Across all jurisdictions (except the ACT), sexual abuse was involved in a higher proportion of substantiated allegations for non-Indigenous children than for Indigenous children (table 3.9.2). However, sexual abuse is least likely to be reported than other types of abuse.
- In Victoria, Queensland, SA, the ACT and the NT, there were more substantiations involving physical abuse, emotional abuse or neglect than sexual abuse when it came to Indigenous children (table 3.9.2).
- For Indigenous children in NSW and the NT, physical abuse was the most common type of substantiation. In Queensland, WA and SA, the most common was neglect; and in Victoria and the ACT, it was emotional abuse (table 3.9.2).

### **3.10 Deaths from homicide and hospitalisations for assault**

Although Indigenous people account for only around 2.4 per cent of the total population, they comprise a relatively large proportion of the homicide deaths and hospitalisations for assault in Australia. During 1 July 1989 to 30 June 2000, 15.1 per cent of all homicide victims, and 15.7 per cent of all homicide offenders were Indigenous persons (Mouzos 2001).

Substance abuse is a key factor in deaths from homicide and hospitalisation for assaults. As discussed in section 8.2, a much larger share of Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence, compared with non-Indigenous homicides.

In a less direct way, actions in other strategic areas also have the potential to make a difference to these outcomes by addressing the socio-economic conditions which can lead to violent behaviour — for example positive outcomes in the strategic area of ‘Economic participation and development’.

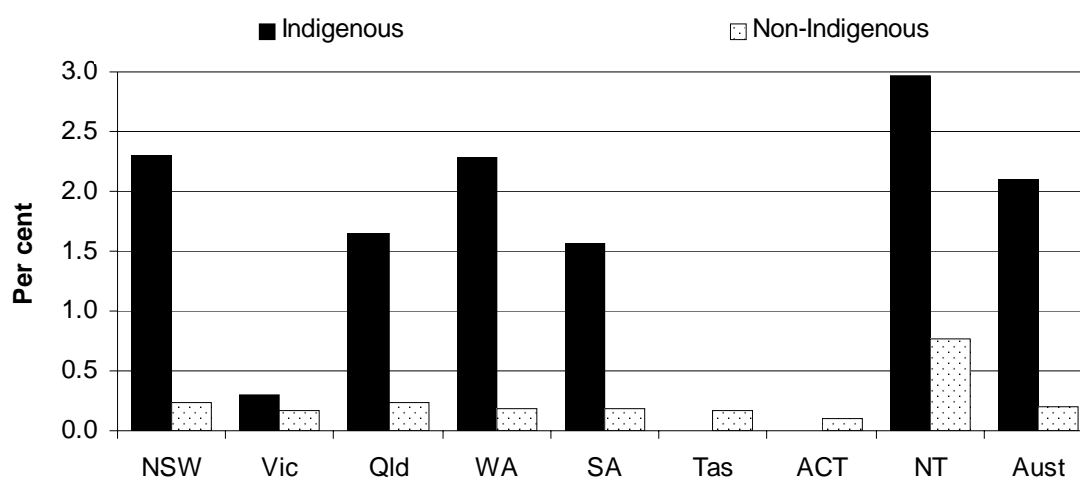
### Box 3.10.1 Key messages

- During 1999–2001, homicides, as a proportion of total deaths, were far greater in the Indigenous population — 2.1 per cent compared with 0.2 per cent in the non-Indigenous population (figure 3.10.1).
- Hospital separation rates for assault in 2001-02 were higher for Indigenous people (13.3 per 1000) than non-Indigenous people (1.0 per 1000). The main category was assault by bodily force (table 3A.10.6).

## Deaths from homicide

As a proportion of total deaths, homicide is greater in the Indigenous population than in the non-Indigenous population.

Figure 3.10.1 Homicide as a proportion of total deaths, 1999–2001<sup>a, b, c</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Excludes Indigenous origin not stated. <sup>b</sup> Indigenous death registration data coverage varies across jurisdictions. While it is considered likely that virtually all Indigenous deaths are registered, there may be a proportion of deaths that are not identified as Indigenous. Therefore, the number of Indigenous deaths registered in 2001 is an underestimate of the actual number. <sup>c</sup> The proportion of homicides in the Indigenous population is derived by dividing the number of Indigenous homicides by total Indigenous deaths during 1999–2001. The proportion of homicides in the non-Indigenous population is derived by dividing the number of non-Indigenous homicides by total non-Indigenous deaths during 1999–2001.

Source: ABS (unpublished); table 3A.10.1.

During 1999–2001 (figure 3.10.1):

- homicide as a proportion of all causes of death was 2.1 per cent in the Indigenous population, and 0.2 per cent in the non-Indigenous population; and

- 
- Indigenous deaths from homicide were highest in the NT (3.0 per cent), WA (2.3 per cent) and NSW (2.3 per cent).

The 2001 homicide rates (based on Queensland, WA, SA and the NT) (table 3A.10.2):

- were higher in the Indigenous population than in the non-Indigenous population across all age groups — particularly in the 35–44 and 25–34 year age groups;
- were fairly constant in the non-Indigenous population across all age groups, while the rates varied significantly across age groups in the Indigenous population; and
- were highest in the 35–44 year age group (44.8), followed by the 25–34 year age group (29.1) for the Indigenous population. The lowest homicide rate was for Indigenous people aged under 25 (3.8).

The analyses on homicides below are based on data from the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC), collected as part of the National Homicide Monitoring Program. The AIC data allows for more detailed examination of the circumstances and characteristics of homicide occurring in the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.

The method for collecting homicide data differs between the AIC and the ABS. The ABS homicide data (as analysed above) are based on information supplied to the Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages who are responsible for registering all deaths in their jurisdiction. Demographic information, including Indigenous identification, is supplied by the next of kin when registering the death, while details of the cause(s) of death are provided by the certifying medical practitioner or coroner. This information is then supplied to the ABS by individual Registrars for compilation into the aggregate death statistics.

The AIC data are collected from offence reports of homicide coming to the attention of the Australian police and from coronial records across Australia. One of the main limitations of the AIC data is the way in which the Indigenous status of both the victim and offender is identified and recorded. In some instances the Indigenous status is identified solely on the subjective assessment made by the police, which is based on the external appearance of the victim or offender. Details of the accuracy of this type of assessment are discussed in the substance use and misuse section.

According to the Mouzos (2001), although the total number of Indigenous victims of homicide in Australia is smaller than the total number of non-Indigenous victims, Indigenous people have consistently recorded higher rates of homicide victimisation than non-Indigenous people. During 1999–2000 to 2001–02, 13.9 per cent of total



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homicides in Australia involved an Indigenous victim while the remaining 86.1 per cent involved a non-Indigenous victim (table 3A.10.3).

Comparing Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, homicide in Australia is generally of an intra-racial nature. From 1999-2000 to 2001-02, 3.7 per cent of homicide cases involved an Indigenous offender and a non-Indigenous victim, while 1.5 per cent of cases involved a non-Indigenous offender and an Indigenous victim (table 3A.10.4).

Although homicide cases predominantly occur between non-Indigenous people, there can be variations across jurisdictions, partly reflecting the differing shares of Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations across jurisdictions. Although Indigenous people account for around 30 per cent of the NT population, during 1999-2000 and 2001-02, 78.2 per cent of homicide cases involved an Indigenous offender (most of these involved an Indigenous victim). Around 4 per cent of the population in WA and the population in Queensland consist of Indigenous people. However, 33.1 per cent of homicides in WA and 18.1 per cent of homicides in Queensland involved an Indigenous offender (table 3A.10.4).

Table 3A.10.5 shows that:

- most homicides during 1999-2000 and 2001-02 were non-Indigenous homicides, with 13.1 per cent being Indigenous homicides;
- most homicides during 1999-2000 and 2001-02 were intra-racial, that is involving either an Indigenous offender and victim, or a non-Indigenous offender and victim, with 5.2 per cent of homicides involving either an Indigenous victim or an Indigenous offender;
- from 1999-2002, 37.5 per cent of Indigenous homicides occurred in rural areas, while 4.4 per cent of non-Indigenous homicides occurred in rural areas;
- for both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, most homicide cases involved a male offender and a male victim;
- where there was a male offender and a female victim, the share was marginally greater in the Indigenous homicides as compared with the non-Indigenous homicides (33.3 per cent compared with 29.9 per cent);
- the proportion of cases where the offender was female was higher in Indigenous homicides. Indigenous homicides involving a female offender on a male victim were 13.9 per cent, compared with 8.8 per cent for non-Indigenous homicides. Indigenous homicides involving a female offender on a female victim were 6.9 per cent, compared with 4.2 per cent for non-Indigenous homicides;
- for both non-Indigenous and Indigenous homicides, the victim was older than the offender in most cases;

- 
- the proportion of Indigenous homicides where both the victim and offender were unemployed was 83.3 per cent, compared with 48.1 per cent for non-Indigenous homicides;
  - the motive of killing in Indigenous homicides was more likely to arise from a domestic dispute, while for non-Indigenous homicides, it was more likely to arise for other reasons;
  - a much higher share of Indigenous homicides resulted from an alcohol related argument (27.1 per cent) compared with non-Indigenous homicides (8.9 per cent);
  - a knife or some other sharp object was the most common weapon used to kill either an Indigenous victim or a non-Indigenous victim;
  - a significantly lower share of Indigenous victims were killed with a firearm (2.8 per cent compared with 18.2 per cent for non-Indigenous victims);
  - during 1999–2002, 54.2 per cent of Indigenous homicides occurred between family members (a greater share involving intimate partners) compared with 38.1 per cent for non-Indigenous homicides; and
  - a substantially higher share of non-Indigenous homicides involved ‘strangers’ (15.5 per cent) compared with Indigenous homicides (3.5 per cent).

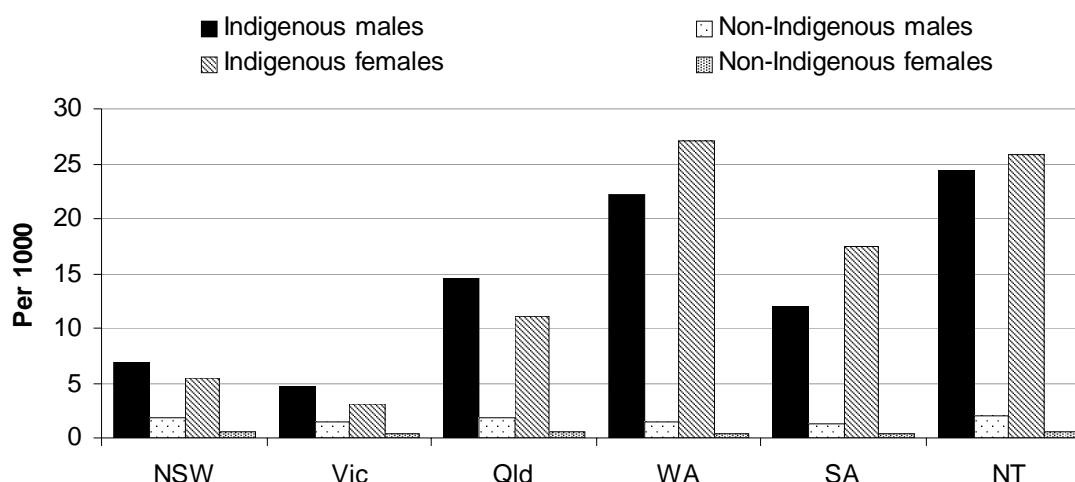
### **Hospitalisation for assault**

The following analyses examines the non-fatal hospital separation rate for assault, obtained from the AIHW National hospital morbidity database. The hospital separation rates are age standardised and are expressed per 1000 of the relevant population group (table 3A.10.6). In 2001–02:

- the separation rate for all assault types (X85–Y09) was higher for Indigenous people (13.3) than non-Indigenous people (1.0);
- the main type of assault suffered by Indigenous people was assault by bodily force (5.4 separations per 1000), followed by assault by smoke, fire, or hot, sharp or blunt objects (4.6 separations per 1000);
- although the rates were relatively small, the likelihood of an assault occurring that involved ‘other maltreatment’ (Y07) (particularly by a spouse or partner) was higher in the Indigenous population than in the non-Indigenous population; and
- Indigenous females were more likely to suffer from assault by other maltreatment (Y07) (particularly from a spouse or partner) than Indigenous

males, while Indigenous males were more likely to suffer neglect and abandonment than Indigenous females.

**Figure 3.10.2 Non-fatal hospital separation rates for assault (X85–Y09), 2001–02<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Non-fatal refers to records where the mode of separation was not equal to 'died'. <sup>b</sup> Data are based on jurisdiction of usual residence. <sup>c</sup> Rates are as per 1000 population and were directly age standardised to the Australian population as at 30 June 2001. <sup>d</sup> Data are based on the ICD-10-AM. <sup>e</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition).

Source: AIHW (unpublished); table 3A.10.7.

The following analyses are based on figure 3.10.2, which examines non-fatal hospital separation rates (per 1000 population) for assault across jurisdictions. For jurisdictions with highly decentralised populations, the use of hospital separation data will overcount the number of assaults due to inter-hospital transfers when patients are transferred from remote areas to hospitals in major centres for treatment.

- Across all jurisdictions, non-fatal hospital separation rates for all assault types in 2001–02 were higher for Indigenous males and females than for non-Indigenous males and females.
- Separation rate for Indigenous females was highest in WA (27.2), followed by the NT (25.7), while the rate for Indigenous males was highest in the NT (24.3), followed by WA (22.2).
- The rate was lowest in Victoria for both Indigenous males and females.
- There was little variation in the rates across jurisdictions for non-Indigenous males and females. For non-Indigenous males, the rates ranged between 1 and 2, while for non-Indigenous females the rates were around 0.5.

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- Across jurisdictions, the main type of assault conducted on Indigenous males were either by smoke, fire, sharp or blunt objects (X97–Y00), or assault by bodily force (Y04) (table 3A.10.7).
  - However, for WA, SA and the NT, assault by other maltreatment (Y07), particularly by spouse or partner (Y07.0), was also one of the main assault types conducted on Indigenous females (table 3A.10.7).

### 3.11 Victim rates for crime

Violence and criminal behaviour have demonstrable impacts on health outcomes, safety and positive child development. Outcomes in this area may ultimately be influenced by a number of the strategic areas for action, particularly substance use and misuse, and functional and resilient families and communities.

Socioeconomic factors are critical determinants of crime. Analysis of these factors has largely focussed on their influence on the offenders of crime. However, these factors are just as prevalent when it comes to the victims of crime. The 1991 Royal Commission on Aboriginal Deaths in Custody acknowledged that low education and income levels, crowded housing, and lack of employment are just a few of the factors that lead to an over-representation of people ‘as both perpetrators and victims’ of crime (RCIADIC 1991). Domestic violence and substance misuse, in particular, are crucial issues in Indigenous families and communities. The extent to which Indigenous people are victims of crime will, therefore, be influenced potentially by a number of different factors.

There is no national data set on the extent of Indigenous victimisation. The data published in this section are from NSW and WA. They are presented to give an insight into the level of Indigenous victimisation within these states. The data are not comparable between these two jurisdictions.

The data reported are from police records and subject to the following caveats:

- the data do not represent all victims of crime, just those that come to the attention of, and whose details are, recorded by police;
- the data presented generally reflect victims of violent criminal incidents where the violent incident was reported to, or otherwise detected by, police; and
- the tendency for persons to report criminal victimisation to police may differ between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people (and there is no way of estimating the level of under-reporting).

In addition, in WA, Indigenous status is completed on the basis of the attending officer’s subjective assessment of the person’s appearance and is recorded for

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operational purposes only. In NSW, police officers actually ask victims whether they are an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander. Thus, in contrast to WA, the Indigenous status in NSW is self reported by the individual and not determined by the police officer.

Data from other jurisdictions have not been published in this Report. In some instances, this is because either there is no Indigenous identifier currently in place or, where some data are collected, it is not regarded of sufficient size or quality to publish. The purpose of the data in this year's Report is to provide some indication of the results that are available. It is anticipated that in future years a more extensive and comparable set of data will be available from jurisdictions.

A number of pieces of independent research and analysis have been undertaken into the extent of violence and the rate of Indigenous victimisation. This section looks at the most recently available data direct from police agencies. In doing so, it is acknowledged that not all jurisdictions will be able to provide data. The trade-off, though, is that it provides an opportunity for the most recently available and robust data possible to be presented with appropriate authorisation and caveats.

The ABS ISS is expected to be published in 2004 and contains a question on 'whether victim of assault in the last 12 months'. This information (which is expected to be available at a national and jurisdiction level) can be used to supplement the results in this chapter.

**Box 3.11.1 Key messages**

- On the limited data available, Indigenous people were much more likely to be victims of murder, assault, sexual assault and domestic violence than non-Indigenous people in 2000 and 2002 (tables 3.11.1 and 3.11.2).
- Of all the offences examined, robbery was the only one which showed victimisation rates to be lower for Indigenous people in 2000 and 2002 (tables 3.11.1 and 3.11.2).

## New South Wales

**Table 3.11.1 NSW rate of police recorded crime victims, per 100 000 people, Indigenous victims versus total victims and female Indigenous victims versus total female victims, 2002<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>All people</i>	<i>Ratio: Indigenous to all people</i>
Total victims, rate per 100 000 population			
Murder	3.7	1.5	2.5
Assault	4 043.4	1 198.3	3.4
Domestic Violence related assault <sup>f</sup>	2 276.7	410.7	5.5
Sexual assault	166.1	58.4	2.8
Sexual assault (against children 0–15) <sup>g</sup>	158.6	114.5	1.4
Robbery	46.0	209.3	0.2
Female victims, rate per 100 000 female population			
Murder	1.5	0.8	1.9
Assault	5 187.1	997.4	5.2
Domestic Violence related assault <sup>f</sup>	3 624.6	584.5	6.2
Sexual assault	274.3	95.4	2.9
Sexual assault (against children 0–15) <sup>g</sup>	254.0	186.5	1.4
Robbery	32.6	106.2	0.3

<sup>a</sup> Indigenous status is based on self-identification. <sup>b</sup> Data do not represent all victims of crime, just those that come to the attention of, and whose details are, recorded by NSW police. <sup>c</sup> The data in this table represent victims of violent crime where the violent incident was reported to, or otherwise detected by, NSW police. <sup>d</sup> The tendency for persons to report criminal victimisation to police may differ between Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons. <sup>e</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to all victims is calculated by dividing the Indigenous victimisation rate by the all people victimisation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to all people. <sup>f</sup> The category 'Domestic Violence related assault' is a subset of 'Assault'. <sup>g</sup> The category 'Sexual assault against victims 0–15' is a subset of 'Sexual assault'.

Source: NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research (BOCSAR) (unpublished); table 3A.11.1–2.

- In NSW in 2002, Indigenous people were nearly six times more likely to be a victim of domestic violence related assault than all persons. The rate is slightly higher when looking at female victimisation for domestic violence (table 3.11.1).
- Indigenous people in NSW were three times more likely to be victims of assault than all persons, while Indigenous females were five times more likely (table 3.11.1).
- For Indigenous people in NSW, the rate of sexual assault was approximately three times that of the total population. A similar difference exists when looking at Indigenous female victimisation for sexual assault (table 3.11.1).
- Of the selected offence types examined in NSW, robbery was the only offence type for which victimisation rates were higher for all people than for Indigenous people (table 3.11.1).

- The actual number of Indigenous and all victims for each selected offence type are outlined in the attachment tables 3A.11.1 and 3A.11.2.

## Western Australia

Table 3.11.2 **Victimisation rate per 100 000 people, WA, 2000<sup>a, b</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Ratio: Indigenous to non-Indigenous</i>
Total victims, rate per 100 000 population			
Homicide	28.1	4.1	6.9
Assault	4 427.5	656.2	6.7
Sex offences	509.6	157.1	3.2
Other	441.8	156.0	2.8
Robbery	46.3	80.0	0.6
Female victims, rate per 100 000 female population			
Homicide	22.9	3.5	6.5
Assault	6 126.4	485.6	12.6
Sex offences	880.8	263.3	3.3
Other	615.6	155.7	4.0
Robbery	52.4	72.1	0.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 698.1</b>	<b>980.2</b>	<b>7.9</b>

<sup>a</sup> Aboriginality is derived from the WA Police Identity Code field for ethnic appearance. The field is completed on the basis of the attending police officer's subjective assessment of the person's appearance and is recorded for operational purposes only. Care should be exercised in the interpretation of these statistics, as a subjective assessment means it is possible that a person attributed to a particular group does not belong to that group. <sup>b</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous victims is calculated by dividing the Indigenous victimisation rate by the non-Indigenous victimisation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to all people.

Source: University of WA (2001); table 3A.11.3.

- In WA in 2000, Indigenous people were nearly seven times more likely to be a victim of assault than non-Indigenous people, while Indigenous females were almost thirteen times more likely to be victims (table 3.11.2).
- Indigenous persons (and females) were approximately seven times more likely to be a victim of homicide than non-Indigenous persons (and females) (table 3.11.2).
- Indigenous females in WA were also three times more likely to be victims of a sexual offence than non-Indigenous females (table 3.11.2).
- Robbery was the only offence type examined which showed non-Indigenous victimisation rates higher than for Indigenous people (table 3.11.2).
- The number of WA Indigenous and non-Indigenous victims for each selected offence type are outlined in table 3A.11.3, and a comparison of Indigenous victimisation rates by gender and offence type are contained in table 3A.11.4.

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Victimisation rates in WA, by age category, show that the highest rate of Indigenous and non-Indigenous victimisation occur between the ages of 18 and 34. Data on victimisations by age category are available in table 3A.11.5. The victimisation rate for domestic violence in Perth compared with areas outside Perth are contained in table 3A.11.6. These data show that Indigenous people were approximately three times more likely to be victims of domestic violence outside Perth than they were in Perth (and that Indigenous people were approximately 40 times more likely to be victims of domestic violence outside Perth than non-Indigenous people).

### **3.12 Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates**

Over-representation of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system has been of long standing. Many factors create the conditions which result in Indigenous incarceration. Causal factors can be found in all of the strategic areas for action. Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates provide an insight into the level of involvement of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system — to the degree that they show the extent to which Indigenous people are subject to sentencing sanctions imposed by the courts.

The 1991 Royal Commission on Aboriginal Deaths in Custody identified inextricable links between the formal education system, child welfare practices, juvenile justice, and health and employment opportunities as contributors to the disproportionate representation of Aboriginal people in police and custodial facilities (RCIADIC 1991).

The Royal Commission also noted that changes to the operation of the criminal justice system alone will not have a significant impact on the number of Aboriginal people entering into custody. Instead, the social and economic circumstances which both predispose Aboriginal people to offend, and which explain why the criminal justice system focuses upon them, are much more significant factors in over-representation (RCIADIC 1991).

The information in this section on imprisonment and juvenile detention takes account of only one possible spectrum of Indigenous contact with the criminal justice system. By their nature, the offences which land people in prison or juvenile detention tend to be of a more serious nature. As a result, the data do not address:

- arrests that do not proceed to court (for example, as a result of diversion or restitution); and
- convictions that lead to outcomes that are not administered by custodial facilities (eg. community service orders, fines etc.).



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In contrast with imprisonment and juvenile detention, there is currently no national reporting by jurisdictions of police custody data. For Indigenous people, data on police custody (eg. for 'public drunkenness') will be explored for future reports.

The data on Indigenous imprisonment are sourced from the National Prisoner Census, the results of which are published by the ABS in the *Prisoners in Australia* publication (ABS 2003). The census is a count of all prisoners who are held in gazetted adult prisons in Australia, as at midnight on 30 June of each year. People held in juvenile institutions, psychiatric facilities or immigration custody are not included. People under 18 years are treated as juveniles in most Australian courts and are not held in custody in adult prisons, other than in exceptional circumstances. However, in Victoria and Queensland 'adult' refers to people aged 17 years and over.

The Prisoner Census provides a snapshot of the number of people in prison, and is not representative of the flow of prisoners. The majority of prisoners in the census information are serving long sentences for relatively serious offences, but the flow of offenders in and out of prisons consists primarily of people serving short sentences for relatively minor offences.

For juvenile detention, the data are sourced from the AIC publication *Statistics on Juvenile Detention in Australia: 1981 to 2002*. The data contain information on the number of young people in the custody of each jurisdiction's juvenile justice agency on the last day of each quarter. Only those juveniles detained on census night are counted, and as such, it is not necessarily representative of the actual daily average of juvenile detainees in each State and Territory.

While detailed national data are currently available on the number of young people held in juvenile detention centres at the end of each quarter, these detention data only illustrate one aspect of the juvenile justice system. The vast majority of juveniles in the care of juvenile justice agencies are not placed into detention; rather they are placed on community service orders or other types of order (Bareja and Charlton 2003).

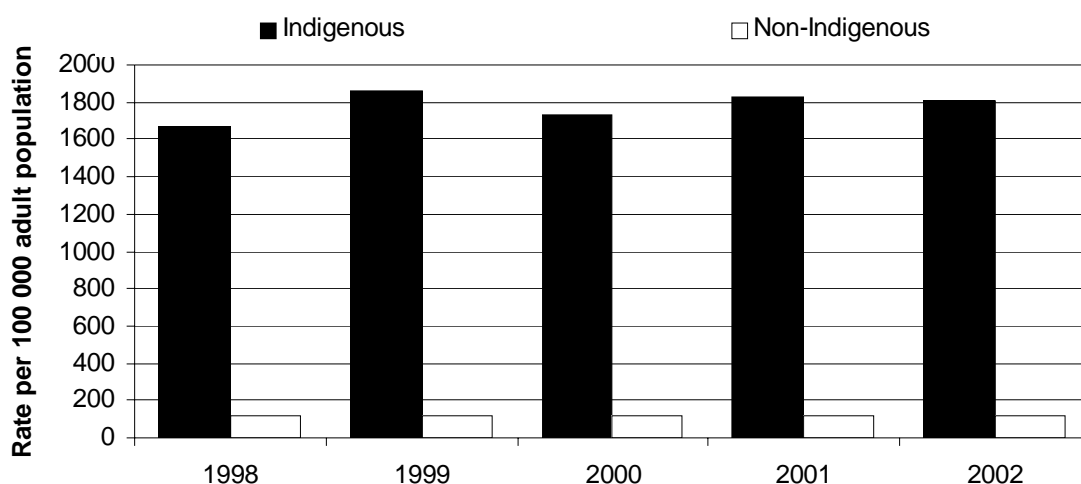
The need for more representative data on a national basis has been one of the main factors driving the development of the Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set (JJ NMDS). However, as the JJ NMDS is still being tested, it is unlikely that it will be at a stage where data can be reported and released for at least two years.

### Box 3.12.1 Key messages

- On 30 June 2002, Indigenous people were some 15 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to be in prison (figure 3.12.1).
- On 30 June 2002, around one quarter of all sentenced Indigenous prisoners had assault as their most serious offence (figure 3.12.3).
- The rate of juvenile detention has declined over the last five years (although on 30 June 2002, it was still higher for Indigenous people as a whole) (figure 3.12.4).
- Indigenous juveniles were still 19 times more likely to be detained than non-Indigenous juveniles on 30 June 2002 (figure 3.12.4).

## Imprisonment

Figure 3.12.1 Rate of imprisonment at 30 June each year



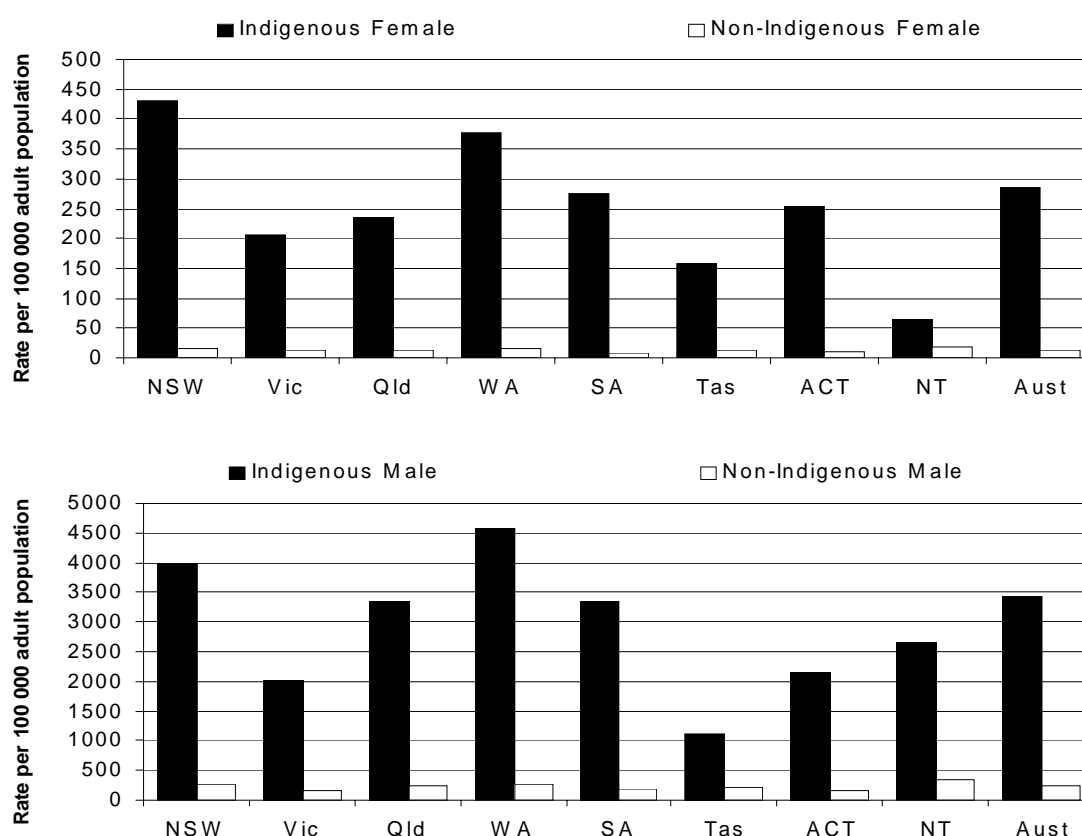
Source: ABS (2003); table 3A.12.2.

- As shown in figure 3.12.1, the rate of Indigenous imprisonment on 30 June each year fluctuated between 1998 and 2000, but has remained relatively constant over the last two years.
- On 30 June 2002, Indigenous people were 15 times more likely than non-Indigenous people to be in prison (with an imprisonment rate of 1806 prisoners per 100 000 adult Indigenous population compared with 119 for non-Indigenous prisoners) (figure 3.12.1).
- There were 4494 Indigenous prisoners in Australia at 30 June 2002 (table 3A.12.1). This accounts for 20.0 per cent of the prisoner population

(table 3A.12.3). This proportion has remained relatively constant over the 1998 to 2002 time-period as the non-Indigenous imprisonment rate also increased.

- In 2002, WA had the highest Indigenous imprisonment rate per 100 000 adult Indigenous population (2414), followed by NSW (2146). Tasmania had the lowest rate (622) (table 3A.12.2).
- While WA had the highest Indigenous imprisonment rate on 30 June 2002, this is well below the 3036 prisoners per 100 000 adult Indigenous population recorded a year earlier (a 20.5 per cent decrease compared with 9.5 per cent for the non-Indigenous population in WA) (table 3A.12.2).
- The 20.5 per cent decrease in WA, along with a 1.3 per cent decrease in the NT, outweighed the increases in all other states and the ACT, resulting in a 1.3 per cent decrease in the national Indigenous imprisonment rate over the last year.

Figure 3.12.2 Rate of imprisonment at 30 June 2002<sup>a, b</sup>

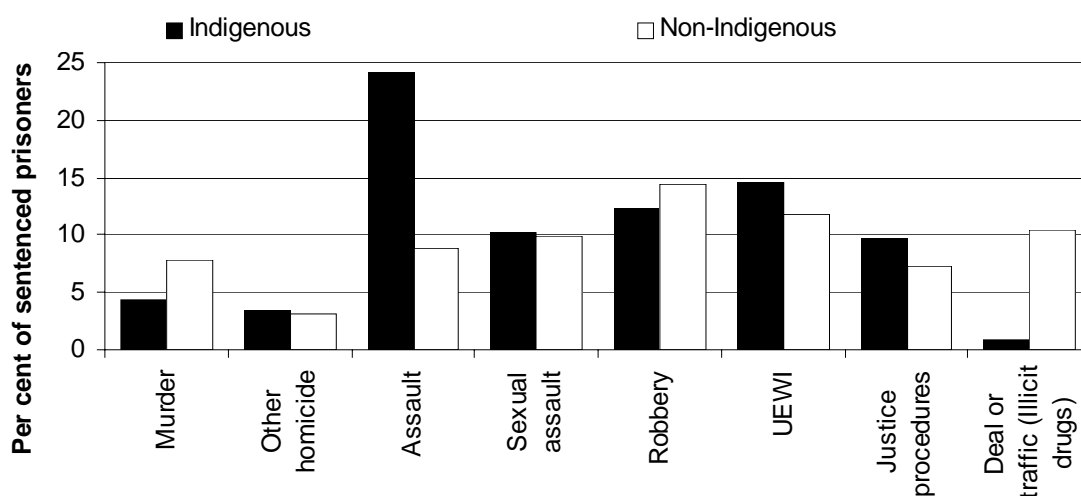


<sup>a</sup> Data for NSW exclude ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. <sup>b</sup> Data for the ACT include ACT prisoners held in the ACT as well as ACT prisoners held in NSW.

Source: ABS (2003); table 3A.12.5.

- Nationally, as at 30 June 2002, Indigenous males were 15 times more likely than non-Indigenous males to be in prison, whereas Indigenous females were 20 times more likely than non-Indigenous females to be in prison (figure 3.12.2).
- As at 30 June 2002, there were 4127 Indigenous males and 16 612 non-Indigenous males in prison (at a rate of 3441 Indigenous males and 227 non-Indigenous males per 100 000 relevant population) (tables 3A.12.4–3A.12.5).
- On the same day, there were 367 Indigenous females and 1094 non-Indigenous females in prison (at a rate of 285 Indigenous females and 14 non-Indigenous females per 100 000 relevant population) (tables 3A.12.4–3A.12.5).
- WA had the highest rate of Indigenous male imprisonment (4585 per 100 000 adult Indigenous population) and Tasmania the lowest (1121). NSW had the highest rate of Indigenous female imprisonment (430 per 100 000 adult Indigenous population) and NT the lowest (63) (figure 3.12.2).

Figure 3.12.3 **Sentenced prisoners by most serious offence, 30 June 2002<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> UEWI means 'Unlawful Entry with Intent'. <sup>b</sup> Justice procedures refers to offences against justice procedures, government security and government operations.

Source: ABS (2003); table 3A.12.6.

- The data in figure 3.12.3 provide a picture of people in prison at a point in time. The majority of prisoners in the annual prisoner census are serving long-term sentences for serious offences. It is acknowledged that an examination of the flow of offenders in and out of prison during the year, would consist primarily of people serving short sentences for lesser offences.
- Of the 3617 Indigenous sentenced prisoners, 24.2 per cent had a most serious offence of assault, over twice the proportion of the non-Indigenous sentenced prisoner population (8.9 per cent) (figure 3.12.3).

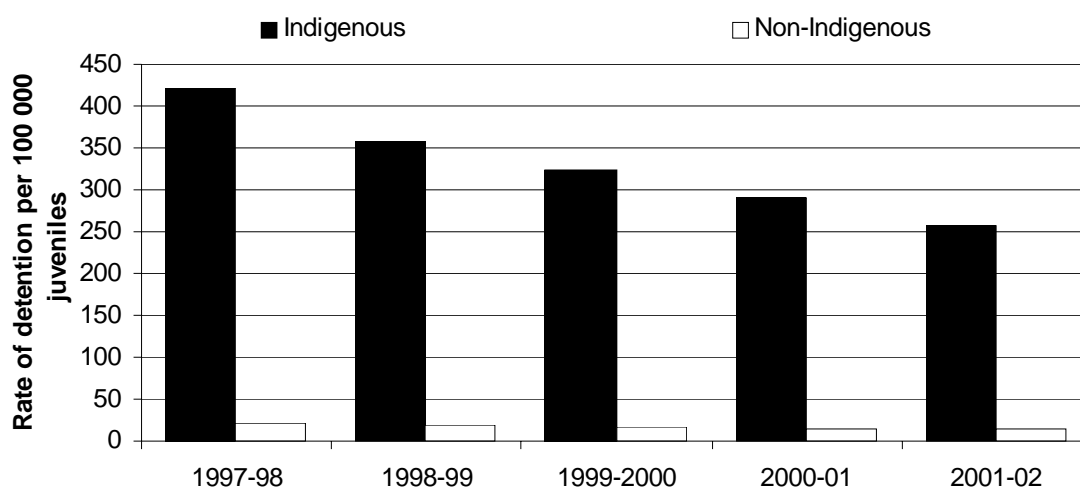
- In contrast, only 0.9 per cent of Indigenous sentenced prisoners had a most serious offence of dealing or trafficking in illicit drugs, considerably less than the non-Indigenous sentenced prisoner population (10.3 per cent) (figure 3.12.3). Data, by jurisdiction, are available from tables 3A.12.7–3A.12.8.

Table 3A.12.6 shows sentenced prisoners by most serious offence and expected time to serve (mean months). Nationally, Indigenous prisoners were expected to serve shorter sentences than the overall prisoner population in most of the selected offence categories in figure 3.12.3, but were serving longer sentences for sexual assault and offences against justice procedures. Data by jurisdiction are available in table 3A.12.9.

The rate of imprisonment, by age category, is shown in table 3A.12.10, and the mean and median age of prisoners is shown in 3A.12.11. Data by jurisdiction on the proportion of prisoners on remand (or awaiting sentencing) are contained in table 3A.12.12.

## Juvenile detention

Figure 3.12.4 **Rate of detention, per 100 000 juveniles, aged 10–17 years<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data not available from Tasmania for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people for these years. <sup>b</sup> All data are taken from the census count at 30 June of the relevant financial year.

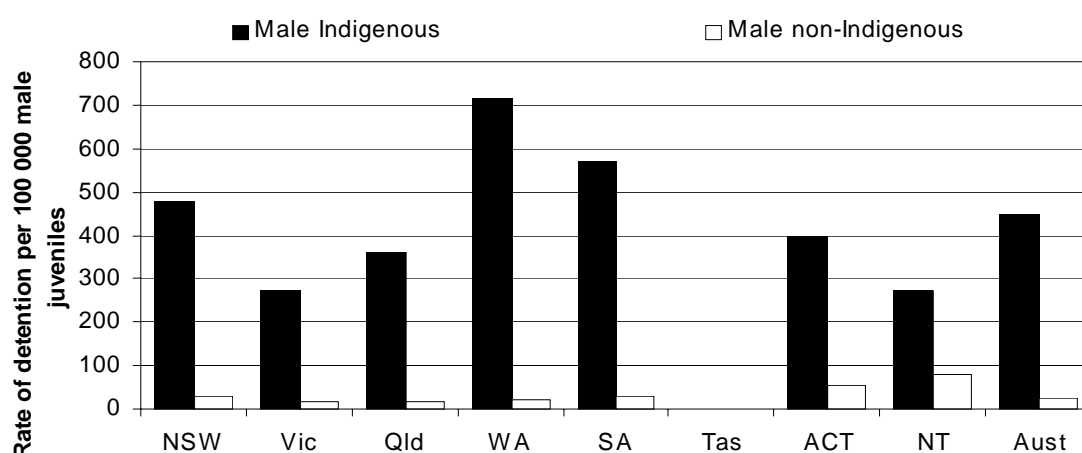
Source: Bareja and Charlton (2003); table 3A.12.14.

- The rate of detention for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous juveniles has dropped over the time-period 30 June 1998 to 30 June 2002 (figure 3.12.4).
- There were 243 Indigenous juvenile in detention and 276 non-Indigenous juveniles in detention on the 30 June 2002 (table 3A.12.13). The rate of detention among Indigenous juveniles was 256.7 per 100 000 population, while

the rate for non-Indigenous juveniles was 13.6 per 100 000 population (figure 3.12.4).

- Indigenous juveniles were approximately 19 times more likely to be detained in June 2002. This is approximately the same ratio as in June 1998. Hence, while both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous rates of detention have declined in the period, the ratio of detention has remained relatively constant.
- At 30 June 2002, WA had the highest rate of juvenile detention for Indigenous persons aged 10–17 (410.3 per 100 000 population), although the rate has fallen by 30.2 per cent over the last year. Victoria had the lowest rate of detention for Indigenous juveniles (137.2 per 100 000 population) (table 3A.12.14).
- The rates per 100 000 population can be highly variable in states and territories with: small populations of Indigenous people; small numbers of people in juvenile detention; and/or small numbers of Indigenous people in juvenile detention. This particularly applies in Victoria, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT.

**Figure 3.12.5 Rate of detention, per 100 000 male juveniles, aged 10–17 years as at 30 June 2002<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data not available from Tasmania for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people. <sup>b</sup> In Queensland and Victoria a juvenile is classified as being aged between 10–16 years of age (at the age of 17 the person is considered as an adult for custody purposes).

Source: Bareja and Charlton (2003); table 3A.12.16.

- There were 216 Indigenous males nationally in juvenile detention (table 3A.12.15). As shown in figure 3.12.5, WA had the highest rate of Indigenous male juvenile detention per 100 000 juveniles (717.6) and Victoria the lowest (270.8). The rates for NSW (based on 77 Indigenous males), Queensland (based on 50) and WA (based on 49) are more robust than for the other jurisdictions.

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- In WA, Indigenous males were approximately 36 times more likely to be detained in juvenile detention than non-Indigenous males; in Queensland it was 23 times; and in NSW it was 15 times. For each of these jurisdictions, both the number and rate of Indigenous males in juvenile detention have fallen steadily since 1998 (table 3A.12.15–3A.12.16). The high ratios identified in these jurisdictions have resulted from decreases also occurring in the rate (and number) of non-Indigenous males in juvenile detention over this period.
  - The rates of juvenile detention for Indigenous females are not shown in figure 3.12.5 as there were only 27 Indigenous females in juvenile detention nationally on 30 June 2002. Victoria and the NT had no Indigenous females in detention and the ACT had one (table 3A.12.15).

The number and rate of juveniles in detention, by age category, are shown in tables 3A.12.17–3A.12.18. Nationally, the Indigenous rate of detention was greater than the non-Indigenous rate in all age groups. Data pertaining to the proportion of juveniles who were in detention and under sentence (as opposed to being on remand) on 30 June 2002 are available in table 3A.12.19, while data on the number of people in juvenile detention (including those aged over 18 years) are available from table 3A.12.20.

### **3.13 Future directions in data**

#### **Life expectancy**

ABS is reviewing the current methodology used to estimate life expectancy of the Indigenous population and is also working to continue improving the quality of Indigenous identification in death statistics.

#### **Rates of disability and/or core activity restriction**

Currently, there are no data collected on the prevalence of disability in the Indigenous community, which is a major deficiency. The Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) Indigenous Social Survey (ISS) will provide some information on disability status and core activity restrictions (including employment and schooling restrictions) of the Indigenous population at national level. Some data will also be available by remote and non-remote areas, and by jurisdictional levels.

A new Indigenous disability network has been proposed, to promote better understanding of disability among Indigenous peoples, consultation among those responsible for service design and delivery, and cross-border coordination in some

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areas of Australia. The new network should provide advice to the AIHW and the ABS on Indigenous disability data collection (AIHW 2001).

## **Education, labour force participation, unemployment and income**

Data for post secondary education, labour force participation, unemployment and income data are largely drawn from the ABS 2001 Census. The Census is undertaken every five years. Some secondary (year 10 and 12) and post secondary 'highest level of education', labour force, unemployment and income data will be available for the next Report from the ABS 2002 ISS and 2002 General Social Survey.

The availability and reliability of data on Indigenous employment (including CDEP), income and education will be needed to improve reporting in this Report. While the annual ABS Labour Force Survey and Survey of Education and Work have an Indigenous identifier, these data are likely to be available at a national level only, if at all. The ABS Survey of Income and Housing Costs does not have an Indigenous identifier.

Improving reporting of year 12 completion rates data by including an Indigenous identifier is important to obtaining reliable nationally comparable data for future reports.

## **Home ownership**

Census and survey data on Indigenous housing tenure would be more useful if there were provision for age standardisation and separate identification of remote areas. Age standardisation would allow more meaningful comparisons between Indigenous and non-Indigenous home ownership rates. The ABS 2001 Census included all parts of Australia but did not identify the householder or home owner in each household to provide a basis for age standardisation of housing tenure. The ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey did provide age standardised data for comparing Indigenous and non-Indigenous home ownership, but did not include remote and sparsely populated areas, where a significant proportion of Indigenous people live.

## **Substantiated child protection notifications**

The substantiated child protection data have been used to give an insight into the extent of child abuse and/or neglect, and more specifically, the extent of sexual abuse. Even as a proxy indicator of sexual abuse, it is acknowledged that the



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substantiated child protection data do not adequately address the issue. More work is required in the future on developing the indicator and subsequent data set so that a clearer picture can be gained of the extent of child sexual abuse.

### **Victim rates for crime**

Currently, there is no national data collection on victimisation by Indigenous status. In order to achieve nationally comparable data on Indigenous status, the police services in the states and territories have formally agreed to provide information on Indigenous status based on the ABS Standard Indigenous Question (SIQ). This should generate more comparable information in future years.

### **Imprisonment and juvenile detention rates**

The need for more representative juvenile justice data on a national basis has been one of the main factors driving the development of the Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set (JJ NMDS). However, as that data set is still being tested, it is unlikely that it will be at a stage where data can be reported and released for at least two years.

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## 4 Strategic areas for action

### 4.1 The rationale

The seven strategic areas for action have been chosen for their potential to have a significant and lasting impact on overcoming Indigenous disadvantage. Their aim is to assist policy makers to focus on the causes of social and economic disadvantage, so that over time, improvements in the headline indicators will be achieved.

None of these areas is portfolio specific, even though their names may suggest otherwise. By way of example, although ‘Early school engagement and performance (preschool to year 3)’ suggests that policy action in the education area is the main focus, in reality, education is only one aspect of what would drive change in that area. The small set of strategic change indicators which have been chosen for that area suggest where the policy focus should be. However, actions in the other areas are also very important. Housing overcrowding, poor nutrition or hearing impediments are just some of the factors which can impact on school attendance and performance.

### 4.2 Strategic change indicators

For each of the strategic areas for action, a few key indicators have been developed with their potential amenability to government policies and programs in mind. Some aspects of the indicators are outlined briefly below.

Sitting against each strategic area for action are the strategic change indicators which have been selected as critical to overcoming Indigenous disadvantage. They have substantially satisfied the criteria (see chapter 2, p. 2.9) especially in relation to having a strong logic or evidence base, and being amenable to policy interventions.

For the most part, these are outcome indicators which are likely to reflect the collective efforts of governments and agencies. Some outputs, however, were seen

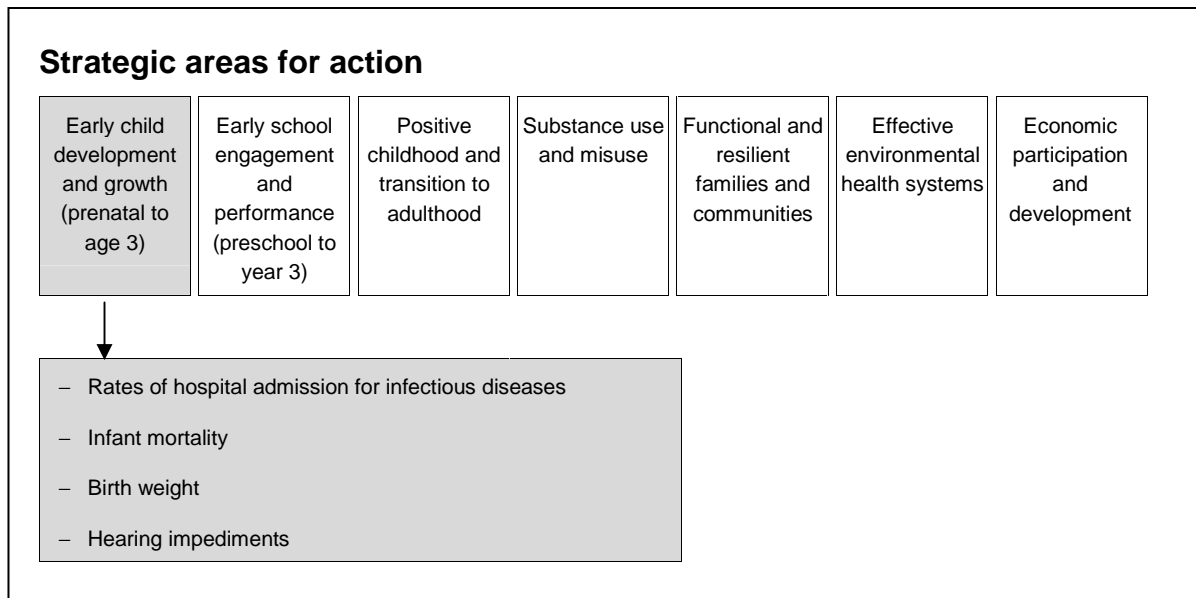
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as being so closely linked to outcomes that they could not be ignored, including: access to water, sewerage, and health professionals.

Although this framework has been developed with a view to reporting quantitative data against each indicator, it is not possible to quantify everything that matters. Key elements of the framework (for example, culture and governance) were not amenable to quantification, but have nevertheless been included in the framework. In these cases, case studies have been used with a view to being able to report more comprehensively in the future.

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## 5 Early child development and growth



Early childhood experiences have a significant influence on health and educational outcomes in later life. Research has demonstrated that health, growth and development in the first three years of life play a crucial role in later outcomes. Brain development is at its greatest to the age of three. Deprivation, stress and neglect in these early years can have significant impacts on later childhood and adult health and educational outcomes (see, for example, McCain and Mustard (1999), and Keating and Hertzman (1999)).

Low birthweight has been shown in several studies to be correlated with coronary heart disease and non-insulin dependent diabetes later in life. Small size and disproportion at birth can indicate lack of nutrients or oxygen during particular stages of pregnancy (Barker 1995; Barker et al. 2001).

Infant mortality reflects the most serious outcome of disadvantage and illness during pregnancy and infancy (the first year of life). Infants are growing rapidly and still developing immunity to diseases and are more vulnerable to many illnesses and environmental hazards than older children and adults.

Infectious diseases in early childhood can be fatal for young children. Even when they are not fatal they can affect nutrition, growth and mental stimulation at a crucial time when children are developing rapidly. Research has shown that



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negative stresses in early childhood can adversely affect child development (see McCain and Mustard for examples). Repeated infections can also lead to kidney stones and high blood pressure (DHAC 1999).

Hearing impediments in Indigenous children are often the result of recurring ear infections. Hearing impediments in early childhood may not be diagnosed until children begin to attend school and are unable to hear properly in the classroom. Deafness makes learning much more difficult for children throughout their schooling and later life and is a particular problem for children for whom English is not the first language (NTDE 1999).

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 5A.1.1). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM, which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **5.1 Rates of hospital admission for infectious diseases**

Until the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, infectious diseases were a prominent cause of death in Australia. Between 1921 and 1995, age standardised death rates from infectious diseases fell from 185 per 100 000 population to 6 per 100 000 (ABS 1997). In 2001, the death rate from certain infectious and parasitic diseases in Australia was 7.1 per 100 000 population (ABS 2002).<sup>1</sup>

Infectious diseases range in severity from minor conditions such as the common cold, to serious illnesses such as malaria and tuberculosis, which can result in death. Disease is caused by organisms such as viruses or parasitic worms, and can be transmitted directly (for example, through droplet infection) between people, or from insects and animals to people. It can also be indirectly transmitted (for example, through contaminated food or water) through the environment.

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<sup>1</sup> Certain infectious and parasitic diseases (A00-B99) are based on the International Statistical Classification of Diseases, 10<sup>th</sup> Revision (ICD-10).

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Infection can also result from the pathological growth of organisms already present in a person's body (ABS 1997).

**Box 5.1.1 Key message**

In 2001-02, the rate of hospitalisation of Indigenous children aged four years and under for infectious diseases (115.4 per 1000) was more than double the rate for non-Indigenous children (48.0 per 1000) (table 5.1.1).

The death rate from infectious diseases in 2001 for Indigenous people was 39.0 per 100 000, compared with 7.6 per 100 000 for non-Indigenous people. Death from infectious diseases was particularly high for Indigenous people residing in remote areas (table 5A.1.1).<sup>2</sup>

In Australia, many childhood diseases are generally successfully treated or prevented. The main focus of this indicator is to examine the range of infectious diseases experienced by children that result in a hospital admission.

A wide range of social, cultural, physical and economic factors influence the health of children. Health initiatives of communities and governments can assist in ensuring the health of children. These initiatives include education on the benefits of breastfeeding, good nutrition and sanitation, and by assisting in the provision of adequate housing. Preventative health actions taken by carers of young children (such as dental and immunisation services) can also influence the health of children.

Despite overall improvements in the health of most Australian children, significant inequalities still exist. Hospital separation data indicate that Indigenous children under age four account for a higher proportion of hospital admissions for infectious diseases compared with non-Indigenous children aged under four.

- In 2001-02, the hospital separation rate of children aged less than four with a principal diagnosis of infectious disease was 115.4 per 1000 for Indigenous children and 48.0 per 1000 for non-Indigenous children (table 5.1.1).

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<sup>2</sup> In examining the 2001 death statistics from the ABS, readers need to be aware that the presentation is restricted to the 'combined' data from four jurisdictions — Queensland, WA, SA and the NT. This is due to a relatively higher estimated coverage of Indigenous deaths in these jurisdictions (for more detailed discussion, see appendix 3).

**Table 5.1.1 Hospital separations with a principal diagnosis of infectious disease, for children aged less than four years, 2001-02<sup>a, b</sup>**

ICD-10-AM code and description	Separations (number)			Age specific rate (per 1000 population)	
	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	Total <sup>c</sup>	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous <sup>d</sup>
Intestinal infectious diseases (A00–A09)	2 158	14 267	16 656	46.6	15.3
Other bacterial diseases (A30–A49)	170	1 710	1 898	3.7	1.8
Whooping cough (A 37)	70	409	483	1.5	0.4
Viral infections characterised by skin and mucous membrane lesions (B00–B09)	103	1 191	1 310	2.2	1.3
Varicella (B01)	35	383	421	0.8	0.4
Other viral diseases (includes mumps, viral conjunctivitis and Ross River virus) (B25–B34)	269	6 468	6 806	5.8	6.9
Pediculosis, acariasis and other infestations (includes scabies) (B85–B89)	135	20	156	2.9	–
Acute upper respiratory infections (J00–J06)	1 062	13 834	15 084	22.9	14.8
Influenza and pneumonia (J10–J18)	1 332	6 808	8 263	28.8	7.3
Total people <sup>e, f</sup>	5 345	44 937	50 947	115.4	48.0
Total male <sup>e</sup>	2 998	25 233	28 622	118.6	52.6
Total female <sup>e</sup>	2 346	19 703	22 322	102.9	41.0

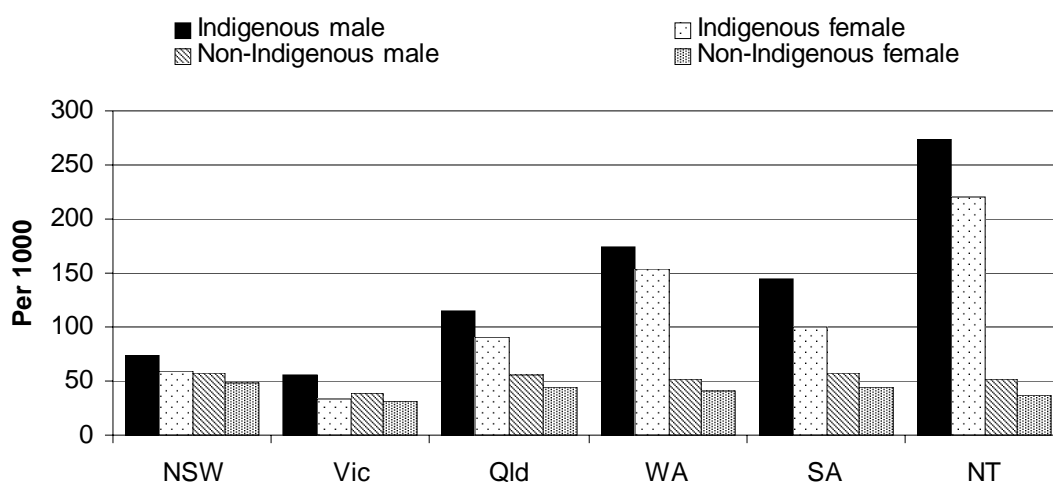
<sup>a</sup> Diseases are classified based on the ICD-10-AM code and description. <sup>b</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition). <sup>c</sup> Includes Indigenous status not stated. <sup>d</sup> Includes separations where Indigenous status was not reported. <sup>e</sup> Includes other (not identified) infectious diseases that were aggregated as their numbers were small. <sup>f</sup> Includes separations where sex was not known. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIHW National hospital morbidity database (unpublished).

- Male children, in both Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities, tend to have higher hospital separation rates than female children aged less than four.
- In 2001-02, the most common type of infectious disease hospital admission (as listed in table 5.1.1) for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous children aged below four was intestinal infectious diseases (A00–A09). The separation rate for these diseases was 46.6 per 1000 for Indigenous children aged less than four — around three times that for non-Indigenous children (which was 15.3 per 1000).
- The second most common type of infectious disease hospital admission for Indigenous children aged less than four was influenza and pneumonia (J10–J18), at 28.8 per 1000 Indigenous children aged less than four. This was nearly four times greater than the rate for non-Indigenous children aged less than four.

- Acute upper respiratory infections (J00–J06)<sup>3</sup> were the second most common type of hospital admissions for infectious diseases for non-Indigenous children aged less than four.
- Pediculosis, acariasis and other infestations (which includes scabies), ranked the sixth most common type of hospital admissions for infectious diseases for Indigenous children aged less than four, had a fairly low rate at 2.9 per 1000. For non-Indigenous children, however, the rate was virtually zero.
- In most jurisdictions, the separation rates for infectious diseases are higher for Indigenous children (male or female) aged less than four than non-Indigenous children — in Victoria, the rates for non-Indigenous males are marginally higher than for Indigenous females (figure 5.1.1).
- The difference in the hospital separation rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous children are largest in the NT, followed by WA, SA and Queensland.

**Figure 5.1.1 Hospital separation rates with a principal diagnosis of infectious disease, for children aged less than four years, 2001-02<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Diseases are classified based on the ICD-10-AM code and description. <sup>b</sup> Data presented as age specific rate per 1000. <sup>c</sup> Separations where Indigenous status was not stated are included in the non-Indigenous rates. <sup>d</sup> Data were not presented for the ACT and Tasmania due to the small number of Indigenous males and females aged less than four (less than 1000). <sup>e</sup> Data are based on jurisdiction of usual residence.

Source: AIHW (unpublished); table 5A.1.2.

<sup>3</sup> This includes the common cold, sinusitis, tonsillitis and laryngitis.

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Although this indicator concerns rates of hospital admission for infectious diseases, some analyses have also been provided on death rates from certain conditions originating in the perinatal period (table 5A.1.3). Not all these conditions would be considered as ‘infectious diseases’. However, some, especially those transmitted from mother to foetus, might be considered as infectious. The mortality data are based on the International Statistical Classification of Diseases, 10<sup>th</sup> Revision (ICD-10), which are not comparable with the hospitalisation data, which are based on ICD-10-AM (Australian Modification). In addition, the mortality rates are based on numbers from Queensland, WA, SA and the NT. Table 5A.1.3 shows that in 2001:

- the death rate for children aged 0–4 years from conditions originating in the perinatal period was much higher in the Indigenous population (322.2 per 100 000) than in the non-Indigenous population (111.4 per 100 000); and
- the death rates were higher at the 1–3 year age group compared to the under 1 year (infant) age group for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. The difference in the death rates between these two age groups, however, was much larger in the Indigenous population.

## 5.2 Infant mortality

The survival of infants in their first year of life is commonly viewed as an indicator of the general health and wellbeing of a population. A low infant mortality rate is a major contributor to increased life expectancy for a population. The dramatic decline in infant mortality rates in Australia over the 20<sup>th</sup> century (the rate of infant deaths decreased from 103 deaths per 1000 live births in 1900 to 5.3 deaths per 1000 live births in 2001) has been associated mainly with the decline of infectious diseases, along with growing preventative health measures and public health programs (ABS 1996 and 2002a).

During the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a significant share of the decline in infant mortality was associated with improvements in public sanitation and health education. By the 1940s, the development of vaccines and mass vaccination programs resulted in further gains. Improved medical technology (including improvements in neonatal intensive care) and education campaigns about the importance of immunisation, and more recently, in the case of Sudden Infant Death Syndrome, infant sleeping position, have led to further modest declines in infant deaths in the last half of the century.

**Box 5.2.1 Key message**

The Indigenous infant mortality rate during 1999–2001, at 12.7 per 1000 live births, was more than double that for all Australians (table 5.2.1).

Although Australia's average infant mortality rate of 5.4 infant deaths per 1000 live births in 1999–2001 was among the lowest in the world, the Indigenous population infant death rate was more than twice as high — 12.7 per 1000 live births.<sup>4</sup> A similar infant mortality rate was experienced by all Australians during the late 1970s.

**Table 5.2.1 Infant deaths, 1999–2001<sup>a, b</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non indigenous</i>			<i>Total<sup>c</sup></i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>People</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>People</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>People</i>
NSW									
Rate	11.0	10.8	10.9	5.3	4.3	4.8	6.0	4.8	5.4
Number	52	48	100	675	520	1 195	792	608	1 400
Vic									
Rate	10.3	12.6	11.4	5.3	4.1	4.7	5.6	4.4	5.0
Number	8	9	17	467	346	813	504	379	883
Qld									
Rate	14.4	8.9	11.7	6.0	5.2	5.6	6.4	5.4	5.9
Number	69	42	111	394	327	721	466	373	839
SA									
Rate	9.4	6.5	8.0	5.0	3.8	4.4	5.2	3.8	4.5
Number	9	6	15	127	92	219	140	99	239
WA									
Rate	17.7	15.6	16.6	4.5	2.9	3.7	5.6	3.8	4.7
Number	43	38	81	157	94	251	211	137	348
NT									
Rate	20.6	17.7	19.2	8.6	2.9	5.8	13.6	9.1	11.4
Number	49	40	89	28	9	37	77	49	126
Australia <sup>d</sup>									
Rate	13.9	11.5	12.7	5.4	4.3	4.8	6.0	4.7	5.4
Number	233	185	418	1 939	1 459	3 398	2 288	1 719	4 007

<sup>a</sup> Based on infant deaths and births over the three year reference period 1999–2001. Data needs to be interpreted with caution as the rates are derived from a relatively small number of deaths and there may be incomplete coverage of Indigenous deaths across jurisdictions. <sup>b</sup> Infant mortality rates are expressed as per 1000 live births. <sup>c</sup> Total includes Indigenous status not stated. <sup>d</sup> Australia total includes Other Territories.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

<sup>4</sup> The measures of mortality are likely to be conservative estimates as there is undercoverage of Indigenous deaths to some extent in all states and territories.

In 1999–2001, the infant mortality rate (per 1000 births) (table 5.2.1) for:

- the Indigenous population was 12.7 compared with 4.8 for the non-Indigenous population;
- males, in both the Indigenous and total Australian populations, was higher than for the females across most jurisdictions; and
- Indigenous males were highest in the NT (20.6) and WA (17.7); and the likewise for Indigenous females in the NT (17.7) and WA (15.6).

**Table 5.2.2 Infant mortality rate<sup>a</sup>**

Reference year	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Total<sup>b</sup></i>
<b>Australia<sup>c</sup></b>		
1997–1999	13.0	5.3
1998–2000	13.5	5.3
1999–2001	12.7	5.4
<b>New Zealand<sup>d</sup></b>		
1999	8.1	5.6
2000	7.8	6.1
2001	7.8	5.3
<b>USA<sup>e</sup></b>		
1996–1998	8.9	7.2

<sup>a</sup> Infant mortality rates are expressed per 1000 live births. <sup>b</sup> Total includes Indigenous status not stated.

<sup>c</sup> Based on Infant deaths and births over the three year reference period. Data need to be interpreted with caution as the rates are derived from a relatively small number of deaths and there may be incomplete coverage of Indigenous deaths across jurisdictions. <sup>d</sup> Indigenous data are for the New Zealand Maori population. <sup>e</sup> Indigenous data are for those American Indians and Alaska Natives who are eligible for Indian Health Service services. American Indian and Alaska Native rates are for the three year periods specified. Rates for the total population are for the single year in the middle of the three year reference period.

Source: ABS 2002b; ABS (unpublished).

- Infant mortality rates for the Australian Indigenous population are higher than those for Indigenous populations in New Zealand and the US (table 5.2.2).

Time series data for jurisdictions are found in table 5A.2.1. Like other data on Indigenous deaths, the ABS is reviewing these statistics and this indicator might be modified for the next Report (see appendix 3).

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## 5.3 Birthweight

A key indicator of health status is the birthweight of a baby. Infants with lower birthweights are more likely to die or have problems early in life. According to some researchers, lower birthweight might also have long-term influences on the development of chronic diseases in adulthood, including diabetes (Mackerras 1998).

Low birthweight is defined as 2500 g or less. Within this category, babies weighing less than 1500 g are considered as very low birthweight and those less than 1000 g as extremely low birthweight (AIHW 2003, p. 24). Generally, a higher share of female infants will have lower birthweights than male infants, as girls are usually lighter in weight than boys. However, female infants tend to do better than male infants of the same weight.

Low birthweight might be a result of being born early (preterm), but the infant is within the expected size range for its gestational age. Alternatively the infant may be small for its gestational age (foetal growth retardation). It can also be a combination of these two factors (ABS/AIHW 2003). In developed countries, the proportion of low birthweight babies is usually low, and mainly due to preterm delivery. According to Mackerras (1998), the high prevalence of low birthweights in Indigenous communities is likely to be due to an excess of foetal growth retardation rather than an excess of preterm delivery.

### Box 5.3.1 Key message

The proportion of live births during 1998–2000 with low birthweight was almost twice as high for Indigenous than for non-Indigenous mothers (11.9 per cent compared with 6.0 per cent) (table 5.3.2).

Predictors that might cause foetal growth retardation and preterm delivery are listed in table 5.3.1. Some predictors cannot be altered (for example, infant sex or race), others may take at least a generation to change (for example, maternal birthweight), while others might be influenced in the short-term (for example, maternal weight or cigarette smoking). Presence of multiple births can also influence an infant's birthweight (ABS/AIHW 2003).



**Table 5.3.1 Predictors of foetal growth retardation and preterm birth<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Foetal growth retardation</i>	<i>Pre-term</i>
Direct	infant sex, race/ethnic origin, maternal height, maternal height, maternal pre-pregnancy weight, paternal height and weight, maternal birthweight, parity, prior low birthweight infant, gestational weight gain, energy intake, general morbidity, malaria, maternal cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, and tobacco chewing.	maternal pre-pregnancy weight, prior preterm birth, prior spontaneous abortion, maternal cigarette smoking, in utero diethylstilboestrol exposure, maternal diabetes, urogenital infections, bacterial vaginosis, and placental, cervical or uterine abnormalities.
Indirect	very young maternal age, socio-economic status (including maternal education)	

<sup>a</sup> Excludes deliveries in women with an underlying chronic illness.

Source: Mackerras 1998.

Factors that may assist in achieving long-term goals of increasing the mean birthweight and reducing low birthweight rate include:

- increasing attendance for ante-natal care in the first trimester, which would allow for the identification and possible modification of factors that might compromise the mother's and child's health;
- introducing nutritional assessment and monitoring into prenatal care, with evaluation of their use; and
- evaluating strategies to improve maternal nutrition by increased weight gain during pregnancy (Mackerras 1998).

Having positive outcomes in perinatal mortality, and low and mean birthweights through better antenatal care for expecting mothers was supported by a study undertaken by the Nganampa Health Council on people residing in the Anangu Pitjantjatjara Lands in the far north-west of SA (ABS/AIHW 2003).

The analyses in this section are based on data provided by the AIHW National Perinatal Statistics Unit. Each jurisdiction has a perinatal data collection in which midwives and other staff, using information obtained from mothers and from hospital or other records, complete notification forms for each birth. Information on Indigenous people based on hospital records is limited by the accuracy with which Indigenous people are identified in these records (see appendix 3). Problems associated with identification will result in an understatement of births by Indigenous mothers. The perinatal statistics do not record any information about the father. Therefore, births in the Indigenous population only include those from Indigenous mothers, and do not include births to Indigenous fathers and non-Indigenous mothers. Hence, these figures underestimate the number of Indigenous births and cannot be used as a count of total Indigenous births. There are also problems with the reliability of the data from jurisdictions with small numbers

of babies born to Indigenous mothers (such as Tasmania and the ACT). Caution needs to be exercised when examining data from these jurisdictions.

**Table 5.3.2 Birthweight, by live births and foetal deaths, 1998–2000<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>Indigenous<sup>c</sup></i>	<i>Live births</i>		<i>Foetal deaths</i>		<i>Total births</i>	
Mean birthweight (grams)	3 179		1 371		3 156	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Low birthweight (<2500g)	3 101	11.9	258	76.6	3 359	12.8
Very low birthweight (<1500g)	569	2.2	212	62.9	781	3.0
Extremely low birthweight (<1000g)	276	1.1	177	52.5	453	1.7
All births	25 970		337		26 307	
<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Live births</i>		<i>Foetal deaths</i>		<i>Total births</i>	
Mean birthweight (grams)	3 382		1 432		3 369	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Low birthweight (<2500g)	44 503	6.0	3 715	74.7	48 218	6.5
Very low birthweight (<1500g)	7 519	1.0	2 971	59.7	10 490	1.4
Extremely low birthweight (<1000g)	3 261	0.4	2 588	52.0	5 849	0.8
All births	738 721		4 974		743 695	
<i>All births</i>	<i>Live births</i>		<i>Foetal deaths</i>		<i>Total births</i>	
Mean birthweight (grams)	3 375		1 428		3 362	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Low birthweight (<2500g)	47 604	6.2	3 973	74.8	51 577	6.7
Very low birthweight (<1500g)	8 088	1.1	3 183	59.9	11 271	1.5
Extremely low birthweight (<1000g)	3 537	0.5	2 765	52.1	6 302	0.8
All births	764 691		5 311		770 002	

<sup>a</sup> Birthweight is collected at birth and includes stillbirths of 20 weeks or greater gestation. <sup>b</sup> Data are presented in a three year grouping due to small numbers from year to year. <sup>c</sup> Data on Indigenous births relate to babies born to Indigenous mothers only, and excludes babies born to non-Indigenous mothers and Indigenous fathers. Thus, the information is not based on the total count of Indigenous babies.

Source: AIHW National Perinatal Statistics Unit (unpublished); table 5A.3.1.

The following analyses are based on table 5.3.2. The data on Indigenous babies relate to babies born to Indigenous mothers only, and excludes babies born to non-Indigenous mothers and Indigenous fathers. During 1998–2000:

- there was a total of 764 691 live births in Australia, of which 96.6 per cent were babies born to non-Indigenous mothers and 3.4 per cent were babies born to Indigenous mothers;
- 6.2 per cent of all live births had low birthweight (<2500g) compared with 74.8 per cent of all foetal deaths (with low birthweight);
- 1.3 per cent of Indigenous births, compared with 0.7 per cent of non-Indigenous births, were foetal deaths;

- 
- of those foetuses that died, just over half — for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous mothers — had extremely low birthweights;
  - the mean birthweight of live births was 3179g for Indigenous babies, compared with 3382g for non-Indigenous babies— a difference of 203g; and
  - the proportion of live births with low birthweight born to Indigenous mothers was almost twice that of non-Indigenous mothers (11.9 per cent compared with 6.0 per cent). Further, the proportion of Indigenous babies with very low and extremely low birthweights (2.2 and 1.1 per cent respectively) was higher than for non-Indigenous babies (1.0 and 0.4 per cent).

Across jurisdictions, there was little variation in the proportion of live births with low birthweight for babies born to non-Indigenous mothers, as compared with babies born to Indigenous mothers (table 5A.3.1). The ACT and the NT had the highest proportions of low birthweight babies born to non-Indigenous mothers (around 7 per cent each). South Australia and the ACT (although the ACT data were based on a small number of births) had the highest proportions of low birthweight babies born to Indigenous mothers — around 16 per cent each (table 5A.3.1).

## 5.4 Hearing impediments

Hearing impediments are more common in Indigenous than non-Indigenous people. According to OATSIH (2001), otitis media (or middle ear infection) is the main cause of hearing problems faced by Indigenous children, and may exist even through adulthood. Repeated middle ear infections in early childhood can lead to ‘glue ear’, hearing problems, and subsequent learning difficulties at school.

To a large extent, otitis media is preventable and treatable. A surgical procedure (myringotomy) can be performed to assist in restoring hearing. This is achieved by releasing the fluid that builds up in the middle ear (NSW DoH 2002).

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**Box 5.4.1 Key messages**

- Due to data deficiencies, particularly for the age category 0–3 years, it is difficult to assess nationally the level of ear infections and the extent of hearing loss across Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.
- In 2001, an estimated 9 per cent of Indigenous children aged 0–4 years suffered from long-term diseases of the ear and mastoid, compared with 4 per cent for non-Indigenous children.
- In 2001-02, hospital admissions for suppurative and unspecified otitis media were significantly higher for Indigenous children aged 0–3 (6.1 per 1000) than non-Indigenous children aged 0–3 (4.2 per 1000) (table 5.4.2).

Although the true burden of hearing loss on the Indigenous population is unclear, based on various studies on hearing loss and surveys assessing the severity of ear infections in Indigenous populations, it is likely that hearing impediments can substantially impact on the developmental future of Indigenous children (OATSIH 2001).

At a national level, it is difficult to assess the level of ear infections and the extent of hearing loss across Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. There have been a number of audiometric surveys conducted in urban, rural and remote Indigenous communities. The difference in methodology across these surveys, however, makes it implausible to develop a comprehensive picture of the extent of hearing loss across population groups.

Most surveys have reported much higher prevalence of hearing loss in Indigenous children compared with non-Indigenous children. The 1994 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey found that of the 15 700 Indigenous people surveyed, ‘hearing problem’ was reported as one of the most common long-term conditions. Other surveys have reported that 30 to 80 per cent of Indigenous school aged children suffer significant hearing loss. By the time adulthood is reached, hearing loss can be present in up to 70 per cent of Indigenous people (OATSIH 2001).

The ABS National Health Survey (NHS) found that in 2001, 11 per cent of Indigenous children aged 0–14 years had long-term diseases of the ear and mastoid, compared with 5 per cent for non-Indigenous children aged 0–14 years. In the 0–4 year age group, 9 per cent of Indigenous children (compared with 4 per cent for non-Indigenous children) suffered from long-term diseases of the ear and mastoid (ABS 2002). The NHS also found that of those children aged 0–14 years suffering from long term hearing problems, Indigenous children were more likely to have otitis media (21 per cent) than non-Indigenous children (10 per cent). Also,

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39 per cent of Indigenous children (aged 0–14 years) with long term hearing problems had hearing loss or partial deafness compared to 30 per cent of non-Indigenous children aged 0–14 years (table 5A.4.1).

Some of the findings of studies conducted on infants and children aged 0–4 include:

- otitis media with effusion was found in 95 per cent of 6–8 week old Indigenous infants, compared with 30 per cent among non-Indigenous infants;
- prevalence of a ‘type B tympanograms’ hearing condition in 0–4 year olds in three Indigenous communities in WA ranged from 40 to 52 per cent;
- eleven per cent of infants aged less than six months, 43 per cent aged 7–12 months and 30 per cent at 13–24 months in the NT had tympanic membrane perforations; and
- fifty out of 75 NT children followed from the first six months of their life had experienced at least one perforated eardrum by 12 months of age (OATSIH 2001).

Identifying risk factors for otitis media might increase the chances for early prevention and intervention. Some of the possible risk factors include:

- relatively higher bacterial colonisation in Indigenous infants, which is strongly correlated with the onset of middle ear effusion (this tended to occur within the first 12 weeks of life in 66 per cent of Indigenous infants). No correlation is found between colonisation and the onset of otitis media in non-Indigenous infants. Further, once established, it is significantly less likely for an Indigenous infant compared with a non-Indigenous infant to clear the bacterial pathogens. The early bacterial colonisation in Indigenous infants might be linked to the fact that Indigenous communities are more exposed to factors such as greater number of siblings in an overcrowded household, which increases the risk factors for bacterial colonisation and acute otitis media;
- some studies have found a link between the early first onset of otitis media and the increased risk of recurrent infections, that is, ‘early and often appears to be the rule’. Indigenous infants tend to persistently have acute otitis media and other ear infections that are rarely resolved;
- infection of acute otitis media in family members may significantly increase the risk of ear infection, especially in children. Infections through family members relate to family size and also the number of people in a household (overcrowding) which can influence the transmission of the disease;
- although few studies have evaluated this relationship, malnutrition in Indigenous children might be associated with development of chronic otitis media; and

- high rates of smoking within the Indigenous population might contribute to the prevalence of otitis media among Indigenous children.

**Table 5.4.1 Persons with long term hearing problem: type of ear/hearing problem, by age standardised proportions, 2001 (per cent)**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>
	<i>Remote</i>	<i>Non-remote</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Total</i>
Type of ear/hearing problem				
Deafness in 1 ear/total deafness <sup>a</sup>	12	8	9	10
Hearing loss/partially deaf	61	64	63 <sup>a</sup>	65 <sup>a</sup>
Otitis media	15	1 <sup>a</sup>	5	1
Other <sup>b</sup>	17	31	28 <sup>a</sup>	29 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Total<sup>c, d</sup></b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

<sup>a</sup> The row or individual figure should be viewed with caution as the differences in proportions were found to be not statistically significant. <sup>b</sup> Includes tinnitus and Meniere's disease/syndrome. <sup>c</sup> Includes 'Type of ear/hearing problem' not known. <sup>d</sup> Components may not add to total as persons may have more than one type of ear/hearing problem.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

- For those who do suffer from hearing problems, there were little differences in the types of hearing diseases suffered by Indigenous and non-Indigenous people — although the largest difference was for otitis media (5 per cent for Indigenous people and 1 per cent for non-Indigenous people) (table 5.4.1).

**Table 5.4.2 Age specific separations where the principal diagnosis was diseases of the ear and mastoid process, 2001-02<sup>a</sup>**

<i>Principal diagnosis</i>	<i>Indig.</i>	<i>Non</i>	<i>Not</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Indig.</i>	<i>Non-</i>
	<i>no.</i>	<i>-Indig.</i>	<i>stated</i>		<i>per 1000</i>	<i>Indig.<sup>b</sup></i>
		<i>no.</i>	<i>no.</i>	<i>no.</i>		<i>per 1000</i>
People aged 0–3 years						
Diseases of external ear (H60–H62)	19	200	13	232	0.4	0.2
Diseases of middle ear and mastoid (H65–H75)	527	12 237	720	13 484	11.0	13.3
suppurative and unspecified otitis media (H66)	292	3 898	169	4 359	6.1	4.2
Diseases of inner ear (H80–H83)	–	19	–	19	na	–
Other disorders of ear (H90–H95)	24	521	12	557	0.5	0.5
People aged 4–14 years						
Diseases of external ear (H60–H62)	24	604	40	668	0.2	0.2
Diseases of middle ear and mastoid (H65–H75)	767	15 008	862	16 637	5.9	5.6
suppurative and unspecified otitis media (H66)	219	2 929	172	3 320	1.7	1.1
Diseases of inner ear (H80–H83)	–	51	0	51	na	–
Other disorders of ear (H90–H95)	36	386	12	434	0.3	0.1

<sup>a</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition). <sup>b</sup> Includes separations where Indigenous status was not reported. **na** Not available. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIHW National hospital morbidity database (unpublished).

Table 5.4.2 highlights the 2001-02 hospital separation data for diseases of the ear and mastoid process for 0–3 and 4–14 year olds. Hospital separation data only reflect those who access medical services, and have been diagnosed and admitted to hospital for the specified condition. Therefore, when examining hospital statistics on ear and hearing problems, one needs to be aware that only ear or hearing related illness resulting in admission to a hospital are collected. Cases that result in a visit to a general practitioner or to an emergency department, but do not get admitted to a hospital, are excluded. Further, cases that do not result in a visit to a medical service at all are not included in this data set. This is likely to account for a large share of 0–3 year olds, especially in Indigenous communities, where parents may not be aware of the fact that their children have a ear or hearing problem.

Based on table 5.4.2:

- the most common separation (for both population and age groups) was for middle ear and mastoid diseases;
- non-Indigenous 0–3 year olds separation rate for middle ear and mastoid diseases was higher than the Indigenous 0–3 year olds (13.3 per 1000 compared with 11.0 per 1000);

- 
- separation rate for middle ear and mastoid diseases was slightly higher for the 4–14 year old Indigenous children (5.9 per 1000) than for 4–14 year old non-Indigenous children (5.6 per 1000); and
  - separation rate for suppurative and unspecified otitis media was comparatively higher for Indigenous children in both the 0–3 and 4–14 year age groups.

## **5.5 Future directions in data**

### **Hospital admission, birthweight and infant mortality data**

A key data quality issue with administrative collections such as hospital records and birth and death registrations, is the identification of Indigenous people. Although national standards were introduced in 1998 and there have been significant efforts to improve Indigenous health data, data for Indigenous people can still be patchy in its quality and completeness.

With mortality data, Queensland, WA, SA and the NT are generally considered to have the best coverage of death registrations for Indigenous people (that is, the number of Indigenous deaths registered, expressed as a percentage of the number of deaths expected based on Census-based population data). The remaining jurisdictions need to improve the level of registered Indigenous deaths. The ABS and AIHW, in partnership with State and Territory authorities, are making efforts to improve the completeness of Indigenous identification in a number of key data collections.

A limitation of birthweight data is that they are based on an underestimate of Indigenous births because the data relate to babies born to Indigenous mothers only. Babies born to non-Indigenous mothers, but who have Indigenous fathers, are not considered in this collection. The collection needs to be improved to include all babies for whom at least one parent is Indigenous.

### **Hearing impediments**

The true burden of hearing loss on the Indigenous population is unclear. Comprehensive, up-to-date data need to be collected to enable the assessment of the type and severity of ear infections in the Indigenous population.



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## 5.6 References

### 5 Early child development and growth (prenatal to age 3)

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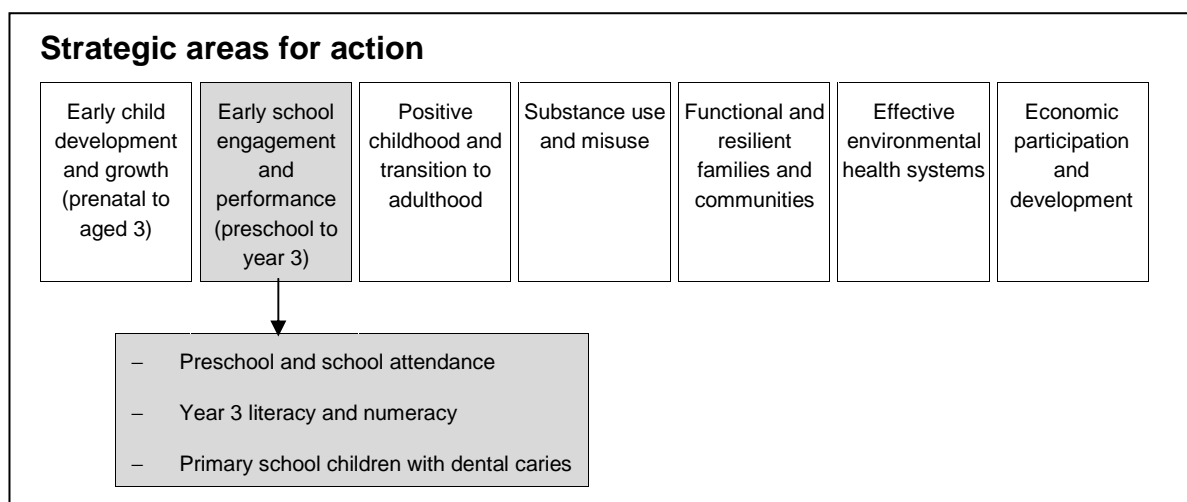
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## 6 Early school engagement and performance (preschool to year 3)



Introducing children to formal learning as early as possible has an impact on later achievement (HREOC 2000; Press and Hayes 2001; Raban 2000; Wylie 1994, 2001). Children who are already ahead of their peers during the early years of schooling will increase their advantage as school years pass (Wylie 1994, 2001).

Research shows that children who are likely to experience learning difficulties often have hearing, nutritional or other health problems (Bourke, Rigby and Burden 2000; DEST 2002; MCEETYA 2001; NTDE 1999; Press and Hayes 2001). As previously mentioned, 30 to 80 per cent of Indigenous school aged children suffer significant hearing loss (see section 5.4). Hearing loss in school aged children has a life long impact, as it occurs during speech and language development (WHO 2000). Poor dental health can cause impaired speech and may affect language development (ABS/AIHW 2001). The level of tooth decay in Indigenous children is higher than in non-Indigenous children.

Research indicates that children from low income families tend to have lower scores in learning outcomes (Raban 2000; Wylie 1994, 2001). This correlation between low income families and learning outcomes is apparent for Indigenous people. Indigenous household income is significantly lower than that of the non-Indigenous population (see section 3.6) and Indigenous students continue to be the most educationally disadvantaged student group in Australia (see sections 3.3 and 3.4).

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Wylie (1994, 2001) indicates that children from low-income families are disadvantaged in learning outcomes because of lower levels of maternal education, which leads to fewer experiences of the kind which use and extend language and mathematics use (Wylie 1994, 2001). Education experts believe that the more chance children have to develop literacy at home, the better they will do at school. This means providing as many opportunities as possible for children to develop reading and writing skills, making it clear that these are important activities in everyday life. Also, encouraging children, even when what they are doing is far from accurate, will help them towards literacy.

Ensuring that Indigenous children begin formal learning as early as possible, are less absent from school, and are safe, healthy and supported by their family and community will go a long way to improving educational outcomes. It follows that there is a shared responsibility between families, communities and government in ensuring the successful development of Indigenous children during the early years of life.

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 6A.2.3). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **6.1 Preschool and school attendance**

Participation in early childhood education provides young children with opportunities to reach developmental milestones through social interaction. Early socialisation and learning activities facilitate cognitive development. Impeding this developmental process may lead to future literacy and numeracy difficulties.

Learning outcomes during the early years of schooling may be a significant determinant in future education results (HREOC 2000; MCEETYA 2001a). A critical factor in ensuring improvements in Indigenous learning outcomes is attendance (MCEETYA 2001b). This indicator examines preschool attendance and school attendance for years 1–3.

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**Box 6.1.1 Key message**

In 2002, the early school participation rate was lower for Indigenous children than for other children (figure 6.1.1).

Comparable attendance data for preschool and school students in years 1–3 were unavailable for this Report. Participation rates have been used as a proxy measure of attendance in this year's Report. Although there have been studies which indicate that there are areas of rural and remote Australia with no access to early childhood education (ANAO 2002; HREOC 2000; NTDE 1999), the impact of remoteness on preschool and school attendance was not explored in this Report, as data are not available by geographic regions.

## **Preschool attendance**

The preschool participation rate is the number of children who were enrolled at preschool in 2002, expressed as a proportion of the relevant population group in the community. There are limitations with these data because the number of children in the relevant age groups was derived from the Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001 Estimated Resident Population (ABS 2001 ERP). There is a one year gap between the enrolment number data and the population data and as such results need to be viewed with care. Nevertheless, participation rates are more useful than enrolment numbers to indicate the proportion of Indigenous children being introduced to formal learning at an early age.

The number of children enrolled in preschool in 2002 was based on the National Indigenous Preschool Census (NIPC). The definition of preschool used by the NIPC included kindergarten, pre-primary and Child Parent Centre. Children enrolled in Year One Minus One (or Pre-Year One) were considered to be in primary school rather than preschool.<sup>1</sup> Data on total preschool enrolments by jurisdiction, sector and Indigenous status were available, and in 2002 Indigenous students represented 4.0 per cent of all preschool enrolments (table 6A.1.1). However, there are no specific age group data for non-Indigenous students that could be used as a comparator in table 6.1.1.

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<sup>1</sup> Prior to 2001 children in Year One Minus One (Pre-year One) were included in the NIPC.

**Table 6.1.1 Indigenous children enrolled in preschool and participation rate, 2002<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup>**

	<i>Three year olds</i>		<i>Four year olds</i>		<i>Five year olds</i>	
	<i>no.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>no.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>no.</i>	<i>%</i>
NSW	888	24.1	1 441	39.1	345	9.2
Vic	26	3.5	323	43.9	181	25.1
Qld	242	7.2	405	11.5	216	6.1
WA	317	18.6	1 462	88.8	96	5.5
SA	417	64.8	584	92.8	34	5.1
Tas	–	–	118	27.1	131	31.8
ACT	5	4.6	39	41.1	39	36.1
NT	291	23.9	911	66.5	218	15.1
Australia	2 186	18.3	5 283	43.6	1 260	10.1

<sup>a</sup> The participation rate was calculated using ABS 2001 ERP. <sup>b</sup> Enrolment numbers and participation rates are affected by a number of factors when disaggregated by age. Three year old numbers are affected by preschool entrance requirements and availability of preschool places – if there is a shortage of preschool places they are likely to be reserved for children in their year immediately before primary school. Five year old numbers are affected by whether it is possible for children to attend primary school at that age. <sup>c</sup> A small number of two year olds may be in the three year olds category and a small number of six year olds may be in the five year olds category. <sup>d</sup> Australian totals exclude other territories. <sup>e</sup> Queensland students are on average six months younger and have 10 months less formal schooling than their interstate counterparts. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: DDA 2002; ABS 2001 ERP.

- Table 6.1.1 shows that in 2002, the national participation rate for Indigenous three year olds was 18.3 per cent, for four year olds it was 43.6 per cent and for five year olds it was 10.1 per cent.
- Indigenous preschool participation rates for four year olds was highest in SA (92.8 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (11.5 per cent) (table 6.1.1).

### School attendance (year 1 to year 3)

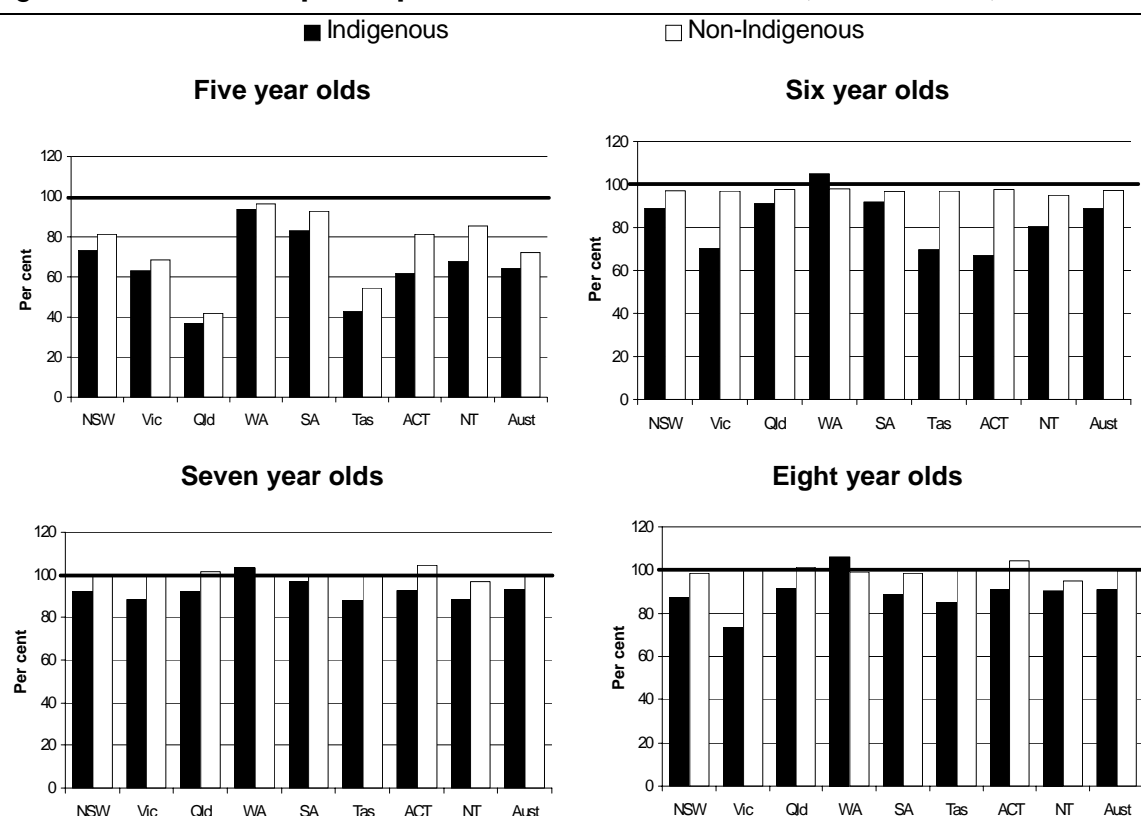
Participation rates for five to eight year olds were used as a proxy measure of school attendance for students in pre-year 1 to year 3. The participation rate is calculated by dividing the number of children who were enrolled at school in 2002 by the number of children in the relevant age group in the community. Care needs to be taken in interpreting the participation rates presented in this section because there is a one year gap between the enrolment number data and the population data. Consequently, some estimates of participation were clearly inconsistent, being greater than 100 per cent.

However, participation rates are more useful than enrolment numbers to indicate the proportion of Indigenous children being introduced to school. In interpreting these data, readers may wish to note that the age of compulsory schooling differs among

jurisdictions.<sup>2</sup> This subtle difference may affect the school participation rate of five years olds. For example, a low five year old school participation rate may indicate poor participation in education or that five year olds are in preschool.

The number of children enrolled in primary school in 2002 was based on the National Schools Statistics Collection (NSSC). The NSSC considered students enrolled in Year One Minus One (or Pre-Year One) to be in primary school.

**Figure 6.1.1 School participation of full time students, all schools, 2002<sup>a, b, c</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The participation rate was calculated using the NSSC and the ABS 2001 ERP. <sup>b</sup> There is a one year gap between the enrolment number data and the population data. Consequently, some estimates of participation were clearly inconsistent, being greater than 100 per cent, and as such these results should be viewed with care. <sup>c</sup> Queensland students are on average six months younger and have 10 months less formal schooling than their interstate counterparts.

Source: ABS (unpublished); ABS 2001 ERP; table 6A.1.2; table 6A.1.3.

<sup>2</sup> Children in NSW are required to be enrolled in primary school by the sixth birthday but may begin formal schooling if they turn five by 31 July of that year. Compulsory schooling in Victoria begins at the age of five. In Queensland, children must reach their fifth birthday on or before 31 December in the year prior to the commencement of year 1. In WA, it is compulsory for a child to be enrolled at a school in the year that they have turned six. The age of compulsory schooling in SA is six years old. The compulsory schooling age in Tasmania is six years old. Children who turn five years old by 30 April are required to be enrolled in primary school in the ACT. Compulsory schooling age in the NT is five years old.



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- Figure 6.1.1 shows that across jurisdictions, non-Indigenous children were generally more likely to be involved in the primary school education system.
  - Nationally, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation was 1.1 for five to eight year olds (table 6A.1.2).

## 6.2 Year 3 literacy and numeracy

This indicator has been included because the level of achievement in the early years of schooling has major implications for retention and attainment in later years. Children who are already behind in year 3 are less likely to remain in the education system beyond the compulsory age. Successful achievement at school is one factor that influences future employment options (MCEETYA 2001a) and overall wellbeing as an individual within a community. Success at school cannot be achieved without attaining the minimum acceptable standard in reading, writing and numeracy (MCEETYA 2001b). During consultations, Indigenous people stressed the importance they attach to their children attaining such standards as a condition of reducing disadvantage.

Indigenous primary school students have significantly lower literacy and numeracy achievement than non-Indigenous students. National literacy and numeracy benchmarks highlight this disparity, with significantly lower proportions of Indigenous students achieving the minimum acceptable standards.

### Box 6.2.1 Key message

Indigenous primary school students in 2001 had significantly lower literacy and numeracy achievement than non-Indigenous students.

In March 1997, national benchmarks for use in reporting years 3, 5 and 7 students' reading, writing and numeracy performance were developed. These benchmarks describe the nationally agreed minimum acceptable standard in the aforementioned areas of study at particular year levels. That is, a student who does not achieve the benchmark standard will have difficulty making sufficient progress at school.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting the learning outcomes data, because differences in student achievement may sometimes be the result of sampling or measurement error. To assist with interpretation, 95 per cent confidence intervals are presented. For example, a result of 80 with a confidence interval of  $\pm 2$  means there is a 95 per cent chance that, if all students were tested, the result would be between 78 and 82.

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This Report presents 2001 data for year 3 reading, writing and numeracy and, as data for year 3 writing were not previously available, results for 1999 and 2000 are also included, see tables 6A.2.8, 6A.2.9, 6A.2.10, 6A.2.11 and 6A.2.12.

There is a range of comparability issues associated with the benchmarks that are being investigated by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs. Work has been endorsed to improve several issues including the benchmarking equating methodology, to implement nationally consistent criteria for defining exempt students and to improve the process for calculating the known forms of error in reporting the national benchmarks. Until work to resolve comparability is completed there will continue to be national comparability issues associated with the benchmark data. For factors which limit the national comparability of the benchmark results see appendix 3.

## Reading

Table 6.2.1 **Proportion of year 3 students who achieved the reading benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>State/Territory 1 Average age <sup>c</sup> 2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup></i>	<i>All students</i>	<i>Male students</i>	<i>Female students</i>	<i>Indigenous students <sup>e</sup></i>	<i>LBOTE students <sup>e</sup></i>
NSW	91.3	89.7	92.9	79.2	91.4
1. 8yrs 9mths	± 1.8	± 2.4	± 1.6	± 4.5	± 1.9
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	89.0	86.5	91.4	64.3	86.0
1. 9yrs 0mths	± 2.2	± 2.7	± 2.1	± 5.3	± 2.7
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Queensland	89.0	87.1	91.5	71.6	87.4
1. 8yrs 3mths	± 2.5	± 3.0	± 2.2	± 5.1	± 2.9
2. 2yrs 8mths					
WA	95.0	93.9	96.1	83.5	94.5
1. 8yrs 2mths	± 1.5	± 1.9	± 1.4	± 5.1	± 1.8
2. 2yrs 7mths					
SA	87.7	85.0	90.4	61.7	84.5
1. 8yrs 6mths	± 2.5	± 3.0	± 2.3	± 5.9	± 2.6
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	95.1	93.8	96.4	92.6	96.0
1. 9yrs 2mths	± 1.3	± 1.7	± 1.2	± 3.4	± 2.5
2. 3yrs 7mths					
ACT	95.1	93.2	97.1	89.8	92.4
1. 8yrs 10mths	± 0.8	± 1.3	± 0.7	± 4.9	± 2.0
2. 3yrs 6mths					
NT	68.0	64.1	72.3	29.2	34.7
1. 8yrs 8mths	± 2.2	± 2.9	± 2.7	± 3.3	± 3.6
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Australia	90.3	88.4	92.3	72.0	88.6
	± 2.0	± 2.6	± 1.9	± 4.8	± 2.3

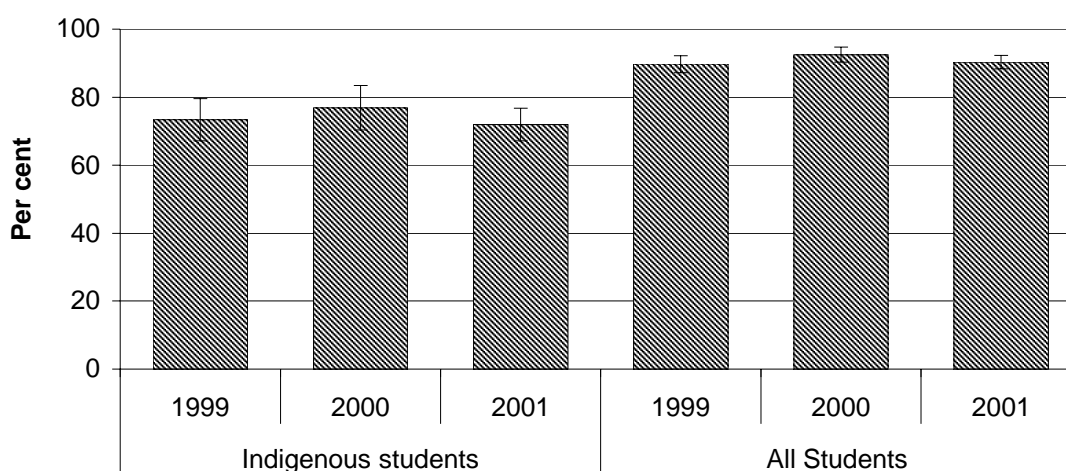
<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.2 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.1 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.1 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and language background other than English (LBOTE) students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.3 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 6.2.1 shows the proportion of year 3 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2001. For further information and caveats to table 6.2.1, see tables 6A.2.1, 6A.2.2 and 6A.2.3.

- In all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 3 reading benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students.
- Nationally, 28.0 per cent of Indigenous students did not achieve the reading benchmark compared to 9.7 per cent of all students.
- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the reading benchmark was highest in Tasmania (92.6 per cent) and lowest in the NT (29.2 per cent).
- In the NT the learning outcomes of remote Indigenous students may effect the Territory's reading benchmark achievement. In 1999, the proportion of Indigenous students in the NT who achieved the year 3 reading benchmark was 29.7 per cent (SCRCSSP 2001). In remote areas, only 3 to 4 per cent of Indigenous students achieved the national reading benchmark in 1999 (ANAO 2002). The effect of remoteness in other jurisdictions is not known, as data are unavailable.

Figure 6.2.1 **Proportion of year 3 Indigenous students who achieved the reading benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 6A.2.4.

- Figure 6.2.1 shows that from 1999 to 2001 there was no clear trend in the national proportion of year 3 Indigenous students achieving the reading benchmark. In each of these years the gap between Indigenous students and all students was similar.

## Writing

Table 6.2.2 Proportion of year 3 students who achieved the writing benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>

State/Territory 1 Average age <sup>c</sup> 2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup>	All students	Male students	Female students	Indigenous students <sup>e</sup>	LBOTE students <sup>e</sup>
NSW	89.9	87.0	92.7	73.1	89.3
1. 8yrs 9mths	± 2.9	± 3.8	± 2.4	± 6.2	± 3.0
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	94.7	93.1	96.2	78.2	92.9
1. 9yrs 0mths	± 1.7	± 2.4	± 1.4	± 4.0	± 2.1
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Queensland	85.4	81.1	90.5	68.4	83.8
1. 8yrs 3mths	± 1.9	± 2.6	± 1.6	± 3.4	± 2.1
2. 2yrs 8mths					
WA	84.3	80.0	88.8	54.7	83.7
1. 8yrs 2mths	± 2.5	± 3.2	± 2.3	± 4.9	± 2.8
2. 2yrs 7mths					
SA	88.4	84.9	91.9	60.5	84.8
1. 8yrs 6mths	± 2.5	± 3.3	± 2.2	± 6.2	± 2.9
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	91.8	88.7	94.9	89.4	90.2
1. 9yrs 2mths	± 1.6	± 2.2	± 1.4	± 3.9	± 3.9
2. 3yrs 7mths					
ACT	93.3	90.7	96.1	87.4	90.4
1. 8yrs 10mths	± 1.3	± 1.9	± 1.0	± 6.2	± 2.5
2. 3yrs 6mths					
NT	79.1	75.8	82.5	48.4	51.1
1. 8yrs 8mths	± 2.7	± 3.4	± 2.7	± 4.9	± 4.4
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Australia	89.5	86.4	92.7	67.8	88.5
	± 2.3	± 3.0	± 1.9	± 4.9	± 2.7

<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.6 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.5 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.5 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.7 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

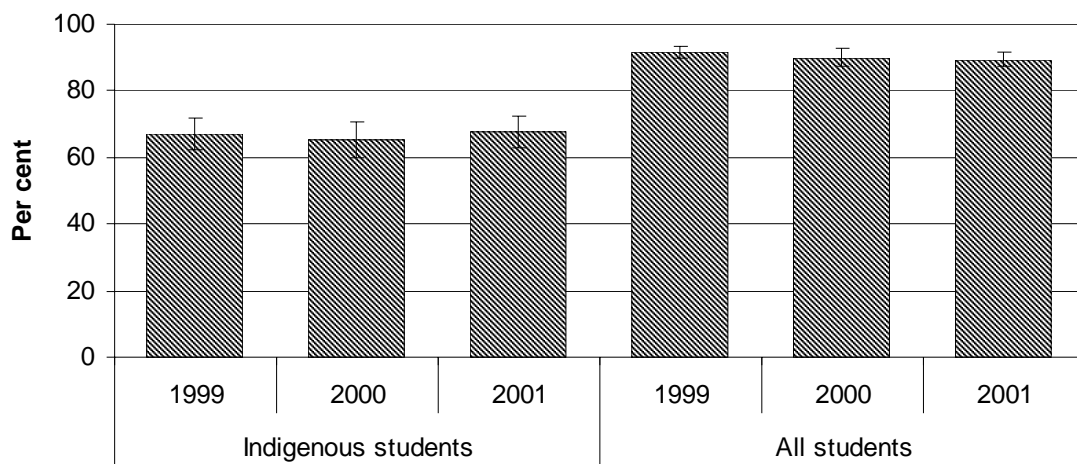
Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 6.2.2 shows the proportion of year 3 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 2001. For the proportion of year 3 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 1999 and 2000 see tables 6A.2.8, 6A.2.9, 6A.2.10, 6A.2.11 and

6A.2.12. For further information and caveats to table 6.2.2, see tables 6A.2.5, 6A.2.6 and 6A.2.7.

- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 3 writing benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students in all states and territories.
- Nationally, 32.2 per cent of Indigenous students were unable to achieve the writing benchmark compared to 10.5 per cent of all students.

Figure 6.2.2 **Proportion of year 3 Indigenous students who achieved the writing benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 6A.2.13.

- Figure 6.2.2 shows that from 1999 to 2001 there was no clear trend in the national proportion of year 3 Indigenous students achieving the writing benchmark. In each of these years the gap between Indigenous students and all students was similar.

## Numeracy

Table 6.2.3 Proportion of year 3 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>

<i>State/Territory</i> <i>1 Average age <sup>c</sup></i> <i>2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup></i>	<i>All</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Male</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Female</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Indigenous</i> <i>students <sup>e</sup></i>	<i>LBOTE</i> <i>students <sup>e</sup></i>
NSW	95.0	94.9	95.0	86.9	94.7
1. 8yrs 9mths	± 0.9	± 1.0	± 0.9	± 2.8	± 1.0
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	94.1	93.7	94.5	75.1	91.8
1. 9yrs 0mths	± 1.2	± 1.2	± 1.4	± 4.3	± 1.5
2. 3yrs 7mths					
Queensland	93.4	93.4	94.0	79.0	91.5
1. 8yrs 3mths	± 1.4	± 1.5	± 1.6	± 4.0	± 1.8
2. 2yrs 8mths					
WA	92.9	92.4	93.4	79.2	92.0
1. 8yrs 2mths	± 2.0	± 2.2	± 2.2	± 5.3	± 2.3
2. 2yrs 7mths					
SA	91.1	90.3	91.8	68.0	86.2
1. 8yrs 6mths	± 1.4	± 1.5	± 1.3	± 4.5	± 1.9
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	95.6	95.2	95.9	94.1	94.3
1. 9yrs 2mths	± 1.3	± 1.4	± 1.4	± 3.0	± 3.2
2. 3yrs 7mths					
ACT	97.0	96.5	97.4	91.4	94.2
1. 8yrs 10mths	± 0.6	± 0.7	± 0.7	± 4.3	± 1.6
2. 3yrs 6mths					
NT	86.6	84.9	88.4	65.0	64.8
1. 8yrs 8mths	± 2.0	± 2.4	± 2.1	± 4.8	± 4.5
2. 3yrs 3mths					
Australia	93.9	93.7	94.3	80.2	92.5
	± 1.2	± 1.3	± 1.3	± 3.9	± 1.5

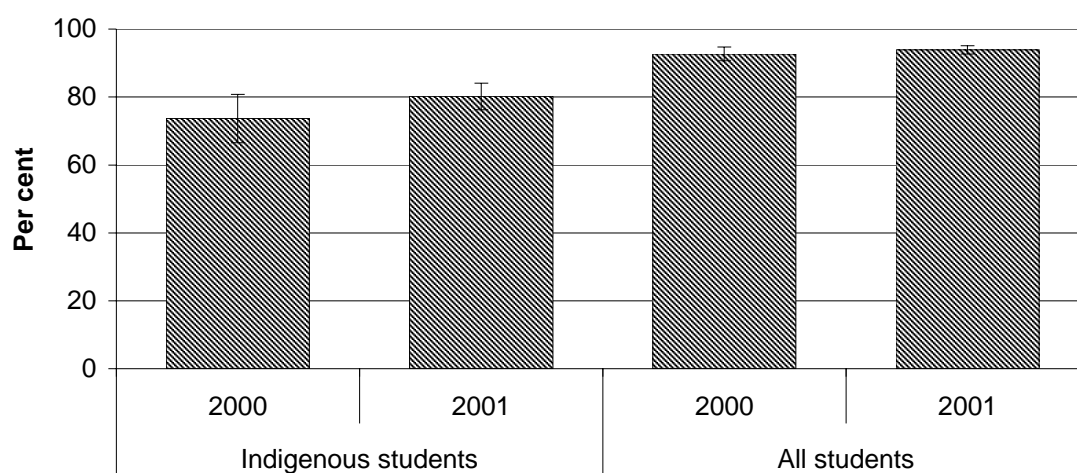
<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.15 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.14 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.14 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.16 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 6.2.3 shows the proportion of year 3 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2001. For further information and caveats to table 6.2.3, see tables 6A.2.14, 6A.2.15 and 6A.2.16.

- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 3 numeracy benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students in all states and territories.
- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the numeracy benchmark was highest in Tasmania (94.1 per cent) and lowest in the NT (65.0 per cent).
- Nationally, 19.8 per cent of Indigenous students were unable to achieve the numeracy benchmark compared to approximately 6.1 per cent of all students.

Figure 6.2.3 **Proportion of year 3 Indigenous students who achieved the numeracy benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 6A.2.17.

- In figure 6.2.3, two years of data are not enough to identify a trend in the national proportion of year 3 Indigenous students achieving the numeracy benchmark. In both 2000 and 2001, the gap between Indigenous and all students was similar.

## 6.3 Primary school children with dental caries

Decayed teeth can cause illness and pain. The loss of permanent teeth can lead to difficulties in chewing, discomfort while eating, and can lead to personal embarrassment as well as social isolation. It is argued that children affected with dental diseases might not perform as well in school as their healthy counterparts. They have difficulty eating (which might adversely affect their nutritional levels),



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and they may have low self-esteem from the appearance of their decayed teeth. Poor dental health can also cause impaired speech and language development.

To achieve better dental health throughout life, it is important to ensure good oral health is achieved throughout infancy and early childhood.

Dental decay experience is expressed as a:

- dmft score (for infant teeth), which is used to measure the number of decayed, missing or filled deciduous (infant) teeth. It is derived by adding the number of teeth which are decayed, missing or have been filled due to tooth decay; and
- DMFT score (adult teeth), which is used to measure the number of decayed, missing or filled permanent (adult) teeth. It is derived by adding the number of teeth which are decayed, missing or have been filled due to tooth decay).<sup>3</sup>

**Box 6.3.1 Key messages**

- The proportion of children in 1999 in need of immediate dental care, with five or more decayed teeth, was higher for Indigenous than non-Indigenous children for all ages between 4 and 12 years (figure 6.3.1).
- A large proportion of these Indigenous children live in remote areas of Australia.

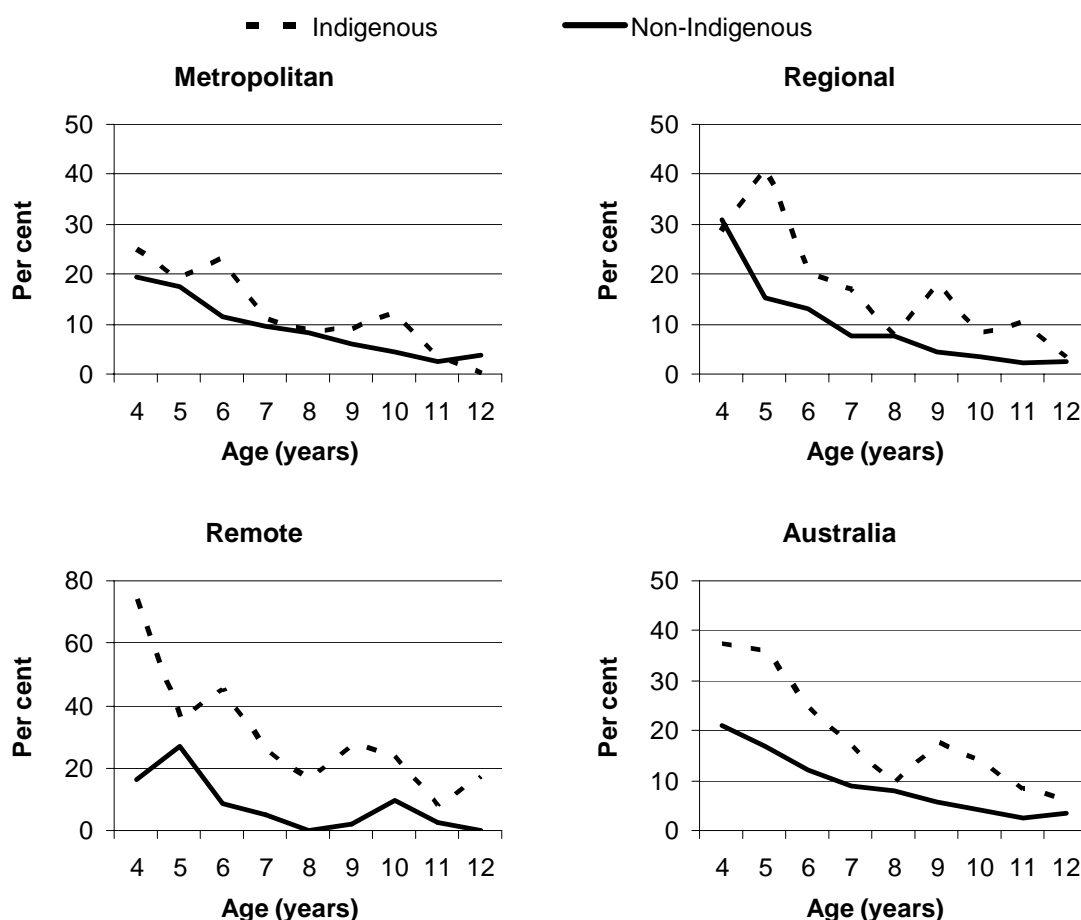
In 1999, the level of decay (measured by the dmft/DMFT scores) in children that were in need of immediate dental care was generally higher for Indigenous than non-Indigenous children, particularly in remote areas of Australia (table 6A.3.1).

The mean dmft score for six year old Indigenous children that were in need of immediate dental care was 3.69, compared with 2.66 for the six year old non-Indigenous children. This difference was driven largely by the substantially higher dmft scores experienced by six year old Indigenous children residing in remote areas (mean dmft score 5.1) compared with non-Indigenous children (mean dmft score 2.89) (table 6A.3.1). The difference in the mean DMFT score for Indigenous and non-Indigenous children aged 12 years needing immediate dental care was much smaller – 1.48 for Indigenous and 1.28 for non-Indigenous children. Once again the largest difference in the mean DMFT scores was in the remote areas – 2.68 for Indigenous children and 0.76 for non-Indigenous children (table 6A.3.1).

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<sup>3</sup> When both these scores are equal to zero, it means that the individual has had no experience of tooth decay in the baby teeth (dmft=0) or the adult teeth (DMFT=0).

**Figure 6.3.1 Proportion of children, in need of immediate dental care, with five or more decayed teeth, Australia 1999**



Source: AIHW (unpublished): table 6A.3.1.

- In 1999, the proportion of children who were in need of immediate dental care, with five or more decayed teeth, was higher for Indigenous than non-Indigenous children for all ages four to 12 years – although the difference between the two groups was small for the 8 year old category (figure 6.3.1).
- While the largest share of 4 to 12 year old Indigenous children (needing immediate dental treatment) with five or more decayed teeth generally lived in remote areas, with non-Indigenous children, it tended to vary across metropolitan, regional and remote areas.

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## 6.4 Future directions in data

### Year 3 literacy and numeracy

Indigenous learning outcomes data in future reports will need to be improved through the inclusion of more timely data and breakdowns by geographic regions.

### Preschool and school attendance

Some jurisdictions collect data on attendance rates at all levels (preschool to year 12). However, lack of uniformity across jurisdictions has created a barrier to national reporting. Jurisdictions also need to improve the consistency and comparability of reporting by geographic regions.

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## **6.2 Year 3 literacy and numeracy**

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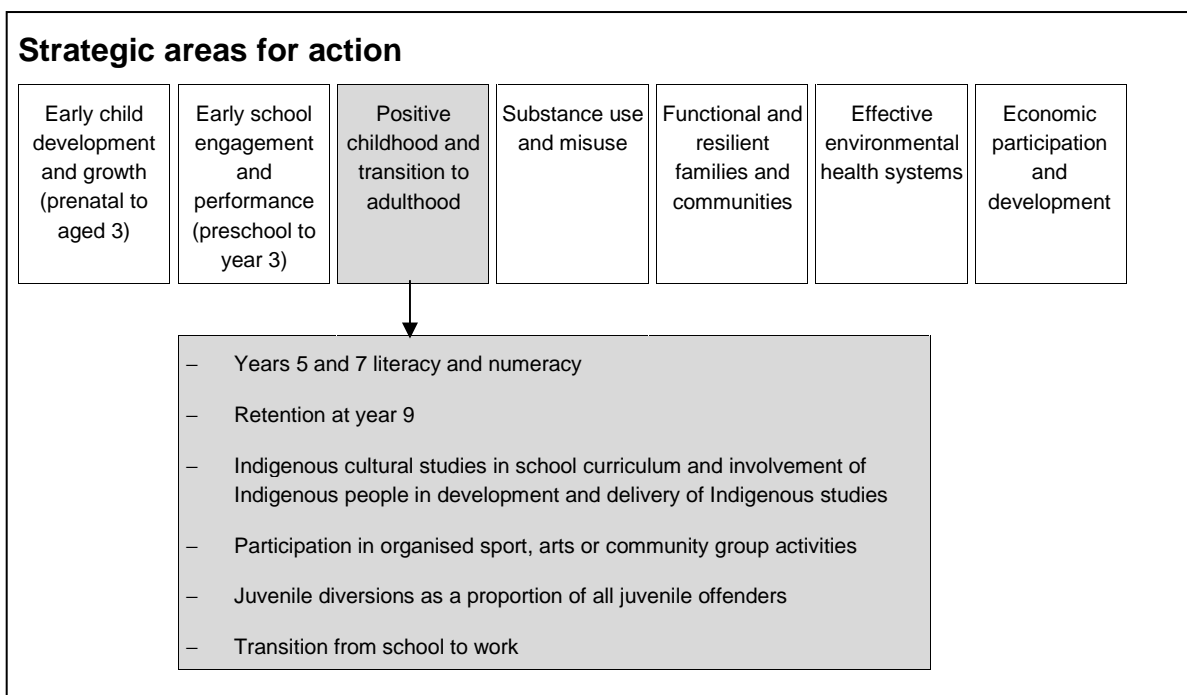
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## 7 Positive childhood and transition to adulthood



This strategic area for action reflects the continuing importance of educational outcomes through childhood to early adulthood and the value, for young people and their futures, of participation in organised sport, arts and community group activities and ways in which alternatives to detention for juvenile offenders contribute to reducing recidivism.

Literacy and numeracy at years 5 and 7 is an important indicator of continuing progression in learning beyond the early years of schooling and provides a foundation for successful secondary education. Literacy and numeracy are hurdles for Indigenous students and improvements in this area are critical to the achievement of headline outcomes, such as year 10 and 12 retention and attainment.

In 2001, the Ministerial Council on Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) said that:

The transition from primary school to secondary school is a difficult one for many young people but it can be traumatic for Indigenous young people who have to leave their communities to undertake secondary studies. Poor preparation, not knowing what

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to expect, homesickness, distance from family and community support, lack of local support, poor literacy levels and shame at not succeeding lead many young Indigenous people to drop out (MCEETYA 2001).

During consultation on the indicators for this Report, Indigenous respondents suggested three outcomes from the incorporation of Indigenous content in school curriculum.

- The incorporation of Indigenous studies and Indigenous content in the curriculum makes schooling more relevant to Indigenous students and will lead to better attendance and better educational outcomes for them.
- An improved understanding of Indigenous culture improves the spiritual health of Indigenous students, which leads to better outcomes in areas such health, family and community cohesion, education and employment.
- Teaching Indigenous culture, history and other Indigenous knowledge to non-Indigenous students will help address the racism of some non-Indigenous people that Indigenous people believe is founded on fear and ignorance. It has the additional benefit of generally creating a broader knowledge and understanding of Australian history amongst non-Indigenous Australians.

The National Statement of Principles and Standards for More Culturally Inclusive Schooling in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century (MCEETYA 2000) states that schooling should acknowledge the capacity of all young Indigenous people to learn by providing a curriculum that avoids discrimination; allows Indigenous students the same opportunities as other students while allowing them to be strong in their own cultures; and helps all students to understand and value Indigenous culture and knowledge.

There is a significant body of research that supports the importance of cultural studies in the school curriculum to motivate Indigenous students, increase their attendance and improve their self-identity. Curriculum is one of several factors influencing Indigenous school performance, none of which is sufficient on its own (see Bourke, Rigby and Burden 2000; Harslett et al. 1998; and Purdie et al. 2000).

There is evidence that sport and recreational activities play an important part in crime prevention. The 1991 Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody (1991, chapter 30) found that:

The provision of sport, recreation and entertainment as an antidote to boredom would appear to be a key factor in prevention of Aboriginal juvenile crime....Research carried out by Gail Mason and Dr Paul Wilson from the Australian Institute of Criminology on sport, recreation and juvenile crime concluded that while it could not be assumed that sports, recreation and wilderness programs were the new answer to high rates of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal delinquent behaviour, there is sufficient evidence to

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show that sport and recreation do have the ability to play a role in the reduction of offending behaviour.

Diverting juveniles from detention is an important factor in reducing recidivism. The Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody (1991) found that:

... younger prisoners had a very much higher probability of re-offending than older prisoners ... The recidivism rate for Aboriginal juveniles is alarming. These are the next generation of potential deaths in custody, and in no area is it more important to devise and implement effective strategies to prevent imprisonment than it is with respect to Aboriginal children and youths (chapter 23).

It is in everyone's interest to ensure that juvenile offenders remain outside of the justice system; not simply by being diverted from it after offences have been committed, but by avoiding the circumstances which lead to the commission of the offences in the first place (chapter 30).

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 7A.2.1). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM, which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **7.1 Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy**

A 1994 research study by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) indicated that high achievement in the early years of schooling in literacy and numeracy influenced higher enrolment levels in certain subject choices in years 11 and 12 (MCEETYA 2001a).

This indicator has been included because years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy benchmark achievement is related to the transition from primary to secondary school, and the potential to retain students in secondary school (MCEETYA 2001b).

### **Box 7.1.1 Key message**

In 2001, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 5 reading, writing and numeracy benchmarks was significantly lower than that for all students.



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Background information and issues in relation to national benchmarks for use in reporting on literacy and numeracy were addressed in section 6.2.

This Report presents 2001 data for year 5 reading, writing and numeracy, and as data for year 5 writing had not been previously available, results for 1999 and 2000 are also included, see tables 7A.1.2, 7A.1.3, 7A.1.4, 7A.1.5 and 7A.1.6. Year 7 literacy and numeracy data were unavailable for this Report.

There is a range of comparability issues associated with the benchmarks that are being investigated by MCEETYA. Work has been endorsed to improve several issues including the benchmarking equating methodology, to implement nationally consistent criteria for defining exempt students and to improve the process for calculating the known forms of error in reporting the national benchmarks. Until work to resolve comparability is completed, there will continue to be national comparability issues associated with the benchmark data. For factors which limit the national comparability of the benchmark results, see appendix 3.

## Reading

**Table 7.1.1 Proportion of year 5 students who achieved the reading benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>State/Territory</i> <i>1 Average age <sup>c</sup></i> <i>2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup></i>	<i>All</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Male</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Female</i> <i>students</i>	<i>Indigenous</i> <i>students <sup>e</sup></i>	<i>LBOTE</i> <i>students <sup>e</sup></i>
NSW	92.0	90.5	93.5	76.6	90.6
1. 10yrs 9mths	± 1.2	± 1.5	± 1.1	± 3.2	± 1.5
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	90.9	88.7	93.1	71.7	87.8
1. 10yrs 11mths	± 1.2	± 1.7	± 1.1	± 4.0	± 2.0
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Queensland	83.0	80.1	86.3	57.3	76.0
1. 10yrs 4mths	± 1.6	± 2.0	± 1.5	± 3.4	± 2.4
2. 4yrs 8mths					
WA	94.5	93.2	95.9	77.9	92.2
1. 10yrs 2mths	± 1.0	± 1.3	± 0.9	± 4.3	± 1.7
2. 4yrs 7mths					
SA	89.0	86.5	91.6	62.9	87.0
1. 10yrs 6mths	± 1.3	± 1.7	± 1.3	± 4.5	± 1.8
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	94.4	92.2	96.6	91.5	93.5
1. 11yrs 2mths	± 0.9	± 1.4	± 0.8	± 2.9	± 3.0
2. 5yrs 7mths					
ACT	94.6	92.9	96.4	82.3	91.9
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 0.8	± 0.8	± 0.7	± 7.9	± 2.4
2. 5yrs 6mths					
NT	71.5	71.0	72.2	34.5	34.4
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 2.2	± 2.7	± 2.7	± 3.6	± 3.6
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Australia	89.8	87.8	92.0	66.9	87.7
	± 1.3	± 1.6	± 1.2	± 3.6	± 1.8

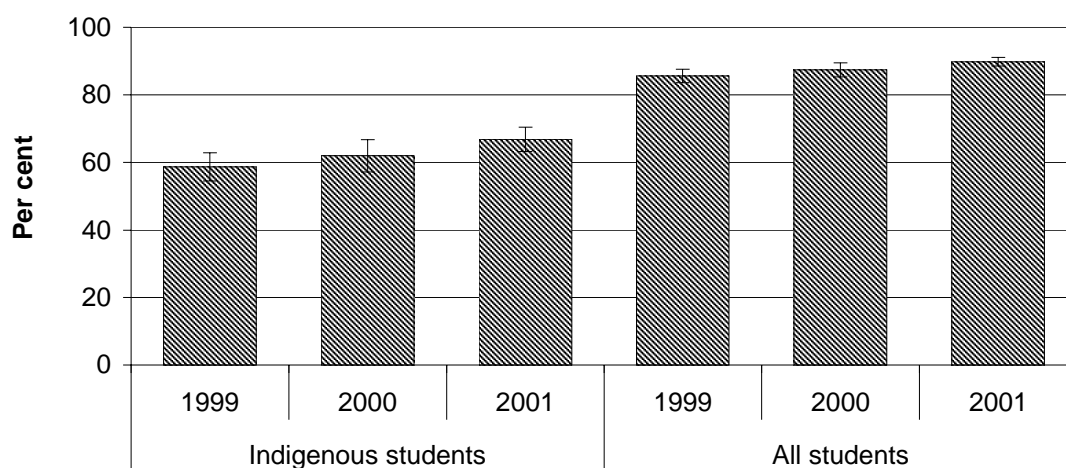
<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.2 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.1 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.1 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and language background other than English (LBOTE) students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.3 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 7.1.1 shows the proportion of year 5 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2001. For further information and caveats to table 7.1.1, see tables 6A.2.1, 6A.2.2 and 6A.2.3.

- In all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 5 reading benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students.
- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the reading benchmark was highest in Tasmania (91.5 per cent) and lowest in the NT (34.5 per cent).
- In Victoria, SA and the NT the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the reading benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students. Nationally, the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students (72.0 per cent) who achieved the reading benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students (66.9 per cent).

**Figure 7.1.1 Proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the reading benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 7A.1.1.

- Figure 7.1.1 shows that from 1999 to 2001 there was no clear trend in the national proportion of year 5 Indigenous students achieving the reading benchmark. In each of these years the gap between Indigenous students and all students was similar.

## Writing

**Table 7.1.2 Proportion of year 5 students who achieved the writing benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>State/Territory 1 Average age <sup>c</sup> 2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup></i>	<i>All students</i>	<i>Male students</i>	<i>Female students</i>	<i>Indigenous students <sup>e</sup></i>	<i>LBOTE students <sup>e</sup></i>
NSW	95.9	94.6	97.2	87.4	94.6
1. 10yrs 9mths	± 0.9	± 1.4	± 0.7	± 3.1	± 1.1
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	92.4	89.6	95.3	75.4	91.4
1. 10yrs 11mths	± 0.8	± 1.1	± 0.6	± 3.3	± 1.0
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Queensland	95.8	94.5	97.7	87.5	94.3
1. 10yrs 4mths	± 0.7	± 1.1	± 0.4	± 2.1	± 0.9
2. 4yrs 8mths					
WA	89.4	85.6	93.2	63.8	86.7
1. 10yrs 2mths	± 1.9	± 2.6	± 1.4	± 4.9	± 2.3
2. 4yrs 7mths					
SA	95.0	93.3	96.8	80.0	93.7
1. 10yrs 6mths	± 0.8	± 1.2	± 0.7	± 3.9	± 1.1
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	91.9	88.4	95.5	88.0	88.7
1. 11yrs 2mths	± 1.3	± 1.9	± 1.1	± 3.6	± 4.2
2. 5yrs 7mths					
ACT	90.6	87.0	94.4	66.9	88.0
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 1.8	± 2.5	± 1.5	± 10.6	± 3.4
2. 5yrs 6mths					
NT	77.6	74.3	80.9	41.6	45.8
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 2.2	± 2.9	± 2.4	± 4.2	± 4.2
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Australia	94.0	91.9	96.2	79.9	92.2
	± 1.0	± 1.4	± 0.7	± 3.3	± 1.2

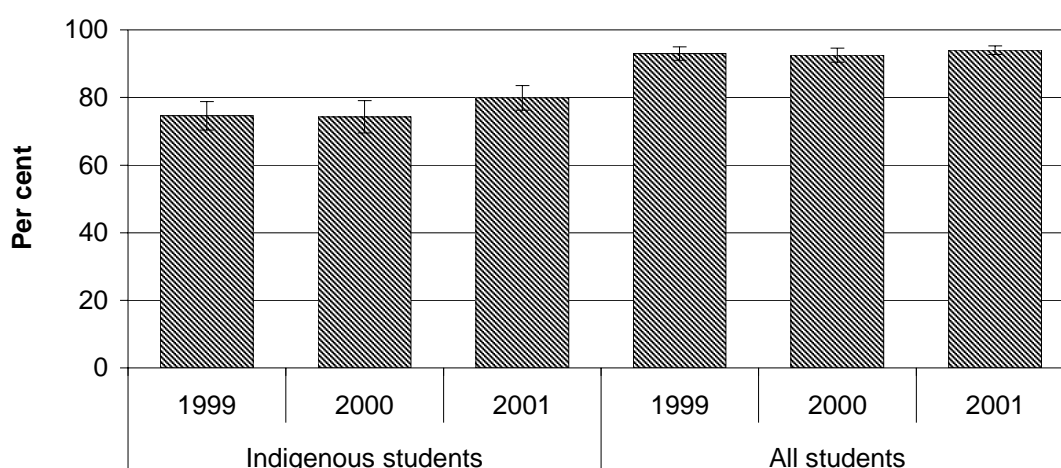
<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.6 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.5 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.5 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and language background other than English (LBOTE) students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.7 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 7.1.2 shows the proportion of year 5 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 2001. For the proportion of students who achieved the writing benchmark in 1999 and 2000, see tables 7A.1.2, 7A.1.3, 7A.1.4, 7A.1.5 and 7A.1.6. For further information and caveats to table 7.1.2, see 6A.2.5, 6A.2.6 and 6A.2.7.

- The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 5 writing benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students in all states and territories.
- Nationally, 20.1 per cent of Indigenous students were unable to achieve the writing benchmark, compared to 6.0 per cent of all students.
- In NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA, the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the writing benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students. Nationally the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students (79.9 per cent) who achieved the writing benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students (67.8 per cent).

**Figure 7.1.2 Proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the writing benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 per cent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 7A.1.7.

- Figure 7.1.2 shows that from 1999 to 2001, there was no clear trend in the national proportion of year 5 Indigenous students achieving the writing benchmark. In each of these years the gap between Indigenous students and all students was similar.

## Numeracy

**Table 7.1.3 Proportion of year 5 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>State/Territory 1 Average age <sup>c</sup> 2 Yrs of schooling <sup>d</sup></i>	<i>All students</i>	<i>Male students</i>	<i>Female students</i>	<i>Indigenous students <sup>e</sup></i>	<i>LBOTE students <sup>e</sup></i>
NSW	91.7	91.5	91.8	74.6	90.3
1. 10yrs 9mths	± 1.0	± 1.1	± 1.1	± 2.9	± 1.2
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Victoria <sup>f</sup>	94.7	94.4	94.9	80.4	92.4
1. 10yrs 11mths	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.1	± 3.3	± 1.3
2. 5yrs 7mths					
Queensland	81.8	82.2	81.9	54.4	75.0
1. 10yrs 4mths	± 1.9	± 2.0	± 2.2	± 3.5	± 2.4
2. 4yrs 8mths					
WA	90.0	89.7	90.3	65.6	87.3
1. 10yrs 2mths	± 1.9	± 2.0	± 2.2	± 5.4	± 2.6
2. 4yrs 7mths					
SA	85.9	85.6	86.2	54.9	82.8
1. 10yrs 6mths	± 1.3	± 1.5	± 1.6	± 4.4	± 1.8
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Tasmania	91.7	91.2	92.2	85.0	89.1
1. 11yrs 2mths	± 1.3	± 1.6	± 1.6	± 4.1	± 4.2
2. 5yrs 7mths					
ACT	93.1	92.2	94.0	71.9	87.4
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 1.1	± 1.4	± 1.3	± 10.1	± 3.2
2. 5yrs 6mths					
NT	68.8	69.2	68.3	32.3	34.0
1. 10yrs 8mths	± 2.8	± 3.0	± 3.4	± 4.1	± 3.8
2. 5yrs 3mths					
Australia	89.6	89.5	89.8	63.2	87.9
	± 1.3	± 1.4	± 1.5	± 3.7	± 1.6

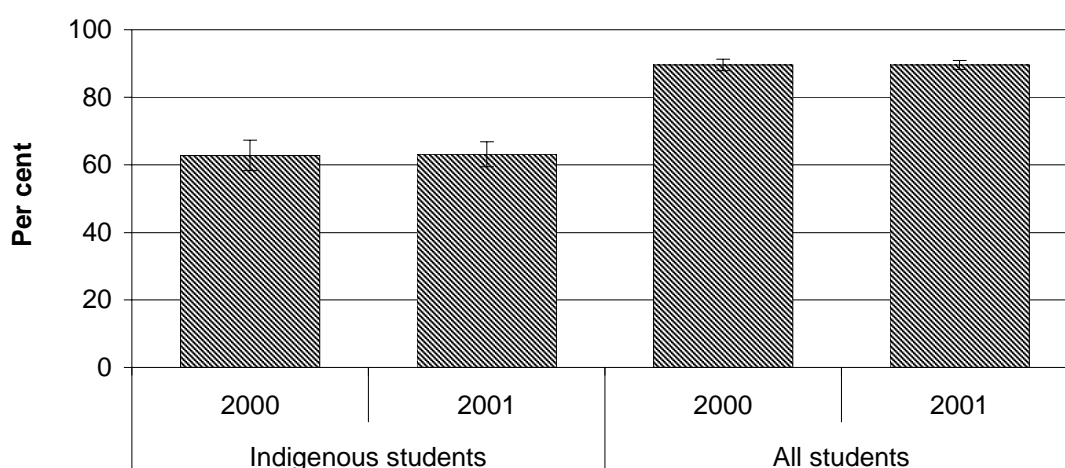
<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 6A.2.15 contains details of test populations in all states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.14 contains more information. <sup>d</sup> The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 6A.2.14 contains more information. <sup>e</sup> The methods used to identify Indigenous students and language background other than English (LBOTE) students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Table 6A.2.16 contains more information. <sup>f</sup> Results adjusted based on exempt student data and are not directly comparable to previous years' results.

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished).

Table 7.1.3 shows the proportion of year 5 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2001. For further information and caveats to table 7.1.3, see tables 6A.2.14, 6A.2.15 and 6A.2.16.

- In all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 5 numeracy benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students.
- Victoria was the only jurisdiction where the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the numeracy benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students (80.4 per cent and 75.1 per cent respectively).
- Nationally, the proportion of year 3 Indigenous students (80.2 per cent) who achieved the numeracy benchmark was higher than the proportion of year 5 Indigenous students (63.2 per cent).

**Figure 7.1.3 Proportion of year 5 Indigenous students who achieved the numeracy benchmark<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data for 2001 are provisional. The 2001 data are awaiting final clearance with quality assurance procedures still in progress. <sup>b</sup> The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80 percent  $\pm$  2.7 per cent).

Source: MCEETYA (unpublished); table 7A.1.8.

- Figure 7.1.3 shows that from 2000 to 2001 there was no clear trend in the national proportion of year 5 Indigenous students achieving the numeracy benchmark. In both 2000 and 2001, the gap between Indigenous and all students was stable.

## Year 7 literacy and numeracy

The MCEETYA Taskforce on Performance Measurement and Reporting is collecting learning outcomes data of Indigenous students for reading, writing and numeracy for year 7. However, these data were not available for this Report.

State and Territory specific learning outcomes data supplied for the *Report on Government Services 2003* reported on learning outcomes for year 7 in two

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jurisdictions, Queensland and WA (that information was reported in attachment 3A of the *Report on Government Services 2003*) (SCRCSSP 2003).

## 7.2 Retention at year 9

Generally, compulsory schooling begins at age 5 and ends at age 15. That is, for most students compulsory schooling ends in years 9 or 10. Indigenous students are less likely to complete compulsory schooling than non-Indigenous students (see section 3.3). In 2002, the apparent retention rate to year 10 for Indigenous students was 86.4 per cent compared to just under 100 per cent for non-Indigenous students (see section 3.3). Some Indigenous children are leaving school in year 9 with little or no post-school options or employment opportunities.

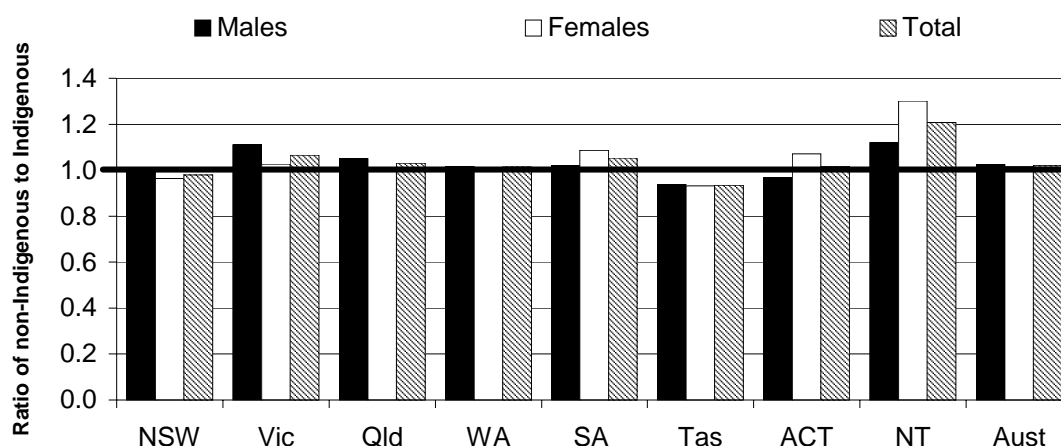
This indicator has been included because a strong message from Indigenous people across Australia was that Indigenous children were leaving school in years 9 and 10 with poor literacy and numeracy skills. How retention rates are calculated, definitional nuances and issues in relation to geographic classifications were previously addressed in section 3.3.

### Box 7.2.1 Key messages

- Over the period 1998 to 2002, Indigenous apparent retention rates to year 9 increased (figure 3.3.1).
- The two percentage points gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students at year 9 does not reflect the number of children who did not complete the year (table 3A.3.2).
- In 2002, there was a significant decrease in apparent retention rates from year 9 to year 10 for Indigenous students (figure 3.3.1).



Figure 7.2.1 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students to year 9, all schools, 2002 (rate ratio)<sup>a, b, c</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The apparent retention rate is the percentage of full time students who continued to year 9 from respective cohort groups at the commencement of their secondary schooling (year 7/8). See notes to table 3A.3.2 for more detail. <sup>b</sup> Apparent retention rates were higher than expected in Queensland because of a significant net gain in interstate migration compared with other states and territories. <sup>c</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous apparent retention is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous apparent retention rate by the Indigenous apparent retention rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2003; table 3A.3.2.

- Over the period 1998 to 2002, Indigenous apparent retention rates to year 9 increased (figure 3.3.1).
- Figure 7.2.1 shows that the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention was 1.0 nationally, and ranged from 1.2 in the NT to 0.9 in Tasmania.

Nationally, 97.8 per cent of Indigenous students remained in schooling to year 9 compared to 99.8 per cent of non-Indigenous students (table 3A.3.2).

- Nationally, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention was the same for males and females (1.0).
- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous retention for males was highest in Victoria, Queensland and the NT (1.1) and lowest in Tasmania (0.9). For females, the ratio was highest in the NT (1.3) and lowest in Tasmania (0.9).

Table 3A.3.2 shows that females tend to have higher apparent retention rates than males. The retention rate of Indigenous males was 97.0 per cent nationally, compared to 98.6 per cent for Indigenous females. For non-Indigenous males the apparent retention rate was 99.6 per cent, and 100.1 per cent for non-Indigenous females.

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### 7.3 Indigenous cultural studies in school curriculum and involvement of Indigenous people in development and delivery of Indigenous studies

Approaches to incorporating Indigenous content into the school curriculum vary widely between education systems and between schools. This is not surprising as schools exist in varied contexts and have varying numbers of Indigenous students in their schools and Indigenous people in their local communities. Almost one third of schools had no Indigenous students in 2001; the remainder had some Indigenous students enrolled (the majority of which had 0.1 to 5.0 per cent Indigenous students). In 1.9 per cent of schools, more than 95.0 per cent of students were Indigenous and in 1.2 per cent of schools all students were Indigenous (DEST 2002 and DEST (unpublished)).

Data for reporting against this indicator are very limited and it is desirable that in time information becomes available. The *National Report to Parliament on Indigenous Education and Training* (DEST 2002) is an important source of qualitative and quantitative information for this indicator in the absence of other data. The Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) was unable to supply the Review with more detailed data from Indigenous Education Strategic Initiatives Programme (IESIP) reports completed by individual education systems and schools.

#### Box 7.3.1 Key messages

- Data are limited, but in 2001 it appeared that Indigenous teachers and education workers generally comprised a much smaller proportion of school staff than Indigenous students comprised of all students.
- Several schools with significant proportions of Indigenous students have incorporated Indigenous languages and cultural activities into their curricula.

#### Culturally inclusive curricula

Most states and territories have developed strategies to incorporate Indigenous perspectives across the curriculum. Many have units devoted to developing Indigenous curriculum materials for use within various subjects and at various stages in schooling.

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Based on IESIP providers' reports on their efforts to include Indigenous perspectives in the curriculum, DEST (2002) reported that, in primary schools:

The most general approach has been to integrate Indigenous perspectives across the curriculum in primary schools while also providing specific courses or units in Indigenous studies. In most cases, there is a strong emphasis of Indigenous culture in art, craft, drama, dance and music, and a lot of story telling, schools involving elders wherever possible and inviting Indigenous story tellers, graphic artists, dancers and musicians to work with children.

Some schools teach Indigenous languages and some use Indigenous languages in teaching literacy and numeracy in English (NTDE 1999). Others teach Indigenous languages as a subject. For example, in SA, nearly 4000 students (of whom 60 per cent were non-Aboriginal) were learning an Aboriginal language in 2003 (White 2003).

DEST (2002) reported that, in secondary schools:

Most secondary systems and schools have developed Indigenous Studies courses, some for accreditation in senior years ... Many schools and systems have also integrated Indigenous perspectives into subject areas such as history, social studies, English, the arts, environmental studies, and courses with a religious or spiritual focus.

A study by Bourke, Rigby and Burden (2000) reported several case studies of the incorporation of Indigenous content into the curriculum at several schools (see box 7.3.2).

#### **Box 7.3.2 Selected case studies of Indigenous curriculum in schools**

The examples reported here are extracts from case studies reported by Bourke, Rigby and Burden (2000).

**Ludmilla Primary School (NT)** offers an exclusive curriculum. The AIEW [Aboriginal and Islander Education Worker] has an important role in assisting teachers with planning their teaching activities. While the curriculum is based on the Northern Territory curriculum, it is localised to be 'interest-based' with children interacting with and interpreting local materials and events.

**Woolum Bellum, the KODE [Koorie Open Door Education] School** at Morwell, Victoria is a K-12 State Government school specifically, but not solely for Koorie children. It aims to deliver educational services to Koories by building on culturally preferred learning models and to develop a supportive and culturally relevant learning environment. By linking community and workplace issues with school curriculum the school integrates the content and the processes of educational provision with the educational needs of Koorie communities.

(Continued next page)

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### Box 7.3.2 (Continued)

Curriculum planning is a major aspect of this school and it involves a significant partnership between members of the school community. The concept of the 'Full Circle' indicates that every member is a contributor and learner in the circle, sharing knowledge, skill and trust.

Input from the Koorie community is highly valued and has guided the school's method of identifying what is important in respect to curriculum. Areas of need identified among the students and what parents value in schools are key curriculum foundations.

The school program prioritises Culture Communication and Technology as interrelated components of curriculum planning and implementation. Communication is interpreted broadly to include Ganai language, Koorie English and standard English, numeracy, art and the use of Koorie technology for information storage and retrieval.

The school follows a realistic approach to technology and learning. It sees itself as a 'Community of Learners' achieving common goals by developing an effective curriculum which among other things promotes the relevance of Koorie cultures, two way communication, meaningful and relevant learning experiences, self esteem and respect, a safe learning environment, and team work and collaboration.

The curriculum is based on local sites, community language and history through the Bataluk Cultural Trail. Using significant sites on the trail the school develops teaching programmes in the eight key learning areas. Community members are involved in site visits and classroom activities. This together with ongoing community support and direction ensure that the teaching is culturally appropriate.

Cultural activities within the **Northlands Secondary College [Victoria]** include the community as a whole. Outside guests are regularly asked to become involved, both inside and outside of the curriculum boundaries. All Indigenous days and weeks during the year are recognised, with some activities planned for all students and some exclusively to Koorie students. The school believes strongly in use of cultural activities as a resource to educate its students. Staff do not hesitate in taking students out of normal school day classes, in order for them to be involved in outside activities.

The **Murri School** in Acacia Ridge in Queensland doesn't teach social science as a subject but cultural studies takes its place. The program has been developed by staff, parents and the School Board, with input from the community.

Indigenous language programmes and excursions by city and town based Indigenous pupils to Indigenous communities to undertake traditional activities including story telling, dancing, painting and food gathering were highlights in the school year for children in schools such as **Sanderson High School** in Darwin. Staff felt the attendance of some children improved to ensure they would not be excluded from such visits. Language teaching using elders was also welcomed by students on Thursday Island as was an Indigenous artist in residence program.

*Source: Bourke, Rigby and Burden (2000).*

Another example of incorporating Indigenous culture into school education is the Big Dog Island Camp in Tasmania (see box 7.3.3).

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### Box 7.3.3 **Strengthening students' links with Aboriginal communities in Tasmania, 2001**

This example is an extract from DEST (2002).

#### **Big Dog Island Camp**

A senior secondary camp was held during Easter week holidays on Flinders Island and Big Dog Island (part of the Furneaux group of islands). The purposes/objectives of the camp were to:

- spend time with island elders and the Aboriginal Heritage Officer learning the historical and cultural importance of the islands through contemporary oral histories;
- spend time on Big Dog during the muttonbird season — an important cultural event;
- 'bird' [catch or hunt muttonbirds] and record their own and younger students experiences on film, in narratives and in artworks completed on the islands;
- connect with the Aboriginal Studies and/or Photography 'A', 'B' or 'C' course(s);
- pursue independent research, record daily events on the islands through journals, diaries and sketchbooks;
- meet and network with Aboriginal students throughout Tasmania, with the goal of creating a contemporary Aboriginal resource for schools throughout the State.

A number of successes arose from student participation. Joe (name changed) was a challenging inmate at a detention centre and with supervision was allowed to attend a mainstream college in Launceston. Experiences on Big Dog and Flinders Island had long lasting effects for Joe. Though he had never 'birded' in his life he quickly adapted the skills and as a result was offered full-time employment during the forthcoming muttonbird season. This not only boosted Joe's self esteem but also gave him a goal to work towards outside of the detention centre.

Outcomes reinforced school and community initiatives as well as improving attendance and retention levels.

The majority of those students attending the camps were able to establish a 'niche' once they returned to school life, see the relevance in their educational pursuits and apply skills they had developed outside the college to a broad range of studies on campus. The Aboriginal Education Unit conducted two follow up sessions enabling students to reconnect throughout the year and to look at the possibility of developing a contemporary Aboriginal education resource that embraced the experiences the students had on Flinders Island. A poster utilising one of the college student's photos was distributed to all schools throughout the State. College teachers noted that the attitudes of the students became more positive towards school and the successful completion of studies and the students showed greater interest in further education/employment and potential pathways.

Source: DEST (2002).

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## Indigenous employment in schools

Specific data on Indigenous involvement in the development and delivery of Indigenous studies were not available for this year's Report. Some data on Indigenous employment in schools have been included, to provide information on Indigenous involvement in school education. Nevertheless, Indigenous cultural perspectives are important across the curriculum and the presence of Indigenous staff contributes to bringing Indigenous perspectives to students.

In future years, it is hoped that IESIP reports and other sources may be available to report more extensively on Indigenous involvement in developing and delivering Indigenous studies.

In 2000, MCEETYA decided to include an Indigenous identifier for staff in the National Schools Statistics Collection. However, the decision is yet to be implemented, and may not be for some time because some school system databases are not updated annually and there are sensitivities in asking staff to report their Indigenous status.

Nevertheless, a general indication of the number of Indigenous teachers and Aboriginal and Islander education workers is available (table 7.3.1).

**Table 7.3.1 Indigenous employment in schools, 2001**

	<i>Government schools</i>	<i>Catholic schools<sup>a</sup></i>
Number of Indigenous teachers	1338	52
Indigenous teachers as a proportion of all teachers (%)	0.8	0.1
Indigenous students as a proportion of all students (%)	4.5	1.5
Number of AIEWs in schools <sup>b</sup>	1764	411
Ratio of Indigenous students to Indigenous teachers and AIEWs	33	21
Number of Indigenous staff in schools including teachers, specialist support staff (including teacher aides and AIEWs), administrative and clerical staff <sup>c</sup>	2962	473
Total number of staff in schools including teachers, specialist support staff (including teacher aides and AIEWs), administrative and clerical staff	160 231	56 268
Indigenous staff as a proportion of all staff in schools (%) <sup>c</sup>	1.8	0.8

<sup>a</sup> The number of Indigenous students in Catholic schools is based on the number in all Catholic schools, not just IESIP funded Catholic systems. Staff numbers are those in IESIP funded Catholic systems. <sup>b</sup> Figure includes 140 teacher aides in Queensland who are not classified as AIEWs because they are not placed in identified positions. <sup>c</sup> Total for government schools is less than the sum of numbers for Indigenous teachers and AIEWs because the total Indigenous staff numbers in government schools does not include 140 teacher aides in Queensland not classified as AIEWs.

Source: DEST (2002); table 7A.3.1.

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DEST (2002) reported that IESIP funded education providers have difficulty in recruiting and retaining qualified and experienced staff, particularly in rural and remote communities. Many providers employ Aboriginal and Islander education workers, train them and encourage them to gain formal paraprofessional or professional qualifications.

Table 7A.3.2 shows that 25.7 per cent of Aboriginal and Islander Education Workers (AIEWs) in government schools and 48.6 per cent of AIEWs in Catholic school systems had completed or were studying towards formal qualifications in 2001.

A national survey of teachers was carried out in 1999 by the Australian College of Education (2001), with a response rate of 10 019 out of a sample of 20 000 who were sent questionnaires. The stratified sample included primary and secondary teachers from government, Catholic and independent schools. The survey results showed that 5.1 per cent of teachers had taught Indigenous studies. The largest proportions of teachers who had taught Indigenous studies were in the NT (11.2 per cent) and SA (9.0 per cent).

Most teachers had not had training in teaching Indigenous students or teaching Indigenous studies. For those who had received training, more had experienced in-service training than pre-service training (table 7A.3.3).

A small proportion (5.6 per cent) of teachers undertook professional development related to Indigenous education in 1997-98 (ACE 2001).

## **7.4 Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities**

Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities can foster (among other things) self esteem, social interaction, and the development of skills and teamwork. The reduction of boredom and an increased sense of belonging are generally seen as having positive impacts on Indigenous youth.

There is currently little information in administrative records on the participation of Indigenous people in organised sport, arts or community group activities. An alternative to measuring participation through administrative records would be to conduct a survey on a regular basis. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Indigenous Social Survey (expected to be published in 2004) includes questions about:

- sport and physical activity (nature of participation);

- 
- cultural activities (participation and type of cultural activity); and
  - social activities (involvement and type of social activities).

As there is currently little information in administrative records, this section provides some descriptive information on programs that have been in operation. The intention is not to provide an exhaustive list of programs, but to give some indication of the type of programs and intended outcomes.

The following five programs are sourced from the publication *Indigenous Community Sport Better Practice Models*, published by the Australian Sports Commission (ASC). It describes community programs designed to increase the participation of Indigenous people in sport and recreation.

The Indigenous Sport Program is an integrated Indigenous sport and recreation strategy that combines the services of both the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission and the ASC. The approach to Indigenous sport and recreation is founded on the principles of Indigenous self-determination and self-management.

**Box 7.4.1 Key message**

A wide range of community programs exist, but there are no national data on the participation of Indigenous youth in these programs or on the associated outcomes, although the ABS ISS when it is released will contain some information.



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#### **Box 7.4.2 Program 1 – Streetsports (WA)**

The Streetsports Program aims to increase the number of Indigenous young people involved in sport and recreation activities by providing sport development sessions, training in how to conduct neighbourhood sport and recreation programs, and introducing participants into existing sport and recreation clubs and groups once they have gained confidence and skills.

The program aims to gain the support of parents to conduct programs designed for Indigenous community members on a voluntary basis and decrease crime by providing alternatives through sport and recreation. The program provides opportunities for partnerships with agencies such as schools, health promotion units and community policing. Older Indigenous youths who may be in the 'kids at risk' category are encouraged to be involved as leaders (coaches, group leaders or officials), and parents and community elders are involved where possible.

The Streetsports concept aims to ensure that support can be given to young Indigenous people and their families while retaining a cultural focus.

- In the 'after school' component of the program, students are able to participate in the Streetsports Program after they have finished their homework classes.
- In the 'during schools' component, students undertake set tasks in class before they can participate in the Streetsports sessions, which may be in place of physical education classes.
- The 'weekends' component can be one-off sessions. Some weekend programs have been visits to Perth, hunting in the bush, coaching clinics and special sporting competitions.
- The 'school holidays' component is a response to the community's need to deal with youths who have nothing to do during school holidays. Programs have included sports camps, coaching clinics, and general cultural programs.

Intended outcomes of the Streetsports Program include:

- An increase in the number of young people who remain involved in sport and recreation as a positive alternative to anti-social behaviour.
- More community groups in regional areas adopt the model and manage the program in their community.
- The flexibility to continue to meet community needs and think creatively to address the needs of State departments of education and local businesses.

*Source:* ASC (1999).

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**Box 7.4.3 Program 2 - Koori Youth Leadership Challenge Program/Duke of Edinburgh's Award (Victoria)**

The Koori Youth Leadership Challenge Program adopts the Duke of Edinburgh's Award concept and encourages the development of young Indigenous people in culturally relevant environments throughout Victoria.

The program functions on a time basis, whereby young Indigenous people are committed to doing certain number of hours in each of the four program areas:

- The 'skills/interests' area requires participants to learn new skills over a set period of time, such as learning how to play a didgeridoo or acquiring the skills for cultural art or making artefacts.
- The 'Physical activity' component requires young Indigenous people to become involved in some type of physical recreation for a number of hours over a period of weeks. Participation in activities such as traditional corroborees, cultural dance and song, fishing or hunting could all meet these requirements.
- The 'expeditions' component requires young Indigenous people to participate in excursions involving challenge, adventure and discovery.
- The final component is 'service', where getting out and offering time and talents to other people are required to complete this component. Providing assistance to Elders within the community or volunteer work for local organisations are two examples.

The intended outcomes of the Koori Youth Leadership Challenge Program include:

- Increased opportunities for young Indigenous people to develop leadership qualities and skills.
- Improved awareness and acceptance of the value of leadership programs by Indigenous communities and organisations.
- Improved employment opportunities for Indigenous youth as a result of the development of leadership skills.
- Decreased negative interactions between police and young Indigenous people.
- A register of trained Indigenous leaders who act as coordinators for future leadership programs.

*Source:* ASC (1999).

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#### **Box 7.4.4 Program 3 - Koori 3 on 3 basketball (NSW)**

The Koori 3 on 3 Basketball Program adopts the smaller version of the basketball game as a concept and encourages the development of young Indigenous people in culturally relevant environments throughout NSW. The Koori 3 on 3 Basketball Program also gives young people the opportunity to become involved in the structured basketball competitions in their regions. It encourages Indigenous youth to build bridges with the local Police and Community Youth Clubs (PCYC). It specifically targets youths at risk and provides an alternative to the juvenile justice system.

The program areas are divided into three zones: local basketball associations; regional basketball associations; and state basketball associations.

Zone one requires participants to play in the local basketball association competition each week and targets youths at risk, both male and female, who may not play regularly in a structured competition. The PCYC branches and NSW Department of Sport and Recreation regional offices have in the past helped individuals to find teams in the local competitions. A local team is selected after several competitions and represents the PCYC branch in the regional competition at the next level.

The intended outcomes of the Koori 3 on 3 Basketball Program include:

- Increased opportunities for young Indigenous people to develop basketball skills.
- Decreased negative interaction between police and young Indigenous people.
- Greater links between participants and the broader community.
- A useful preventative measure to antisocial behaviour.
- Participants are challenged to set and attain goals.
- Promotes a positive youth profile.
- Encourages the development of physical, cultural and community pursuits.
- Develops individual initiative, self-reliance and enterprise.

*Source:* ASC (1999).

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**Box 7.4.5 Program 4 - Community Recreation Course (North Queensland)**

The Community Recreation Course provides training to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to work as recreation officers within their communities. However, with the growth of the sport and recreation industry, the course has been further developed to give students the training required to work in a range of positions such as development officers, facility managers, vacation care workers, sport specific coaches, administrators and event managers, and in positions within state departments of sport and recreation.

It is offered as a residential course to allow students from communities to study without leaving their homes for long periods. Students come into TAFE four times a year for two-week study blocks while the rest of their study time is spent implementing these skills working as recreation officers in their communities.

Two steps that TAFE and the Queensland Government have taken to create an optimum environment for the effective training of the Recreation Officers are:

- Councils and potential students must have a good understanding of the course, its aims and duration, and an overview of the content and the commitment required from both parties. This is a joint responsibility of TAFE and the State department of sport and recreation. Both parties should be involved in recruiting students and liaising with communities.
- The community and the council must have an appreciation of the benefits of recreation for the well-being of the whole community. Councils must link this commitment to the needs of the community.

Intended outcomes of the community recreation course include:

- A flexible program of study which enables students to qualify as recreation officers.
- Students who are able to promote culturally appropriate and sustainable recreation alternatives for Indigenous communities.
- The opportunity for students to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary to initiate and conduct recreational activities in communities.
- An improvement in students' general education.
- The opportunity for students to acquire the knowledge and skills for further study and alternative employment.

*Source:* ASC (1999).

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#### **Box 7.4.6 Program 5 - Palawa Recreation (Tasmania)**

The Palawa Recreation Program aims to increase the level of participation of young people in outdoor recreation and sporting activities, help Aboriginal communities to develop and run their own sport, recreation and culture programs and raise individual self esteem through involvement in quality recreation activities with a cultural focus.

The Palawa Recreation Program provides greater opportunities for Aboriginal people to experience outdoor recreation and sporting activities and to further their involvement and enhance their skills in those activities. It focuses on increasing the involvement of disadvantaged and at-risk young Aboriginal people in sport, recreation and cultural activities. The program has developed a Community Assistance Scheme and a Recreation Leadership Development Program to work with the Aboriginal community to achieve its aims.

Intended outcomes of the Palawa Recreation Program include:

- More Aboriginal people involved in the management of quality and safe sport and recreation programs.
- Young people becoming accredited coaches or officials and remaining involved in the recreation or sport of their choice.
- More community groups in regional areas use Palawa Recreation Program assistance and training to enable them to implement and manage sport and recreation programs in their community.
- A flexible program which continues to meet community needs and creatively addresses the needs of the young people, local communities, community policing, the State department of education and local businesses.
- Recreation leaders with the skills and knowledge to supervise groups participating in recreational activities, with knowledge of cultural issues, skills in specific outdoor recreation pursuits and familiarity with members of the Aboriginal community.

*Source: ASC (1999).*

Independent of these programs, other Indigenous communities have seen the merit and benefits to be gained from sport and recreation programs that occupy and entertain Indigenous youth.

Box 7.4.7 is a case study taken from the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs, based on a submission made to the Committee.

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**Box 7.4.7 Case study – Dareton, NSW**

Using Commonwealth and NSW Government grants, Dareton's Namatjira Working Party employed the community's landscape gardening apprentices to participate in the building of a football oval and a basketball court.

The community has formed the Namatjira Regional Sporting Association which has developed a calendar of sporting and recreational activities.

The Sporting Association and Collingwood Football Club host an annual trip to Melbourne for Dareton school children, selected on the basis of their attendance, attitude and performance at school each year.

Shortly after the completion of the oval and the introduction of a night patrol, the NSW Police Service noted a reduction of approximately 50 per cent in the incidence of petty crime and the Ambulance Service reported a reduction in the ambulance call out rate of 75 per cent.

*Source: HRSCATSIA (2001).*

## **7.5 Juvenile diversions as a proportion of all juvenile offenders**

When police apprehend alleged offenders, they can instigate criminal proceedings through court processes, or the alleged offender can be 'diverted' from the traditional criminal justice system (diversionary mechanisms can include cautions and attendances at community and family conferences).

In some states and territories, a decision to divert the alleged offender will be left to the discretion of the individual police officer. Alternatively, as in NSW, an Act of Parliament will govern the process to be followed. In such cases, when the police apprehend a young person, they must first consider whether he or she is entitled to be diverted under the appropriate Act.

An advantage of diversions is that they allow the offender to be admonished without the necessity of interaction with traditional court processes. The use of diversions, therefore, can have a critical influence on the extent of an individual's involvement in the criminal justice system (and consequent implications for future prospects).

There is no national data set on the extent of Indigenous juvenile diversions. The data that are published within this section are from NSW, WA and the NT and the focus is on diversions at the police level. The data are not comparable, but have been provided to give some indication of the level of Indigenous juvenile

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diversions. It is acknowledged that diversions can also be exercised at the court level and this may be explored further in future Reports.

The NSW data are from police records and represent persons of interest (POIs) or alleged offenders who have come to the attention of NSW Police for a recorded criminal incident. Not all crimes have an associated POI. The NSW Department of Juvenile Justice also plays a significant role by administering Youth Justice Conferences, which are the mechanism for juvenile diversions in that State and in other jurisdictions. The NSW Police data may not reflect the activity of Youth Justice Conferences.

In WA, data on apprehensions describe offences charged by police either via arrest or summons. Not all charges laid by the police are recorded in this system – for example, minor stealing and minor traffic offences are not recorded. In WA, a diversion includes both ‘cautioning’ and ‘referrals’ of juveniles by the police. For the NT, the data refers to apprehension cases rather than individual persons; therefore, a number of cases can relate to one person.

Indigenous status in WA is completed on the basis of the attending officer’s subjective assessment of the person’s appearance and is recorded for operational purposes only. In NSW and the NT, police officers actually ask juveniles whether they are an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander. Thus, in contrast to WA, the Indigenous status is self reported by the individual and not determined by the police officer.

Data from other jurisdictions have not been published within this Report. In some instances, this is because there is no Indigenous identifier currently in place or data are not regarded to be of sufficient size or quality to publish. It is anticipated that in future years a more extensive and comparable set of data will be available from jurisdictions.

Further work in the area of juvenile diversions is being undertaken by the ABS in their development of offender based classifications. This work will pick up on juveniles and, in the future, the collection will have a diversion component that can be reported on. Data on Indigenous status will be included as they become available in each State and Territory (based on the ABS Standard Indigenous Question).

**Box 7.5.1 Key message**

The importance of diversions in Indigenous juvenile justice outcomes necessitates the collection of better data.

In the following section where data are presented, no attempt has been made to control for factors which might affect the likelihood of a juvenile being diverted from court by police. Further factors include the nature of the offence and the offending history of the young person.

## New South Wales

Table 7.5.1 NSW - Juveniles (aged 10-17) diverted by police, 2002<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>

		Indigenous			Total <sup>e</sup>		
	Unit	Female	Male	Total <sup>f</sup>	Female	Male	Total <sup>g</sup>
Number of juveniles diverted by police							
Young Offenders Act							
Youth conference	no.	50	280	330	275	1 143	1 418
Caution	no.	427	1 001	1 428	2 784	8 015	10 799
Warning given	no.	493	1 727	2 221	3 729	13 502	17 242
Cannabis Caution	no.	—	—	—	—	2	2
<b>Total</b>	no.	<b>970</b>	<b>3 008</b>	<b>3 979</b>	<b>6 788</b>	<b>22 662</b>	<b>29 461</b>
Number of juveniles proceeded against by police							
Unknown legal process	no.	47	165	212	334	1 499	1 833
Infringement notice	no.	250	1 831	2 081	4 813	28 995	33 887
Person charged	no.	732	3 709	4 443	1 986	11 601	13 593
Person given Field CAN <sup>h</sup>	no.	27	87	114	127	881	1 009
Person given CAN	no.	81	218	299	296	1 445	1 741
Person summonsed	no.	111	444	556	430	2 054	2 485
<b>Total<sup>i</sup></b>	no.	<b>1 248</b>	<b>6 455</b>	<b>7 706</b>	<b>7 986</b>	<b>46 477</b>	<b>54 550</b>
Proportion of juveniles diverted							
	%	43.7	31.8	34.1	45.9	32.8	35.1

<sup>a</sup> Indigenous status based on self-identification by the juvenile. <sup>b</sup> Under the *Young Offenders Act 1997*, when police apprehend a young person they must first consider whether the young person is entitled to be diverted under the Act by way of warning, caution or youth justice conference. <sup>c</sup> These data represent persons of interest (POIs) or alleged offenders who have come to the attention of NSW Police for a recorded criminal incident. Not all crimes have an associated POI. <sup>d</sup> This table shows the various legal processes NSW Police can employ against alleged offenders. <sup>e</sup> The 'total' juvenile data include 837 females whose Indigenous status is 'unknown', 4571 males, and 17 people whose gender is unknown. This means that there were 5425 people whose Indigenous status is 'unknown'. <sup>f</sup> Includes one unknown gender in the warning given category, two unknown gender in the person charged category, and one unknown gender in the person summonsed. <sup>g</sup> Includes eleven unknown gender in the warning given category, 79 in the infringement notice category, six in the person charged category, and one each in the person given field CAN and person summonsed categories. <sup>h</sup> CAN means Court Attendance Notice. <sup>i</sup> Total includes one Indigenous and non-Indigenous male 'charged and fingerprinted'. — Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research (unpublished); table 7A.5.1.

Table 7.5.1 shows the various legal processes NSW Police can employ against alleged offenders. While 'infringement notices' are categorised as a 'juvenile being proceeded against by police', the actual infringement notice will not require the



juvenile to attend court. This should be considered when viewing the juvenile diversion proportion.

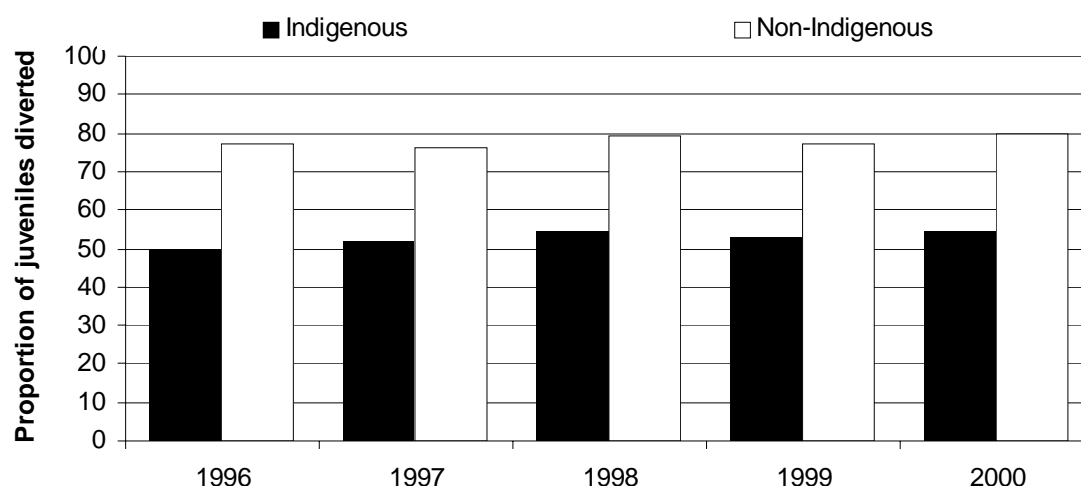
- Indigenous females (43.7 per cent) are diverted at a greater proportion than Indigenous males (31.8 per cent) (table 7.5.1). This is a similar trend to all females and males.

## Western Australia

Table 7.5.2 **WA - Distinct juveniles having (formal) contact with police via arrest or diversion, 2000<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>**

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>
Number of juveniles			
Juveniles apprehended (only)	no.	752	1 109
Juveniles diverted (only)	no.	1 497	7 738
Juveniles apprehended & diverted in the same year	no.	513	868
<i>Total police contact</i>	no.	2 762	9 715
Proportion of juveniles diverted	%	54.2	79.7

Figure 7.5.1 **WA — Distinct juveniles having (formal) contact with police via arrest or diversion<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Data counts number of 'distinct' juveniles. <sup>b</sup> In WA, data about apprehensions are derived from police forms and describe offences charged by police either via arrest or summons. Note that not all charges laid by the police are recorded in this system – for example, minor stealing and traffic offences (but more serious traffic offences such as reckless driving and driving under the influence are). <sup>c</sup> In WA, a diversion includes both 'cautioning' and 'referrals' of juveniles by the police. <sup>d</sup> Indigenous status is completed on the basis of the attending officer's subjective assessment of the person's appearance and is recorded for operational purposes only.

Source: University of WA (2001); table 7A.5.2.

- The WA data shows that the use of diversionary processes varies with Indigenous status. In the case of Indigenous juveniles, about half (54.2 per cent)

of distinct juveniles formally dealt with by the police are diverted, while the proportion of non-Indigenous juveniles diverted is 79.7 per cent (table 7.5.2).

- Alternatively, there are 1.2 Indigenous juveniles formally diverted for every Indigenous juvenile entering the system. For non-Indigenous juveniles, 3.9 juveniles are diverted for every juvenile entering the justice system.
- These proportions have been relatively consistent over the last five years (figure 7.5.1).

Data pertaining to cautions issued by offence type (for males and females) are available in table 7A.5.3. Cautions are only one type of diversion that may be employed by the WA Police. Referrals to Juvenile Justice Teams are another option. More than half of all cautions issued to Indigenous juveniles were for property offences and around 14 per cent were for good order offences (table 7A.5.3).

## Northern Territory

Table 7.5.3 Indigenous and non-Indigenous juvenile apprehensions and diversions, NT, 1 January to 31 December 2002<sup>a, b</sup>

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Total</i>
Total juvenile apprehensions (number)			
Male	793	358	1151
Female	113	112	225
<b>Total</b>	<b>906</b>	<b>470</b>	<b>1376</b>
Declined or denied participation in diversion (number) <sup>c</sup>			
Male	481	190	671
Female	36	18	54
<b>Total</b>	<b>517</b>	<b>208</b>	<b>725</b>
Participated in diversion (number)			
Male	312	168	480
Female	77	94	171
<b>Total</b>	<b>389</b>	<b>262</b>	<b>651</b>
Proportion diverted (%)			
Male	39.3	46.9	41.7
Female	68.1	83.9	76.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>42.9</b>	<b>55.7</b>	<b>47.3</b>

<sup>a</sup> Indigenous data are based on self-identification by the juvenile. <sup>b</sup> Data refers to apprehension cases rather than individual persons; therefore, there may be a number of cases that relate to one person. <sup>c</sup> Where cases did not result in a diversion, these cases either proceeded to court or were resolved in some other manner (it is not an indicator of the number of matters referred to the courts).

Source: NT Police (unpublished); table 7A.5.4.

- As with NSW and WA, these data are derived directly from police records and are not comparable with other jurisdictions. The NT data refer to apprehension

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cases rather than individual persons; therefore, there may be a number of cases that relate to one person.

- Where cases did not result in a diversion, these cases either proceeded to court or were resolved in some other manner (it is not an indicator of the number of matters referred to the courts).
- Of the total apprehensions (1376) for the period, 47.3 per cent participated in diversion. Of those participating in diversion (651), 59.7 per cent were Indigenous. Of those cases that did not proceed to diversion (725), 71.3 per cent were Indigenous (table 7.5.3).
- The proportion of juveniles diverted was higher for non-Indigenous than Indigenous (55.7 per cent compared with 42.9 per cent). For both Indigenous and non-Indigenous juveniles, a greater proportion of females than males were diverted (table 7.5.3).

## 7.6 Transition from school to work

Two approaches to examining the transition from education to work have been followed in this Report. The first examines the number of young people (aged 15–24) who are not participating in education and training, and who are not employed, and as such are at risk of long term disadvantage (the ‘at risk’ approach), while the second examines labour force outcomes for people who have achieved a certain level of education (the ‘outcome from education’ approach).

### Box 7.6.1 Key messages

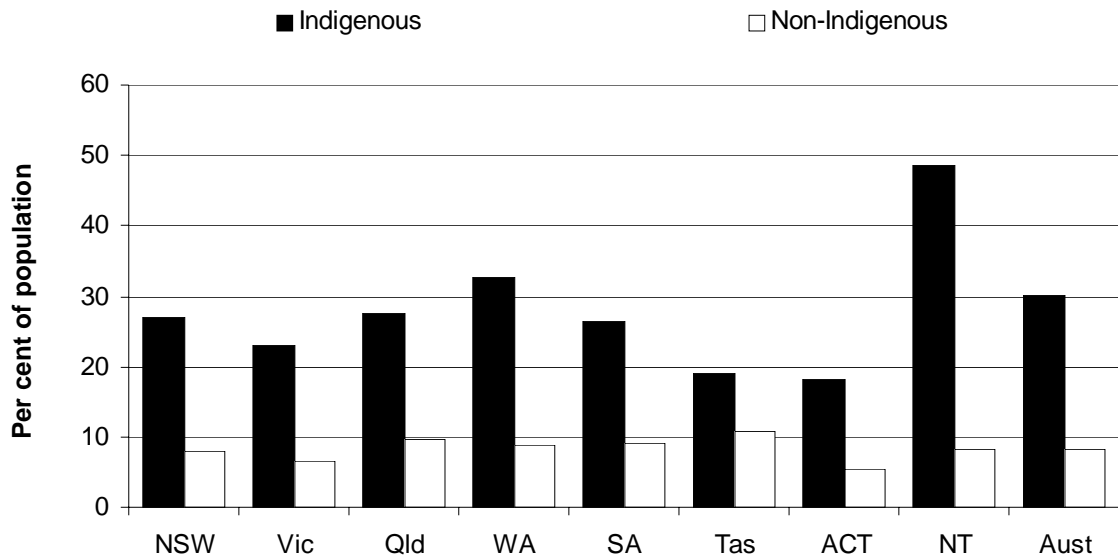
- In 2001, Indigenous people aged 15–24 were much more likely to be ‘at risk’ of long term disadvantage than their non-Indigenous counterparts, as they were less likely to have a job or to be in school.
- An educational attainment of certificate level 3 or above significantly reduced an Indigenous person’s chance of being unemployed (table 7.6.1).

### The ‘at risk’ approach

This approach looks at the participation in the work force and education system of people aged 15–24. It examines the proportion of people in this age group who are neither in full or part time employment, nor in full or part time study. These people are often seen as being be ‘at risk’ of long term disadvantage.

The rates calculated for this section are as a proportion of the relevant population. For most of the groups analysed, the outcomes for Indigenous people are worse than for non-Indigenous people; that is, a higher proportion of Indigenous young people are at risk. The data for this indicator come from the ABS 2001 Census and show the proportion of the population who indicated that they were unemployed or not in the labour force, and were not attending an educational institution (figures 7.6.1 and 7.6.2).

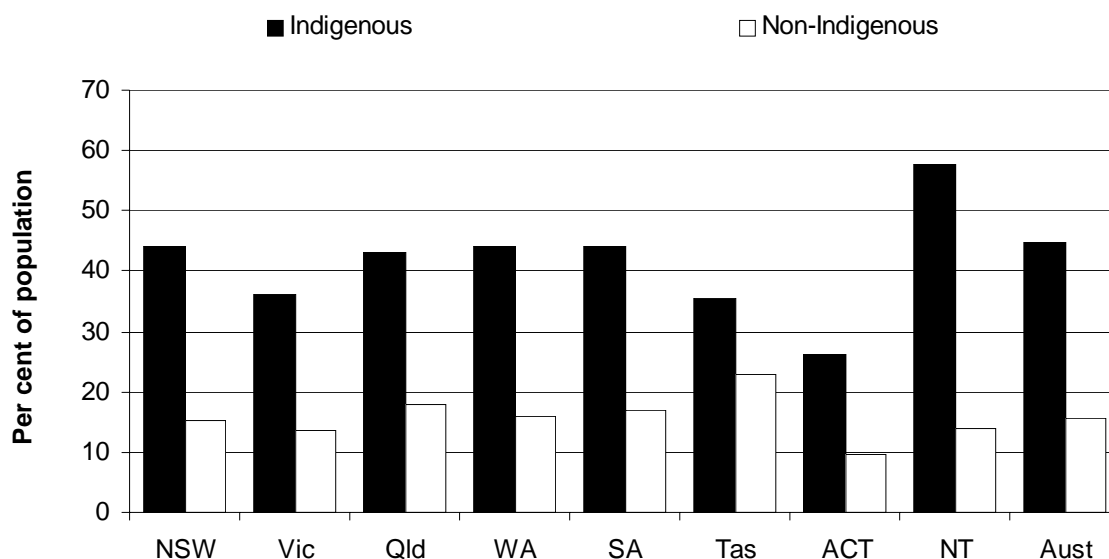
**Figure 7.6.1 Proportion of 15–19 year olds who were unemployed or not in the labour force, and who were not attending an educational institution, 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 7A.6.1.

- For 15–19 year olds, 30.1 per cent of the population of Indigenous people were at risk, compared to 8.1 per cent of the non-Indigenous population (figure 7.6.1).
- Across jurisdictions, this ‘at risk’ group as a proportion of the Indigenous population ranged from 48.6 per cent in the NT to 18.9 per cent in Tasmania. For the non-Indigenous population, the proportion ranged from 10.8 per cent in Tasmania to 5.3 per cent in the ACT (figure 7.6.1).

**Figure 7.6.2 Proportion of 20–24 year olds who were unemployed or not in the labour force, and who were not attending an educational institution, 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 7A.6.1.

- For 20–24 year olds, the proportion of people ‘at risk’ nationally was 44.8 per cent of the population for Indigenous people and 15.6 per cent for non-Indigenous people (figure 7.6.2).
- Across jurisdictions, this at risk group ranged from 57.7 per cent of the Indigenous population in the NT to 26.1 per cent in the ACT. For the non-Indigenous population, the proportion ranged from 22.8 per cent in Tasmania to 9.8 per cent in the ACT.
- Participation outcomes generally improved for non-Indigenous people the closer they lived to a major city. For Indigenous people, however, participation outcomes were slightly better for people living in inner regional areas, and the same for people living in outer regional areas, as they were in the major cities (table 7A.6.1). This suggests that, relative to their non-Indigenous counterparts, young Indigenous people are not participating in the educational and employment opportunities available in major cities.

## The 'outcome from education' approach

This approach examines the labour force status of people who have achieved a certificate level 3 or higher, and reveals whether a good employment outcome is more likely if a person attains such an educational qualification (table 7.6.1).

**Table 7.6.1 Employment, unemployment and labour force participation outcomes, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Ratio</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Persons</i>
<i>Employed people as a proportion of the labour force</i>							<i>Ratio non-Indigenous to Indigenous<sup>b</sup></i>		
People with a certificate level 3 or higher	18.6	16.7	17.8	45.4	34.8	40.6	2.4	2.1	2.3
All people	78.2	82.4	80.0	92.3	93.5	92.8	1.2	1.1	1.2
<i>Unemployed people as a proportion of the labour force</i>							<i>Ratio Indigenous to non-Indigenous<sup>c</sup></i>		
People with a certificate level 3 or higher	2.4	1.6	2.1	2.1	1.4	1.8	1.1	1.1	1.1
All people	21.8	17.6	20.0	7.7	6.5	7.2	2.8	2.7	2.8
<i>Labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15 years and over</i>							<i>Ratio non-Indigenous to Indigenous<sup>b</sup></i>		
People with a certificate level 3 or higher	12.4	7.8	10.0	33.6	19.9	26.6	2.7	2.5	2.7
All people	58.6	42.8	50.4	70.6	55.0	62.6	1.2	1.3	1.2

<sup>a</sup> The ABS defines: the labour force as 'all persons who, during a specified time reference period, contribute to or are available to contribute to the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations System of National Accounts'; employed people as those who have worked for at least one hour in the reference week; unemployed people as those who are without work, but are actively looking for work and available to start work within four weeks (ABS 2001). <sup>b</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous employment and labour force participation is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous employment and labour force participation rate by the Indigenous employment and labour force participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people. <sup>c</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous unemployment rate by the Indigenous unemployment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census.

- Table 7.6.1 shows that 17.8 per cent of the Indigenous labour force has attained a certificate level 3 or above and is employed, compared to 40.6 per cent of the non-Indigenous labour force, a ratio (of non-Indigenous to Indigenous) of 2.3. This compares to a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous employment of 1.2 for the whole population. (See section 11.1 for the issues associated with the Indigenous employment data.)

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- Unemployed Indigenous people who have attained a certificate level 3 or above are represented in the labour force in similar proportions to unemployed non-Indigenous people who have attained a certificate level 3 or above, at 2.1 and 1.8 per cent respectively. The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous unemployment was 1.1, compared to 2.8 for the whole population.
  - The labour force participation rate of Indigenous people who have attained a certificate level 3 or above is 10.0 per cent, compared to 26.6 per cent for non-Indigenous people who have attained a certificate level 3 or above – a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous labour force participation of 2.7. This compares to a ratio of 1.2 for the whole population.

## **7.7 Future directions in data**

### **Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy**

(As for year 3) Indigenous learning outcomes data in future reports will need to be improved through the inclusion of more timely data and data by geographic regions.

The Ministerial Council for Employment, Education and Training (MCEETYA) is collecting learning outcomes data for Indigenous students in year 7.

### **Indigenous cultural studies in school curriculum and involvement of Indigenous people in development and delivery of Indigenous studies**

Currently there are very limited data on curriculum and Indigenous staff. MCEETYA are in the process of including an Indigenous identifier for staff in the National Schools Statistics Collection (NSSC).

### **Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities**

The ISS covers some of the activities pertaining to participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities which can be included in next year's Report.

### **Juvenile diversions as a proportion of all juvenile offenders**

Further work in the area of juvenile diversions is being undertaken by the Australian Bureau of Statistics.

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## Transition from school to work

Data from the ABS Survey of Education and Work on the proportion of Indigenous people aged 15-24 'at risk' of long term disadvantage, are likely to be available only at the national level in future years. State and Territory breakdowns need to be undertaken as a priority.

## 7.8 References

### 7 Positive childhood and transition to adulthood

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- 2001, *Exploring Multiple Pathways for Indigenous Students*, MCEETYA Taskforce on Indigenous Education, Discussion Paper, MCEETYA, Melbourne, <http://www.curriculum.edu.au/mctyapdf/exploringmultiplepathways.pdf> (accessed 12 July 2003).
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## 7.1 Years 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy

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## 7.2 Retention at year 9

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## 7.3 Indigenous cultural studies in school curriculum and involvement of Indigenous people in development and delivery of Indigenous studies

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Bourke, C.J., Rigby K. and Burden, J. 2000, *Better Practice in School Attendance. Improving the School Attendance of Indigenous Students*, Monash University, Melbourne, <http://www/dest.gov.au> (accessed 28 April 2003).

DEST (Department of Education, Science and Training) 2002, *National Report to Parliament on Indigenous Education and Training 2001*, Canberra.

NTDE (Northern Territory Department of Education) 1999, *Learning Lessons, An Independent Review of Indigenous Education in the Northern Territory*, Darwin.

White T. (SA Education Minister) 2003, *Boost for Aboriginal languages*, Media release, 7 September.

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## **7.4 Participation in organised sport, arts or community group activities**

ASC (Australian Sports Commission) 1999, *Indigenous Community Sport Better Practice Models*, Canberra.

HRSCATSIA (House of Representatives Standing Committee on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs) 2001, *“We Can Do It!” The Needs of Urban Dwelling Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People*, Canberra.

## **7.5 Juvenile diversions as a proportion of all juvenile offenders**

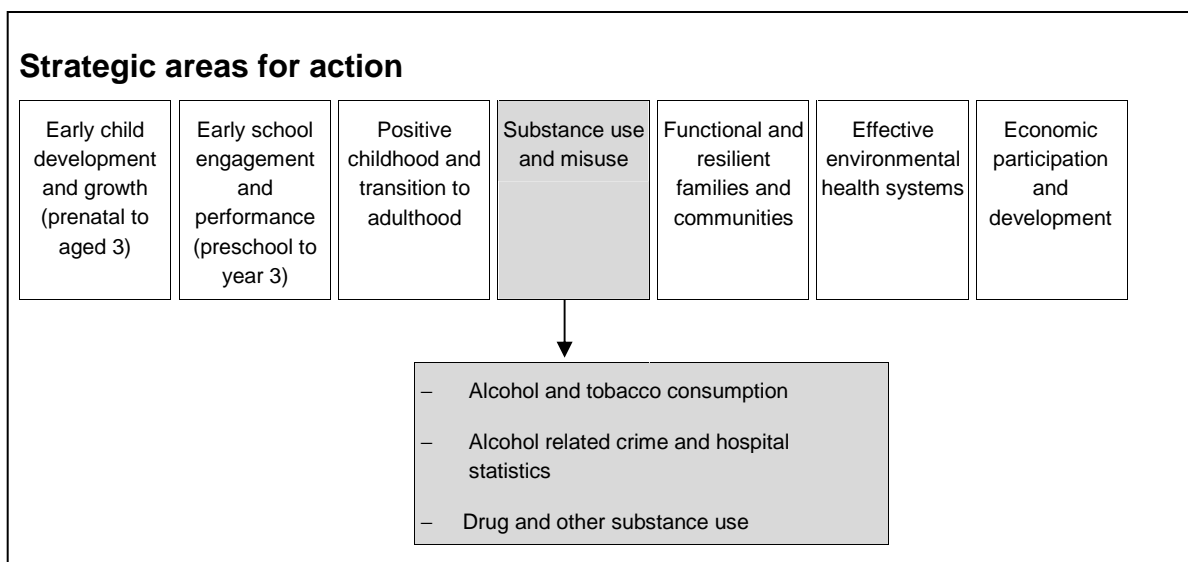
University of WA 2001, Aboriginal involvement in the Western Australian criminal justice system: A statistical review, 2000, Crime Research Centre, Perth.

## **7.6 Transition from school to work**

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## 8 Substance use and misuse



Substance use and misuse has the potential to impact on all the headline indicators discussed in this Report. Reducing substance misuse can significantly reduce the level of assaults and homicides, and the level of disability, while increasing the life expectancy of a population. The reduction of substance use might also increase household and individual income levels, and reduce crime and imprisonment rates.

This section examines patterns of use of a range of substances including alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs among Indigenous and non-Indigenous people.

Monitoring the consumption of substances such as tobacco, excessive alcohol and other substances is important, as substance misuse can have a direct influence on physical and mental health outcomes. It can also have detrimental effects on families and communities.

Generally there are social factors influencing the use of these substances, which can result in the worsening of inequalities in health (GSA 2003). According to some studies, health risk behaviours such as cigarette smoking, excessive alcohol consumption and illicit drug use are particularly prevalent in lower socioeconomic groups. The relative socioeconomic disadvantage experienced by Indigenous Australians compared with other Australians may place them at greater risk of ill health.

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Intrapersonal factors, such as low self-esteem, and sociodemographic factors, such as higher levels of unemployment rates, can contribute to the initiation of substance use and misuse. Substance use and misuse might also arise as a result of higher rates of exposure to grief, trauma and stress, if people decide to 'self-medicate'.

Apart from seriously harming one's physical health, substance use and misuse can also affect one's mental and social well-being. The Hunter study, for example, found that increased frequency of alcohol consumption was associated with current depression. Further, self-harmful acts and suicide attempts were also correlated with the frequency of drinking (Swan and Raphael 1995). Alcohol has also been implicated in high levels of deaths from injury and poisoning among Indigenous people. A study of hospital admissions in Bourke showed that around a quarter of all Indigenous admissions were directly or indirectly related to alcohol, compared with around 5 per cent of non-Indigenous hospital admissions (Swan and Raphael 1995).

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 8A.1.1). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM, which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **8.1 Alcohol and tobacco consumption**

Cigarette smoking and excessive alcohol consumption are associated with increased morbidity and mortality.

High levels of alcohol consumption can lead to dependence syndrome and alcohol cirrhosis. The use of alcohol by pregnant women can also adversely effect the health of their newborns (World Bank 2000). Foetal-alcohol syndrome, for example, is more prevalent in Aboriginal infants (GSA 2003).

Apart from directly harming an individual's health, excessive alcohol consumption at the family and community levels contributes to interpersonal/domestic violence, financial problems, child abuse and neglect, and family breakdown. It also contributes to acute hospitalisation from alcohol related injuries such as falls, traffic accidents, assaults and suicide.

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There has been a strong causal relationship between tobacco consumption and multiple chronic diseases, including coronary heart disease, stroke, chronic respiratory tract diseases, and pregnancy-related conditions such as low birth weight. Further, passive smoking has been linked with higher rates of lung cancer, and asthma and respiratory tract illness in children. According to DHA (2003), tobacco-related disease is estimated to be responsible for between 1.5 and 8 times more deaths in the Indigenous community than in the non-Indigenous community.

**Box 8.1.1 Key messages**

- In 2001, Indigenous people were more than twice as likely as other Australians to be regular smokers (table 8.1.1).
- Nationally, in 2001 there was little difference between the proportion of Indigenous and non-Indigenous people consuming alcohol at the low risk (or no alcohol) level (table 8.1.1).
- In 2001, a slightly greater proportion of Indigenous people (7 per cent) was considered to consume alcohol at a high risk level compared with non-Indigenous people (4 per cent) (table 8.1.1). Indigenous people consuming alcohol at the risky and high risk levels were more likely to reside in remote areas (table 8.1.2).

The analyses below are based on Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2001 National Health Survey (NHS) (ABS 2002). Limitations of this survey include:

- questions on alcohol and tobacco use were only asked of persons aged 18 years and over; and
- a relatively larger associated sampling error than results from many other ABS surveys due to the small size of the Indigenous sample in the ABS 2001 NHS.

**Table 8.1.1 Persons aged 18 years and over: Selected risk factors, age standardised rates, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>
	Total	Total
Smoker status		
Current daily (regular) smoker <sup>b</sup>	49	22
Currently smoke but not daily <sup>c</sup>	2	2
Ex-smoker	21	26
Never-smoked	28	50
Total <sup>d</sup>	100	100
Alcohol risk level <sup>e</sup>		
Did not consume alcohol <sup>f</sup>	58	38
Low risk	30	51
Risky	5	7
High risk	7	4
Total <sup>g</sup>	100	100

<sup>a</sup> The data in the 'Total' column for the Indigenous population in this table do not equal those in the 'Total' column in table 8.1.2 because the data in this table are age standardised to enable them to be compared with the data for the non-Indigenous population. The data in table 8.1.2, however, are not age standardised.

<sup>b</sup> Regular smoking' was defined as one or more cigarettes (or pipes or cigars) per day on average as reported by the respondent. <sup>c</sup> The differences in the Indigenous and non-Indigenous proportions were found not to be significant. <sup>d</sup> Includes 'smoker status' not known. <sup>e</sup> These levels were derived from the average daily consumption of alcohol in the seven days prior to interview and grouped into relative risk levels as defined by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) as follows: low risk (males) - 50ml or less; low risk (females) - 25ml or less; risky (males) - more than 50ml, up to 75ml; risky (females) - more than 25ml, up to 50ml; high risk (males) - more than 75ml; and high risk (females) - more than 50ml. It should be noted that risk level as defined by the NHRMC is based on regular consumption levels of alcohol, whereas indicators derived from the 2001 National Health Survey do not take into account whether consumption in the reference week was more, less or the same as usual, or whether consumption was regular. <sup>f</sup> Includes those who had not consumed alcohol in the week prior to interview. <sup>g</sup> Includes 'Period since last consumed alcohol' not known.

Source: ABS 2002.

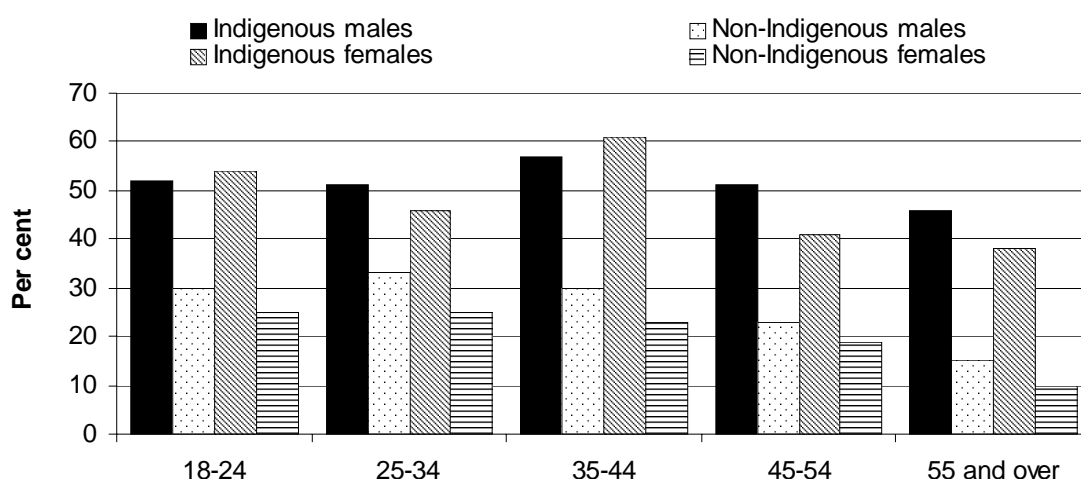
Age standardised data are used when comparing smoker status and alcohol risk levels between Indigenous with non-Indigenous populations. Examining smoker status of persons aged 18 years and over in 2001 (table 8.1.1):

- Indigenous people were more than twice as likely to be current daily smokers compared with non-Indigenous people (49 per cent compared with 22 per cent);
- half of the non-Indigenous people had never smoked, while only 28 per cent of Indigenous people had never smoked; and
- a greater proportion of non-Indigenous people were ex-smokers (26 per cent) compared to Indigenous people (21 per cent).

Examining alcohol consumption levels of persons aged 18 years and over in 2001 (table 8.1.1):

- a greater proportion of Indigenous people had not consumed alcohol (based on the average daily alcohol consumption in the seven days prior to the survey) than non-Indigenous people —58 per cent compared with 38 per cent;
- of those in the population that do consume alcohol, the largest proportion are grouped in the low risk category — 30 per cent and 51 per cent for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people respectively; and
- a slightly greater proportion of Indigenous people (7 per cent) was considered to consume alcohol at a high risk level compared with non-Indigenous people (4 per cent).

**Figure 8.1.1 Persons aged 18 years and over: Current daily smokers, 2001**



Source: ABS 2002; table 8A.1.1.

Data on daily smoking status are shown in figure 8.1.1.

- Across all age categories, the proportions of Indigenous males smoking were much greater than of non-Indigenous males.
- More than fifty percent of the Indigenous male population in all but the '55 and over' age category smoked.
- Across all age categories, a greater proportion of Indigenous females smoked compared to non-Indigenous females.
- The proportion of Indigenous females that smoked ranged from 38 per cent for people aged 55 years and over to 61 per cent for people aged 35–44 years.

The proportions of Indigenous and non-Indigenous males and females (by age groups) consuming alcohol at the various risk levels are shown in table 8A.1.2. These estimates — especially for Indigenous males and females at the 'risky' and

‘high risk’ levels — were subject to high relative standard error, and, therefore, need to be used with caution.

**Table 8.1.2 Indigenous persons aged 18 years and over: Selected risk factors, 2001<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Remote<sup>b</sup></i>		<i>Non-remote<sup>b</sup></i>		<i>Total</i>	
	(‘000)	%	(‘000)	%	(‘000)	%
<b>Smoker status</b>						
Smoker <sup>c</sup>	37.7	60	90.9	51	128.5	54
Ex-smoker	6.0	10	34.7	20	40.8	17
Never smoked	18.8	30	52.3	29	71.0	30
Total <sup>d</sup>	62.2	100	177.8	100	240.0	100
<b>Alcohol risk level<sup>e</sup></b>						
Did not consume alcohol <sup>f</sup>	38.0	61	91.2	51	129.2	54
Low risk	13.8	22	66.0	37	79.8	33
Risky	3.9	6	9.1	5	12.9	5
High risk	6.5	10	11.6	6	18.1	8
Total <sup>g</sup>	62.2	100	177.8	100	240.0	100

<sup>a</sup> The data in the ‘Total’ column for the Indigenous population in this table do not equal those in the ‘Total’ column in table 8.1.1 because the data in this table are not age standardised. <sup>b</sup> These categories are based on the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) Remoteness Structure. There are five categories which are based on the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA). The ARIA measures the remoteness of a point based on the physical road distance to the nearest urban centre. The term ‘Remote’ is used to indicate those respondents living in areas that lie within either the ‘Very Remote Australia’ or ‘Remote Australia’ categories of the ASGC. Non-Remote areas are those that lie within the ‘Major Cities of Australia’, the ‘Inner Regional Australia’ and the ‘Outer Regional Australia’ categories. <sup>c</sup> Comprises current daily smoker, and those who currently smoke but not daily. <sup>d</sup> Includes ‘Smoker status’ not known. <sup>e</sup> These levels were derived from the average daily consumption of alcohol in the seven days prior to interview and grouped into relative risk levels as defined by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) as follows: low risk (males) - 50ml or less; low risk (females) - 25ml or less; risky (males) - more than 50ml, up to 75ml; risky (females) - more than 25ml, up to 50ml; high risk (males) - more than 75ml; and high risk (females) - more than 50ml. It should be noted that risk level as defined by the NHRMC is based on regular consumption levels of alcohol, whereas indicators derived from the 2001 National Health Survey do not take into account whether consumption in the reference week was more, less or the same as usual, or whether consumption was regular. <sup>f</sup> Includes those who had not consumed alcohol in the week prior to interview. <sup>g</sup> Includes ‘Period since last consumed alcohol’ not known.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

Within the Indigenous population, in 2001 (table 8.1.2):

- those residing in remote areas were more inclined to smoke (60 per cent) than those residing in non-remote areas (51 per cent);
- based on the average daily alcohol consumption in the seven days prior to the survey, a higher proportion of those living in remote areas did not consume alcohol (61 per cent) compared to those living in non-remote areas (51 per cent); and



- 
- those residing in remote areas had a greater propensity to consume alcohol at the risky and high risk levels (16 per cent) than those from non-remote areas (11 per cent).

## 8.2 Alcohol related crime and hospital statistics

Research from Australia and overseas suggests there is a strong association between alcohol and violence, crime, and anti-social behaviour. One research study conducted by NSW and Queensland police services found that high proportions of street offences (for example, offensive behaviour), assault, malicious damage, domestic violence and noise complaints were related to alcohol use (Ireland 1993).

According to the Department of Health and Ageing, excessive alcohol consumption has been found to be an important factor in:

- one third of all road deaths in Australia;
- 50 per cent of cases of domestic physical and sexual violence;
- 40–70 per cent of violent crimes, and 70–80 per cent of night-time assaults;
- homicide (affecting 34 per cent of offenders and 31 per cent of victims); and
- the problems (linked with violence, crime, vandalism and destruction of property) faced by 15–24 year olds (DHA 2003).

Alcohol consumption is also associated with a variety of adverse health consequences. Adverse effects of alcohol have been demonstrated for many disorders, including liver cirrhosis, mental illness (which might increase the risk of suicide attempts), several types of cancer, pancreatitis and damage to the foetus among pregnant women (WHO 2000).

### Box 8.2.1 Key messages

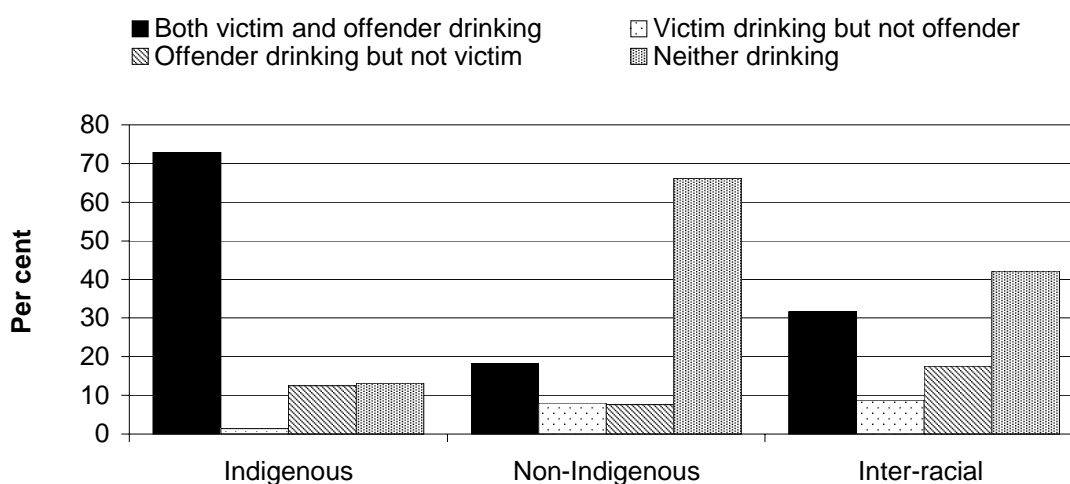
- During 1999-2000 to 2001-02, 72.9 per cent of Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence — four times the rate for non-Indigenous homicides (figure 8.2.1).
- In 2001-02, mental and behavioural disorders were the most common reason for admissions to hospital for alcohol related conditions for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people (table 8.2.1).

## Alcohol related crime

There are no reliable data on the overall extent of alcohol related crime. This section draws on 1999-2000 to 2001-02 alcohol related homicides.

Alcohol involvement is higher in Indigenous homicides than in non-Indigenous homicides. Between 1989-90 and 2001-02, the proportion of Indigenous homicides resulting from an alcohol related incident was around 29.3 per cent (that is, 157 alcohol related Indigenous homicides out of the total 544 Indigenous homicides). Comparatively, 10.5 per cent of non-Indigenous homicides involved alcohol (428 alcohol related non-Indigenous homicides out of the total 4168 non-Indigenous homicides) (Mouzos 2001).

Figure 8.2.1 **Alcohol involvement in Indigenous and non-Indigenous homicides, 1999-2000 to 2001-02<sup>a, b, c, d</sup>**



**a** Homicide includes murder and manslaughter, but excludes driving causing death. **b** Indigenous homicides are where both victims and offenders of homicide are either Indigenous and/or Torres Strait Islanders. **c** Non-Indigenous homicides are where both victims and offenders are not Indigenous. Includes victims and offenders who are Caucasian, Asian and Maori/Pacific Islanders. **d** Inter-racial homicides are where either the victim or the offender is Indigenous. Includes homicides involving: an Indigenous offender and non-Indigenous victim, and non-Indigenous offender and an Indigenous victim.

Source: AIC NHMP (unpublished); table 8A.2.1.

- Examining the level of alcohol involvement in terms of whether the victim or offender was under the influence of alcohol, figure 8.2.1 shows that between 1999-2000 and 2001-02, just under three quarters (72.9 per cent) of Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence.
- In contrast, only 18.2 per cent of non-Indigenous homicides involved both the victim and offender under the influence of alcohol at the time of the incident.

Most non-Indigenous homicides (66.2 per cent) do not involve alcohol being consumed either by the victim or offender.

- Inter-racial homicides (where either the victim or the offender may be an Indigenous person) also had a greater share (31.6 per cent) of both the victim and offender having consumed alcohol at the time of the offence compared to non-Indigenous homicides. Where at least the offender was under the influence of alcohol in a homicide, the share was much greater for Indigenous homicides (85.4 per cent) compared to inter-racial homicides (49.1 per cent) or non-Indigenous homicides (25.8 per cent).

The NHMP data only provide alcohol related homicides and not information on offences that do not result in the death of the victim. Other limitations of the NHMP data are discussed in appendix 3.

## Hospital statistics on alcohol-related incidents

When examining hospital statistics, one should note that only alcohol related illnesses resulting in admission to a hospital are collected. The limitations of using hospital statistics are discussed in appendix 3.

**Table 8.2.1 Hospital separation rates related to alcohol use, 2001-02 (per 1000 population)<sup>a, b</sup>**

ICD-10-AM codes and description	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous <sup>c</sup>	Total	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous <sup>c</sup>	Total
	Male			Female		
Mental and behavioural disorders (F10)	9.3	1.8	1.9	4.0	1.0	1.1
acute intoxication (F10.0)	3.3	0.5	0.5	2.0	0.2	0.3
harmful use (F10.1)	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
dependence syndrome (F10.2)	2.6	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.6	0.6
other (F10.3–F10.9)	2.9	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.1
Alcoholic liver disease (K70)	1.3	0.3	0.3	1.1	0.1	0.1
Accidental poisoning by and exposure to alcohol (X45)	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Intentional self-poisoning by and exposure to alcohol (X65)	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2

<sup>a</sup> The hospital separation rates (per 1000 population) were directly age standardised to the Australian population as at 30 June 2001. <sup>b</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition). <sup>c</sup> Includes separations where Indigenous status was not reported.

Source: AIHW National hospital morbidity database (unpublished).

Table 8.2.1 shows hospital separation rates related to alcohol use for 2001-02.

- 
- Of the types of alcohol related hospital separations in 2001-02, mental and behavioural disorders was the most common condition for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous males and females.
  - In 2001-02, the proportion of hospital separations consisting of Indigenous males suffering from mental and behavioural disorders due to alcohol use was 9.3 per 1000, compared with 1.8 per 1000 for non-Indigenous males. For Indigenous females, this proportion was 4.0 per 1000 compared with 1.0 per 1000 for non-Indigenous females.
  - Acute alcohol intoxication was the most common type of mental and behavioural disorder for both Indigenous males and females. For non-Indigenous males and females, alcohol dependence syndrome was the most common type of mental and behavioural disorder.
  - Age standardised hospital separation rates for alcoholic liver disease were comparatively higher for both Indigenous males and females than for non-Indigenous males and females.

### 8.3 Drug and other substance use

Drug and other substance use is an important indicator. Substance misuse is a contributing factor to illness and disease, accident and injury, violence and crime, family and social disruption, and workplace problems. Reducing drug related harm will improve health, social and economic outcomes at both the individual and community level. A positive impact on this indicator, therefore, will result in a positive impact on a range of other indicators across the various strategic areas for action, and has the potential to influence many of the headline indicators.

#### Box 8.3.1 Key messages

- In 2001, marijuana/cannabis was the most common illicit drug used by both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people (table 8.3.1).
- In some jurisdictions, prescription drug misuse was a major cause of hospital admissions in 2001-02 (tables 8A.3.3–8A.3.8).

Although there are recent national data on the consumption of alcohol and tobacco through the ABS national health survey on Indigenous people (section 8.1), data on the use of other drugs by Indigenous people are limited.

In attempting to assess the prevalence of drug consumption in Indigenous communities, this section includes analyses from the 2001 and 1994 National Drug

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Strategy Household Survey (NDSHS). The 1994 survey is the largest conducted on the Indigenous population (living in urban areas) and it provides the most comprehensive picture of drug use among Indigenous people. Drug use from the 2001 NDSHS (which included non-urban areas) is also included to provide more up-to-date information; however, due to the small sample size (415 Indigenous people) in the 2001 survey, the results need to be interpreted with caution.

Data are also available from the ABS National Health Survey (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Results). However, it is not possible to make comparisons between this survey and the NDSHS, due to differences in definitions for smoking status and alcohol consumption. Data on drug use related mortality and morbidity are also included in this section.

In recent years, illicit drug consumption has played a significant role in Indigenous people's involvement in the criminal justice system. According to the Office of the Status of Women, there is a correlation between domestic violence, and drug and alcohol use in Indigenous communities, with 70 to 90 per cent of assaults being committed while under the influence of alcohol and other drugs (DHA 2003).

The consumption of other substances such as inhalants (for example, petrol and glue) can lead to serious health consequences, including long-term brain damage, disability or even death. It can also cause social alienation of sniffers, violence and reduced self-esteem. According to some studies, petrol sniffing is particularly prevalent in ethnic and low socioeconomic groups of young people. Although it is difficult to estimate the prevalence of petrol sniffing in Australia (due to changes in the practice and the variations among communities), some researchers believe that the prevalence has increased since the 1970s with more users sniffing over longer periods.

By the 1990s the practice was occurring across large parts of remote Australia. Petrol sniffers in the Indigenous communities generally tend to be teenage males (although the age range can be between 8 to 30 years). Most do not become chronic or regular sniffers, but it carries a high potential for permanent physical damage. Some reports, however, have suggested that there has been a reduction in petrol sniffing in some communities where it had been prevalent for a long time (DHA 2003).

Excessive consumption of kava is a concern in some Indigenous communities, as it can lead to health problems such as liver damage and malnutrition. Kava can also have a negative impact on families and communities. Concerns of some Indigenous communities regarding kava consumption include neglecting family and community duties, and spending the income on kava instead of on necessities like food.

Although kava use has generally been limited to Arnhem Land, some researchers have reported that kava use has increased (DHA 2003).

Prescription drugs used in combination with other substances such as alcohol can compound the social, physiological and psychological problems faced by people with a mental illness. Through a consultation process with rural Indigenous communities, the Aboriginal Drug and Alcohol Council found that Indigenous communities were concerned about the misuse of prescription drugs. These communities stated that prescription drugs such as serapax, codeine and panadeine forte were easily accessible by Indigenous people, and that some doctors prescribed these drugs quite freely (DHA 2003).

**Table 8.3.1 Illicit drug use status, person aged 14 years and over, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

	<i>Never use</i>	<i>Ever use<sup>b</sup></i>	<i>Recent use<sup>c</sup></i>
<i>Illicit drugs, including marijuana/cannabis</i>			
Indigenous	42.9	57.1	31.8
Non-Indigenous	62.6	37.4	16.7
<i>Illicit drugs, excluding marijuana/cannabis</i>			
Indigenous	74.9	25.1	12.7
Non-Indigenous	81.7	18.3	8.3

<sup>a</sup> In this survey illicit drugs include: illegal drugs (marijuana/cannabis, heroin, cocaine, LSD/synthetic hallucinogens, natural hallucinogens, ecstasy and other designer drugs, and any injected drugs); volatile substances (inhalants) used inappropriately; and pharmaceuticals used for non-medical purposes. The survey included the following drugs as illicit when used for non-medical purposes: pain-killers/analgesics, tranquillisers/sleeping pills, steroids, barbiturates, amphetamines, methadone (for non-maintenance program) and other opiates. <sup>b</sup> Used at least once in lifetime. <sup>c</sup> In the last 12 months.

Source: AIHW 2002.

- A greater proportion of non-Indigenous people in 2001 had never used an illicit drug (62.6 per cent) compared with Indigenous people (42.9 per cent) (table 8.3.1).
- A larger share of the Indigenous population had tried an illicit drug (57.1 per cent), or had recently used an illicit drug (31.8 per cent), compared with non-Indigenous people.
- Marijuana/cannabis was the most common illicit drug used in both communities. When marijuana/cannabis was excluded from the use of illicit drugs, a greater share of both Indigenous (74.9 per cent) and non-Indigenous (81.7 per cent) populations had never used illicit drugs. Nevertheless, the share of illicit drug consumption (excluding marijuana/cannabis) was still higher in the Indigenous population.

**Table 8.3.2 Smoking statistics, persons aged 14 years and over, 2001<sup>a</sup>**

		<i>Never smoked<sup>b</sup></i>	<i>Ex-smoker<sup>c</sup></i>	<i>Smoker<sup>d</sup></i>
<i>Smoking status</i>				
Indigenous	%	37.7	12.4	49.9
Non-Indigenous	%	50.8	26.4	22.8
<i>Mean number of cigarettes smoked per week by current smokers</i>				
		<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Persons</i>
Indigenous	no.	132.6	119.2	125.4
Non-Indigenous	no.	110.8	105.3	108.3

<sup>a</sup> The definitions used in this table on smoking status differ from those used in the ABS National Health Survey. <sup>b</sup> A person who does not smoke now and has smoked fewer than 100 cigarettes or the equivalent tobacco in their lifetime. <sup>c</sup> A person who has smoked at least 100 cigarettes or the equivalent tobacco in their lifetime, but does not smoke at all now. <sup>d</sup> A person who reported that he/she currently smokes daily, weekly or less often than weekly.

Source: AIHW 2002.

- In 2001, a larger share of the non-Indigenous population was estimated to have never smoked (50.8 per cent) compared with the Indigenous population (37.7 per cent) (table 8.3.2).
- In 2001, approximately half the Indigenous population and 22.8 per cent of non-Indigenous people were smokers.
- The mean number of cigarettes smoked per week by Indigenous smokers in 2001 was 125.4 compared with 108.3 for non-Indigenous smokers (table 8.3.2).
- The average number of cigarettes smoked per week by male smokers was higher than female smokers, in both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. However, the average number smoked per week by Indigenous males was around 22 cigarettes more than non-Indigenous males.

**Table 8.3.3 Alcohol consumption, by short and long term risk status, persons aged 14 years and over, 2001 (per cent)<sup>a</sup>**

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Short term</i>			<i>Long term</i>	
	<i>Abstainer/ ex-drinker<sup>b</sup></i>	<i>Low risk<sup>c</sup></i>	<i>Risky or high risk<sup>d</sup></i>	<i>Low risk</i>	<i>Risky or high risk<sup>d</sup></i>
Indigenous	20.6	30.7	48.7	59.5	19.9
Non-Indigenous	17.3	48.4	34.3	73.0	9.7

<sup>a</sup> The definitions used in this table on alcohol consumption differ from those used in the ABS National Health Survey. The data in this table are based on the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *Australian Alcohol Guidelines*, which outline drinking patterns associated with risk of alcohol-related harm. The risk of harm (particularly injury or death) in the short term is associated with given levels of drinking on a single day. The level of long term risk is associated with regular daily patterns of drinking, defined by the total amount of alcohol typically consumed per week. <sup>b</sup> Abstainers of alcohol are those that have never consumed a full serve of alcohol. An ex-drinker is a person who had consumed a full serve of alcohol in their lifetime, but not in the last 12 months. <sup>c</sup> Low risk is a level of drinking at which there is only a minimal risk of harm, and there may be health benefits for some. <sup>d</sup> Risky levels are those at which risk of harm is significantly increased beyond any possible benefits. High-risk drinking levels are those at which there is substantial risk of serious harm, and risk increases rapidly as these levels are surpassed.

Source: AIHW 2002.

- Compared with non-Indigenous people, in 2001 a higher proportion of Indigenous people were more likely to be abstainers from alcohol — around 20.6 per cent compared with 17.3 per cent for non-Indigenous people (table 8.3.3).
- A greater share of Indigenous people who did drink alcohol, however, drank at risky or high risk levels (both in short and long terms) than non-Indigenous people.

The analyses below on Indigenous people are based on the 1994 NDSHS (conducted on the Indigenous population living in urban areas) (table 8A.3.1), while the analyses on the general population are based on the 1993 NDSHS (DHA 1994).

- 51 per cent of the Indigenous population living in urban areas had tried at least one illicit drug.<sup>1</sup>
- Around 23 per cent of Indigenous people living in urban areas were current users of illicit drugs.<sup>2</sup>
- 19 per cent of Indigenous people living in urban areas had tried at least one illicit drug other than marijuana, and 6 per cent were current users of an illicit drug other than marijuana.

<sup>1</sup> That is, total population less the 46 per cent that indicated they had not consumed any illicit drugs, and less the 3 per cent who did not know.

<sup>2</sup> That is, total population less the 71 per cent that indicated they had not consumed any illicit drugs, and less the 6 per cent who did not know.



- Around 7 per cent of Indigenous people had tried inhalants in general (which includes petrol, paints and glue) compared with 4 per cent of the general population.
- Indigenous people living in urban areas were just as likely as the general population to consume sleeping tablets and pain killers for non-medical purposes.

**Table 8.3.4 Drug related deaths across four jurisdictions, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**

	<i>Indigenous</i>		<i>Non-Indigenous</i>		<i>Total<sup>c</sup></i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Rate</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Rate</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Rate</i>
Under 25	6	3.8	54	2.3	63	2.5
25–34	8	17.9	89	8.8	106	10.0
35+	5	6.9	216	6.0	228	6.2
Total	19	8.1	359	5.1	397	5.5

<sup>a</sup> Data only includes deaths from Queensland, WA, SA and the NT. <sup>b</sup> Death rates are reported as per 100 000 population. <sup>c</sup> Includes Indigenous status 'not stated'.

Source: ABS death collection (unpublished).

- In 2001, the overall drug related death rate in the Indigenous population was estimated at 8.1 per 100 000, which was higher than the 5.1 per 100 000 in the non-Indigenous population (table 8.3.4). For both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, the highest drug related death rates occur at the 25–34 year age group.

Based on hospital separations related to drug use in 2001-02, in Australia (table 8A.3.2):

- the main drug related hospital admissions for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people were generally for poisoning, and mental and behavioural disorders due to drug use;
- the largest proportion of hospital separations for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people were due to poisoning by antiepileptic, sedative-hypnotic and antiparkinsonism drugs (T42) (0.8 per 1000 and 0.5 per 1000, respectively); and
- mental and behavioural disorders due to multiple drug use (F19) was one of the main conditions for drug related hospital separations for the Indigenous community, as was poisoning from psychotropic drugs including antidepressants (T43) — which was the second main reason for drug related hospital separations for the non-Indigenous population.

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Jurisdictional analyses, based on hospital separations data for 2001-02 (tables 8A.3.3–8A.3.8), found that:

- hospital separations due to drug use related diseases generally are higher for Indigenous males and females than non-Indigenous males and females;
- in some jurisdictions, Indigenous females generally have higher separation rates for drug use related diseases than Indigenous males;
- comparatively, Indigenous males and females in NSW were more likely to be in hospital for most of the drug use related diseases than non-Indigenous males and females;
- of the main drug use related separations in NSW, Indigenous males were more likely to be in hospital for mental and behavioural disorders due to consuming multiple drug and psychoactive substances (0.8 per 1000 Indigenous males). Indigenous females were more likely to be in hospital due to poisoning from various types of pharmaceuticals;
- comparatively, there was little or no difference in the hospital separation rates for most drug related diseases between Indigenous and non-Indigenous males and females living in Victoria;
- of the main drug use related separations in Victoria, Indigenous males and females were more likely to be in hospital due to poisoning from various types of pharmaceuticals. Separation rates due to mental and behavioural disorders from various drugs were also high for Indigenous females;
- in Queensland, the main drug use related hospital separations — which tended to be Indigenous females — include poisoning from antibiotics and hormones, or poisoning from antiepileptic, sedative-hypnotic and antiparkinsonism drugs;
- in WA, the main drug related hospital separations for Indigenous males were for mental and behavioural disorders due to the use of multiple drug and psychoactive substances. Indigenous females were more likely to be in hospital for poisoning due to use of antibiotics and hormones, or poisoning from antiepileptic, sedative-hypnotic and antiparkinsonism drugs;
- drug use related separations in SA were highest for Indigenous females for poisoning from the use of antiepileptic, sedative-hypnotic and antiparkinsonism drugs (2.9 per 1000 Indigenous females). Separations rates for Indigenous females were also high for: accidental poisoning from antidepressants and barbiturates, or from narcotics; and mental and behavioural disorders due to the use of various stimulants. Indigenous males were more likely to be in hospital for mental and behavioural disorders due to multiple drug and psychoactive substance use;

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- in the NT, the main separation rates for Indigenous males were due to mental and behavioural disorders, particularly from multiple drug use, and cannabinoids. Indigenous and non-Indigenous females were more likely to be in hospital for poisoning due to use of antibiotics and hormones; and
  - analyses on hospital separations related to drug use were not provided for the ACT and Tasmania due to small numbers of Indigenous people in these jurisdictions.

## **8.4 Future directions in data**

### **Drug and other substance (including alcohol and tobacco) use**

Currently there are limited data reported on the prevalence of drug and other substance use (by type of drug, and by jurisdictional level or geographic region) in the Indigenous population. Future drug surveys need to be large enough in scope to ensure that robust data can be provided on the level and type of drugs used by Indigenous people. In addition, alternative ways of collecting robust data at the jurisdictional and geographic levels need to be examined.

The National Drug Strategy Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples' Complementary Action Plan 2003–2006 (endorsed by the Ministerial Council on Drug Strategy on 1 August 2003) has performance indicators that will be used to provide valid and reliable measures of harm or the reduction in harm caused by drug use. The data collected for these indicators might be appropriate for reporting against indicator 8.1, Alcohol and tobacco consumption, and indicator 8.3, Drug and other substance use.

### **Alcohol related crime**

The current drug surveys need to be expanded to include information on the level of drug related crime in the Indigenous population — especially the level of crime by major drug types, such as alcohol.

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## 8.5 References

### 8 Substance use and misuse

DHA (Department of Health and Ageing) 2003, *National Drug Strategy, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, Complementary Action Plan 2003-2006*, Canberra.

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### **8.3 Drug and other substance use**

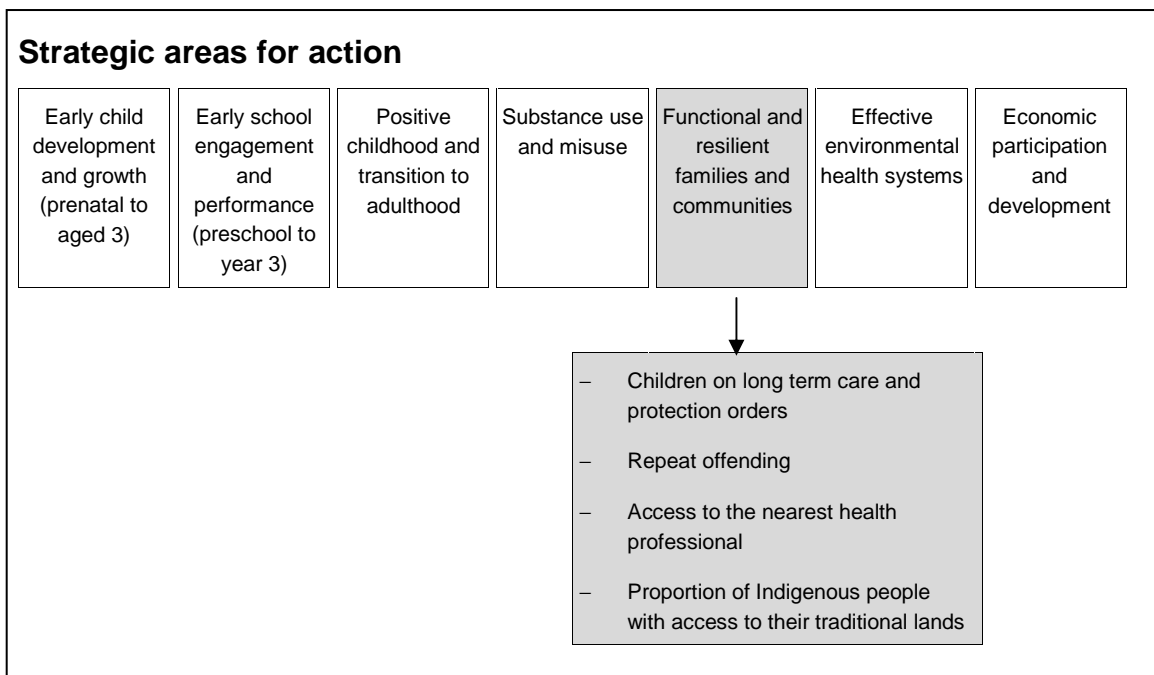
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## 9 Functional and resilient families and communities



Functional and resilient families and communities are generally seen as being fundamental to the physical and mental health of adults and children. Characteristics of such families and communities may include: a caring, protective and supportive environment; shared responsibilities; positive health outcomes and cultural awareness.

Ideally, a functioning family and community will provide a supportive and caring environment that acts as a conduit for positive outcomes in (among other things) life expectancy, education, employment and income. Problems in families and communities can lead to breaks in schooling and education, disrupted social relationships and social alienation, having implications for unemployment, alcohol abuse, criminal activity, violence and suicide.

The report *Violence in Indigenous Communities* by the Commonwealth Attorney-General's Department (AGD), noted that violence toward children is having major adverse consequences for the future of Indigenous families and communities (AGD 2001). The inability of child abusers or neglecters to deal with

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their problems has been identified as a contributing factor in the perpetuation of a cycle of abuse. The witnessing and experiencing of violence from a young age has been shown to manifest later in life as being strongly associated with both a desensitisation towards violence and a predisposition towards violence in one's own relationships (AGD 2001).

As intervention by the state in the welfare of a child is indicative of a family that is not functioning well, the same can be said of families and communities where the state intervenes as a result of continued criminal behaviour. There are any number of factors that may influence the extent of re-offending, including: the justice system providing appropriate sanctions and rehabilitative options for the initial offence; the socioeconomic circumstances of the offender (including education and employment); and the ability of families and the community to assist in the offender's ability to re-integrate back into society. Repeat offending is not only an indicator of families and communities that are not functioning, it also can mean (through imprisonment and detention) that the individual is separated from family and community for potentially long periods. The negative impacts of interaction with the criminal justice system include such things as stigma, alienation and effects on future employment and family relationships (ANCD 2003).

Indigenous people suffer a variety of physical and mental illnesses. Indigenous health outcomes can be related to a number of different factors – one of which is the access the community and families have to health care. Health care is the first level of contact between the individual and the health system and enables early intervention, case management and non-stigmatising ongoing care for individuals. Primary health care can be critical in terms of early prevention. It can help break the ongoing cycle of suicide, self-harm and alcohol abuse and assist in improving health outcomes such as diabetes and heart disease. Health services also can assist in preventing and responding to child abuse and family and community violence, enhancing maternal and child health services, and providing community education programs (SHRG 2003). A functional family and community, based around appropriate access to health care, can lead to significant benefits in terms of Indigenous well-being.

Many people recognise the cultural significance of land and the sense of 'connectedness' that it brings to Indigenous people. The 1991 Royal Commission on Aboriginal Deaths in Custody noted that:

Whilst the particular priorities with respect to land differ between Aboriginal people, they are united in their view that land, whether under the banner of land rights or not, is the key to their cultural and economic survival as people.....It was the dispossession and removal of Aboriginal people from their land which has had the most profound impact on Aboriginal society and continues to determine the economic and cultural

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well-being of Aboriginal people to such a significant degree as to directly relate to the rate of arrest and detention of Aboriginal people (paragraph 19.1.1).

A feeling of spiritual and cultural belonging will strengthen the family and community. A fuller discussion on 'culture' and its linkage to the headline indicators is contained in the discussion on the framework (chapter 2).

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 9A.2.3). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **9.1 Children on long term care and protection orders**

Data on Indigenous children under care and protection orders show the extent to which the State or Territory has made some form of legal intervention for protective reasons. For the purposes of this section, a child on long term care and protection is defined as one who has been on a protection order continuously for a year or more.

The headline indicator on 'substantiated child protection notifications' shows those instances where authorities were notified, and subsequently decided, that a child was or could be at risk. (For a more detailed understanding of the process involved between notification and substantiation, see chapter 3.9). Once a matter has been substantiated, the authorities have a number of options available to them:

- working with the family to address protective issues;
- developing networks of support for the child;
- monitoring and reviewing the safety of the child;
- monitoring and reviewing family progress against case planning goals;
- case conferences with agencies providing services to the child; and
- specialist child-focused therapeutic support (SCRCSSP 2003).

It is important to note that the cultural relevance or responses available to the authorities vary considerably. The services are intended to address the specific issue(s) causing the child protection concern. These services could be provided



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prior to any court order being granted. Not all substantiations, therefore, will lead to a care and protection order. A care and protection order is a legal intervention for protective reasons. Court orders may be used to enable the relevant agency to undertake activities necessary to resolve the protection issue. The use of court orders could be associated with:

- the speed of response required (that is, an emergency response);
- the family not engaging with the relevant agency over a period of time; or
- a change of circumstances that increases the risk to the child or young person (SCRCSSP 2003).

A number of children are on care and protection orders for reasons other than abuse or neglect; for instance, where there is an irretrievable breakdown in the relationships in the family or where the parents are unwilling or unable to care for the child. Notwithstanding this, given that the legal intervention is usually a last resort after other interventions have failed or are considered not feasible — care and protection orders may provide some insight into the most serious or long-term instances of child abuse and neglect. These instances could, potentially, reflect the most serious harm and damage to the child and the ability of the family to function.

The type of orders that are classified as ‘care and protection’ include:

- *Guardianship or custody orders*: sought through court or administrative arrangements that have the impact of transferring custody or guardianship;
- *Supervision orders* and other finalised orders which give the State or Territory some responsibility for the child’s welfare; and
- *Interim and temporary orders*: including orders that are not finalised, and care applications.

Care should be taken in interpreting the care and protection data. It is a proxy indicator because no credible data exist on actual levels of child abuse or neglect. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community.

In some instances, increases in notifications (and subsequent substantiations and care and protection orders) may be a result of reduced tolerance of such behaviour in Indigenous families and the broader Indigenous community. An increased rate, therefore, in these instances will signify an increased awareness and identification of the problem – which is a progression towards a more desirable solution than abuse and neglect occurring in an environment where a community does not have the knowledge, resources and trust towards the government to tackle the issues in its current systematic form. An increased rate may also be due to improvements in the

identification of Indigenous status and an increase in resources in the protection and support area.

### Box 9.1.1 Key messages

- Nationally, of those Indigenous children discharged during 2001-02 from a care and protection order, 39.6 per cent had been on the order for at least a year, only slightly more than for non-Indigenous children (37.3 per cent) (table 9.1.1).
- Caution is needed in interpreting these data. The data collected by community service departments may under-estimate the true extent of abuse or neglect occurring within the community.

Table 9.1.1 **Children discharged from care and protection orders, by length of time on an order, 2001-02 (per cent)<sup>a, b</sup>**

<i>Length of time continually on an order at time of discharge</i>						
	<i>Less than 1 year</i>	<i>1 to &lt;2 years</i>	<i>2 to &lt;4 years</i>	<i>4 to &lt;8 years</i>	<i>8 or more years</i>	<i>More than 1 year</i>
<i>Indigenous</i>						
NSW <sup>c</sup>	<b>63.1</b>	11.7	12.7	5.2	7.2	<b>36.9</b>
Victoria	<b>64.7</b>	17.4	13.2	3.4	1.3	<b>35.3</b>
Queensland	<b>33.8</b>	10.9	27.8	10.5	16.9	<b>66.2</b>
WA	<b>28.8</b>	17.3	15.4	19.2	19.2	<b>71.2</b>
SA	<b>89.2</b>	0.8	1.5	1.5	6.9	<b>10.8</b>
ACT	<b>60.0</b>	–	20.0	20.0	–	<b>40.0</b>
NT	<b>83.2</b>	8.8	5.6	0.8	1.6	<b>16.8</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>60.4</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>14.4</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>39.6</b>
<i>Non-Indigenous</i>						
NSW <sup>c</sup>	<b>66.5</b>	10.6	9.7	7.3	5.9	<b>33.5</b>
Victoria	<b>63.9</b>	15.8	13.1	5.4	1.9	<b>36.1</b>
Queensland	<b>42.9</b>	12.4	24.9	10.8	8.9	<b>57.1</b>
WA	<b>44.7</b>	11.2	13.2	16.8	14.2	<b>55.3</b>
SA	<b>82.9</b>	1.6	2.1	4.1	9.3	<b>17.1</b>
ACT	<b>78.9</b>	6.3	6.3	5.3	3.2	<b>21.1</b>
NT	<b>80.5</b>	8.5	7.3	3.7	–	<b>19.5</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>11.7</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>37.3</b>

<sup>a</sup> Data are not available for Tasmania. <sup>b</sup> Totals may not sum due to rounding. <sup>c</sup> These data do not include children discharged from supervisory orders. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIHW (unpublished); table 9A.1.1.

There are differences between jurisdictions when it comes to legislation and policy, and jurisdictions have different options when it comes to the types of orders that can be granted. Therefore, the data across jurisdictions are not comparable.

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Additionally, data on children exiting orders are not reflective of the overall population of children on orders in any jurisdiction.

The data in table 9.1.1 report the length of time continually spent on a care and protection order, for those children who were discharged from a care and protection order during 2001-02. The length of time on an order for those children currently under a care and protection order is not reported.

- At a national level, in 2001-02, 483 Indigenous children were on care and protection orders that were greater than a year at time of discharge from the order, compared with 2028 non-Indigenous children (table 9A.1.1).
- For those children who were discharged from a care and protection order that was of more than one year's duration in 2001-02, the proportion of Indigenous children was similar to the non-Indigenous (39.6 and 37.3 per cent respectively) (table 9.1.1).
- Nationally, of those children discharged from care and protection orders in 2001-02, 13.9 per cent of Indigenous children and 12.9 per cent of non-Indigenous children had been on a care and protection order for four years or more (table 9.1.1).

## 9.2 Repeat offending

The impact of the cycle of Indigenous imprisonment on families and communities is severe. It has ramifications for the rehabilitation and employment prospects of individuals, along with the socioeconomic capacity of families to function. Given the extent of Indigenous imprisonment, it is important that those people who have contact with the criminal justice system have the ability and opportunity to integrate back into the community and lead a positive and productive life.

This chapter examines data on prior imprisonment under sentence in a gazetted adult prison, from the ABS *Prisoners in Australia* publication (ABS 2003). Clearly, prior imprisonment is only used as a proxy for repeat offending. The following caveats exist with the ABS data:

- some states and territories may include episodes on remand as prior imprisonment;
- a prior sentence of periodic detention is included as prior imprisonment;
- prisoners who have had previous adult imprisonment in another State or Territory may not be counted as having prior imprisonment;
- the data do not include arrests that do not proceed to court (for example, as a result of diversion or restitution);

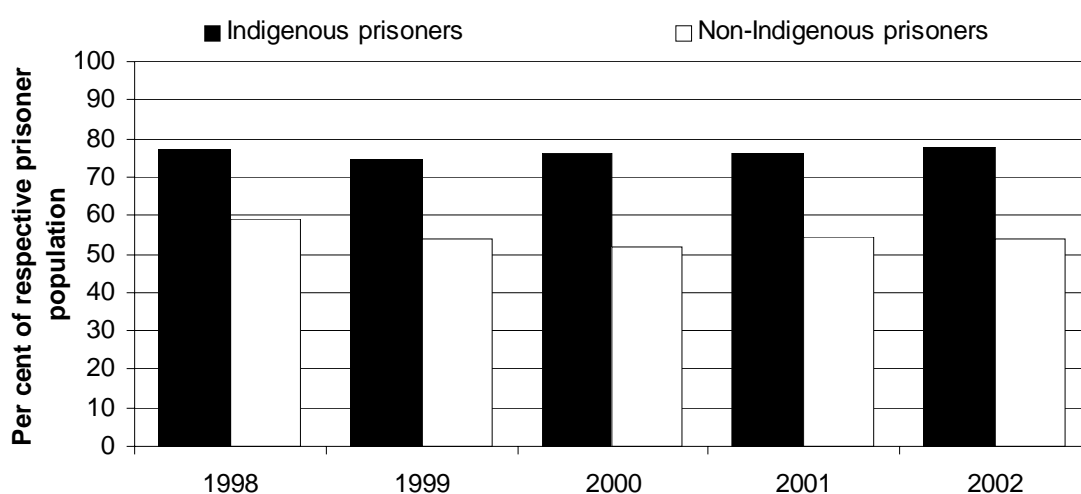
- the data do not include convictions for re-offending that lead to outcomes that are not administered by prisons (eg. community service orders, fines); and
- the data only deal with prior imprisonment in an adult prison (juvenile detention is not reported).

As a consequence, the true level of repeat offending is under-represented, as not all offences come to the attention of police, or are recorded by police, or are dealt with within the criminal justice system.

#### Box 9.2.1 Key messages

- Nationally, the proportion of Indigenous prisoners experiencing prior adult imprisonment was higher than for non-Indigenous prisoners from 1998 to 2002 (figure 9.2.1).
- On 30 June 2002, around four in every five Indigenous prisoners had a previous prison record (figure 9.2.1).

Figure 9.2.1 Prisoners, by known prior adult imprisonment under sentence<sup>a</sup>



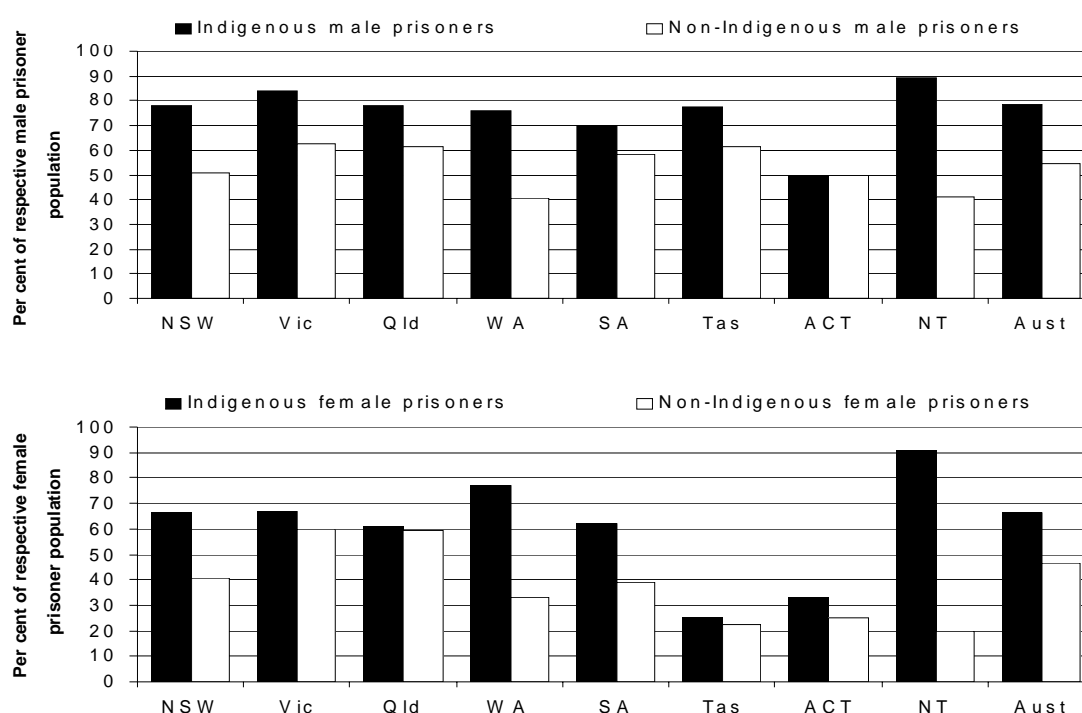
<sup>a</sup> Persons known to have had prior imprisonment under sentence in a gazetted adult prison. A prior sentence of periodic detention is included as prior imprisonment. Some states and territories may also include episodes on remand as prior imprisonment. Prisoners who have had previous adult imprisonment in another State or Territory may not be counted as having prior imprisonment.

Source: ABS (2003); tables 9A.2.1–9A.2.5.

- In 2002, approximately four in every five Indigenous prisoners had previously been in prison (figure 9.2.1).
- The proportion of prisoners who had prior imprisonment was higher for Indigenous prisoners than non-Indigenous prisoners over the last five years (figure 9.2.1).

- For both Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners, the proportion of prisoners who have had known prior adult imprisonment has been relatively constant over the period 1998 to 2002 (figure 9.2.1).
- The proportion of prisoners who had prior imprisonment was around 75 per cent for Indigenous prisoners and around 55 per cent for non-Indigenous prisoners over the last five years (figure 9.2.1).

**Figure 9.2.2 Prisoners, by known prior adult imprisonment under sentence, 30 June 2002<sup>a</sup>**



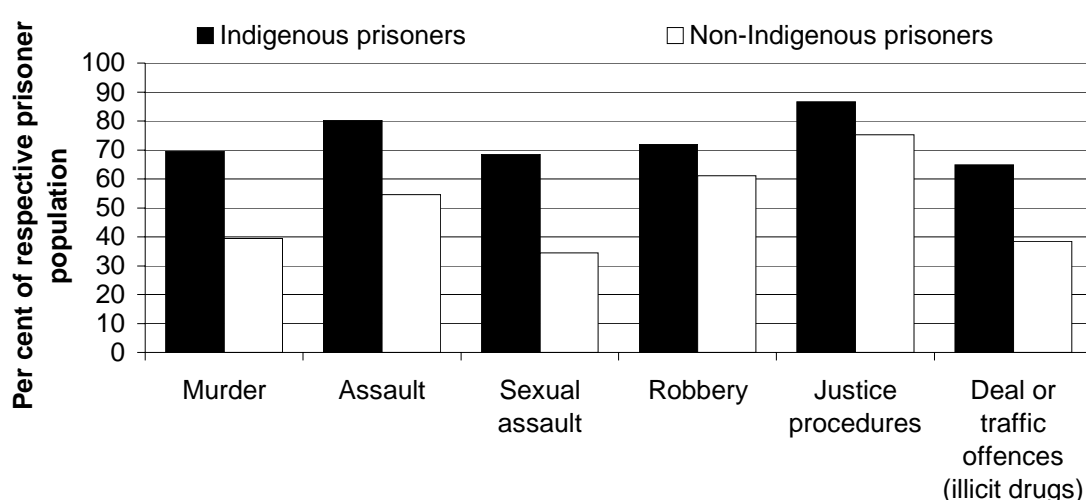
<sup>a</sup> Persons known to have had known prior imprisonment under sentence in a gazetted adult prison. A prior sentence of periodic detention is included as prior imprisonment. Some states and territories may also include episodes on remand as prior imprisonment. Prisoners who have had previous adult imprisonment in another State or Territory may not be counted as having prior imprisonment.

Source: ABS (2003); table 9A.2.5.

- As at 30 June 2002, indicative results show that in most jurisdictions the proportion of Indigenous male prisoners who have had prior adult imprisonment was larger than the proportion of Indigenous females (figure 9.2.2). However, care should be taken in interpreting the female proportions, due to the small numbers involved.
- Nationally, 3487 Indigenous prisoners (77.6 per cent of the Indigenous prisoner population) were known to have prior adult imprisonment. At the same time, 9575 non-Indigenous prisoners (54.1 per cent of the non-Indigenous prisoner population) were known to have prior adult imprisonment (table 9A.2.5).

- As at 30 June 2002, the highest proportion of Indigenous prisoners who have had a prior adult imprisonment was in the NT (409 Indigenous prisoners or 89.1 per cent of the Indigenous prisoner population). The lowest proportion was in the ACT (12 Indigenous prisoners or 48.0 per cent of the Indigenous prisoner population) (table 9A.2.5). The ACT and Tasmania have a small Indigenous prisoner population, which means the proportion calculations need to be treated with care for these jurisdictions.

**Figure 9.2.3 Prisoners with prior imprisonment by most serious offence/charge, 30 June 2002<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Persons known to have had prior imprisonment under sentence in a gazetted adult prison. A prior sentence of periodic detention is included as prior imprisonment. Some states and territories may also include episodes on remand as prior imprisonment. Prisoners who have had previous adult imprisonment in another State or Territory may not be counted as having prior imprisonment.

Source: ABS (2003); table 9A.2.6.

- The offences listed in figure 9.2.3 are the current most serious offence/charge for which the person has been imprisoned. The data in this graph show: of those prisoners at 30 June 2002 who had prior adult imprisonment, the proportion in each offence category. The most serious offence/charge for which the prisoner is serving their current sentence is not necessarily related to any offence/charge for which they may have previously been imprisoned.
- For instance, of those prisoners who are currently in prison for murder, 69.6 per cent of Indigenous prisoners have been in prison previously and 39.5 per cent of non-Indigenous prisoners have been in prison previously (figure 9.2.3).
- In each particular offence, the proportion of Indigenous prisoners who have been in prison previously is greater than the non-Indigenous proportion (figure 9.2.3).

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- For those Indigenous prisoners currently serving a sentence for offences against justice procedures, compared to the other offences shown, it is most likely that the Indigenous offender had been in prison previously (figure 9.2.3).
  - The greatest divergence between Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners in the offences selected is in sexual assault. Of those prisoners who are currently in prison for sexual assault, 68.5 per cent of Indigenous prisoners have been in prison previously, compared with 34.5 per cent of non-Indigenous prisoners (figure 9.2.3).
  - A more extensive range of offences categories is shown in attachment table 9A.2.6, and a jurisdiction breakdown is shown in table 9A.2.7.

Table 9A.2.8 contains data on prisoners with prior imprisonment, by age and gender.

### 9.3 Access to the nearest health professional

Indigenous people, like other Australians, suffer a variety of physical and mental illnesses. Health outcomes depend on many different factors – one of which is access to health services.

One measure of accessibility is gauging where people live in relation to health services and how far they must travel to access these services. Health services include primary care and public health services, such as those provided by: general practitioners; nurses; allied health professionals; acute care in hospitals; and specialist services (such as those provided by obstetricians and eye specialists). These services may be provided in a range of settings including community health centres and clinics, doctors' rooms and hospitals (ABS/AIHW 2003). In remote locations, the setting could also include community-based infrastructure such as a community centre or a school.

Indigenous people are more likely to live outside urban areas than the rest of the Australian population. Indigenous people are therefore also more likely to live further from health services than other Australians. In 1998, there were 144 medical practitioners per 100 000 population employed in rural and remote areas, compared with 306 per 100 000 in capital city and other metropolitan areas (AIHW 2002).

While distance to various health services provides one measure of access, lack of transport can often mean that comparatively short distances are an impediment to service usage. According to the ABS/AIHW (2003), data on vehicle access suggest that Indigenous people have significantly less access to personal transport and would, therefore, be less able to reach health facilities at a given distance than

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non-Indigenous people. Indigenous households are typically larger and more likely to be without a vehicle (especially those located in remote and very remote areas). Although public transportation may partly compensate for the lack of personal transport, and transport services for patients might be provided by clinics, these services are not available everywhere.

**Box 9.3.1 Key message**

In 2001, 85 per cent of people living in discrete Indigenous communities were within 10 kilometres of a health facility (table 9A.3.3).

This section includes data for Indigenous households and communities on their:

- distance to the nearest hospital;
- access to medical emergency air service;
- distance to the nearest community health centre; and
- access to selected health professionals.

Detailed information for people living in discrete Indigenous communities was collected in the 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey (CHINS). The 2001 CHINS collected data concerning a total of 1216 discrete Indigenous communities with a combined population of approximately 108 085. About 86 per cent of these people lived in remote and very remote regions, with only five communities (0.6 per cent of the population) being located in major cities (ABS 2002).



Table 9.3.1 Distance to nearest hospital or community health centre (number of communities), 2001

	<i>Located within the community</i>	<i>Less than 10kms</i>	<i>10-24kms</i>	<i>25-49kms</i>	<i>50-99kms</i>	<i>100-249kms</i>	<i>250kms or more</i>	<i>Total<sup>a</sup></i>
<i>Discrete Indigenous communities with a population of less than 50</i>								
Hospital	–	42	46	49	73	236	441	889
Community health centre <sup>b</sup>	8	86	184	193	212	126	36	847
<i>Discrete Indigenous communities with a population of 50 or more</i>								
Hospital	9	76	30	19	29	62	102	327
Community health centre <sup>b</sup>	175	12	16	14	13	9	3	242
<i>All discrete Indigenous communities</i>								
Hospital	9	118	76	68	102	298	543	1 216
Community health centre <sup>b</sup>	183	98	200	207	225	135	39	1 089

<sup>a</sup> Includes 'Distance to nearest hospital' or 'Distance to nearest community centre' not stated. <sup>b</sup> Excludes communities located within 10 kilometres of the nearest hospital.

Source: ABS 2002.

- Over two thirds (841 communities or 69.2 per cent) of all discrete Indigenous communities in 2001 were located at least 100 kilometres from the nearest hospital (table 9.3.1). These communities represented 52.9 per cent (57 222) of the reported population living in discrete Indigenous communities (table 9A.3.1).
- 76.2 per cent of all discrete Indigenous communities with a population of less than 50 people in 2001 were located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital (table 9.3.1).
- For those communities with a population of 50 or more, 50.2 per cent of all discrete Indigenous communities in 2001 were located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital (table 9.3.1).
- In 10.4 per cent of all discrete Indigenous communities in 2001, a hospital was located within the community, or less than 10 kilometres from the community. These communities represented 27.5 per cent (29 694) of the reported population living in discrete Indigenous communities (table 9A.3.1).
- The NT had the greatest proportion (80.5 per cent) of all discrete Indigenous communities located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital, representing 77.9 per cent of the reported population living in such communities in the NT (table 9A.3.1).

**Table 9.3.2 Access to medical emergency air service, all communities and reported usual population, 2001**

	<i>Access to medical emergency air service</i>		<i>No access to medical emergency air service</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	Number of communities	Usual population	Number of communities	Usual population	Number of communities	Usual population
<b>Distance to nearest hospital</b>						
10-24kms	28	2 656	48	3 576	76	6 232
25-49kms	26	3 273	42	1 746	68	5 019
50-99kms	40	8 514	62	1 395	102	9 909
100-249kms	144	16 004	154	3 460	298	19 464
250kms or more	287	34 274	256	3 484	543	37 758
All communities 10kms or more from nearest hospital	525	64 721	562	13 661	1 087	78 382
<b>All communities<sup>a, b</sup></b>	<b>525</b>	<b>64 721</b>	<b>564</b>	<b>13 670</b>	<b>1 216</b>	<b>108 085</b>

<sup>a</sup> Includes 'Distance to nearest hospital' not stated. <sup>b</sup> Includes communities located less than 10 kilometres from nearest hospital.

Source: ABS 2002.

- Of those communities that are 100 kilometres or more away from the nearest hospital, just under half do not have access to a medical emergency air service – accounting for 12.1 per cent of people living in communities located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital (table 9.3.2).

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- Community health centres were more likely to be located near or within Indigenous communities than were hospitals (table 9.3.1).
  - In 2001, 10.4 per cent of communities had a hospital located in, or within 10 kilometres of the community, and 25.8 per cent of communities had a community health centre located in, or within 10 kilometres of the community (table 9.3.1).
  - On a population basis (as opposed to discrete Indigenous communities), 85.3 per cent of people in communities were within 10 kilometres of either a hospital or a community health centre (table 9A.3.3).
  - 16.0 per cent of all discrete Indigenous communities in 2001 (174 communities, representing three per cent of the reported population living in the Indigenous communities) were located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest community health centre.<sup>1</sup> Most of the reported population (55.4 per cent) lived in communities that had a community health centre located within the community (table 9A.3.2).
  - Across jurisdictions, the highest proportions of discrete Indigenous communities located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest community health centre were in WA and the NT (17 per cent each) — representing 5.6 per cent of WA and 4.1 per cent of the NT reported population living in the Indigenous communities (table 9A.3.2).
  - Based on population living in the Indigenous communities, the NT had 72.4 per cent and WA had 58.0 per cent of their population living in communities with community health centres located within the community (table 9A.3.2).

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<sup>1</sup> Excludes communities located within 10 kilometres of the nearest hospital.

**Table 9.3.3 Selected health professionals working in community (number), communities with a population of 50 or more located 10 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital**

	<i>Male Indigenous health worker</i>		<i>Female Indigenous health worker</i>		<i>Registered nurse</i>		<i>Doctor</i>	
	<i>1999</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2001</i>
<i>Work in the community</i>								
Daily	76	60	152	125	132	118	24	26
Weekly or fortnightly	23	24	27	32	61	62	138	140
Monthly	19	13	13	16	21	19	46	34
Three monthly	4	5	3	6	3	4	5	4
Less than three monthly	12	16	10	5	5	9	4	7
<i>Total with health professional working in the community</i>	<i>134</i>	<i>118</i>	<i>205</i>	<i>184</i>	<i>222</i>	<i>212</i>	<i>217</i>	<i>211</i>
Do not work in the community	120	117	48	52	32	30	37	31
<b>All communities<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>254</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>242</b>

<sup>a</sup> Includes 'Whether selected health professionals work in community' not stated.

Source: ABS Housing and Infrastructure in ATSI Communities, Cat. No. 4710.0, 2001.

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- As noted, lack of transport can often mean that comparatively short distances are an impediment to service usage. For this reason, the frequency with which various health workers worked in the community was examined for communities with a reported population of 50 or more that were located 10 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital (table 9.3.3).
  - For the selected health professionals shown, about half (51.7 per cent) of the communities had female Indigenous health workers working in the community on a daily basis, while only 24.8 per cent had male Indigenous health workers working on that basis (table 9.3.3).
  - Male Indigenous health workers were the least accessible health workers, with 48.3 per cent of the selected communities not having a male Indigenous health worker working in the community at all.

## **9.4 Proportion of Indigenous people with access to their traditional lands**

Land provides both cultural and economic benefits to Indigenous people, who stressed during consultations for this Report that they value land in both ways.

Indigenous people may not have legal ownership or control of land or recognised native title rights (included in the economic participation and development strategic area for action) but they may still have some access to their traditional lands. Some may be public land that is accessible to all or arrangements may have been made with the legal owners for some form of access.

Data for the indicator are based on three items in the ABS 2002 Indigenous Social Survey (ISS):

- recognition of homelands/traditional country;
- whether currently lives on homelands; and
- whether allowed to visit homelands.

The 2002 ISS was conducted in late 2002 and early 2003. The results are expected to be published by the ABS in 2004, and will be drawn on in the next Report.

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## 9.5 Future directions in data

### Children on long term care and protection orders

Data are currently reported by children discharged from care and protection orders, by length of time on an order. The ability to provide data on the overall population of children (rather than just those discharged) on care and protection orders for more than a year, is being worked on for future reports, as are improvements in the identification of Indigenous status.

### Repeat offending

‘Repeat imprisonment’ is a proxy indicator of ‘repeat offending’. Police services in the states and territories have formally agreed to include an Indigenous identifier in administrative data collections. This is expected to provide national data for the repeat offending indicator in future years.

### Proportion of Indigenous people with access to their traditional lands

No data were available for this indicator for this year’s Report. However, three data items from the ABS ISS will provide data for the 2004 Report.

## 9.6 References

### 9 Functional and resilient families and communities

ANCD (Australian National Council on Drugs) 2003, *Diversion of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander youth from juvenile detention: A report to the Australian National Council on Drugs*, Canberra.

AGD (Commonwealth Attorney-General’s Department) 2001, *Violence in Indigenous Communities*, Crime Prevention Branch, Canberra.

Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody 1991, *National Report*, <http://www.austlii.edu.au/au/special/rsjproject/rsjlibrary/rciadic/> (accessed 19 June 2003).

SHRG (Social Health Reference Group) 2003, *Consultation paper for development of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander National Strategic Framework for*

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*Mental Health and Social and Emotional Well Being 2004-2009*, Commonwealth Department of Health and Ageing, Canberra.

### **9.1 Children on long term care and protection orders**

SCRCSSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision) 2003, *Efficiency Measures for Child Protection and Support Pathways*, Reforms in Government Service Provision, AusInfo, Canberra.

### **9.2 Repeat offending**

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2003, *Prisoners in Australia*, Cat. no. 4517.0, Canberra.

### **9.3 Access to the nearest health professional**

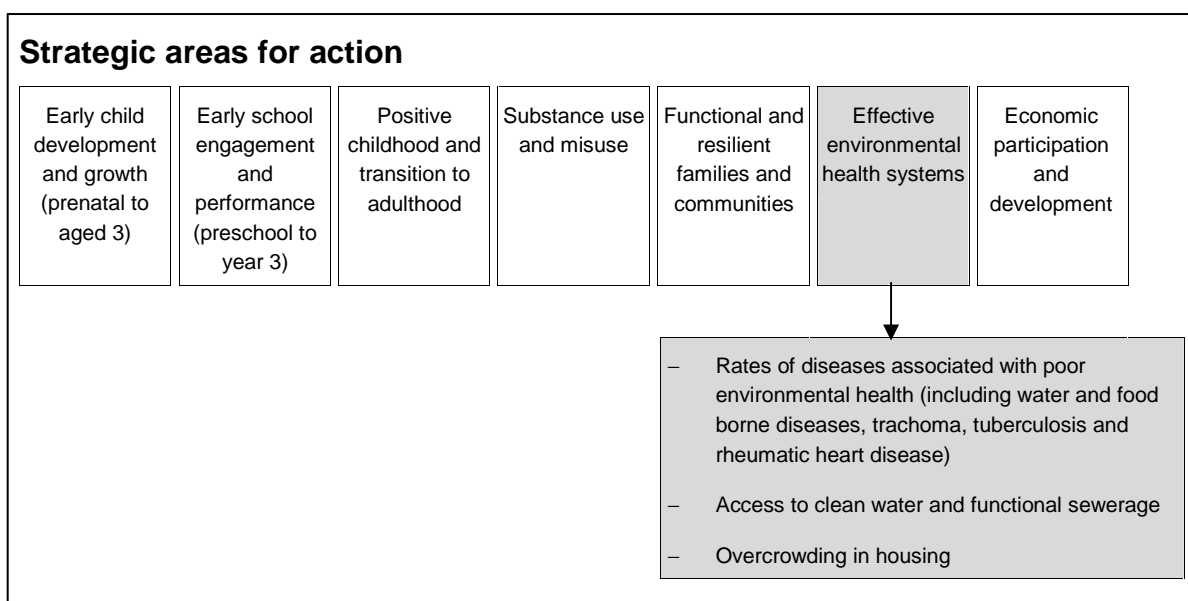
ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2002, *Housing and Infrastructure in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Communities, Australia 2001*, Cat no. 4710.0, Canberra.

ABS and AIHW (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare) 2003, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples*, Cat no. 4704.0, Canberra.

AIHW 2002, Access to health services, Indigenous, <http://www.aihw.gov.au/indigenous/health/access.html> (accessed on 5 August 2003).

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# 10 Effective environmental health systems



The conditions in which people live and work have a significant influence on their health. Environmental health depends, among other things, on the buildings in which people live, the water they drink, the food they eat, the air they breathe, their ability to clean themselves, their clothes and their homes, the safe removal of waste, and control of pests.

Water and food borne diseases, tuberculosis and rheumatic heart disease can lead to premature death and temporary or permanent disability, which affects people's ability to work, study and engage in family and community activities. Trachoma can lead to blindness. Overcrowding in housing and poor water quality and sanitation have been identified as causes of respiratory diseases, urinary tract infections and kidney stones, intestinal worms, trachoma and infectious diarrhoeas (DHAC 1999; Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo 1993).

Overcrowding in housing can have negative consequences not only for health, but also for education and family relationships. During consultations on the indicator framework for this Report, many Indigenous people spoke of the effect that overcrowding has on children's education and how it can lead to family violence. Overcrowded houses are harder to keep clean and may suffer more wear and tear.



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With large numbers of people in a house, bathroom, kitchen and laundry facilities may be inadequate for people to wash themselves, their food and kitchen utensils, and clothes and bedding as often as they would like. Washing and cleaning helps to forestall the transmission of infectious diseases.

Housing overcrowding also contributes to failure of sewerage systems. Septic tanks, used in many discrete Indigenous communities, can leak or overflow if they are used by more people than they are designed for. Seventy-three per cent of discrete Indigenous communities with a reported usual population of 50 people or more had at least one increase in population lasting at least two weeks in the 12 months to mid 2001. Population increases occurred most commonly when visitors came for cultural reasons or during holiday periods. Twenty per cent of communities with an increase in population recorded an increase in population more than or equal to their usual population (ABS 2002).

Access to clean drinking water is also basic to environmental health. A sufficient and reliable supply of water is needed for drinking, hygienic food preparation and washing of people, clothes and bedding. Water for drinking must also be of adequate quality. Ensuring drinking water quality with chlorination, filtration and regular testing has had a major impact on preventing and reducing the incidence of water borne diseases in many countries. Australia and other countries continue to improve their water quality guidelines and standards as scientific knowledge improves (PC 2000; DHAC 1999). Moreover, sewerage systems must be designed to ensure that sewage does not contaminate drinking water supplies and is disposed of appropriately to prevent contact with people.

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 10A.2.3). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM, which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **10.1 Rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health**

Improvements in sanitation, drinking water quality, food safety, disease control and housing conditions are major contributory factors to improving health and quality of

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life. The relationship between disease and unacceptable living conditions tends to be a greater issue for Indigenous rather than non-Indigenous Australians. As discussed earlier, death rates from infectious diseases (many of which are associated with poor sanitation and overcrowding) are much higher in Indigenous communities — particularly those living in remote areas — than in non-Indigenous communities (section 5.1).

Evidence from research in Indigenous communities has shown that infected secretions from eyes, nose, ears and coughs have a major role in transmitting infectious disease — especially in overcrowded households. Further, inadequate waste disposal can lead to a pool of potentially infected material in the immediate living environment and is a major source of infectious disease (Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo 1993).

Greater proportions of Indigenous people, compared to non-Indigenous people, are thought to be living in inadequate dwellings because of overcrowding, the need for repairs and maintenance, or the poor state of basic utilities (especially in rural and remote areas). Hospital separations data indicate that environmental-based diseases are more common among Indigenous people than non-Indigenous people (table 10.1.1).

**Box 10.1.1 Key messages**

- In 2001-02, influenza and pneumonia (114.5 per 1000), followed by bacterial disease (62.7 per 1000) and intestinal infectious diseases (58.2 per 1000), accounted for most hospital admissions for environmental diseases for the Indigenous population (table 10.1.1).
- For those three categories of disease, the rates for Indigenous people were respectively around four times, two and a half times and three times higher than for non-Indigenous people.

Rheumatic fever is an example of a preventable communicable disease that has partly been linked to environmental factors. Acute rheumatic fever usually occurs in children five to 15 years old. The fever results from a group A streptococcal throat infection. Risk factors for the development of the disease include age, ethnicity, poverty and overcrowding. Mortality from rheumatic fever is rare but repeated infections can cause rheumatic heart disease and lead to chronic disease (for example, heart failure), disability and premature death. Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) mortality data indicated that the death rate from rheumatic heart disease for Indigenous people in 2001 was around 19.1 per 100 000 Indigenous

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people compared with 1.0 per 100 000 non-Indigenous people (table 10A.1.1).<sup>1</sup> The death rates for this disease for Indigenous people were high in both remote areas and major cities, and mostly occurred from the age of 25 years and onwards (ABS 2003).

Some environmental-based and infectious diseases identified by Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo (1993) include:

- diarrhoeal disease (such as gastroenteritis and rotavirus), which can be transmitted if there are inadequate washing facilities and waste disposals;
- acute respiratory infection, especially in children, which can be transmitted from the hands of mothers who have been handling children (in a population group who also commonly have nasal and ear discharge with high rates of pneumonia);
- trachoma, which is caused by poor hygiene (such as infrequent face washing);
- skin infection, such as scabies infection and other skin sores, which can develop through infrequent washing of clothes, bedding and people. Some of these infections have been clearly shown to predispose children to the subsequent development of kidney disease; and
- hepatitis-causing organisms, are transmitted by body secretions, particularly faeces. When waste removal systems break down, the likelihood of infected material in the living environment increases. Lack of washing facilities further increases the likelihood of infection transfer.

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<sup>1</sup> The death rates were calculated using data from Queensland, WA, SA and the NT, and were indirectly standardised and reported as per 100 000 population.

**Table 10.1.1 Age standardised hospital separation rates (per 1000) for selected types of environmental based diseases, 2001-02<sup>a, b, c</sup>**

ICD-10-AM diagnosis codes and descriptions	<i>Indigenous</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous<sup>d</sup></i>			<i>Total Australians</i>		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Intestinal infectious diseases (A00–A09)	56.4	59.2	58.2	21.1	23.1	22.1	22.4	24.4	23.5
Tuberculosis (A15–A19)	3.9	4.4	4.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8
Bacterial disease (A20–A49)	65.3	60.7	62.7	24.3	17.1	20.3	24.9	17.8	21.0
Diphtheria (A36)	1.9	1.1	1.4	1.4	0.9	1.1	–	–	–
Whooping cough (A37)	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4
Meningococcal infection (A39)	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.5
Trachoma (A71)	0.3	0.7	0.5	–	–	–	–	–	–
Acute hepatitis A (B15)	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Acute hepatitis B (B16)	2.1	1.3	1.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
HIV (B20–B24)	3.6	1.5	2.5	3.8	0.2	2.0	3.8	0.3	2.0
Scabies (B86)	28.9	30.9	30.0	0.3	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.0	1.0
Acute rheumatic fever (I00–I02)	2.2	2.8	2.5	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.2
Chronic rheumatic heart diseases (I05–I09)	2.7	6.5	4.7	0.8	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.2	2.1
Acute upper respiratory infections (J00–J06)	28.9	29.3	29.3	18.0	15.0	16.6	18.4	15.3	33.5
Influenza and pneumonia (J10–J18)	131.0	101.1	114.5	36.0	26.8	30.8	37.8	28.3	64.2

<sup>a</sup> Apart from infectious diseases (A00–B99), principal diagnosis was used to select the other conditions. <sup>b</sup> Separation rates have been age standardised and are reported as per 1000 population. <sup>c</sup> Hospital separation is the discharge, transfer, death or change of episode of care of an admitted patient (see glossary for a detailed definition). <sup>d</sup> Includes separations where Indigenous status was not reported. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIHW National hospital morbidity database (unpublished).

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Limiting the analysis to hospital separations rates (per 1000 of the relevant population group) and the environmental based diseases listed in table 10.1.1, in 2001-02:

- hospital separation rates for Indigenous people were highest for influenza and pneumonia (J10–J18) — around 114.5 compared to 30.8 for non-Indigenous people;
- bacterial diseases (62.7) and intestinal infectious diseases (58.2) were the second and third highest rates for Indigenous people. Comparatively, rates due to these diseases for non-Indigenous people were around 20.3 and 22.1;
- although very few hospital separations for non-Indigenous people were due to scabies, the rate for Indigenous people was fairly high at 30.0;
- rates for acute upper respiratory infections were fairly high for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, with the rate for Indigenous people nearly double that for non-Indigenous people;
- rates for rheumatic fever and, in particular, chronic rheumatic heart diseases, were much higher for Indigenous people than for the non-Indigenous people; and
- the rate for acute hepatitis B was around eight times higher for Indigenous people than for non-Indigenous people.

Based on the 2001-02 hospital morbidity separation rates (per 1000 of the relevant age group) for Indigenous people, for environmental based diseases listed in table 10A.1.2:

- intestinal infectious diseases mainly occurred in Indigenous children aged 0–14 years (189.5). Although the rate decreased for older people, it increased again from the age of 45 years and over;
- rates for bacterial disease were highest at the 65 and over age category (157.8);
- scabies most commonly occurred at the very young (0–14 years) or older (65 and over years) age categories;
- while acute rheumatic fever mostly occurred at the younger age categories, chronic rheumatic heart diseases generally occurred at the older age categories;
- rates for acute upper respiratory infections were quite high for Indigenous people, with most occurring at the 0–14 age category (77.7); and
- influenza and pneumonia were the most common environmental based diseases, with the majority occurring at the 65 and over age category (255.4).

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## 10.2 Access to clean water and functional sewerage

Access to clean water and functional sewerage is essential to good health. Contaminated drinking water can be a source of sickness and disease. An adequate and reliable supply of water is required for washing people, food, kitchen utensils, and clothes, which are important in preventing infectious diseases and other sicknesses. A functional sewerage system prevents sewage from contaminating drinking water and food, and reduces the risks of infectious diseases. This indicator complements the indicator of rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health.

### Box 10.2.1 Key message

In 2001, the reliability of water supplies and sewerage systems was poor in many discrete Indigenous communities.

Most Indigenous people live in cities and towns with common water supply and sewerage systems that serve all those who live there. Services do vary from one town or city to another, but the same services are provided to Indigenous and other people living in any particular place.

Data exist on water and sewerage services in discrete Indigenous communities, allowing some comparisons between communities and with services to the general population. Data are available on water and sewerage services in towns and cities in Australia, although comparisons with discrete Indigenous communities are difficult where there are different data sources or collection methods.

This indicator includes measures of the availability and quality of drinking water including restrictions/interruptions and testing, as well as connection to sewerage systems and functioning of those sewerage systems. The 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey (CHINS) is the primary source of data for this indicator, supplemented by data from the enHealth Council (collated by the Bureau of Rural Sciences), the Water Services Association of Australia and the Australian Water Association.

### Source of drinking water supply

Major urban water utilities (more than 50 000 customers) provided drinking water to 13.3 million Australians living in major cities and large regional centres in 2001 (WSAA 2001). Non-major urban utilities (10 000 to 50 000 customers) supplied drinking water to 3.2 million Australians living in regional centres and country

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towns (AWA 2002). Smaller utilities (50 to 10 000 customers) supplied approximately 2.4 million people in small towns (enHealth Council, unpublished). The remainder of the population live outside the areas serviced by these major, non-major and smaller utilities, including many people living in small, discrete Indigenous communities.

As noted, most Indigenous people live in cities and towns and receive the same water and sewerage services as non-Indigenous people. There were 458 520 Indigenous people in Australia in June 2001 (ABS unpublished, table A.6) and 108 085<sup>2</sup> people (which includes some non-Indigenous people) lived in discrete Indigenous communities<sup>3</sup> at the time of the 2001 CHINS, including 18 134 people who lived in communities connected to a water supply shared with a nearby town.<sup>4</sup>

Of the 89 861 people in discrete Indigenous communities with an organised water supply but not connected to a town supply in 2001, 74.0 per cent (66 531) had bore water (ground water) as their main source of drinking water, 19.6 per cent (17 580) had rivers or reservoirs as their main source of drinking water with the remainder using rain water tanks, wells or springs or some other organised supply (tables 10A.2.1 and 10A.2.2).

For non-major urban utilities (10 000 to 50 000 connections) in 2000-01, 85 per cent of water (excluding bulk supplies) was surface water (that is, rivers and reservoirs) and 15 per cent was ground water. If wholesale bulk supplies to non-major urban utilities are included, ground water accounts for 10 per cent of supplies, as most wholesalers rely overwhelmingly on surface supplies. The proportion of ground water used by individual utilities varied from zero to 100 per cent (AWA 2002, p.29).

For major urban utilities (more than 50 000 connections) in 2000-01, 5 per cent of water was sourced from ground water, 5 per cent was extracted directly from rivers and the remainder (90 per cent) sourced from reservoirs (WSAA 2001).

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<sup>2</sup> The total Indigenous population reported here is an estimated residential population based on the ABS 2001 Census. Population data in the CHINS were provided by key informants in each community and may differ from Census data. CHINS population data include both Indigenous and non-Indigenous people living in discrete Indigenous communities.

<sup>3</sup> Discrete Indigenous communities are defined by the ABS as geographic locations inhabited by or intended to be inhabited predominantly (greater than 50 per cent of usual residents) by Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander peoples, with housing or infrastructure that is managed on a community basis.

<sup>4</sup> Being connected to a town supply means a discrete Indigenous community is not responsible for the water supply, which is often maintained by a water authority or local shire council. This category does not refer to communities with a reticulated water supply from a dam or river or other source, which the community is responsible for maintaining.

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## Connection to water supply systems

Most people in discrete Indigenous communities (89 861) had an organised water supply that was not connected to a town supply, while 90 people in 21 communities had no organised water supply. Communities without an organised water supply all had fewer than 50 people and their average size was 4.3 people. All communities without an organised water supply were in very remote areas of Australia; 13 communities (58 people) were in WA, seven communities (30 people) were in the NT and one community (two people) was in Queensland (table 10A.2.1).

A total of 147 permanent dwellings in discrete Indigenous communities were not connected to an organised water supply. Of these, 102 were in the NT, 20 in WA, 18 in Queensland and seven in SA. This number does not include the 1882 occupied temporary<sup>5</sup> dwellings in discrete Indigenous communities, in which 5602 people lived in 2001 (ABS 2002).

In 2000-01, most non-major urban water utilities served more than 95 per cent of the population in their areas of operation, with more than half serving 100 per cent of the population in their areas. The lowest proportion of the total population served by non-major urban water utilities was 90 per cent (AWA 2002). Non-major urban water utilities may have unconnected outlying farms, houses and hamlets within their supply areas. People living in these outlying houses need to make their own private arrangements for water supply (such as rainwater tanks, dams or bores).

## Reliability and adequacy of water supply

A reliable and adequate supply of water is essential for drinking, washing and hygienic food preparation and handling. In 2001, 114 out of 327 (34.8 per cent) discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more experienced water restrictions<sup>6</sup> during the 12 months before the 2001 CHINS was conducted. Thirty-one (9.5 per cent) of these communities, with a reported usual population of 9188, experienced water restrictions five times or more. Equipment breakdown was a contributing factor in the majority (61 per cent) of communities with restrictions, being more commonly reported than climatic reasons such as normal dry season shortages (18 per cent) and drought (5 per cent) (ABS 2002).

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<sup>5</sup> Temporary dwellings do not meet the building requirements to be considered permanent dwellings and include caravans, tin sheds without internal dividing walls, humpies, dongas and other makeshift shelters.

<sup>6</sup> Water restrictions are defined in the CHINS as one or a combination of the following types of restrictions: the amount of water used; the purpose for which water can be used; the method of water usage (for example, fixed sprinklers); and the specified period when water can be used.

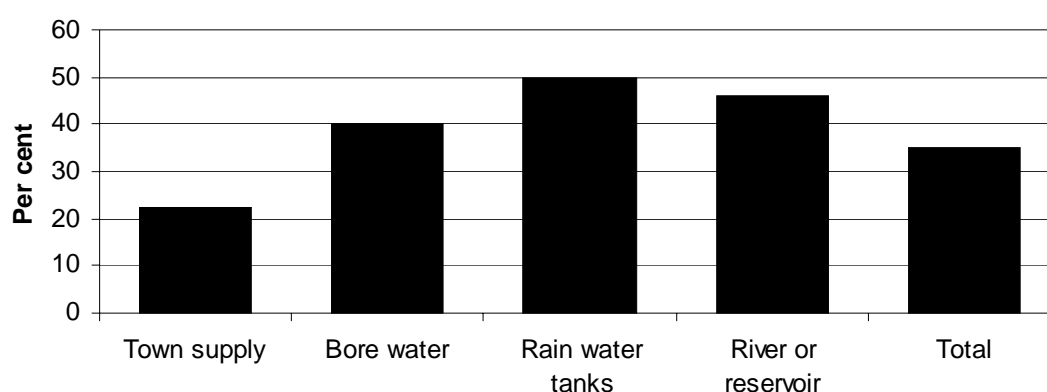


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Data on water restrictions in discrete Indigenous communities are only available for communities with 50 or more people.

**Figure 10.2.1 Proportion of discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more reporting water restrictions, by main source of drinking water, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**

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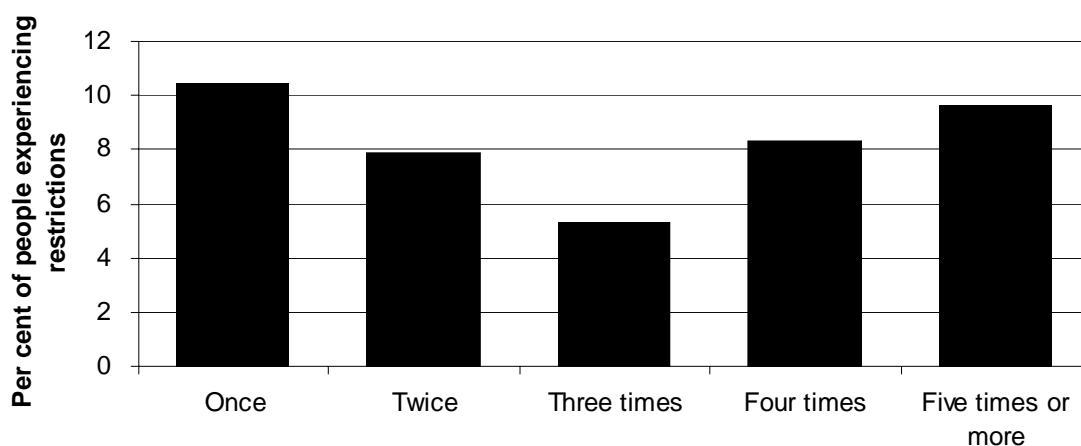
<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey. <sup>b</sup> Town supply means that a discrete Indigenous community is not responsible for the water supply, which is often maintained by a water authority or local shire council. This category does not refer to communities with a reticulated water supply from a dam or river or other source, which the community is responsible for maintaining.

Source: ATSIIS (unpublished); table 10A.2.3.

- Water restrictions were most common in discrete Indigenous communities with rain water tanks as their main source of water (50.0 per cent) and least common in communities connected to a supply from a nearby town (22.5 per cent) (figure 10.2.1).

Comparing CHINS water restrictions data with data for major and non-major urban water utilities needs to be done with caution, because the CHINS definition of interruptions includes both interruptions caused by maintenance and breakdowns in equipment and infrastructure, as well as ongoing restrictions caused by seasonal conditions or drought. CHINS water restrictions data cannot readily be separated into categories based on cause of restriction. Performance indicators for major and non-major urban water utilities separate interruptions from ongoing demand management restrictions and only report indicators for interruptions.

**Figure 10.2.2 Frequency of water restrictions in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more, 2001<sup>a</sup>**

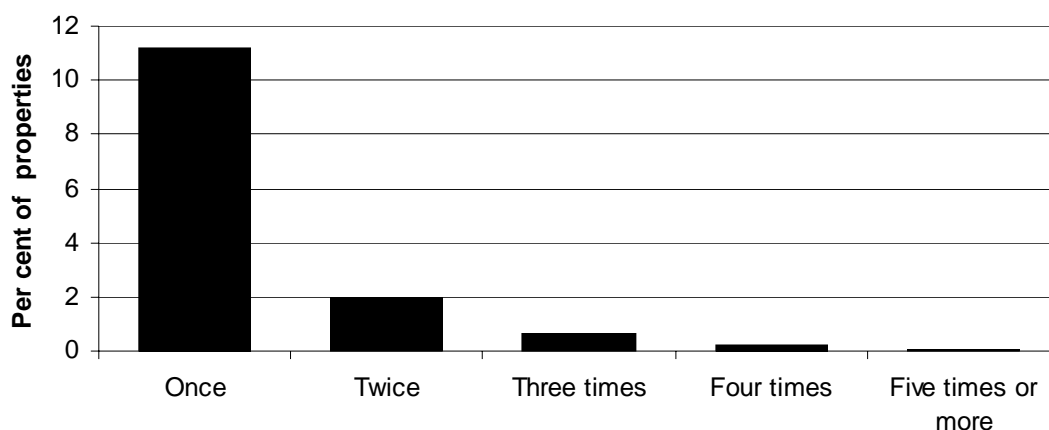


<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: ATSIIS (unpublished); table 10A.2.4.

- Figure 10.2.2 shows that 41.5 per cent of people (39 470 people) in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more experienced water restrictions in the twelve months prior to the CHINS in 2001. Figure 10.2.2 also shows that 10.5 per cent of people (9929 people) experienced water restrictions only once but 9.7 per cent (9188) experienced restrictions five times or more.

**Figure 10.2.3 Frequency of water supply interruptions, Australian major urban water utilities, 2000-01**



Source: WSAA (2002); table 10A.2.5.

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- Figure 10.2.3 shows that 14.1 per cent of properties serviced by major urban water utilities experienced interruptions to water supply in 2000-01; 11.2 per cent experienced interruptions once, while 0.1 per cent experienced water restrictions five times or more.
  - Regular demand management restrictions were imposed by 10 out of 68 non-major urban water utilities reporting in 2000-01 and special drought restrictions were imposed by 7 out of 55 non-major urban utilities reporting on drought restrictions in 2000-01 (AWA 2002).

The duration of water restrictions is another indicator of the reliability and adequacy of water supply.

- 38 242 people (40.3 per cent) in discrete Indigenous communities of 50 or more people, experienced a water restriction lasting two or more days in 2001 (table 10A.2.6).
- Restrictions of less than 14 days were the most common in discrete Indigenous communities with 50 or more people in 2001 (table 10A.2.6).

By comparison, the average duration of interruptions for major urban water utilities was 3.1 hours for planned interruptions and 1.9 hours for unplanned interruptions in 2000-01. Service was restored within five hours for 85.3 per cent of planned interruptions and 96.2 per cent of unplanned interruptions (WSAA 2001).

For non-major urban water utilities, the average duration for unplanned interruptions was 1.9 hours (AWA 2002). Interruptions data for major and non-major urban water utilities do not include water restrictions because of droughts or insufficient storage capacity. Such restrictions may last for months or years and in some places are permanent.

## Water quality

Data on testing of drinking water are included here as an indicator of the quality of water.

Most drinking water in Australia is regularly tested to measure its compliance with guidelines and standards.<sup>7</sup> Guidelines and standards have been established to ensure that drinking water is safe for human consumption.

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<sup>7</sup> Guidelines (such as the ADWG 96 (NHMRC and ARMCANZ 1996)) are authoritative documents upon which water quality targets are based, whereas standards are regulatory instruments with which utilities must conform. States and territories incorporate standards into operating licences or implement them through other forms of regulation (AWA 2002).

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State and Territory governments are responsible for establishing water quality standards in Australia. The Australian Drinking Water Guidelines (ADWG) 1996 (NHMRC and ARMCANZ 1996) provide the most widely used basis to establish standards. Some Victorian utilities operate under the 1984 World Health Organisation guidelines and others use the ADWG 1987. Tasmania uses the ADWG 1996 and the Tasmanian *Public Health Act 1997* Guidelines for Water Quality and WA uses the ADWG 1987 (AWA 2002; WSAA 2001).

Drinking water guidelines and standards do not necessarily require 100 per cent of samples to comply in order to meet the standard. The ADWG 1996 require, for bacteriological compliance, that 95 per cent of samples are free of total coliforms and 98 per cent of samples are free of faecal coliforms.<sup>8</sup>

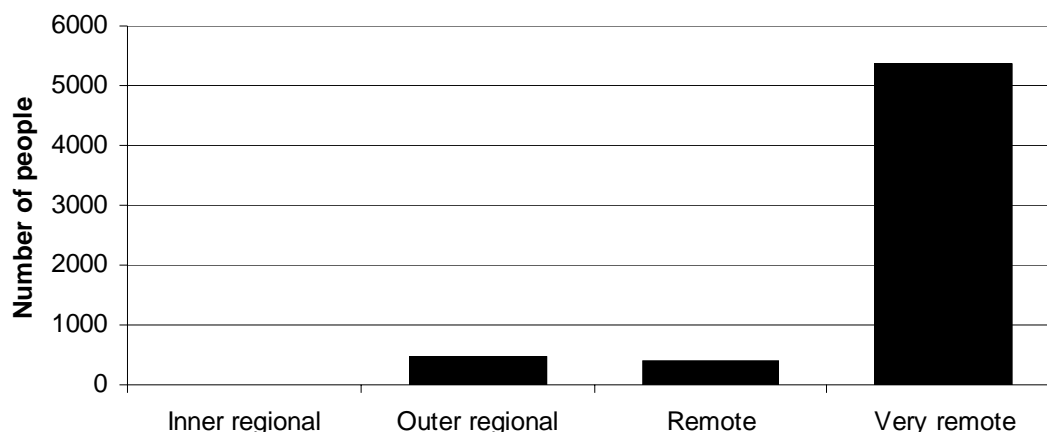
Testing of water is usually done by accredited laboratories with standard procedures, trained staff and scientific equipment. Samples from small and remote water supplies usually need to be transported to a town or city for testing. There can be practical difficulties in testing water from very remote communities. Water samples for bacteriological testing, in particular, need to be kept cool and need to be tested within a limited time. Meeting these time constraints can be difficult for distant communities with limited or no air services, long rough access roads, seasonal road closures, or those on offshore islands.

Data on water testing and treatment in discrete Indigenous communities are only available for those communities with a usual population of 50 or more. The 2001 CHINS collected data on water testing for communities where water was sent away for laboratory testing. Water tests conducted on site were excluded.

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<sup>8</sup> Coliforms are types of bacteria used as indicators of contamination of water that may be harmful to human health.

**Figure 10.2.4 Number of people in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more and not connected to a town water supply where drinking water was not sent away for testing, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**

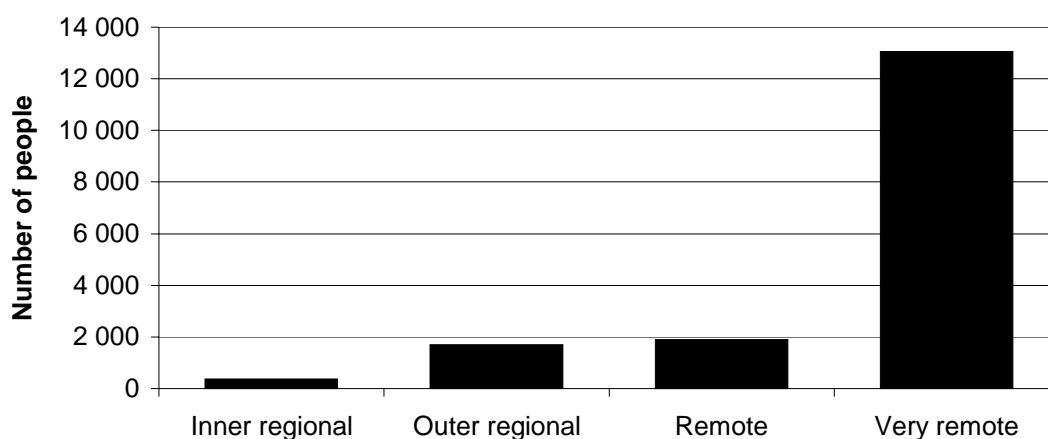


<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey. <sup>b</sup> Town supply means that a discrete Indigenous community is not responsible for the water supply, which is often maintained by a water authority or local shire council. This category does not refer to communities with a reticulated water supply from a dam or river or other source, which the community is responsible for maintaining.

Source: ATSIIS (unpublished); table 10A.2.8.

- Most people in discrete Indigenous communities where drinking water was not sent away for testing lived in very remote areas (5379 people) (figure 10.2.4).
- Nationally, 8.0 per cent of people (6245 people) in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more and not connected to a nearby town water supply, lived in communities where drinking water was not sent away for testing in the 12 months before the 2001 CHINS. There was significant variation between states and territories, ranging from 10.1 per cent of people (2832 people) in Queensland communities to 3.2 per cent of people (335 people) in WA communities (table 10A.2.7).

**Figure 10.2.5 Number of people in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more not connected to a nearby town supply where drinking water failed testing, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey. <sup>b</sup> Town supply means that a discrete Indigenous community is not responsible for the water supply, which is often maintained by a water authority or local shire council. This category does not refer to communities with a reticulated water supply from a dam or river or other source, which the community is responsible for maintaining.

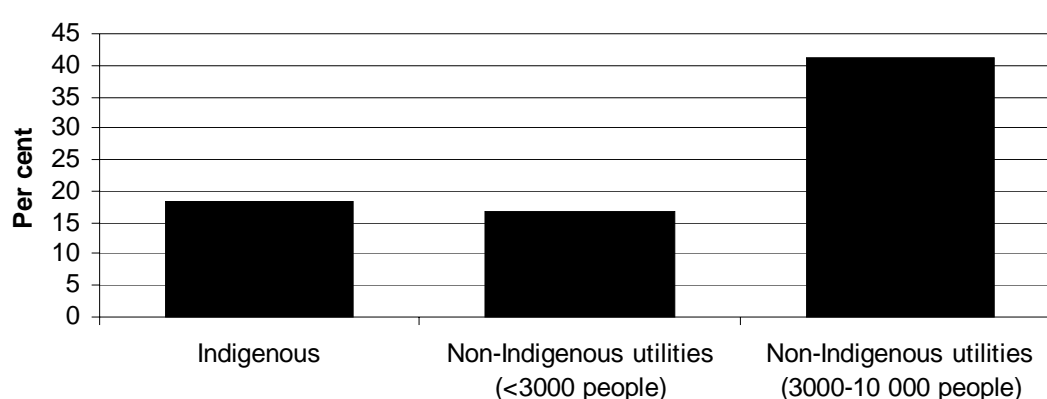
Source: ATSIIS (unpublished); table 10A.2.8.

- Figure 10.2.5 shows that most people in discrete communities not connected to nearby town supplies whose drinking water failed testing in the 2001 CHINS lived in very remote areas (13 058 people).
- The 2001 CHINS reported that the drinking water of 17 028 people (23.6 per cent) from discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more not connected to a nearby town supply failed testing in the 12 months prior to the survey in 2001. The proportion of people in discrete Indigenous communities whose water failed testing ranged from 65.4 per cent (870 people) in NSW to 16.4 per cent (5342 people) in the NT. The greatest number of people in discrete Indigenous communities whose drinking water failed testing was in Queensland (5739 people) (table 10A.2.7).
- The most common test failures were bacteriological (microbiological) (ATSIIS unpublished).

The definition for the CHINS data item for water test failures does not specify whether a record of a water testing failure for a community means one sample failed testing, all samples failed testing or whether water was outside the failure rates permitted by the various water quality guidelines. Results should, therefore, be interpreted with caution.

Data from a survey of small water utilities by the enHealth Council enables some comparison to be made between water quality in Indigenous communities and water quality in other small towns in Australia. There is a significant amount of missing data in the survey, so the results should be interpreted with caution. However, the data do allow some comparisons of water quality.

**Figure 10.2.6 Proportion of people whose drinking water failed to meet microbiological testing guidelines, 2003**



Source: enHealth Council (unpublished); table 10A.2.9.

- Figure 10.2.6 draws on enHealth Council survey results and shows that 18.3 per cent of people (17 475) in Indigenous communities had drinking water that failed to meet microbiological testing guidelines, 16.9 per cent of people (133 544) in towns (not Indigenous communities) supplied by utilities with fewer than 3000 customers drank water that failed microbiological guidelines and 41.3 per cent of people (728 831) in towns (not Indigenous communities) supplied by utilities with 3000 to 10 000 customers had drinking water that failed microbiological guidelines.
- Overall, Indigenous community microbiological water guideline failure rates are similar to those in towns with fewer than 3000 people and better than those in towns with 3000 to 10 000 people (figure 10.2.6). enHealth Council results for Indigenous communities are broadly consistent with test failure rates from the 2001 CHINS, notwithstanding the different data collections and definitions.

Further data on water testing are in table 10A.2.9, which shows compliance with water quality guidelines in Indigenous communities and in small utilities supplying drinking water to towns with fewer than 10 000 people. The data in table 10A.2.9 show data on compliance with chemical and physical standards as well as more detailed data on compliance with microbiological guidelines.

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Table 10A.2.10 shows water testing compliance rates for major urban and non-major urban water utilities for 2000-01. While not all utilities achieved 100 per cent compliance rates (and some sample failures are allowed by the water quality guidelines and standards), most achieved a high standard of water quality.

## **Types of sewerage systems**

Most people living in discrete Indigenous communities in 2001 had an organised sewerage system in their communities. Ninety-one communities, with a combined population of 1110 people, had no organised sewerage system. All of the communities with no organised sewerage system had a reported usual population of less than 50. Eighty-six of these communities with 987 residents were in very remote parts of Australia. Fifty-seven of the communities (915 residents) with no organised sewerage system were in the NT (table 10A.2.11).

Most people in cities and towns in Australia have water borne sewerage systems provided by water and sewerage utilities. In 2000-01, 12.3 million Australians received sewerage services from major water and sewerage utilities and 2.9 million people received sewerage services from non-major urban water and sewerage utilities (WSAA 2001; AWA 2002).

There was a range of main types of sewerage systems in discrete Indigenous communities in 2001 (table 10A.2.11).

- The most common type was a community water borne system (50 618 people).
- 16 281 people were serviced by town systems.
- Septic tanks with leach drains and septic tanks with common effluent disposal were the main systems in communities with a combined population of 36 259.
- Pit toilets were the main sewerage system for 3525 people living in 224 communities (216 of these communities had a usual population of less than 50).
- Pan toilets were the main sewerage system for 48 people in three communities.

Pit toilets and pan toilets are classified as organised sewerage systems in the 2001 CHINS, but they need to be well designed and maintained to limit odours and flies. Pan systems have the disadvantage of being a potential hazard to those who have to collect and empty the pans. Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo (1993) found that pit toilets were a useful backup sewerage system in communities and dwellings that may experience periodic large increases in population that existing septic tank systems may not be able to handle.



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There were 301 permanent dwellings in discrete Indigenous communities that were not connected to any form of organised sewerage system in 2001. The majority of these dwellings (266) were in very remote areas and 261 were in the NT. These data do not include the 1882 occupied temporary dwellings in discrete Indigenous communities, in which 5602 people lived in 2001 (ABS 2002).

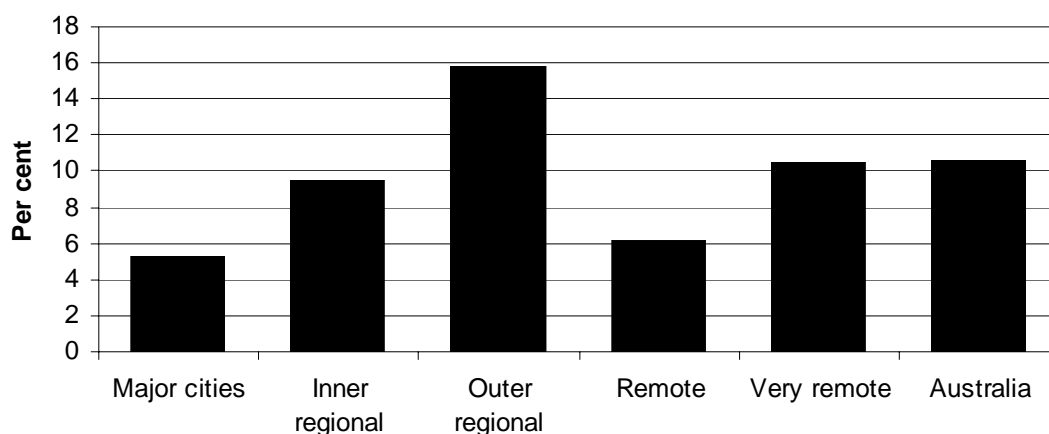
## **Sewerage system overflows and leakages**

Sewerage system leaks and overflows create an obvious potential health risk to people living in their vicinity and can also contaminate drinking water sources. Data on sewerage system leaks and overflows are available from the 2001 CHINS for discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more.

A sewerage system leak or overflow identified in the 2001 CHINS could include an overflow of a septic tank at one house, an overflow at several houses caused by a blockage in a community system or an overflow or leak at a sewerage treatment facility. How these types of problems could affect human health and amenity would depend on whether they affect the useability of toilets and how close they are to water supplies and where people live.

Sewerage system overflows or leakages occurred in 156 out of 327 discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more in the 12 months before the CHINS in 2001. The most common reasons for sewerage system overflows or leakages were blocked drains (51 per cent), equipment failure (33 per cent) and design or installation problems (28 per cent). Other reasons included the wet season, insufficient capacity of the septic system and population increases (ABS 2002).

**Figure 10.2.7 Proportion of permanent dwellings affected by sewerage system leaks and overflows in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more, 2001<sup>a</sup>**

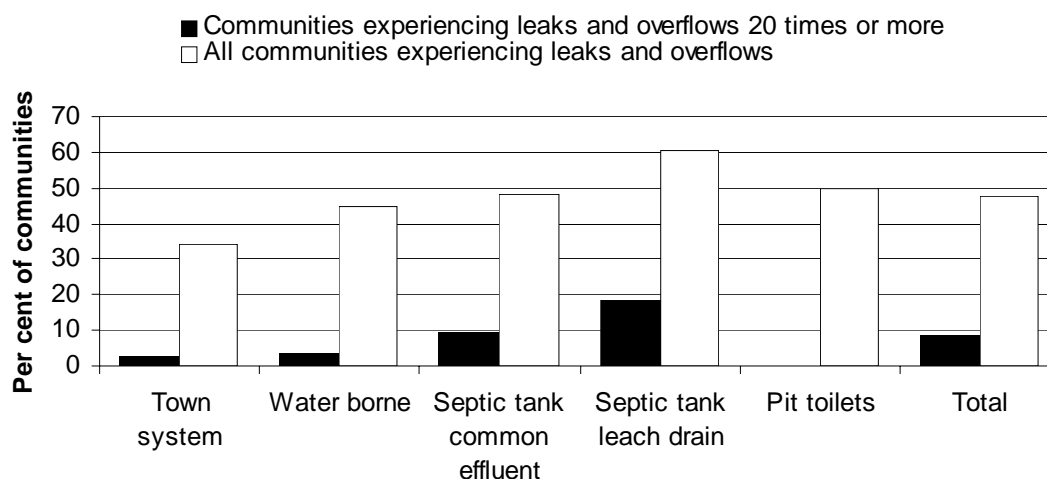


<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: ATSIIS (unpublished); table 10A.2.12.

- Nationally, sewerage system overflows and leakages affected 10.6 per cent of permanent dwellings in discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more (figure 10.2.7).
- The proportion of permanent dwellings affected by sewerage system overflows and leakages ranged from 14.8 per cent in NSW to 0.3 per cent in SA (table 10A.2.13).
- In some communities, sewerage system leaks or overflows persisted for several weeks in the 12 months before the 2001 CHINS. Leaks and overflows in 21 communities lasted more than 112 days (table 10A.2.14).

**Figure 10.2.8 Proportion of discrete Indigenous communities with a usual population of 50 or more that experienced sewerage system leakages and overflows, by main type of sewerage system, 2001<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> In the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: ATSiS (unpublished); table 10A.2.15.

- Sewerage leakages and overflows were most common in discrete Indigenous communities with septic tanks with leach drains as the main sewerage system (60.4 per cent experienced leaks or overflows) and least common in communities connected to nearby town sewerage systems (34.2 per cent had leaks or overflows) (figure 10.2.8).
- The most common form of sewerage system in discrete Indigenous communities with 50 or more people reporting 20 or more sewerage system leaks in the previous 12 months was septic tanks with leach drains; while none of the eight communities with pit toilets reported 20 or more sewerage system leaks or overflows (figure 10.2.8; table 10A.2.15).

Data on sewerage leaks and overflows for towns of 50 to 10 000 properties (excluding discrete Indigenous communities) could not be provided by most jurisdictions in time for this Report, as data are held by large numbers of local authorities and utilities and are not stored centrally. Queensland was able to provide data on sewerage systems in 220 towns with between 60 and 10 000 residents. The data relate to overflows in towns with conventional sewerage systems and septic tanks with common effluent disposal and do not include overflows from household septic tanks with leach drains. Six towns (15 154 people) had regular wet weather overflows, eight towns (20 200 people) had intermittent wet weather overflows, 32 towns (77 098 people) had wet weather overflows from only a few points in the system and 70 towns had wet weather overflows only during extreme rainfall

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events. There were no overflows reported for 104 towns with a combined population of 160 820 (Queensland Government, unpublished).

It is difficult to compare CHINS data for sewerage system leaks and overflows with indicators for major or non-major urban water and sewerage utilities, because larger utilities report sewerage system performance differently in terms of interruptions rather than leaks and overflows.

Interruptions to sewerage services affected 2.0 per cent of properties served by major urban water and sewerage utilities and 1.5 per cent of properties served by non-major urban utilities in 2000-01. The average outage time was 3.2 hours for major urban utilities and 2.0 hours for non-major urban utilities. For major urban utilities, 97.5 per cent of interruptions were restored within five hours (WSAA 2001; AWA 2002).

## 10.3 Overcrowding in housing

As noted, overcrowding in housing can be a significant contributor to poor health, family violence and poor educational outcomes.

### Box 10.3.1 Key message

Overcrowding was more common among Indigenous households in all regions in 2001, but it was significantly higher in very remote locations.

Overcrowding in housing is reported using the National Housing Assistance proxy occupancy standard (box 10.3.2) and data from the ABS 2001 Census. The proxy occupancy standard is used in reporting on overcrowding in public housing, community housing and State and Territory owned and managed Indigenous housing (SCRCSSP 2003).

Data presented here are based on the number of residents in households with and without Indigenous people. A household with one or more Indigenous people may also contain non-Indigenous people. Therefore, data reported for the number of people in overcrowded households include some non-Indigenous people who live in households with Indigenous people.

Care needs to be taken in comparing overcrowding data between Indigenous and non-Indigenous households. There are two major factors that potentially result in a higher incidence of overcrowding in Indigenous households relative to non-Indigenous households:

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- differences in Indigenous households (for example, several generations living in one house or the possibility of visitors having ‘right of access’ in some circumstances) (Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo 1993); and
  - the influence of climate and culture (in rural areas people may live outside houses rather than inside and the proxy occupancy standard does not allow for verandahs or larger shared living spaces) (Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo 1993).

The proxy occupancy standard compares the number of bedrooms with the number of people in a dwelling to determine overcrowding; however, particularly in larger households, the numbers of bathrooms and toilets, and the size of kitchens, bedrooms and other living spaces may be as important as, or more important than, the number of bedrooms. The Census only provides data on the numbers of bedrooms. Australian Housing Survey (ABS 2001) data on overcrowding also use the number of bedrooms to define overcrowding.

The number of people living in some Indigenous houses can vary markedly over time as visitors come and go, and families and individuals move from one house to another. Houses may be vacated for periods of time after a resident dies. Pholeros, Rainow and Torzillo (1993) surveyed the household populations and use of houses in the Pipalyatjara community in the north west of South Australia over the course of a year. Some houses had relatively stable numbers of residents, while others had wide variations in numbers. The numbers in one house varied from zero to 32 at various times of the year.

The quality and condition of housing also influence health outcomes. If a house has sufficient working taps, tubs, showers, toilets, insect screens, and protection from the weather it will be much better able to prevent the disease transmission that can occur in crowded households. Even uncrowded houses can lead to poor health outcomes if essential hardware is not working. Some data on the quality of Indigenous housing can be found in ABS (2002) and SCRCSSP (2003).

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### **Box 10.3.2 Defining overcrowding using the proxy occupancy standard**

The proxy occupancy standard is a measure of the appropriateness of housing related to the household size and household composition. The proxy occupancy standard is a nationally agreed standard used for reporting against the Commonwealth State Housing Agreement. It specifies the bedroom requirements of a household.

#### **Household group Dwelling size required**

Single adult only 1 bedroom

Single adult (group) 1 bedroom (per adult)

Couple with no children 2 bedrooms

Sole parent or couple with 1 child 2 bedrooms

Sole parent or couple with 2 or 3 children 3 bedrooms

Sole parent or couple with 4+ children 4 bedrooms

Where more than one of the groups specified in the occupancy standard is present, the needs of the two or more groups should be added together. For example, a sole parent with one child living with the sole parent's parents (three generations) would require four bedrooms; that is, two bedrooms for the sole parent and child and two bedrooms for the married couple.

The appropriate size is not necessarily the current dwelling size.

Only the usual residents of the household are included.

Adults include children aged 16 or more.

#### **Overcrowding**

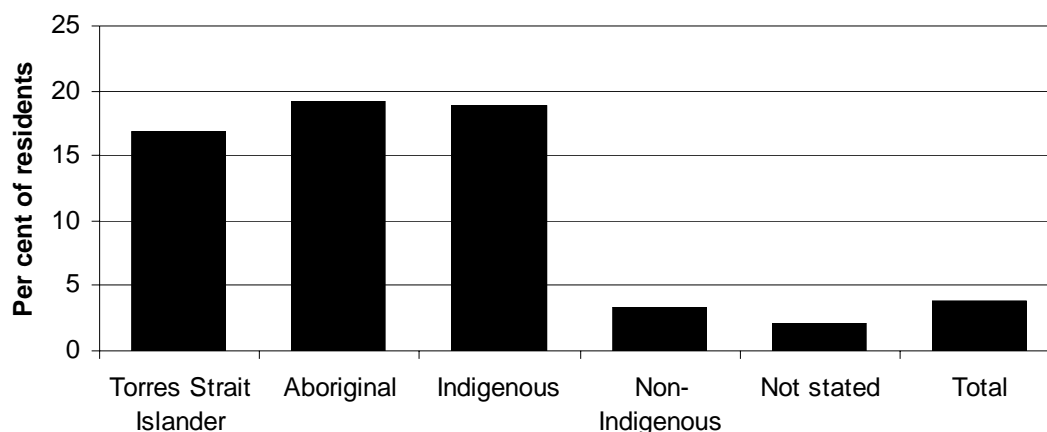
Households that require two or more additional bedrooms to meet the standard are considered to be overcrowded.

*Source:* AIHW (2003).

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Figure 10.3.1 People living in overcrowded households, 2001<sup>a</sup>

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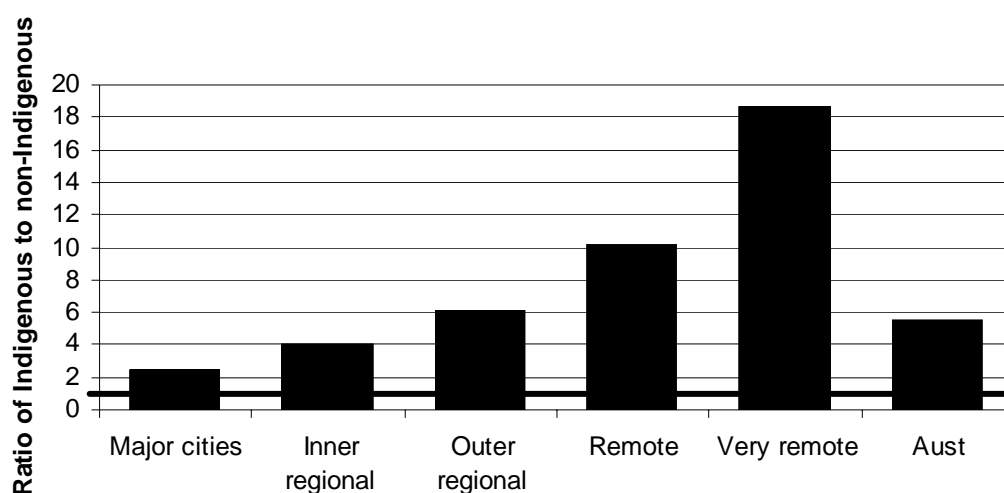


<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories in this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Torres Strait Islander — people in households containing at least one person with an Indigenous status of Torres Strait Islander or both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander; Aboriginal — people in households which do not include Torres Strait Islanders but which contain at least one resident with an Indigenous status of Aboriginal; Indigenous — people in households with at least one Torres Strait Islander and/or Aboriginal resident; non-Indigenous — people in households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident; not stated — people in households (family/group/lone person only) where no residents present on Census night answered the Indigenous status question; total — people in all households.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 10A.3.1.

- Figure 10.3.1 shows that 18.9 per cent of people (93 228 people) living in households with at least one Indigenous person in 2001 were overcrowded compared with 3.4 per cent of people (568 723 people) in non-Indigenous households. Nationally, a higher proportion (and a higher number) of Aboriginal people lived in crowded households than Torres Strait Islander people.
- Indigenous people were 5.6 times more likely to live in overcrowded households than non-Indigenous people.
- Indigenous households were larger on average than non-Indigenous households and there were more people per bedroom than in non-Indigenous households (table 10A.3.1).

Figure 10.3.2 **People in overcrowded households, 2001 (rate ratio)** <sup>a, b</sup>



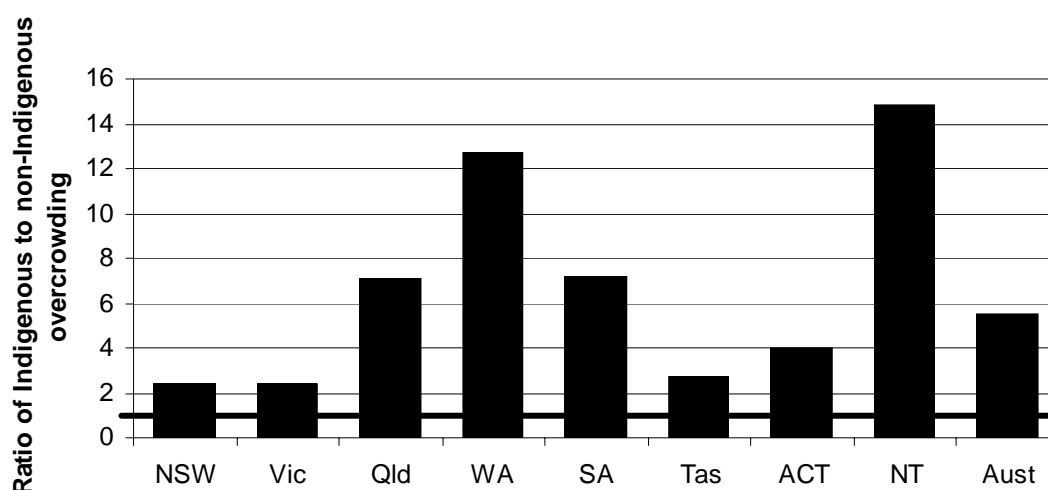
<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories for this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Indigenous — people in households with at least one Torres Strait Islander and/or Aboriginal resident; non-Indigenous — people in households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident. <sup>b</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous overcrowding is calculated by dividing the Indigenous overcrowding rate by the non-Indigenous overcrowding rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 10A.3.2.

- In all geographic regions, Indigenous people were more likely to live in overcrowded households than non-Indigenous people (figure 10.3.2).
- Indigenous people in very remote areas were 18.8 times more likely to live in overcrowded households than non-Indigenous people.
- In major cities Indigenous people were 2.5 times as likely to live in overcrowded households than non-Indigenous people.
- In households with Indigenous people, the proportion who were overcrowded varied significantly by geographic region in 2001, ranging from 58.3 per cent of people (40 957 people) in very remote areas to 9.7 per cent (27 115 people) in both major cities and inner regional areas (table 10A.3.2).
- In contrast, the proportion of people living in overcrowded non-Indigenous households was much lower and relatively constant across regions, varying from 3.9 per cent (440 863 people) in major cities to 2.4 per cent (119 964 people) in both inner and outer regional areas (table 10A.3.2).



Figure 10.3.3 People in overcrowded households, 2001 (rate ratio) <sup>a, b</sup>

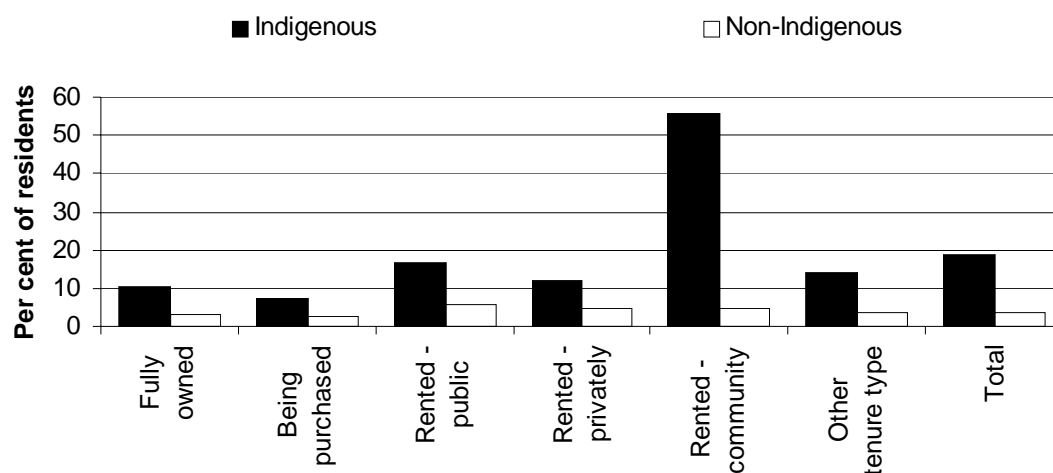


<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories for this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Indigenous — people in households with at least one Torres Strait Islander and/or Aboriginal resident; non-Indigenous — people in households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident. <sup>b</sup> The ratio of Indigenous to non-Indigenous overcrowding is calculated by dividing the Indigenous overcrowding rate by the non-Indigenous overcrowding rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 10A.3.3.

- The ratio of overcrowded people in Indigenous households to overcrowded people in non-Indigenous households varied between states and territories in 2001 (figure 10.3.3). Households with Indigenous people were 14.9 times more likely to be overcrowded in the NT and 2.4 times more likely in NSW and Victoria.
- Overcrowding in households with Indigenous people also varied across states and territories, with overcrowding of 55.1 per cent of people (27 925 people) in households with Indigenous people in the NT compared with 5.7 per cent (1242 people) in Tasmania (table 10A.3.3).
- Overcrowding in non-Indigenous households was much lower and ranged from 4.5 per cent of people (251 832 people) in NSW to 1.8 per cent in WA (29 229 people) and the ACT (5018 people) (table 10A.3.3).

Figure 10.3.4 **People living in overcrowded households by housing tenure, 2001<sup>a, b</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The Indigenous status categories for this chart are based on responses to the Indigenous status question by usual residents of each household who were counted in the household on Census night. They are defined as follows: Indigenous — people in households with at least one Torres Strait Islander and/or Aboriginal resident; non-Indigenous — people in households without Indigenous residents and with at least one non-Indigenous resident. <sup>b</sup> Being purchased includes being purchased under a rent/buy scheme. Rented privately includes rented from a private landlord not in the same household, rented from a real estate agent, rented from an employer, rented from an 'other landlord', landlord type not stated, and being occupied rent free. Other tenure type includes being occupied under a life tenure scheme, other tenure type and tenure type not stated.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 10A.3.4.

- Overcrowding in housing varied with housing tenure in 2001. Households with Indigenous people that rented from community or cooperative housing organisations had the highest proportion of residents who were overcrowded (55.7 per cent, 44 152 people) (figure 10.3.4). The next most crowded households with Indigenous people were renting from State and Territory housing authorities (16.6 per cent of people (16 667 people) lived in overcrowded households), with the least overcrowding occurring in homes that were being purchased (7.3 per cent of residents, 7123 people).
- In contrast, the most crowded non-Indigenous households rented their homes from State and Territory housing authorities (5.8 per cent of residents, 35 269 people) were overcrowded (figure 10.3.4).
- The most crowded households were multiple family households with Indigenous people, in which 80.9 per cent of residents (40 090 people) were overcrowded (table 10A.3.5). For non-Indigenous multiple family households, 40.8 per cent of residents (133 300 people) were overcrowded (table 10A.3.5).
- Households with Indigenous people were five times more likely to be multiple family households in 2001, than households without Indigenous people (ABS 2001 Census).

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- Overcrowding occurred more frequently in households with Indigenous people with children under 15 than those without children under 15. Table 10A.3.6 shows that 81.4 per cent of residents of overcrowded households with Indigenous people lived in households with children under 15 years (45.7 per cent (42 647 people) in couple families and 35.7 per cent (33 287 people) in one parent families).
  - For overcrowded non-Indigenous households, 57.2 per cent of residents lived in households with children under 15 years (41.2 per cent in couple families (234 230 people) and 16.0 per cent in one parent families (90 828 people) (table 10A.3.6).

## 10.4 Future directions in data

### Access to clean water and functional sewerage

Every effort should be made to ensure the continuation of the CHINS and the enHealth Council water quality survey, along with greater information on sewerage services in small towns for future reporting on water and sewerage services in discrete Indigenous communities and comparison with the general population.

Greater consistency between data item definitions in the CHINS and definitions used in reporting services to the general population would improve comparability and allow a better assessment of the extent of disadvantage in discrete Indigenous communities.

## 10.5 References

### 10 Effective environmental health systems

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2002, *Housing and Infrastructure in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Communities, Australia*, Cat. no. 4710.0, AusInfo, Canberra.

DHAC (Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care) 1999, *The National Environmental Health Strategy*, AusInfo, Canberra.

PC (Productivity Commission) 2000, *Arrangements for Setting Drinking Water Standards*, International Benchmarking, AusInfo, Canberra.

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Pholeros P., Rainow S. and Torzillo P. 1993, *Housing for Health: Toward a Healthy Living Environment for Aboriginal Australia*, Health Habitat, Sydney.

### **10.1 Rates of diseases associated with poor environmental health**

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2003, Death statistics (unpublished).

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### **10.2 Access to clean water and functional sewerage**

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WSAA (Water Services Association of Australia) 2001, *WSAA Facts 2001*, Melbourne.

### **10.3 Overcrowding in housing**

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2001, *Australian Housing Survey, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Results*, Cat. no. 4712.0, Canberra.

—2002, *Housing and Infrastructure in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Communities*, Cat. no. 4710.0, AusInfo, Canberra.

AIHW (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare) 2003, *National Housing Assistance Data Dictionary Version 2*, Cat. No. HOU-89, Canberra.

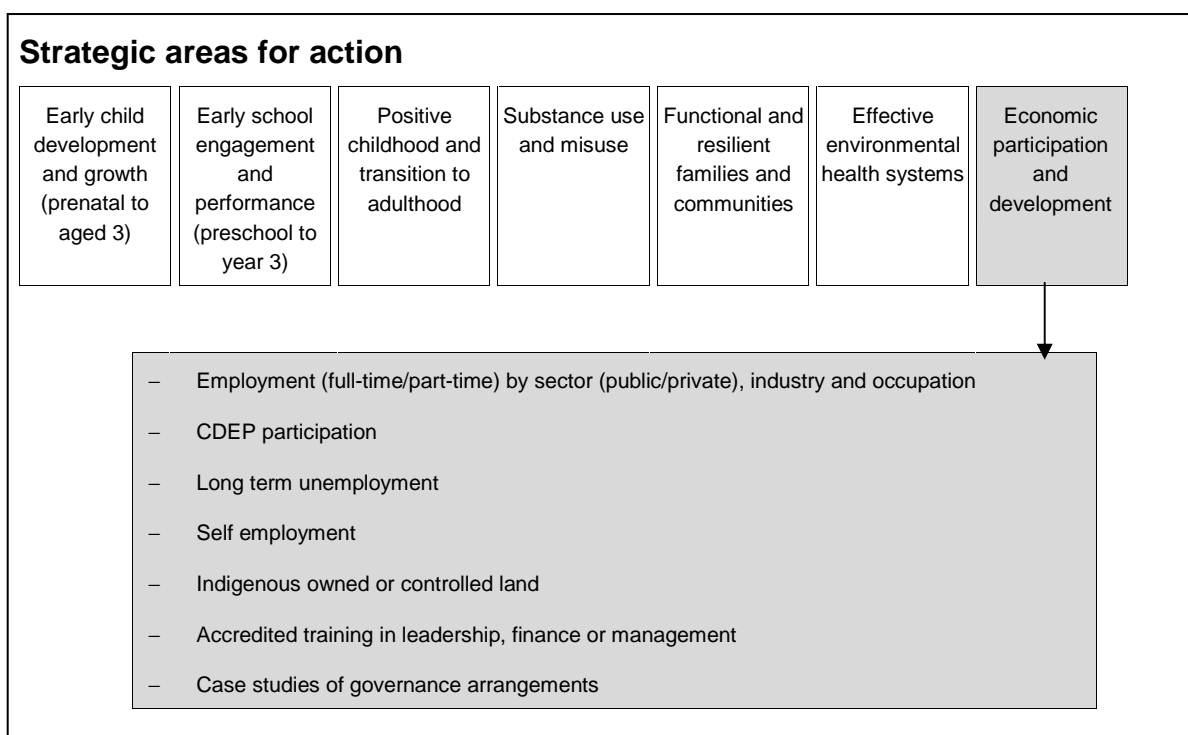
Pholeros P., Rainow S. and Torzillo P. 1993, *Housing for Health: Toward a Healthy Living Environment for Aboriginal Australia*, Health Habitat, Sydney.

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# 11 Economic participation and development



The extent to which people participate in the economy is closely related to their living standards and broader wellbeing. For the purpose of this Report, economic participation and development is examined through employment opportunities, influence over land resources, and aspects of education and training which are relevant to the goals of good governance and the capacity to govern.

Many aspects of work affect people's wellbeing, such as hours worked, job satisfaction and security, levels of remuneration, opportunity for self development, and interaction with people outside the home. Having a job or being involved in a business activity not only leads to improved incomes for families and communities (which has a positive influence on health, education of children etc), it also enhances self-esteem and reduces social alienation.

Some issues associated with unemployment and labour force participation are discussed in section 3.5. This chapter examines in greater detail the types of employment undertaken by Indigenous people, including their participation in

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Community Development Employment Project (CDEP) schemes (sections 11.1, 11.2 and 11.4).

People who have been unemployed for long periods may experience greater financial hardship, and may often have more difficulties in finding further employment, because of the loss of relevant skills and employers' perceptions of their 'employability'. The extent of long term unemployment is examined in section 11.3.

During consultations, Indigenous people also said that land was important to them for a range of economic, social and cultural reasons. The extent to which a parcel of Indigenous owned land yields economic benefits will depend on geographic factors such as climate, soil type and location, the strength of landowners' property rights, the skills and governance arrangements of landholding bodies, and the aspirations of the Indigenous landowners. Section 11.5 examines data on Indigenous owned and controlled land.

There was strong feedback during the consultations that governance should be included in the framework. The major governance issues highlighted during the consultations and in Australian literature were: culturally informed governance structures, capacity to govern, accountability, civic engagement, and self determination.

Concerns were raised about the difficulties of finding appropriate indicators of governance that covered the full range of important areas. Further, it was suggested that it would be hard to develop indicators that could be reported consistently with comparable data across jurisdictions. This has been borne out. Data are extremely limited, and even where appropriate Indigenous governance tools have been identified, the inability to report them comprehensively may risk simplifying a complex issue. It may be possible to improve quantitative reporting in future years.

For this year's Report, a proxy indicator of capacity to govern has been included, using data on participation in accredited training in leadership, finance or management, and in governance courses. In future reports, case studies will be included, which will look at governance from a qualitative perspective.

### *Supporting tables*

Supporting tables for this chapter are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 11A.2.3). These tables can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the

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front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

## **11.1 Employment by sector, industry and occupation**

The data on employment are from the ABS 2001 Census. For the purpose of this indicator, people who have indicated that they participate in CDEP are included as employed. The issues surrounding this approach are discussed more fully below and in section 11.2.

The employment (and CDEP participation) rates calculated for this section are derived as a proportion of the labour force (in the case of full and part time employment, and CDEP participation) or as a proportion of total employment (in the case of employment by industry, occupation and sector). Full time employment is defined as 35 or more hours of work in the reference week, and part time employment as less than 35 hours of work.

### **Box 11.1.1 Key messages**

- The rate of full time employment in 2001 for Indigenous people was much lower than that for non-Indigenous people in all age groups and geographic regions. Nationally, full time employment as a proportion of the labour force was 41.5 per cent for Indigenous people, compared to 60.2 per cent for non-Indigenous people. (figure 11.1.1).
- Indigenous employment has a significant part time component in 2001, with 34.0 per cent of the Indigenous labour force employed part time compared to 30.0 per cent of the non-Indigenous labour force (figure 11.1.2).
- Recorded Indigenous employment is significantly affected by CDEP participation, particularly in very remote areas.

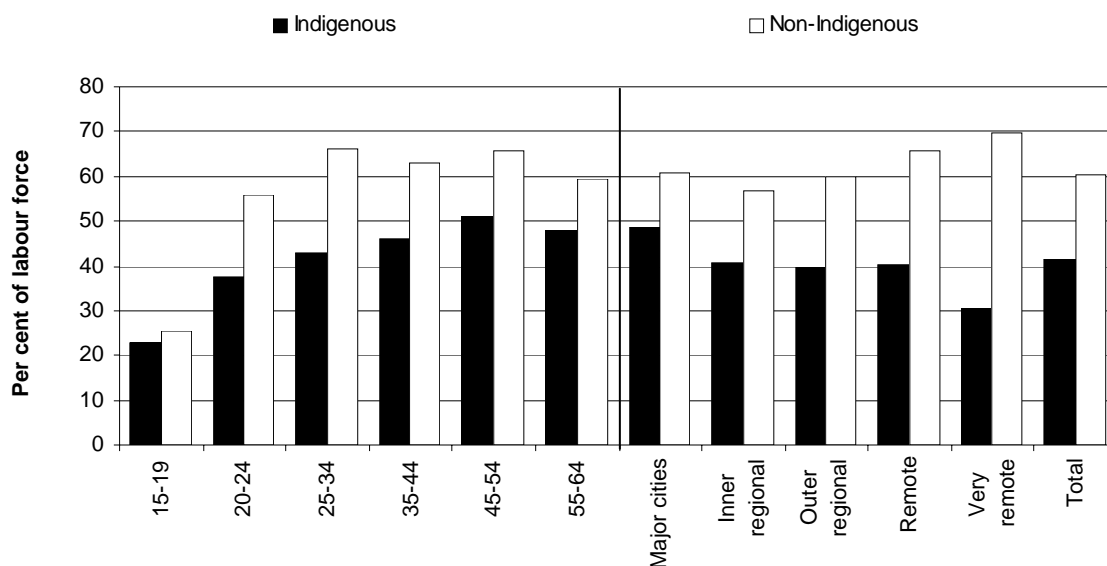


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## Employment by full time/part time status

Figure 11.1.1 Full time employment, 2001

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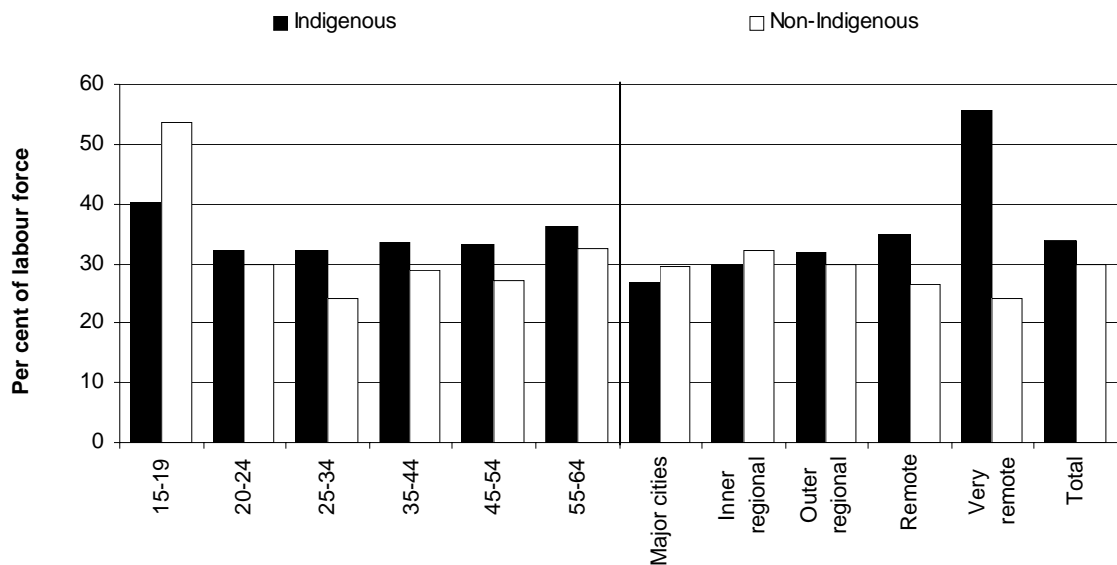
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Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.1.

- The rate of full time employment for non-Indigenous people is higher than that for Indigenous people in all age groups and geographic regions (figure 11.1.1), with a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous full time employment of 1.4 (table 11A.1.1).

Part time employment includes working for one hour or more during the reference period, but less than 35 hours. Some of those people may be working fewer hours than they would like, implying possible underutilisation of labour and hidden unemployment.

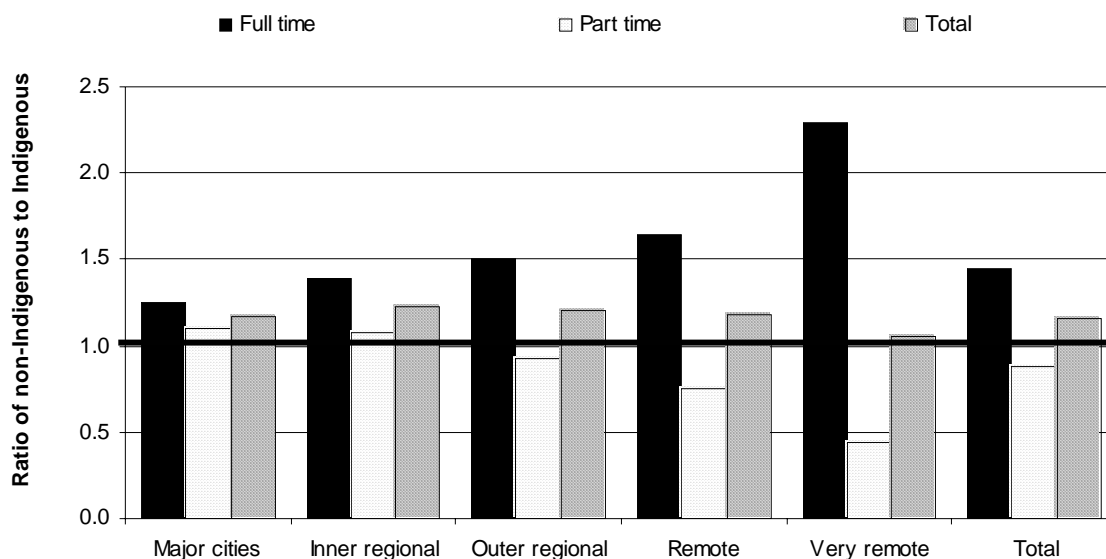
Figure 11.1.2 Part time employment, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.1.

- Part time employment is generally more common among Indigenous people compared to non-Indigenous people (figure 11.1.2), with the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous part time employment of 0.9 nationally (table 11A.1.1). This means that an Indigenous person is more likely to be employed part time than a non-Indigenous person.
- For Indigenous people, part time employment tends to increase with age after the age of 20. Figure 11.1.2 shows that for people in the prime working age, employment for Indigenous people has an extensive part time component.

**Figure 11.1.3 Employment as a proportion of the labour force, 2001  
(rate ratio)<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous employment is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous employment rate by the Indigenous employment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.1.

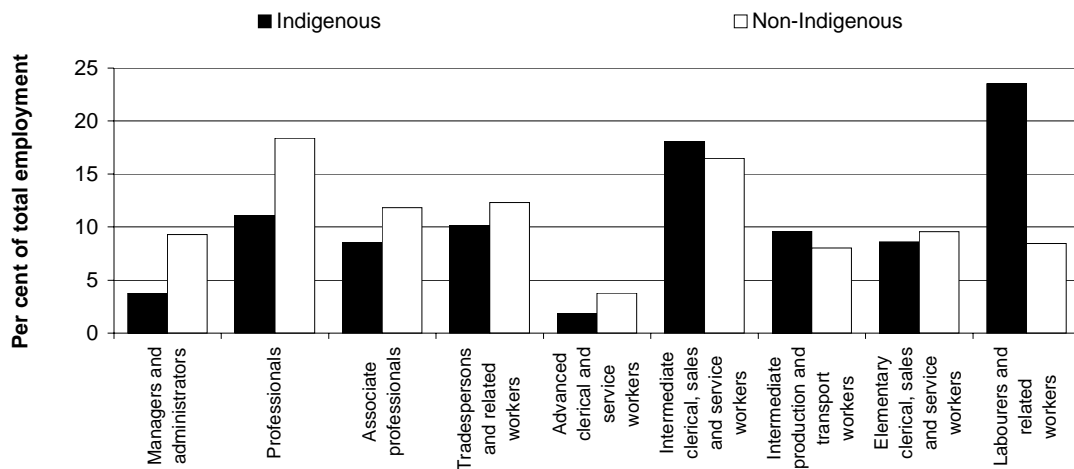
- By geographic region, there are clear trends for non-Indigenous to Indigenous full and part time employment (figure 11.1.3). While the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous *total* employment is around the same across geographic regions, at 1.2 times (table 11A.1.1), the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous full time employment increases as location becomes more remote, while the ratio for part time employment increases.

Further breakdowns for employment can be found in table 11A.1.1.

## Employment by public/private sector, industry and occupation

The type of employment that people are engaged in may also have an impact on their wellbeing, in terms of how well they are remunerated and the level of job satisfaction involved.

Figure 11.1.4 Employment by occupation, 2001

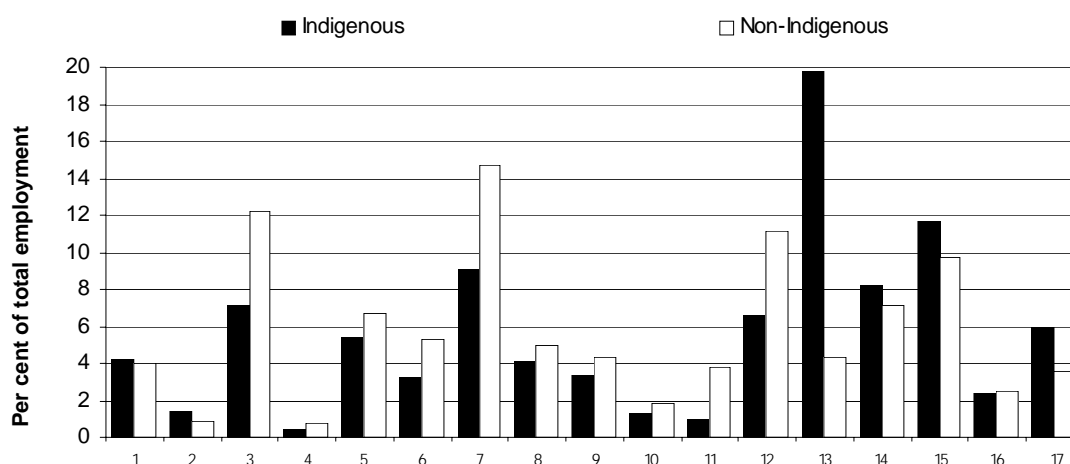


Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.2.

- Figure 11.1.4 shows that Indigenous people are more likely to be employed as labourers and related workers, and less likely to be employed as managers and administrators, than non-Indigenous people.

Indigenous employment also tends to be more heavily concentrated, with government administration and defence, and mining being the industries where Indigenous people are most likely to be employed.

Figure 11.1.5 Employment by industry, 2001<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> 1, Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing; 2, Mining; 3, Manufacturing; 4, Electricity, Gas and Water Supply; 5, Construction; 6, Wholesale Trade; 7, Retail Trade; 8, Accommodation, Cafes and Restaurants; 9, Transport and Storage; 10, Communication Services; 11, Finance and Insurance; 12, Property and Business Services; 13, Government Administration and Defence; 14, Education; 15, Health and Community Services (total); 16, Cultural and Recreational Services; 17, Personal and Other Services.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.3.

- Finance and insurance was the industry least likely to employ Indigenous people compared to their employment of non-Indigenous people. This is shown in figure 11.1.5.

As mentioned above, people participating in CDEP are considered to be employed for statistical collections and are included as such in the Census (where they are identified). The CDEP data in the Census suffer from some under reporting, as people often do not identify as participating in CDEP, but may consider that they are unemployed, or working for the government or a community organisation. The Australian Bureau of Statistics estimates that it identifies around 60 per cent of CDEP participants overall, although identification is higher in remote and very remote areas (box 11.1.2). Other data on CDEP come from Centrelink, which provides information on people who forego their entitlements to pensions or allowances in exchange for the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) providing a grant to their community, and can be found in section 11.2.

### Box 11.1.2 CDEP data collected via the Special Indigenous Personal Form

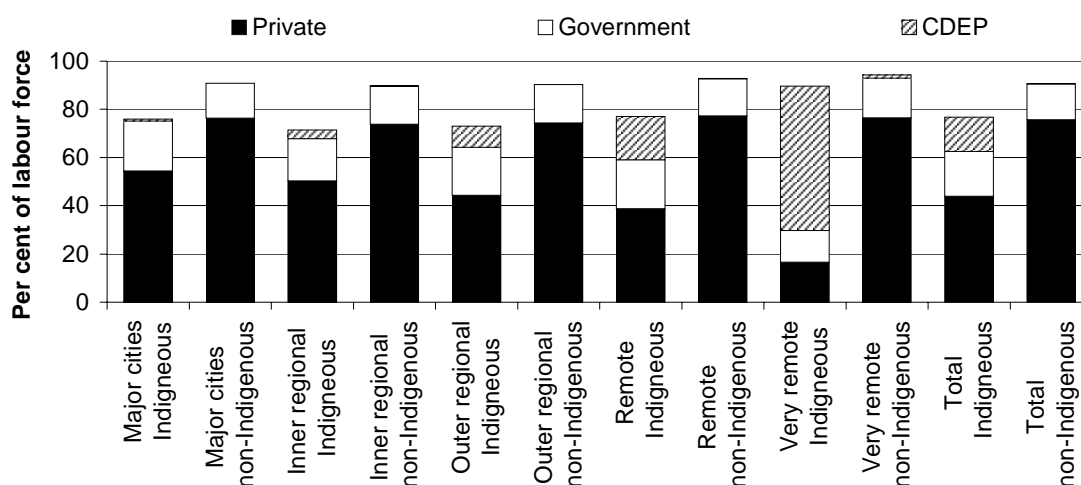
There were 17 800 Indigenous CDEP participants identified in the 2001 Census. The original aim of the CDEP scheme was to create local employment opportunities in remote Indigenous communities using social security payments, where the labour market might not otherwise offer employment. Most CDEP organisations continue to be located in regional and remote areas of Australia.

The CDEP participants identified in the Census were counted on Special Indigenous Personal Forms, as part of the enumeration procedures used in remote communities, and in some discrete Indigenous communities in non-remote areas. These forms contained explicit references to CDEP whereas the standard Census form was not specifically designed to collect information on CDEP participation. Of Indigenous CDEP participants counted in the 2001 Census, the majority (69 per cent) were in very remote areas and a further 10 per cent were in remote areas.

The Census count of CDEP participants was equivalent to about 60 per cent of the number of participants recorded for administrative purposes by ATSIC at the same time (34 184 at 30 June 2002).

Source: ABS 2003; ATSIC 2002.

Figure 11.1.6 Employment by sector, 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.1.4.

- The extent of CDEP employment is shown in figure 11.1.6, which also shows that Indigenous people are less likely than other Australians to be employed by the private sector across all geographic regions.
- Figure 11.1.6 shows that CDEP comprises a significant proportion of Indigenous employment especially in remote and very remote areas, although

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this may reflect better relative enumeration of CDEP participants in these areas (box 11.1.2). CDEP participants voluntarily forego Centrelink entitlements to participate in CDEP, and would, in the absence of the scheme, likely be included as unemployed or not in the labour force.

## 11.2 CDEP participation

The CDEP scheme provides employment and training opportunities to Indigenous people in a range of activities that benefit themselves and their communities. The scheme is designed to provide meaningful employment and training, and enhance economic and social development opportunities for Indigenous people as well as enabling Indigenous communities to manage their own affairs and to gain economic and social equity.

To participate in the scheme, unemployed members of a community or group choose to give up their Centrelink entitlements. The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) offers a grant to the CDEP community organisation to enable it to undertake community-managed activities and pay wages to participants.

### Box 11.2.1 Key message

CDEP comprises a significant proportion of Indigenous employment, especially in remote and very remote areas, where it can account for the overwhelming majority of jobs.

The CDEP scheme comprises community determined and managed activities and organisations, incorporating:

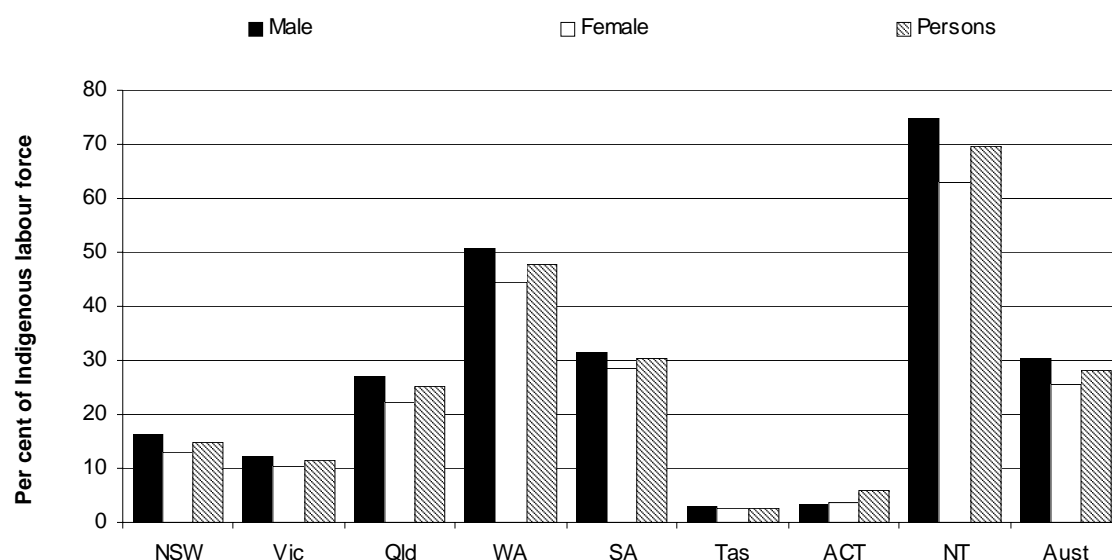
- over 34 000 participants in Australia who voluntarily forgo their social security entitlement to participate in the scheme (ATSIC 2002);
- over 270 CDEP organisations funded by ATSIC; and
- delivery in a range of remote, regional, rural and urban locations.

For this section, data on CDEP come from Centrelink, which provides information on people who forego their Centrelink entitlements in exchange for ATSIC providing a grant to their community. The CDEP participation rates calculated for this section are as a proportion of the labour force, using ABS 2001 Census labour force data.

These rates need to be regarded as only very broadly indicative of relative differences between jurisdictions and across remoteness categories because the numerators and denominators used in the rate calculations are not consistent and overstate the rates presented in figures 11.2.1 and 11.2.2. While the level of overstatement in rates will vary across geographic regions, at the national level the rates appear to be overstated by about 20 to 30 per cent because:

- the CDEP data used as the numerator for the rate calculations include non-Indigenous participants as well as Indigenous participants;
- the CDEP data are for June 2003 and reflect significant growth in CDEP since August 2001 Census night. In contrast, the Census labour force data are as at August 2001;
- the Census labour force data used as the denominator for the rate calculation are not adjusted for net census undercount;
- the Census labour force data exclude persons for whom Indigenous status was not recorded in the Census; and
- the Census labour force data used exclude Indigenous people for whom labour force status was not stated.

**Figure 11.2.1 CDEP participation, 2003**

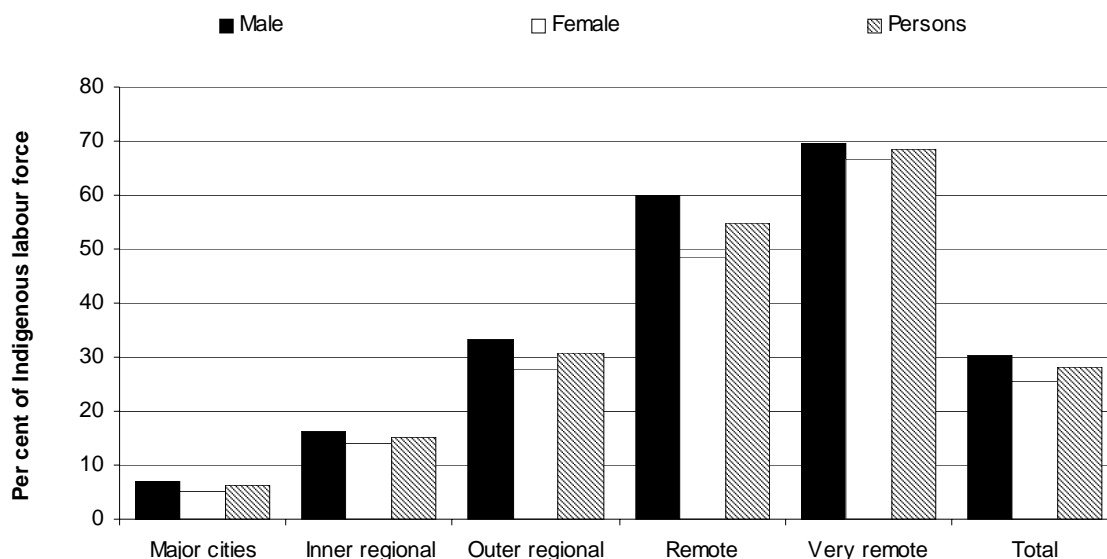


Source: Centrelink (unpublished); ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.2.1.



- These data show that the NT has the highest CDEP participation, while Tasmania and the ACT have relatively low levels (figure 11.2.1).

Figure 11.2.2 CDEP participation, 2003



Source: Centrelink (unpublished); ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.2.1.

- CDEP participation also varies significantly across geographic regions, with remote and very remote areas more likely to have high proportions of the labour force participating in the program (figure 11.2.2).
- Figure 11.2.2 also shows that males are marginally more likely to participate in CDEP than females.

## 11.3 Long term unemployment

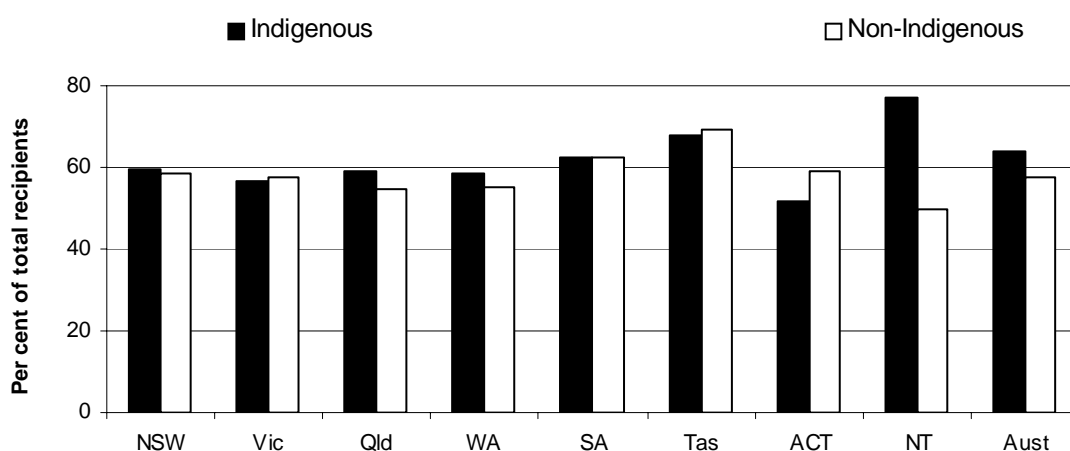
In the absence of data on people without paid work who have been looking for work for a year or more, a proxy for long term unemployment for the purpose of this Report, is those receiving payments while looking for work (youth allowance, newstart allowance or mature age allowance<sup>1</sup>) for a year or more. These data exclude people who participated in CDEP who otherwise may receive one of these allowances.

<sup>1</sup> An activity test is not required for the mature age allowance.

### Box 11.3.1 Key message

Nationally, an Indigenous person is slightly more likely to have been in receipt of unemployment benefits while looking for work for a year or more (figure 11.3.1). (This excludes long term CDEP participation).

Figure 11.3.1 **The proportion of people who receive payments while looking for work (youth allowance, newstart allowance or mature age allowance) who have been doing so for a year or more, 2003**



Source: Centrelink (unpublished); table 11A.3.1.

- Nationally, an Indigenous person is slightly more likely to have been in receipt of payment while looking for work for a year or more than a non-Indigenous person.
- Across jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous long term recipients of payments is highest in the NT (76.8 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (51.5 per cent). For non-Indigenous people the rate is highest in Tasmania (69.1 per cent) and lowest in the NT (49.7 per cent) (figure 11.3.1).

The proportion of long term recipients varies somewhat across ages and geographic regions (tables 11A.3.2 and 11A.3.3).

- For 16-19 year olds, the proportion of long term recipients is lower for Indigenous people (40.9 per cent) than for non-Indigenous people (53.4 per cent).
- As age increases, Indigenous recipients are more likely to be long term recipients than non-Indigenous people.

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- For people living in major cities and inner regional areas, the proportion of long term recipients is slightly lower for Indigenous people (54.9 per cent and 59.5 per cent respectively) than for non-Indigenous people (56.2 per cent and 60.9 per cent respectively).
  - For people living in very remote areas, the proportion of long term recipients is higher for Indigenous people (73.1 per cent) than for non-Indigenous people (56.7 per cent).

## 11.4 Self employment

The self employment data for this report are sourced from the question in the Census that relates to the main job held during the previous week. For the purpose of this Report, 'self employed' people include those who were conducting their own business either with or without employees, but excludes owner-managers of incorporated enterprises.

### Box 11.4.1 Key message

Nationally, non-Indigenous people are three times more likely than Indigenous people to be self-employed in 2001; this increases to nine times more likely in very remote areas (figure 11.4.1 and table 11A.4.1).

Figure 11.4.1 Self employment, 2001 (rate ratio)<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous self employment is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous self employment rate by the Indigenous self employment rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are less likely to be self employed compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.4.1.

- These data show that, according to this particular definition, the ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous self employment is 3.0, compared to a ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous total employment of 1.2, although the rate varies significantly across jurisdictions (figure 11.4.1). This result may, to some extent, reflect that Indigenous people who work under cooperative ownership arrangements, such as artists, may not identify themselves as being self employed.
- The difference between the rates of self employment between non-Indigenous and Indigenous people also varies significantly across geographic regions. The largest difference is found in very remote areas, where non-Indigenous people are nine times more likely to be self employed than Indigenous people (table 11A.4.1).

## 11.5 Indigenous owned or controlled land

Ownership and control of land can provide both economic and cultural benefits to Indigenous people. Ownership and control of land can allow Indigenous people to live on their land, fulfil cultural and spiritual responsibilities and use it for economic purposes. Land, seas and rivers have provided the economic base for Indigenous

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people in Australia for thousands of years, yielding plants, animals, water, shelter and other necessities of life.

Fishing, hunting and gathering remain important economic activities for some Indigenous people living on Indigenous owned land. Altman (2001) notes that the customary economy could have significant economic value for Indigenous people, particularly in the tropical savannas and wetlands.

Some Indigenous people and communities obtain an economic benefit from their land, and rights associated with it, in the form of mining royalties, and from tourism, pastoral, farming and other enterprises.

**Box 11.5.1 Key message**

Nearly all Indigenous owned or controlled land is in very remote areas of Australia.

The extent to which Indigenous people can potentially benefit from market based activities on their land depends very much on the location and nature of that land. Remoteness from markets and population centres can add to the costs of delivering products and services from Indigenous communities. Opportunities to profit from mining, agriculture and tourism depend, respectively, on the presence of certain minerals, rainfall and soil fertility, and places and activities that appeal to tourists.

Not all people on Indigenous owned or controlled land are traditional owners of the land on which they live. Over the past 200 years, many Indigenous people have moved or have been moved from the traditional country of their ancestors. Traditional land owners may have different rights and may be entitled to greater benefits from land than those who are not traditional owners. The particular rights of traditional owners and other Indigenous residents may vary from one place to another according to the laws under which Indigenous people own or have rights over each parcel of land.

Land ownership and recognition of the existence of native title provide a foundation upon which Indigenous people can negotiate agreements with governments and others such as mining companies and pastoralists. These agreements can yield economic and other benefits in the form of monetary payments; support for community services, facilities and infrastructure; employment and training programs and protection of cultural sites. The nature of agreements and their value to Indigenous people varies from place to place (see O’Faircheallaigh (1995) and Altman and Levitus (1999)). Data on Indigenous Land Use Agreements (ILUAs), a form of agreement established under the *Native Title Act 1993*, are included later in this chapter.

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The potential for Indigenous people to benefit from commercial activities also depends on the nature of the property rights assigned, the governance and administration of Indigenous landholding and fund management bodies and their ability to negotiate beneficial agreements with outside parties, and the aspirations of Indigenous landholders. Altman and Smith (1994, 1999) provide some examples of how different approaches to fund management and administration have influenced the economic benefits of mining royalties to Indigenous people. Sections 11.6 and 11.7 explore some aspects of governance and capacity building.

Land area alone is an imperfect indicator of the benefits Indigenous people derive from owning land. The commercial value of land varies widely and much of the Indigenous owned or controlled land in Australia is of low commercial value. There are limited data on the extent to which Indigenous people use their land for various economic or other purposes and the benefits they obtain from it. Indigenous owned or controlled land is included in this Report as an indicator of economic participation and development. However, it is also important in terms of the social and cultural relationships between Indigenous peoples and their land.

Land areas and proportions reported for this indicator are for communally owned or controlled Indigenous land. Some Indigenous individuals and families also own land in their own right. Communally owned Indigenous land can be identified from land registers and other sources. However, no data are available on the ownership of land by individual Indigenous people. State and Territory land registers do not contain an Indigenous identifier. The only data on ownership of land by individual Indigenous people are data on home ownership, which are included earlier in this Report under the headline indicator on home ownership.

This indicator reports the area of Indigenous owned or controlled land using data on legal Indigenous land interests from the Indigenous Land Corporation (ILC) and data on native title from the National Native Title Tribunal (NNTT). Legal Indigenous land interests refers to land that has been granted, or purchased, by governments for Indigenous ownership, or is held by governments for Indigenous use under various forms of government legislation. It is distinct from native title. The NNTT (2002b) defines native title as follows:

Native title is the recognition in Australian law that Indigenous People had a system of law and ownership of their lands before European settlement. Where that traditional connection to land and waters has been maintained and where government acts have not removed it, the law recognises aspects of this as native title. The native title of a particular group will depend on the traditional laws and customs of those people. The way native title is recognised and practised may vary from group to group.

This indicator differs from the indicator of the proportion of Indigenous people with access to their traditional lands (see section 9.4), within the functional and resilient

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families and communities strategic area for action. The indicator on access to traditional lands recognises that Indigenous people may have access to land that is not under Indigenous ownership or control.

There are various forms of tenure for Indigenous communal lands under various Commonwealth, State and Territory legislation, including reserves, leases, alienable freehold and inalienable freehold. The strongest (and most widespread) form of tenure of Indigenous land is inalienable freehold, which cannot be ‘alienated’ by selling or mortgaging it, so that continuing Indigenous ownership is protected.

Indigenous owned or controlled land is either held by Indigenous communities or held by governments on behalf of Indigenous people. Land held by Indigenous communities is usually owned by an Indigenous corporation, controlled by Indigenous people. Data on Indigenous landholdings by different forms of tenure are reported in tables 11A.5.1 and 11A.5.2. Pollack (2001) and the ILC (2001a–g) explain in some detail the legislative basis and government programs for Indigenous land ownership in each jurisdiction.

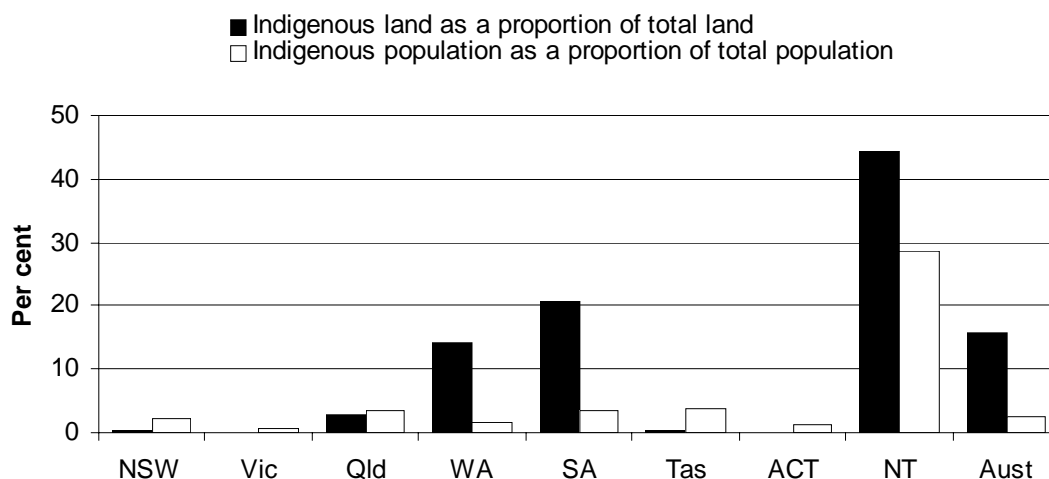
Inalienable freehold communal title is a barrier to obtaining finance for home ownership or businesses. Nevertheless, Canadian examples of lending for home ownership on Indian reserves (Jamieson 2002) show that ways of securing (or partly securing) loans for homes or businesses on Indigenous land could potentially be developed in Australia. Duncan (2003) suggested that communal Indigenous land tenure need not prevent investment on Indigenous land, provided that leases of sufficient duration were available to give investors the security that they would be able to benefit from their investments.

### **Indigenous owned or controlled land**

The area and distribution of Indigenous owned or controlled land in Australia largely reflect the decisions of governments in the 1970s and 1980s.

- The bulk of Indigenous owned or controlled land is in the NT (49.5 per cent), WA (29.3 per cent) and SA (16.9 per cent) (table 11A.5.1).
- Nearly all (98.6 per cent) Indigenous owned or controlled land is in very remote areas of Australia (table 11A.5.2).

**Figure 11.5.1 Indigenous owned land as a proportion of total land area for each State and Territory, 2003, compared to the Indigenous proportion of the population, 2001<sup>a</sup>**



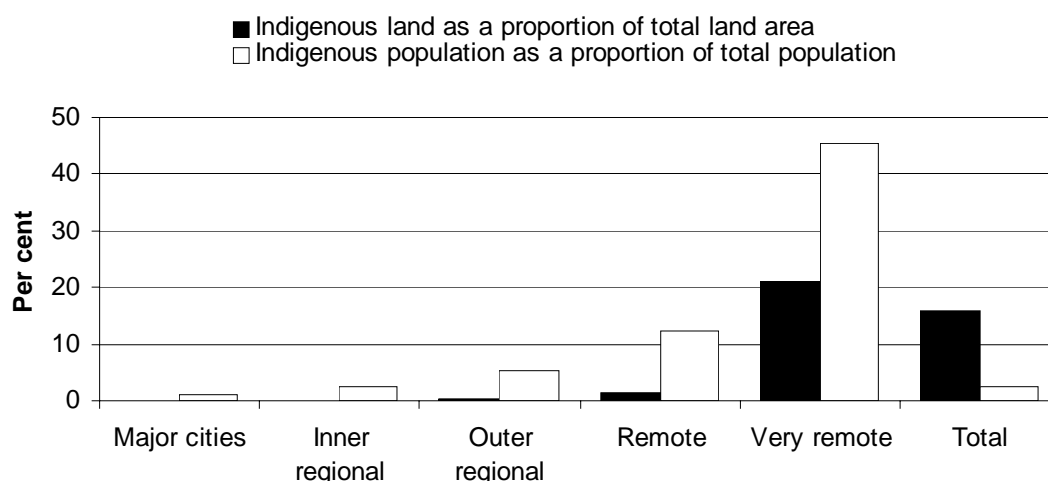
<sup>a</sup> Indigenous population estimates for 2003 are not yet available from the ABS, who advised that 2001 Census based estimates be used in the meantime.

Source: ILC (unpublished); ABS (unpublished); table 11A.5.1.

- Indigenous owned or controlled land makes up 44.4 per cent of the area of NT but less than 0.1 per cent of the area of Victoria and the ACT (figure 11.5.1).
- Nationally, Indigenous owned or controlled land makes up 15.7 per cent of the area of Australia (figure 11.5.1).
- Indigenous people as a proportion of the total population in 2001 ranged from 28.8 per cent in the NT to 0.6 per cent in Victoria. Nationally, Indigenous people comprised 2.4 per cent of the population (figure 11.5.1).
- Figure 11.5.1 shows that Indigenous owned or controlled land is a higher proportion of total land area than Indigenous population is of total population in the NT, SA and WA but a lower proportion in all other states and territories.



**Figure 11.5.2 Indigenous owned land as a proportion of the area of each geographic region, 2003, compared to the Indigenous proportion of the population, 2001<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Indigenous population estimates for 2003 are not yet available from the ABS, who advised that 2001 Census based estimates be used in the meantime.

Source: ILC (unpublished); ABS (unpublished); table 11A.5.2.

- Indigenous owned or controlled land makes up 21.2 per cent of the land area of very remote Australia, but less than 0.1 per cent of the area of inner regional areas and 0.2 per cent of major cities (figure 11.5.2).
- Indigenous people as a proportion of the total population in 2001 ranged from 45.9 per cent in very remote areas to 1.1 per cent in major cities (figure 11.5.2).

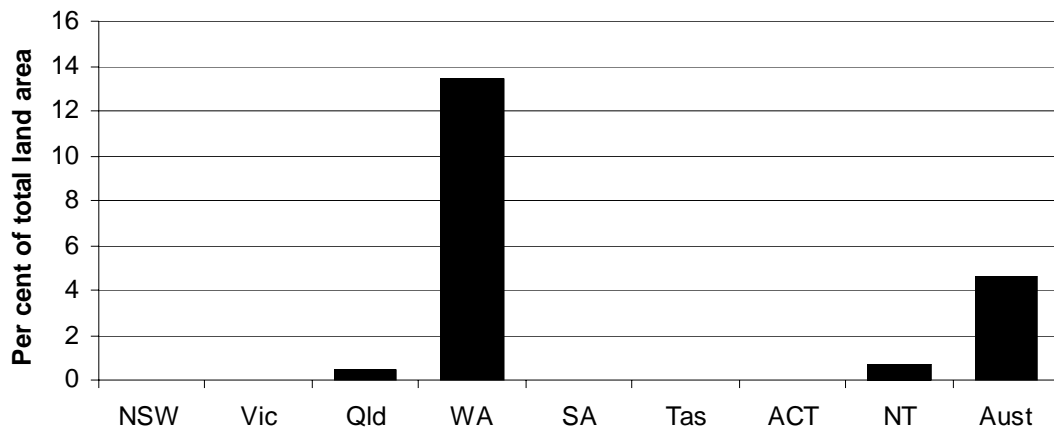
## Determinations of native title

The majority of native title applications that have been lodged by Indigenous people are yet to be determined by the Federal Court of Australia.

The type of native title rights recognised in a determination of native title varies according to both the rights and interests under the relevant group's traditional laws and customs, and the extent to which a government has created or asserted rights that are inconsistent with any claimed native title right. Over time, the courts interpret whether particular acts concerning the land have the effect of extinguishing native title in full or in part. The courts have determined, for example, that granting of freehold title completely extinguishes native title on that land. On the other hand, when a pastoral lease does not give a lessee exclusive possession, native title is only partially extinguished (for further information, see NNTT (2002a, 2003)).

Data are not readily available to compare areas with native title giving exclusive possession of land with areas where native title may have been partially extinguished.

Figure 11.5.3 **Determinations that native title exists, 30 June 2003<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Areas may or may not include exclusions within the determinations. Where native title matters have extended seaward beyond the coastline or mean high water mark, areas of sea are included with the area for the adjacent land category.

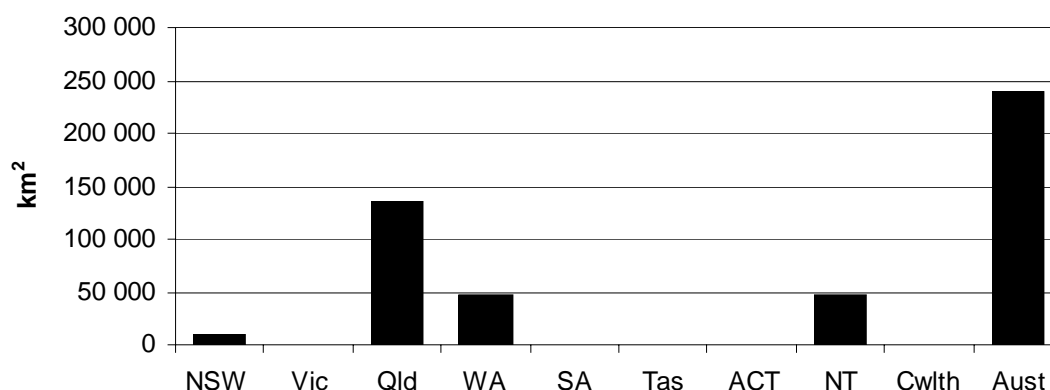
Source: NNTT (unpublished); table 11A.5.3.

- Native title has been determined to exist in full or in part in 13.4 per cent of the total land area of WA, but there have been no determinations that native title exists in Victoria, SA, Tasmania or the ACT (figure 11.5.3).
- The majority of the area of determinations that native title exists in full or in part is in WA (94.8 per cent) (table 11A.5.3).
- The majority of the area of determinations that native title exists in full or in part is in very remote areas of Australia (99.5 per cent) (table 11A.5.4).

## Indigenous land use agreements

Indigenous land use agreements are voluntary agreements about the use and management of land, made between a native title group and other people. Provisions for Indigenous land use agreements were created as a result of 1998 amendments to the *Native Title Act 1993* in 1998.

Figure 11.5.4 Area of Indigenous land use agreements, 30 June 2003<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> Areas may or may not include exclusions within the agreements. Where native title matters have extended seaward beyond the coastline or mean high water mark, areas of sea are included with the area for the adjacent land category. The same land area may be covered by more than one agreement and the areas are cumulative.

Source: NNTT (unpublished); table 11A.5.5.

- Eighty-four Indigenous land use agreements have been registered with the National Native Title Tribunal, covering a cumulative area of 239 219 km<sup>2</sup> (figure 11.5.4).
- The area subject to registered Indigenous land use agreements is greatest in Queensland (134 960 km<sup>2</sup>) and zero in Tasmania and the ACT (figure 11.5.4).
- The majority of the area of Indigenous land use agreements is in very remote areas (218 719 km<sup>2</sup>) (table 11A.5.6).

Tables 11A.5.7 and 11A.5.8 are maps which depict areas where native title has been determined to exist and the location of registered Indigenous land use agreements, respectively.

## 11.6 Accredited training in leadership, finance or management

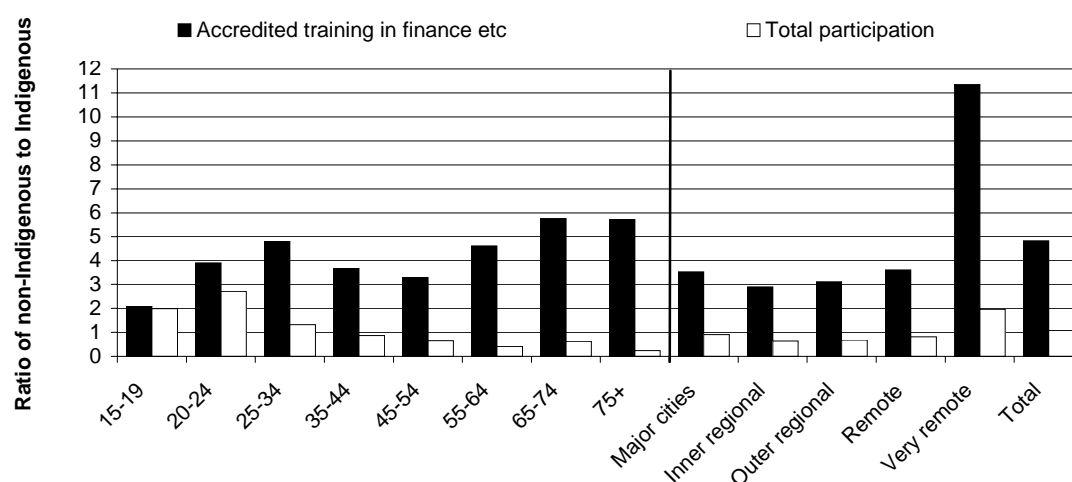
While governance is generally seen as a critical issue for development, there is little meaningful data available. A proxy indicator of the capacity to govern was developed using data on participation in particular types of training courses. Training in the area of leadership, finance or management may provide those who trained in these areas with a greater understanding of the modern world and its operations, although this is not to say one kind of training is more valuable than

another. The extent of Indigenous participation in such training may be an indication of ability to negotiate the modern work environment, which may lead to better outcomes. For the purpose of this indicator, this type of training is represented by the fields of management and commerce, business law, and economics and econometrics.<sup>2</sup>

#### Box 11.6.1 Key messages

- A non-Indigenous person was nearly five times more likely to undertake training relevant to the capacity to govern than an Indigenous person in 2001 (figure 11.6.10).
- Indigenous women were more likely to undertake this type of training than Indigenous men (table 11A.6.1).

Figure 11.6.1 Participation in education and training, 2001 (rate ratio)<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup> The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation in education and training is calculated by dividing the non-Indigenous participation rate by the Indigenous participation rate. A ratio greater than one implies that Indigenous people are disadvantaged compared to non-Indigenous people.

Source: ABS 2001 Census; table 11A.6.1.

- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation in these types of courses is 4.8, meaning that a non-Indigenous person is 4.8 times more likely to undertake this type of training than an Indigenous person. This compares to the ratio of participation in education more generally of 1.1 (table 3A.4.1), meaning that Indigenous people are unrepresented in this type of training compared to their representation in education and training (figure 11.6.1).

<sup>2</sup> Based on the ABS Australian Standard Classification of Education.

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There is also a significant difference in participation in this type of training across gender, and across age and geographic region.

- The ratio of non-Indigenous to Indigenous participation is greater for men than women, meaning that Indigenous women are more likely than their male counterparts to undertake this type of training, while the opposite is generally true for non-Indigenous people (table 11A.6.1).

Data from the National Centre for Vocational Education Research on the number of students who are enrolled in a Certificate (level IV) in Business (Governance) and a Diploma in Business (Governance) is another indicator of the capacity to govern. Table 11.6.1 shows that the participation of Indigenous students in such courses is significantly higher than that of non-Indigenous students (although fewer than 200 students nationally are enrolled in such courses).

**Table 11.6.1 Participation in courses on governance, 2002 (per cent of all students)**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Unknown</i>	<i>Total</i>
Certificate IV in Business (Governance)	1.51	0.01	0.13	0.08
Diploma of Business (Governance)	0.16	0.01	0.19	0.04

Source: NCVER (unpublished).

## 11.7 Case studies in governance arrangements

Governance is a broad term relating to the ability of nations, corporations and communities to achieve their goals through a combination of leadership, skills, structures and processes. It refers not only to governments, but to the full range of institutions through which decisions are made that affect people's lives.<sup>3</sup> In short, governance is about power and authority, rules and regulations, influence and accountability.

Governance has been closely linked with economic development. It is a key determinant of the ability of Indigenous organisations and communities to make and implement decisions that achieve outcomes in a sustainable way. In section 11.6, it was suggested that whereas the tools of good governance may differ across

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<sup>3</sup> Governance institutions specifically influencing Indigenous Australians and therefore relevant to the scope of this Report include Australian, State and Territory governments and their various agencies, local governments, community councils, ATSIC, ATSIC regional councils, land councils, native title representative bodies and other incorporated associations such as non-government organisations delivering services.

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communities, there were some factors that were of general relevance – cultural match, capacity to govern, civic engagement and self determination.

No case studies have been included in this year's Report. While a number of potential case studies were available, time did not allow for further investigations at first hand. A potentially useful source of such case studies is the collaborative research project being undertaken in partnership with the NT and WA governments (see section 11.8).

Preliminary examination of available studies suggests there is significant potential to draw out some findings that may be more widely applicable. For example, the case of the creation of the Tiwi Islands Local Government points to the significant role (among other things) of:

- the existence of a strong, cohesive leadership group within the communities seeking reform;
- the value of consultation with and by those Indigenous leaders active in the reform process;
- processes which acknowledge the traditional cultural and legal land owning and decision-making structures alongside the newer civic and village groups;
- appointment of trained personnel on their merits; and
- commitment at the political level for success.

## **11.8 Future directions in data**

### **Employment**

Employment data for this chapter were largely drawn from the ABS 2001 Census. Some data will be available in the next Report from the ABS 2002 Indigenous Social Survey (ISS) and 2002 General Social Survey (GSS) (labour force status (including CDEP), duration of unemployment, full time/part time status of employment, employment sector) although not all of these data will have a non-Indigenous comparison in the GSS.

While the annual ABS Labour Force Survey (LFS) has an Indigenous identifier, these data are likely to be available at a national level only, if at all. The LFS includes CDEP participation as employment. The availability and reliability of data on Indigenous employment (including CDEP) will be needed to improve reporting in this Report.

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## Indigenous owned or controlled land

Data on the area of Indigenous owned or controlled land are readily available. However, area is an imperfect measure of the value or benefits to Indigenous people of their land. Further work is needed in researching and recording the economic and social benefits from Indigenous ownership and control of land.

## Case studies in governance arrangements

Suggestions and commentary are being sought for potential case studies to be included in this section in the future. For example, the Tiwi Islands Local Government, Katherine West Health Board or the Redfern Housing Project may be possibilities.

A potential source of future case studies is a collaborative research project on Indigenous governance (based on the Harvard project). Funded by the Australian Research Council, the project is being undertaken by Reconciliation Australia, and the Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research at the Australian National University in partnership with the NT and WA governments.

## 11.9 References

### 11.1 Employment

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### 11.2 CDEP participation

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Pollack, D.P. 2001, *Indigenous Land in Australia: A Quantitative Assessment of Indigenous Landholdings in 2000*, Discussion Paper no. 221/2001, Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research, Australian National University, Canberra.

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# Appendix 1 — COAG Communiqués

## Extract from COAG Communiqué 3 November 2000

### ABORIGINAL RECONCILIATION

The Council thanked the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation for its extensive work and contribution to the nation over the past nine years.

Reconciliation is an ongoing issue in the life of Australians and a priority issue for all governments that will require a concerted and sustained effort over many years. The Council acknowledged the unique status of indigenous Australians and the need for recognition, respect and understanding in the wider community.

The Council agreed that many actions are necessary to advance reconciliation, from governments, the private sector, community organisations, indigenous communities, and the wider community. Governments can make a real difference in the lives of indigenous people by addressing social and economic disadvantage, including life expectancy, and improving governance and service delivery arrangements with indigenous people.

Governments have made solid and consistent efforts to address disadvantage and improvements have been achieved. For example, indigenous perinatal mortality rates have dropped from more than 60 per 1,000 births in the mid-1970s to fewer than 22 per 1,000 births in the mid-1990s. However, much remains to be done in health and the other areas of government activity.

Drawing on the lessons of the mixed success of substantial past efforts to address indigenous disadvantage, the Council committed itself to an approach based on partnerships and shared responsibilities with indigenous communities, programme flexibility and coordination between government agencies, with a focus on local communities and outcomes. It agreed priority actions in three areas:

- investing in community leadership initiatives;

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- reviewing and re-engineering programmes and services to ensure they deliver practical measures that support families, children and young people. In particular, governments agreed to look at measures for tackling family violence, drug and alcohol dependency and other symptoms of community dysfunction; and
  - forging greater links between the business sector and indigenous communities to help promote economic independence.

The Council agreed to take a leading role in driving the necessary changes and will periodically review progress under these arrangements. The first review will be in twelve months. Where they have not already done so, Ministerial Councils will develop action plans, performance reporting strategies and benchmarks.

The Ministerial Council on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs will continue its overarching coordination and performance monitoring roles, including its contribution to the work of the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision.

## **Extract from COAG Communiqué 5 April 2002**

### **RECONCILIATION**

The Council reaffirmed its continuing commitment to advance reconciliation and address the social and economic disadvantages experienced by many indigenous Australians.

The Council considered a report on progress in implementing the reconciliation framework agreed by the Council in November 2000 (will be available at [www.dpmc.gov.au/docs/comm\\_state\\_index.cfm](http://www.dpmc.gov.au/docs/comm_state_index.cfm)). The report shows that all governments have made progress in addressing the COAG priorities of leadership, reviewing and re-engineering programmes to assist indigenous families and promoting indigenous economic independence. Ministerial councils have also made progress in developing action plans and performance reporting strategies, although this has been slower than expected.

To underpin the commitment to reconciliation and to drive future work, the Council agreed to a trial of a whole-of-governments cooperative approach in up to 10 communities or regions. The aim of these trials will be to improve the way governments interact with each other and with communities to deliver more effective responses to the needs of indigenous Australians. The lessons learnt from

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these cooperative approaches will be able to be applied more broadly. This approach will be flexible in order to reflect the needs of specific communities, build on existing work and improve the compatibility of different State, Territory and Commonwealth approaches to achieve better outcomes. The selection of communities and regions will be discussed between the Commonwealth, States and Territories, the communities and the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission and be announced by mid 2002.

The Council also agreed to commission the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision to produce a regular report against key indicators of indigenous disadvantage. This report will help to measure the impact of changes to policy settings and service delivery and provide a concrete way to measure the effect of the Council's commitment to reconciliation through a jointly agreed set of indicators.

The Council noted that it would continue to review progress under the reconciliation framework, and that the next detailed report on progress achieved by governments and ministerial councils would be provided to the Council no later than the end of 2003.



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## Appendix 2 — People and organisations consulted on draft framework for reporting on Indigenous disadvantage

Listed below are the organisations and individuals from whom comments were sought on the draft framework by the Chairman, jurisdictions, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) and the Standing Committee for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs (SCATSIA). Some of the organisations and individuals listed below who were written to did not respond with comments, although most did.

### *Met with Chairman and Head of Secretariat*

<i>Person</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Date</i>
Dr Andrew Refshauge, MP	Chair of MCATSIA	5 August
Ministers for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs	MCATSIA	27 September
Dr Mick Dodson	Australian Institute for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs	23 October
Mr Russell Taylor	Reconciliation Australia	24 October
Mr Fred Chaney	National Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Organisation	24 October
Ms Pat Anderson	Chairman, Torres Strait Regional Authority	28 October
Mr Terry Waia	General Manager, Torres Strait Regional Authority	28 October
Mr Mike Fordham	ATSIC Commissioner, NT Central	30 October
Ms Alison Anderson	ATSIC, Darwin office	
Mr John Dwyer	Magistrate, WA	11 November
Mrs Sue Gordon	Minister for Indigenous Affairs, WA	12 November
Mr Alan Carpenter, MP	Department of Indigenous Affairs, WA	12 November
Mr Richard Curry	Department of Premier and Cabinet, WA	12 November
Mr Michael Thorn	Department of Education, WA	12 November
Mr Kevin O'Keefe	CEO, ATSIC	14 November
Mr Wayne Gibbons	ATSIC Canberra and HREOC workshop participant	
Mr Peter Schneirer	Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research, ANU	14 November
Professor Jon Altman and colleagues		

(continued next page)

<i>Person</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Date</i>
Dr William Jonas and HREOC colleagues:	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Justice Commissioner (workshop)	28–29 November
Mr Darren Dick	Human Rights & Equal Opportunity Commission	
Ms Margaret Donaldson	HREOC	
Mr Joe Hedger	HREOC	
Dr Eleanor Hogan	HREOC	
Mr Greg Marks	HREOC	
Ms Meredith Wilkie	HREOC	
Mr Peter Yu	Consultant and HREOC workshop facilitator	
HREOC workshop participants:		
Professor Jon Altman	CAEPR	
Ms Janet Cechanski	Aust Human Rights Centre, Univ of NSW	
Ms Karen Crockett	Dept of Education, Science and Technology	
Professor John Deeble	Nat. Centre for Epidemiology & Pop. Health, ANU	
Dr Mick Dodson	Reconciliation Australia	
Mr Leon Donovan	Centrelink	
Mr Leon Ioannou	Aust Human Rights Centre, Univ of NSW	
Mr Barry Johnson	ATSIC, NSW office	
Professor Garth Nettheim	Aust Human Rights Centre, Univ of NSW	
Mr Geoff Richardson	Dept of Immig, Multicultural & Indigenous Affairs	
Mr Peter Schneirer	ATSIC	
Mr Bob Searle	Commonwealth Grants Commission	
Mr Ed Wensing	Consultant to local government	
Professor Eleanor Burke	Reconciliation Victoria	9 December
Aboriginal community members	Ramahyuck Cooperative, Sale Victoria	19 February
Aboriginal community members	Aboriginal Cooperative, Bairnsdale, Victoria	19 February
Aboriginal community members	Lake Tyers Aboriginal Trust, Lake Tyers, Victoria	20 February
ATSIC commissioners:	ATSIC, Canberra	26 February
Mr Ray Robinson		
Mr Elia Doolah		
Mr Robbie Salee		
Mr Lionel Quartermaine		
Mr Robbie Williams		
Mr Rick Griffiths		
Mr Cliff Foley		
Mr Steve Gordon		
Mr Darren Farmer		
Mr Rodney Dillon		
Mr Klynton Wanganeen		
Mr Farley Garlett		
Mr Terry Whitby		
Mr Ian Trust		
Mr Kim Hill		
Ms Alison Anderson		
Mr Troy Austin		
Wayne Gibbons, ATSIC CEO		
Peter Schneirer, staff member		

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*Written to by Chairman seeking a meeting*

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<i>Person</i>	<i>Organisation</i>
Assoc Prof Ian Anderson	VicHealth Koori Research and Community Development Unit, University of Melbourne
Jackie Huggins	Reconciliation Australia
Marcia Langton	University of Melbourne
Geoff Clark	ATSIC Chairman
Pat O'Shane	Magistrate, NSW
Mr Kim Hill	ATSIC Commissioner, NT North
Mr Elia Doolah	ATSIC Commissioner, Torres Strait
Mr Noel Pearson	Cape York Partnerships

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*Written to by Chairman seeking a response*

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<i>Person</i>	<i>Organisation</i>
Mr David Stanton	Australian Institute of Family Studies
Dr Richard Madden	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
Prof Fiona Stanley	Institute for Child Health Research, University of Western Australia
Prof Graham Vimpani	University of Newcastle
Dr Paul Memmott	University of Queensland
Ms Patricia Faulkner	CEO Human Services Victoria, National Advisory Group on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health
Mr Rus Nasir	Standing Committee on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health
Mr Jim Davidson	The National Community Services Information Management Group
Mr James Christian	Standing Committee on Indigenous Housing
Mr Des Berwick	Police Practitioner's Group, Australian Centre for Policing Research
Mr Guy Bowra	Court Services, WA
Ms Lynne Wilkinson	National Corrective Services Advisory Group
Ms Sandra van Schagen	Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce (Education)
Dr Lynette Russell	Centre for Australian Indigenous Studies, Monash University
Ms Jill Gallagher	VACCHO
Ms Sandra Bailey	NSW AH&MRC
Mr Mick Adams	QAIHF
Ms Wendy Edmondson	AHCSA
Mr Darryl Kickett	WAACCHO
Ms Heather Sculthorpe	TAHS
Mr John Robinson	AMSANT
Mr Tauto Sansbury	National Aboriginal Justice Advisory Committee

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### *Met with Secretariat*

<i>Person</i>	<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Date</i>
Mr Bob McColl, Mr Dan Black	ABS	3 March

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### *Consulted by the Commonwealth Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission  
Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry – Australia  
Attorney-General's Department  
Department of Communications, Information Technology and the Arts  
Department of Education, Science and Training  
Department of Employment and Workplace Relations  
Department of Family and Community Services  
Department of Finance and Administration  
Department of Health and Ageing  
Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs  
Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources  
Department of the Environment and Heritage  
Department of the Treasury  
Department of Transport and Regional Services  
Department of Veterans' Affairs  
Indigenous Communities Coordination Taskforce  
Public Service and Merit Protection Commission

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### *Consulted by the New South Wales Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

NSW Department of Aboriginal Affairs  
NSW Premier's Department  
NSW Department of Housing  
NSW Department of Public Works and Services  
NSW Department of Land and Water Conservation  
NSW National Parks and Wildlife Service  
NSW Department of Sport and Recreation  
NSW Department of State and Regional Development  
NSW Department of Education and Training  
NSW Department of Juvenile Justice  
NSW Department of Corrective Services  
NSW Aboriginal Housing Office  
NSW Police Service  
NSW Department of Community Services  
NSW Attorney General's Department  
NSW Commission for Children and Young People  
NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research

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NSW Treasury  
NSW Health  
NSW Department for Women  
NSW Department of Ageing, Disability and Homecare  
NSW Office of Children and Young People  
NSW Aboriginal Land Council  
ATSIC (NSW State Advisory Centre)  
Aboriginal Educational Consultative Group  
Aboriginal Health and Medical Research Council  
Aboriginal Justice Advisory Council  
Aboriginal Child, Family and Community Care Secretariat  
Associate Professor Chris Cunneen, Institute of Criminology, University of Sydney  
Dr Victor Nossar, School of Public Health and Community Medicine, University of New South Wales  
Professor Graham Vimpani, Professor of Paediatrics and Child Health, University of Newcastle

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### *Consulted by the Victorian Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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Victorian Premier's Aboriginal Advisory Council  
Victorian Department of Education and Training  
Victorian Department of Human Services  
Various Victorian Departments unable to give comment because they were in caretaker period

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### *Consulted by the Queensland Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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Queensland Department of Employment and Training  
Queensland Department of Justice and Attorney General  
Queensland Commission for Children and Young People  
Queensland Police Service  
Queensland Department of Public Works  
Queensland Department of Corrective Services  
Queensland Department of Housing  
Queensland Health  
Disability Services Queensland  
Queensland Department of Families  
Queensland Department of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Policy  
Education Queensland  
Queensland Department of Transport and Main Roads  
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Advisory Board  
Dr Cindy Shannon, School of Population Health, University of Queensland  
Professor Ian Ring, James Cook University  
Dr Paul Memmott, School of Geographical Sciences and Planning, University of Queensland

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### *Consulted by the Western Australian Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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WA Department of Health (Aged Care)  
WA Fire and Emergency Services Authority  
WA Dept of Health  
WA Police Service  
WA Department of Community Development  
WA Disability Services Commission  
WA Department of Training  
ABS WA, Youth, Social, Demography and Statistics Unit  
WA Department of Education  
WA Department of Indigenous Affairs  
WA Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission  
Aboriginal Legal Service of WA  
Derbal Yerrigan Health Service  
WA Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Office

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### *Consulted by the South Australian Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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SA Department of Treasury and Finance  
Department of State Aboriginal Affairs  
SA Department of Human Services  
Arts SA  
SA Office of Economic Development  
SA Department of Education and Children's Services  
SA Department of Environment and Heritage  
SA Office for Recreation and Sport  
SA Office for the Commissioner for Public Employment  
SA Department of Transport and Urban Planning  
SA Attorney General's Department  
Spencer Institute of TAFE  
Primary Industries and Resources SA  
Marion City Council  
Adelaide City Council  
Aboriginal Legal Rights Movement  
No response received from 30 community representatives who were sent the framework

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### *Consulted by the Tasmanian Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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Tasmanian Aboriginal Centre and other Aboriginal organisations – no response received  
Various government agencies

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### *Consulted by the Australian Capital Territory Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander consultative bodies including the Working Group on optimising service delivery funding for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People in the ACT and other relevant ACT Government agency groups

Peak ACT Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander community organisations

ATSIC Regional Council

Ngunnawa Elders Council

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### *Consulted by the Northern Territory Government*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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NT Health and Community Services

NT Education

NT Justice

NT Police

NT Community Development, Sport and Cultural Affairs

NT Treasury

NT Chief Minister's

NT Business, Industry and Resource Development

NT Infrastructure, Planning and Environment

Commonwealth Department of Family and Community Services

Commonwealth Department of Health and Ageing

Commonwealth Department of Employment and Workplace Relations

Australian Bureau of Statistics

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission

Northern Land Council

Central Land Council

Anindilyakwa Land Council

Tiwi Land Council

Tangentyere Association

Julalikari

Indigenous Housing Authority of the Northern Territory

Kalano

AMSANT

NTCOSS

Northern Territory University

Menzies School of Medical Research

Bachelor College

Centralian College

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### *Consulted by the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission*

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#### *Person/Organisation*

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Views from across ATSIC including regional, state, policy and program managers

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*Consulted by the Standing Committee for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs*

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*Person/Organisation*

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Standing Committee for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs

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*Other comments received*

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*Person/organisation*

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National Indigenous Housing Information Implementation Committee

Maria Barredo, Catholic Multicultural Pastoral Services (SA)

NSW Aboriginal Justice Advisory Council

Professor Tony McMichael, Ms Karen Gardner, Dr Beverley Sibthorpe, National Centre for Epidemiology and Population Health, ANU

Professor Tony Barnes, Cooperative Research Centre for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health

Shedrick Wyatt, WA

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## Appendix 3 — Data limitations

### ABS mortality data

Previously published Indigenous mortality data need to be interpreted with caution. Excessively precise analysis based on Indigenous death registrations, Indigenous deaths coverage or projected Indigenous deaths needs to be avoided. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) experimental Indigenous life expectancy estimates from 1991, at the national level, were previously published with a specific methodology (the Preston-Hill method) and underlying assumptions, and with the qualification that the estimates were experimental and could be considered to have an accuracy of plus or minus four years.

In particular, the experimental nature of the Indigenous life expectancy estimates, and the coverage of deaths registrations, for the period since 1996 are based upon the methodological assumptions that:

- the level of mortality during 1996–2001 was the same as that estimated for the 1991–96 period; and
- the levels of mortality in 1991–96 were uniform (at the national rate) across the states and territories, at rates experienced primarily in the NT, WA and SA.

While these assumptions were the best that could be made at the time, the improved deaths registrations data since 1996, particularly for NSW and Queensland (where more than half the Indigenous population lives), makes the earlier assumptions no longer the best that can be applied. The estimates will be updated on a ‘what if’ basis (again adopting the Preston-Hill method) in the forthcoming issue of the ABS publication Deaths, Australia, 2002 (ABS Cat no. 3302.0), expected to be released on 27 November 2003. In updating the estimates of both Indigenous life expectancy and the coverage of Indigenous deaths registrations, the ABS will take account of the 2001 Census based population estimates and registered deaths since 1996.

The registration of deaths is the responsibility of the Registrars in individual jurisdictions. It is based on information supplied by a relative, another person acquainted with the deceased, or an official of the institution where the death occurred, and on information about the cause of death supplied by a medical

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practitioner. Individual Registrars will supply this information to the ABS for compilation into the aggregate mortality statistics for its publications.

Although it is considered likely that most Indigenous deaths are registered, a proportion of these deaths are not registered as 'Indigenous'. There are several data collection forms on which people are asked to state whether they are of Indigenous origin. Due to a number of factors, the results are not always consistent. The likelihood that a person will be identified in administrative collections as Indigenous is determined by a range of factors, including: who completes the form (for example, a relative or an official); the perception of how the information will be used; education programs about identifying as Indigenous; and emotional reaction to identifying as Indigenous.

There are three estimates of the number of Indigenous deaths each year — each is based on a different collection, with a different propensity to identify as Indigenous:

- 1991 Census based projections, where mortality data are estimated using mortality levels based on published 1986–1991 Indigenous life tables, and the Indigenous population based on the 1991 Census;
- 1996 Census based estimates and projections, where estimates prior to 1996 are derived by backdating estimates of the 1996 Indigenous population. The level of mortality is based on the published 1991–96 experimental life tables; and
- death registrations, based on the registration of deaths by each jurisdiction's Registrar of Births, Deaths and Marriages.

The total number of Indigenous deaths registered in 2001 (2100) was around 85 per cent of the number projected in the 1991 Census based experimental projections, and 55 per cent of the number of deaths projected in the 1996 Census based experimental projections.

The variation between the 1991 and 1996 Census based Indigenous deaths coverages can be primarily attributed to two factors<sup>1</sup>:

- the change in propensity to identify as Indigenous on Census forms between the 1991 and 1996 Censuses; and
- the method used to estimate the death rates applied in the projections. In particular, the method used to estimate the death rates is very sensitive to the inputs used, so that the resulting projected deaths are quite volatile.

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<sup>1</sup> The estimated coverage of Indigenous deaths is a comparison between the number of Indigenous deaths registered and the Census based Indigenous death estimates and projections.

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Given this volatility, and the experimental nature of the base populations, and the assumptions of constant mortality across jurisdictions and across time at the level experienced in the first half of the 1990s, which primarily reflect the mortality experience in selected jurisdictions in the 1991–96 intercensal period, the previously published estimates of coverage of deaths registered as Indigenous people are only very broadly indicative. Actual coverage of death registrations is likely to lie within the 1991 Census base to 1996 Census base range, although possibly outside it. Given this uncertainty, the assessment of the completeness of coverage of Indigenous deaths needs to be interpreted with caution.

In constructing the currently published 1991–96 national level Indigenous life table, about three quarters of the deaths registrations were from the NT (about one third of total Indigenous death registrations), WA (about one third) and SA (about one tenth). In updating the Indigenous life tables with the latest available data, the 1991–96 experimental life tables will be replaced by the 1996–2001 based experimental life tables. In recent years, the share of national Indigenous-identified deaths registered in NT, WA and SA has fallen below 50 per cent, and the share registered in NSW, Queensland and Victoria has risen to over 50 per cent of total registered Indigenous deaths, reflecting more closely the Indigenous population shares in these jurisdictions.

The updated life tables will, therefore, better reflect the mortality experience of Indigenous people across Australia. The Indigenous infant mortality rate in NSW for the three year period 1999 to 2001, for example, was about half the rate in the NT, and about two thirds the rate in WA. The Queensland rate was also very much lower than either the NT or WA Indigenous infant mortality rates. The much lower infant mortality rates in NSW and Queensland, along with any other differences in the mortality experience of these states when compared to NT, WA and SA, will be reflected in the updated Indigenous life tables.

While it is expected that the better quality registered deaths data for more recent periods will allow State/Territory specific life tables to be constructed for 1996–2001, it is also expected that the assumption of constant mortality over time will need to be retained. The updated estimates will interpolate State/Territory specific mortality experience estimated for 1996–2001 to also apply to the period 1991–96.

See the forthcoming ABS publication Deaths, Australia, 2002 (ABS Cat no. 3302.0), expected to be released on 27 November 2003, for updated estimates.



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## Hospital separations data

Hospital separations include discharges, transfers, deaths or changes in type of episodes of care. A record is included for each separation, not for each patient, so patients who separated more than once in the year have more than one record in the database. Hospital separations data are from the National Hospital Morbidity Database (NHMD), a national collection of hospital separation records maintained by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW). Health departments in all jurisdictions provide information on the characteristics, diagnoses and care of admitted patients in public and private hospitals to the AIHW.

Data relating to admitted patients are included from almost all hospitals, including public acute and psychiatric hospitals, private acute and psychiatric hospitals, and private free-standing day hospital facilities.

The AIHW and the data providers jointly validate the morbidity database to ensure data quality. When data are supplied using nonstandard definitions or classifications, the AIHW maps them to the National Health Data Dictionary definitions, where possible, in collaboration with the data providers.

### Limitations of the data

The following should be used to guide interpretation of the hospital separations data.

- Although the National Health Data Dictionary definitions form the basis of the database, the actual definitions used may vary among the data providers and from one year to another. In addition, admission practices and the detail of the scope of the data collections may vary among the jurisdictions and from year to year.
- Each jurisdiction has a demographic structure that differs from other jurisdictions, and factors such as age and Indigenous status can have an effect on the nature of health care delivery amongst jurisdictions. The frequency of particular procedures, for example, can be affected by the demographic composition of the population.
- Although data on separations from the NHMD can reflect an aspect of the burden of disease in the community, they do not usually provide measures of the incidence or prevalence of conditions. This is because not all people with a type or degree of illness are treated in hospital and there are multiple admissions for some chronic conditions. Also, the number and pattern of hospitalisations can be

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affected by differing admission practices, and differing levels and patterns of service provision.

- Analysis of hospital morbidity collections for Indigenous people is complicated by difficulties in estimating both the numbers of Indigenous patients admitted to hospital and the numbers in the overall population. Information concerning the numbers of Indigenous patients in hospital is limited by the accuracy with which they are identified in hospital records. Problems associated with identification will result in an understatement of morbidity patterns among Indigenous people. Assessments of the level of completeness of Indigenous identification in hospital morbidity collections are provided annually by each jurisdiction to the AIHW.

## **Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC) homicide data**

Limitations of the National Homicide Monitoring Program (NHMP) data, collected by the AIC, are discussed below.

- The data are derived from police records, which depend on the police accurately recording the Indigenous status of the victim and offender. This may involve the police making a subjective assessment based solely on the victim's or offender's appearance, which might lead to errors and inconsistencies. Further, as the determination of Indigenous status is mainly based on external appearance, this might not readily identify them as Indigenous. Hence, results reported from this data source might under represent the true extent of Indigenous homicide in Australia.
- Nevertheless, a 1998-99 study conducted by the ABS on assessing the quality of Indigenous status and racial appearance data collected by NSW police indicated that:
  - When racial appearance data were compared with the Indigenous status data asked by the police, the data quality of Indigenous status based on racial appearance was fairly good, but the data quality for Torres Strait Islanders was poor (SCRCSSP 2001, p. 382).

## **Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) learning outcomes data**

Factors which limit the national comparability of the benchmark results include:

- *Years of Schooling* - Different starting ages and testing dates across Australia mean that year 3 students have received an average of between 3 years and 7 months of schooling in three jurisdictions, down to 2 years and 7 months in

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WA. Year 5 students have received an average of between 5 years and 7 months of schooling in three jurisdictions, down to 4 years and 7 months in WA.

- *Average age at testing* - In year 3 average ages range from 9 years 2 months in Tasmania, down to 8 years 2 months in WA. In year 5 average ages range from 11 years 2 months in Tasmania, down to 10 years 2 months in WA.
- *Untested students* - Due to different state policies, there are variations in the proportion of students absent or withdrawn from testing (and therefore not included in benchmark calculations). For reading and numeracy, NSW has a rate of around 5 to 6 percent, Victoria around 9 percent and the NT around 14 to 16 per cent. MCEETYA has agreed that all states and territories review their guidelines and practices related to exemptions, absences and withdrawals, with a view to maximising the participation of students in literacy and numeracy testing.
- *Coverage of testing* - In NSW, around 94 per cent of government school students and 95 per cent of non-government school students are counted towards the reading and numeracy benchmark results for year 3 students. In Victoria, about 90 per cent of government and 90 per cent of non-government school students are assessed, while in the NT around 83 per cent of government and 90 per cent of non-government school students are assessed. In NSW, around 94 per cent of government school students and 95 per cent of non-government school students are counted towards the reading and numeracy benchmark results for year 5 students. In SA, about 90 to 93 per cent of government and 95 to 96 per cent of non-government school students are assessed.
- *Differences in the Student Body* - Educational achievement is influenced by factors such as socioeconomic status and the disadvantage experienced by Indigenous communities. The results in each jurisdiction will to some degree reflect these factors.
- *Lack of reliability in the benchmark results* - Dramatic apparent improvement in the results brings into question the reliability of the benchmarks. For example, in year 3 reading, WA improved its results of all students from 88.8 per cent in 1999 to 95.8 per cent in 2000. WA achieved an increase for all students in year 5 reading from 79.5 per cent in 1999 to 93.6 per cent in 2000.
- *High levels of error* - The relatively small numbers of Indigenous students mean that the error associated with these data is higher than the error associated with 'all' students.

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## **ABS/ATSIC Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey (CHINS) data**

Although the CHINS is referred to as a survey, data on housing and infrastructure was collected for all occupied discrete Indigenous communities. Some discrete communities are very small and may have fewer than ten residents, while 145 communities had more than 200 people. The survey used a shorter questionnaire for most communities with fewer than 50 people, so for many items, data are only available for communities with a usual population of 50 or more.

Personal interviews were conducted with key community representatives knowledgeable about housing and infrastructure issues. Data providers included community council chairpersons, council clerks, housing officers, water and essential service officers and health clinic administrators. The accuracy of data depends on the knowledge of those informants who were available in each community at the time of the survey and their access to records. Population data are estimates of the usual population of each community made by key informants, and may vary from Census data, which are collected for each household on Census night.



## Appendix 4 - Statistics

The following tables contain data on the population used to calculate the indicators in this Report.

Supporting tables for this Report can be found on the Review web page ([www.pc.gov.au/gsp](http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp)) and on the *Report on Government Services 2004* CD-ROM which will be available in January 2004. Information on purchasing a copy of the CD-ROM can be obtained from the Secretariat (see details inside the front cover of the Report). Users can also contact the Secretariat to obtain the attachment tables.

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
New South Wales												
0	1 502	1 375	2 877	36 243	34 126	70 369	2 910	2 768	5 678	40 655	38 269	78 924
1	1 616	1 522	3 138	38 759	36 814	75 573	2 753	2 553	5 306	43 128	40 889	84 017
2	1 643	1 579	3 222	39 773	38 017	77 790	2 708	2 488	5 196	44 124	42 084	86 208
3	1 699	1 656	3 355	40 009	38 163	78 172	2 636	2 266	4 902	44 344	42 085	86 429
4	1 636	1 632	3 268	40 570	38 266	78 836	2 423	2 236	4 659	44 629	42 134	86 763
5	1 787	1 627	3 414	41 219	39 227	80 446	2 138	1 927	4 065	45 144	42 781	87 925
6	1 814	1 626	3 440	41 585	40 046	81 631	2 075	1 930	4 005	45 474	43 602	89 076
7	1 659	1 676	3 335	42 092	39 761	81 853	2 043	1 915	3 958	45 794	43 352	89 146
8	1 717	1 670	3 387	42 210	40 093	82 303	1 972	1 890	3 862	45 899	43 653	89 552
9	1 705	1 592	3 297	42 847	40 330	83 177	1 900	1 910	3 810	46 452	43 832	90 284
10-14	7 922	7 415	15 337	210 713	200 593	411 306	9 620	8 763	18 383	228 255	216 771	445 026
15-19	6 234	6 024	12 258	208 095	198 355	406 450	9 501	8 417	17 918	223 830	212 796	436 626
20-24	4 539	4 329	8 868	193 282	188 792	382 074	9 537	8 240	17 777	207 358	201 361	408 719
25-34	8 276	9 306	17 582	422 381	437 180	859 561	19 980	17 916	37 896	450 637	464 402	915 039
35-44	7 067	7 803	14 870	450 339	462 859	913 198	19 379	17 874	37 253	476 785	488 536	965 321
45-54	4 757	4 994	9 751	403 181	406 076	809 257	16 804	15 432	32 236	424 742	426 502	851 244
55-64	2 557	2 556	5 113	282 631	279 908	562 539	12 364	12 378	24 742	297 552	294 842	592 394
65-74	1 076	1 308	2 384	199 881	216 792	416 673	11 760	14 449	26 209	212 717	232 549	445 266
75+	365	604	969	137 823	212 264	350 087	11 012	21 141	32 153	149 200	234 009	383 209
Total	59 571	60 294	119 865	2 913 633	2 987 662	5 901 295	143 515	146 493	290 008	3 116 719	3 194 449	6 311 168
Victoria												
0	278	291	569	26 588	25 169	51 757	1 915	1 803	3 718	28 781	27 263	56 044
1	297	282	579	27 939	27 132	55 071	1 711	1 650	3 361	29 947	29 064	59 011
2	337	364	701	29 414	27 929	57 343	1 730	1 653	3 383	31 481	29 946	61 427
3	334	339	673	29 631	27 611	57 242	1 561	1 459	3 020	31 526	29 409	60 935

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
4	327	337	664	30 262	28 332	58 594	1 509	1 431	2 940	32 098	30 100	62 198
5	340	310	650	30 910	28 998	59 908	1 317	1 218	2 535	32 567	30 526	63 093
6	344	374	718	31 534	29 897	61 431	1 288	1 204	2 492	33 166	31 475	64 641
7	347	314	661	31 875	29 934	61 809	1 239	1 173	2 412	33 461	31 421	64 882
8	373	324	697	31 350	30 028	61 378	1 280	1 179	2 459	33 003	31 531	64 534
9	363	342	705	31 721	30 024	61 745	1 154	1 145	2 299	33 238	31 511	64 749
10-14	1 559	1 565	3 124	157 453	150 084	307 537	5 984	5 554	11 538	164 996	157 203	322 199
15-19	1 312	1 271	2 583	156 261	151 356	307 617	6 131	5 418	11 549	163 704	158 045	321 749
20-24	993	994	1 987	150 280	147 394	297 674	6 345	5 388	11 733	157 618	153 776	311 394
25-34	1 900	2 021	3 921	323 402	338 553	661 955	12 299	11 407	23 706	337 601	351 981	689 582
35-44	1 452	1 598	3 050	333 931	350 205	684 136	11 991	11 186	23 177	347 374	362 989	710 363
45-54	1 025	1 053	2 078	297 365	307 178	604 543	10 333	9 814	20 147	308 723	318 045	626 768
55-64	460	512	972	202 814	202 595	405 409	8 052	8 503	16 555	211 326	211 610	422 936
65-74	208	258	466	139 851	153 575	293 426	7 859	10 066	17 925	147 918	163 899	311 817
75+	118	162	280	96 873	152 151	249 024	7 987	16 484	24 471	104 978	168 797	273 775
Total	12 367	12 711	25 078	2 159 454	2 238 145	4 397 599	91 685	97 735	189 420	2 263 506	2 348 591	4 612 097
Queensland												
0	1 426	1 388	2 814	20 791	19 746	40 537	1 537	1 363	2 900	23 754	22 497	46 251
1	1 524	1 469	2 993	21 728	20 378	42 106	1 309	1 285	2 594	24 561	23 132	47 693
2	1 504	1 530	3 034	22 458	21 251	43 709	1 287	1 194	2 481	25 249	23 975	49 224
3	1 523	1 513	3 036	22 605	21 635	44 240	1 228	1 091	2 319	25 356	24 239	49 595
4	1 553	1 578	3 131	22 721	21 777	44 498	1 096	1 063	2 159	25 370	24 418	49 788
5	1 692	1 565	3 257	23 537	22 502	46 039	979	898	1 877	26 208	24 965	51 173
6	1 650	1 578	3 228	24 263	22 952	47 215	889	821	1 710	26 802	25 351	52 153
7	1 639	1 557	3 196	24 335	22 873	47 208	895	807	1 702	26 869	25 237	52 106
8	1 649	1 593	3 242	24 525	22 979	47 504	870	858	1 728	27 044	25 430	52 474



Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
9	1 623	1 546	3 169	24 418	23 733	48 151	889	839	1 728	26 930	26 118	53 048
10-14	7 218	6 891	14 109	121 118	115 262	236 380	4 532	4 016	8 548	132 868	126 169	259 037
15-19	5 666	5 719	11 385	121 045	116 796	237 841	4 528	3 788	8 316	131 239	126 303	257 542
20-24	4 307	4 824	9 131	109 974	110 186	220 160	4 669	3 733	8 402	118 950	118 743	237 693
25-34	7 995	9 618	17 613	232 395	243 956	476 351	8 968	7 530	16 498	249 358	261 104	510 462
35-44	6 325	7 242	13 567	245 346	260 548	505 894	8 591	7 508	16 099	260 262	275 298	535 560
45-54	4 070	4 546	8 616	231 522	235 432	466 954	7 831	6 837	14 668	243 423	246 815	490 238
55-64	1 861	2 349	4 210	168 165	164 908	333 073	5 840	5 374	11 214	175 866	172 631	348 497
65-74	951	1 108	2 059	114 184	117 209	231 393	5 540	6 560	12 100	120 675	124 877	245 552
75+	406	576	982	74 447	104 971	179 418	5 997	11 156	17 153	80 850	116 703	197 553
Total	54 582	58 190	112 772	1 649 577	1 689 094	3 338 671	67 475	66 721	134 196	1 771 634	1 814 005	3 585 639
Western Australia												
0	709	693	1 402	10 283	9 837	20 120	781	692	1 473	11 773	11 222	22 995
1	713	742	1 455	10 703	10 370	21 073	738	587	1 325	12 154	11 699	23 853
2	817	776	1 593	11 545	10 924	22 469	675	626	1 301	13 037	12 326	25 363
3	811	743	1 554	11 466	10 883	22 349	627	555	1 182	12 904	12 181	25 085
4	765	719	1 484	11 819	10 979	22 798	624	507	1 131	13 208	12 205	25 413
5	825	771	1 596	12 068	11 305	23 373	508	442	950	13 401	12 518	25 919
6	829	775	1 604	12 267	11 601	23 868	526	429	955	13 622	12 805	26 427
7	807	752	1 559	12 378	11 778	24 156	492	449	941	13 677	12 979	26 656
8	834	760	1 594	12 456	11 830	24 286	512	472	984	13 802	13 062	26 864
9	775	760	1 535	12 502	11 807	24 309	483	424	907	13 760	12 991	26 751
10-14	3 956	3 602	7 558	64 282	60 882	125 164	2 470	2 158	4 628	70 708	66 642	137 350
15-19	2 952	2 957	5 909	64 330	61 371	125 701	2 584	2 085	4 669	69 866	66 413	136 279
20-24	2 313	2 453	4 766	58 327	56 281	114 608	2 617	2 002	4 619	63 257	60 736	123 993
25-34	4 473	4 817	9 290	122 831	124 231	247 062	5 140	4 076	9 216	132 444	133 124	265 568

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
35-44	3 445	3 717	7 162	131 993	136 287	268 280	4 859	4 109	8 968	140 297	144 113	284 410
45-54	2 165	2 374	4 539	122 463	122 814	245 277	4 164	3 399	7 563	128 792	128 587	257 379
55-64	1 028	1 157	2 185	81 225	77 945	159 170	2 914	2 758	5 672	85 167	81 860	167 027
65-74	491	604	1 095	52 266	54 805	107 071	2 708	3 070	5 778	55 465	58 479	113 944
75+	262	354	616	32 823	48 852	81 675	2 868	5 573	8 441	35 953	54 779	90 732
Total	28 970	29 526	58 496	848 027	854 782	1 702 809	36 290	34 413	70 703	913 287	918 721	1 832 008
South Australia												
0	251	268	519	7 541	7 437	14 978	439	454	893	8 231	8 159	16 390
1	296	288	584	8 400	7 778	16 178	400	388	788	9 096	8 454	17 550
2	303	325	628	8 646	8 458	17 104	393	402	795	9 342	9 185	18 527
3	301	306	607	8 761	8 328	17 089	359	342	701	9 421	8 976	18 397
4	300	292	592	8 911	8 548	17 459	327	287	614	9 538	9 127	18 665
5	309	309	618	9 410	8 727	18 137	286	248	534	10 005	9 284	19 289
6	319	311	630	9 582	9 074	18 656	246	244	490	10 147	9 629	19 776
7	325	311	636	9 365	8 893	18 258	254	261	515	9 944	9 465	19 409
8	331	303	634	9 548	9 140	18 688	277	273	550	10 156	9 716	19 872
9	329	327	656	9 575	9 177	18 752	276	269	545	10 180	9 773	19 953
10-14	1 468	1 439	2 907	48 570	45 435	94 005	1 284	1 154	2 438	51 322	48 028	99 350
15-19	1 247	1 226	2 473	49 115	47 013	96 128	1 350	1 096	2 446	51 712	49 335	101 047
20-24	933	925	1 858	44 254	42 306	86 560	1 445	1 032	2 477	46 632	44 263	90 895
25-34	1 795	1 899	3 694	95 097	94 665	189 762	2 905	2 289	5 194	99 797	98 853	198 650
35-44	1 412	1 563	2 975	105 647	108 569	214 216	2 697	2 320	5 017	109 756	112 452	222 208
45-54	888	947	1 835	98 367	101 083	199 450	2 297	2 089	4 386	101 552	104 119	205 671
55-64	429	494	923	68 010	69 116	137 126	1 898	1 953	3 851	70 337	71 563	141 900
65-74	197	250	447	49 834	54 270	104 104	2 054	2 638	4 692	52 085	57 158	109 243
75+	83	126	209	36 717	57 678	94 395	2 465	5 051	7 516	39 265	62 855	102 120

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
Age	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Total	11 516	11 909	23 425	685 350	705 695	1 391 045	21 652	22 790	44 442	718 518	740 394	1 458 912
Tasmania												
0	193	163	356	2 526	2 428	4 954	165	144	309	2 884	2 735	5 619
1	199	190	389	2 636	2 488	5 124	148	153	301	2 983	2 831	5 814
2	197	200	397	2 858	2 743	5 601	154	138	292	3 209	3 081	6 290
3	213	199	412	2 848	2 691	5 539	131	126	257	3 192	3 016	6 208
4	204	205	409	2 924	2 794	5 718	105	125	230	3 233	3 124	6 357
5	208	166	374	2 991	2 875	5 866	98	107	205	3 297	3 148	6 445
6	243	214	457	3 122	2 950	6 072	107	85	192	3 472	3 249	6 721
7	205	222	427	3 191	2 887	6 078	87	80	167	3 483	3 189	6 672
8	226	216	442	3 067	2 915	5 982	86	94	180	3 379	3 225	6 604
9	202	206	408	3 059	2 993	6 052	106	93	199	3 367	3 292	6 659
10-14	1 177	1 006	2 183	15 823	15 155	30 978	531	454	985	17 531	16 615	34 146
15-19	907	936	1 843	15 512	14 921	30 433	488	398	886	16 907	16 255	33 162
20-24	587	634	1 221	12 544	12 512	25 056	405	328	733	13 536	13 474	27 010
25-34	976	1 122	2 098	26 271	28 199	54 470	844	726	1 570	28 091	30 047	58 138
35-44	915	1 076	1 991	31 478	33 383	64 861	926	823	1 749	33 319	35 282	68 601
45-54	692	632	1 324	30 469	30 821	61 290	825	777	1 602	31 986	32 230	64 216
55-64	330	304	634	21 517	21 325	42 842	697	728	1 425	22 544	22 357	44 901
65-74	142	142	284	14 752	15 702	30 454	800	1 054	1 854	15 694	16 898	32 592
75+	50	74	124	9 989	15 523	25 512	1 033	2 017	3 050	11 072	17 614	28 686
Total	7 866	7 907	15 773	207 577	215 305	422 882	7 736	8 450	16 186	223 179	231 662	454 841
Australian Capital Territory												
0	34	59	93	1 780	1 769	3 549	106	100	206	1 920	1 928	3 848
1	42	37	79	1 906	1 861	3 767	107	81	188	2 055	1 979	4 034
2	55	46	101	1 962	1 944	3 906	98	90	188	2 115	2 080	4 195

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
3	45	56	101	1 931	1 835	3 766	102	85	187	2 078	1 976	4 054
4	43	44	87	2 033	1 898	3 931	96	86	182	2 172	2 028	4 200
5	49	50	99	2 006	1 973	3 979	87	55	142	2 142	2 078	4 220
6	61	44	105	2 139	1 998	4 137	71	64	135	2 271	2 106	4 377
7	57	46	103	2 064	2 089	4 153	74	66	140	2 195	2 201	4 396
8	56	42	98	2 107	1 994	4 101	76	75	151	2 239	2 111	4 350
9	47	42	89	2 097	2 083	4 180	73	70	143	2 217	2 195	4 412
10-14	201	234	435	11 388	10 868	22 256	422	378	800	12 011	11 480	23 491
15-19	201	192	393	11 982	11 267	23 249	439	408	847	12 622	11 867	24 489
20-24	142	159	301	12 137	12 061	24 198	457	411	868	12 736	12 631	25 367
25-34	309	316	625	22 878	23 733	46 611	816	730	1 546	24 003	24 779	48 782
35-44	231	239	470	22 393	24 243	46 636	758	718	1 476	23 382	25 200	48 582
45-54	136	121	257	21 192	22 500	43 692	679	640	1 319	22 007	23 261	45 268
55-64	49	50	99	12 295	12 240	24 535	399	411	810	12 743	12 701	25 444
65-74	12	12	24	6 464	7 141	13 605	287	335	622	6 763	7 488	14 251
75+	11	6	17	4 169	6 614	10 783	215	409	624	4 395	7 029	11 424
Total	1 781	1 795	3 576	144 923	150 111	295 034	5 362	5 212	10 574	152 066	157 118	309 184
Northern Territory												
0	583	525	1 108	883	898	1 781	144	125	269	1 610	1 548	3 158
1	606	542	1 148	965	868	1 833	110	99	209	1 681	1 509	3 190
2	576	588	1 164	945	901	1 846	118	101	219	1 639	1 590	3 229
3	628	631	1 259	1 074	898	1 972	116	101	217	1 818	1 630	3 448
4	648	612	1 260	956	933	1 889	106	106	212	1 710	1 651	3 361
5	712	637	1 349	1 006	977	1 983	90	93	183	1 808	1 707	3 515
6	666	652	1 318	1 047	903	1 950	95	97	192	1 808	1 652	3 460
7	672	587	1 259	997	951	1 948	106	74	180	1 775	1 612	3 387

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
8	662	593	1 255	941	968	1 909	90	62	152	1 693	1 623	3 316
9	637	583	1 220	1 046	936	1 982	89	78	167	1 772	1 597	3 369
10-14	3 113	2 800	5 913	4 624	4 323	8 947	443	409	852	8 180	7 532	15 712
15-19	2 697	2 692	5 389	4 235	3 843	8 078	428	341	769	7 360	6 876	14 236
20-24	2 436	2 376	4 812	5 407	4 659	10 066	564	425	989	8 407	7 460	15 867
25-34	4 290	4 462	8 752	13 262	12 296	25 558	1 241	1 033	2 274	18 793	17 791	36 584
35-44	2 984	3 324	6 308	13 009	11 434	24 443	1 125	869	1 994	17 118	15 627	32 745
45-54	1 812	2 001	3 813	11 666	10 087	21 753	957	584	1 541	14 435	12 672	27 107
55-64	913	1 072	1 985	7 545	6 101	13 646	514	284	798	8 972	7 457	16 429
65-74	389	571	960	3 450	2 531	5 981	282	209	491	4 121	3 311	7 432
75+	198	315	513	1 071	1 203	2 274	214	183	397	1 483	1 701	3 184
Total	25 222	25 563	50 785	74 129	65 710	139 839	6 832	5 273	12 105	106 183	96 546	202 729
Other Territories												
0	3	3	6	18	12	30	4	3	7	25	18	43
1	—	5	5	12	21	33	3	3	6	15	29	44
2	3	3	6	21	15	36	—	—	—	24	18	42
3	3	3	6	23	16	39	—	3	3	26	22	48
4	3	3	6	17	22	39	3	3	6	23	28	51
5	—	—	—	30	22	52	—	—	—	30	22	52
6	3	4	7	25	15	40	3	3	6	31	22	53
7	—	4	4	25	19	44	—	3	3	25	26	51
8	—	4	4	21	31	52	3	3	6	24	38	62
9	—	3	3	22	24	46	—	3	3	22	30	52
10-14	8	12	20	119	116	235	9	5	14	136	133	269
15-19	17	6	23	62	42	104	4	3	7	83	51	134
20-24	8	12	20	65	54	119	5	—	5	78	66	144

Table A.1

Table A.1      **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
25-34	16	21	37	183	153	336	7	3	10	206	177	383
35-44	17	14	31	223	222	445	14	8	22	254	244	498
45-54	11	10	21	241	162	403	11	6	17	263	178	441
55-64	13	12	25	109	67	176	6	7	13	128	86	214
65-74	3	3	6	39	28	67	—	—	—	42	31	73
75+	3	3	6	13	6	19	3	—	3	19	9	28
Total	111	125	236	1 268	1 047	2 315	75	56	131	1 454	1 228	2 682
Australia												
0	4 979	4 765	9 744	106 653	101 422	208 075	8 001	7 452	15 453	119 633	113 639	233 272
1	5 293	5 077	10 370	113 048	107 710	220 758	7 279	6 799	14 078	125 620	119 586	245 206
2	5 435	5 411	10 846	117 622	112 182	229 804	7 163	6 692	13 855	130 220	124 285	254 505
3	5 557	5 446	11 003	118 348	112 060	230 408	6 760	6 028	12 788	130 665	123 534	254 199
4	5 479	5 422	10 901	120 213	113 549	233 762	6 289	5 844	12 133	131 981	124 815	256 796
5	5 922	5 435	11 357	123 177	116 606	239 783	5 503	4 988	10 491	134 602	127 029	261 631
6	5 929	5 578	11 507	125 564	119 436	245 000	5 300	4 877	10 177	136 793	129 891	266 684
7	5 711	5 469	11 180	126 322	119 185	245 507	5 190	4 828	10 018	137 223	129 482	266 705
8	5 848	5 505	11 353	126 225	119 978	246 203	5 166	4 906	10 072	137 239	130 389	267 628
9	5 681	5 401	11 082	127 287	121 107	248 394	4 970	4 831	9 801	137 938	131 339	269 277
10-14	26 622	24 964	51 586	634 090	602 718	1 236 808	25 295	22 891	48 186	686 007	650 573	1 336 580
15-19	21 233	21 023	42 256	630 637	604 964	1 235 601	25 453	21 954	47 407	677 323	647 941	1 325 264
20-24	16 258	16 706	32 964	586 270	574 245	1 160 515	26 044	21 559	47 603	628 572	612 510	1 241 082
25-34	30 030	33 582	63 612	1 258 700	1 302 966	2 561 666	52 200	45 710	97 910	1 340 930	1 382 258	2 723 188
35-44	23 848	26 576	50 424	1 334 359	1 387 750	2 722 109	50 340	45 415	95 755	1 408 547	1 459 741	2 868 288
45-54	15 556	16 678	32 234	1 216 466	1 236 153	2 452 619	43 901	39 578	83 479	1 275 923	1 292 409	2 568 332
55-64	7 640	8 506	16 146	844 311	834 205	1 678 516	32 684	32 396	65 080	884 635	875 107	1 759 742
65-74	3 469	4 256	7 725	580 721	622 053	1 202 774	31 290	38 381	69 671	615 480	664 690	1 280 170

Table A.1

Table A.1     **Population (number), 2001**

Age	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
75+	1 496	2 220	3 716	393 925	599 262	993 187	31 794	62 014	93 808	427 215	663 496	1 090 711
Total	201 986	208 020	410 006	8 683 938	8 907 551	17 591 489	380 622	387 143	767 765	9 266 546	9 502 714	18 769 260

(a) Includes persons who stated they were both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander.

– Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS 2001 Census.

Table A.2

Table A.2      **Population (number), 2001**

Geographic region	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
New South Wales												
Major Cities	24 848	25 837	50 685	2 073 907	2 142 328	4 216 235	109 393	112 475	221 868	2 208 148	2 280 640	4 488 788
Inner Regional	19 529	19 487	39 016	598 438	614 890	1 213 328	22 968	23 926	46 894	640 935	658 303	1 299 238
Outer Regional	11 432	11 391	22 823	220 323	213 276	433 599	9 599	9 026	18 625	241 354	233 693	475 047
Remote	2 693	2 627	5 320	16 778	14 301	31 079	1 073	806	1 879	20 544	17 734	38 278
Very Remote	1 047	944	1 991	3 305	2 580	5 885	276	208	484	4 628	3 732	8 360
Migratory	22	7	29	882	285	1 167	209	51	260	1 113	343	1 456
Total	59 571	60 293	119 864	2 913 633	2 987 660	5 901 293	143 518	146 492	290 010	3 116 722	3 194 445	6 311 167
Victoria												
Major Cities	6 120	6 214	12 334	1 580 774	1 652 313	3 233 087	70 122	74 850	144 972	1 657 016	1 733 377	3 390 393
Inner Regional	4 316	4 352	8 668	456 719	466 019	922 738	16 960	18 186	35 146	477 995	488 557	966 552
Outer Regional	1 903	2 114	4 017	118 492	117 060	235 552	4 521	4 623	9 144	124 916	123 797	248 713
Remote	29	33	62	2 848	2 706	5 554	63	69	132	2 940	2 808	5 748
Very Remote	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Migratory	—	—	—	620	48	668	19	4	23	639	52	691
Total	12 368	12 713	25 081	2 159 453	2 238 146	4 397 599	91 685	97 732	189 417	2 263 506	2 348 591	4 612 097
Queensland												
Major Cities	13 639	14 784	28 423	862 464	906 078	1 768 542	32 687	34 724	67 411	908 790	955 586	1 864 376
Inner Regional	9 903	10 650	20 553	426 502	441 916	868 418	14 987	15 914	30 901	451 392	468 480	919 872
Outer Regional	17 805	19 574	37 379	293 738	286 995	580 733	14 152	12 738	26 890	325 695	319 307	645 002
Remote	4 924	4 999	9 923	44 464	37 011	81 475	3 328	1 946	5 274	52 716	43 956	96 672
Very Remote	8 299	8 175	16 474	21 666	16 683	38 349	2 192	1 317	3 509	32 157	26 175	58 332



Table A.2

Table A.2      **Population (number), 2001**

Geographic region	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Migratory	8	8	16	743	411	1 154	127	85	212	878	504	1 382
Total	54 578	58 190	112 768	1 649 577	1 689 094	3 338 671	67 473	66 724	134 197	1 771 628	1 814 008	3 585 636
Western Australia												
Major Cities	9 218	9 980	19 198	594 227	618 597	1 212 824	21 739	23 251	44 990	625 184	651 828	1 277 012
Inner Regional	2 417	2 213	4 630	102 135	102 560	204 695	3 775	3 903	7 678	108 327	108 676	217 003
Outer Regional	4 163	4 275	8 438	82 394	78 969	161 363	3 469	3 181	6 650	90 026	86 425	176 451
Remote	4 585	4 785	9 370	43 921	37 911	81 832	3 084	2 299	5 383	51 590	44 995	96 585
Very Remote	8 573	8 267	16 840	24 359	16 568	40 927	3 653	1 732	5 385	36 585	26 567	63 152
Migratory	16	7	23	991	178	1 169	569	48	617	1 576	233	1 809
Total	28 972	29 527	58 499	848 027	854 783	1 702 810	36 289	34 414	70 703	913 288	918 724	1 832 012
South Australia												
Major Cities	5 257	5 626	10 883	488 423	514 457	1 002 880	14 432	16 112	30 544	508 112	536 195	1 044 307
Inner Regional	1 053	973	2 026	85 654	86 617	172 271	2 532	2 797	5 329	89 239	90 387	179 626
Outer Regional	2 619	2 710	5 329	82 732	79 750	162 482	2 576	2 616	5 192	87 927	85 076	173 003
Remote	543	537	1 080	22 198	20 168	42 366	801	697	1 498	23 542	21 402	44 944
Very Remote	2 039	2 053	4 092	6 100	4 437	10 537	1 283	549	1 832	9 422	7 039	16 461
Migratory	6	10	16	244	266	510	28	19	47	278	295	573
Total	11 517	11 909	23 426	685 351	705 695	1 391 046	21 652	22 790	44 442	718 520	740 394	1 458 914

Table A.2

Table A.2      **Population (number), 2001**

Geographic region	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Tasmania												
Major Cities	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Inner Regional	3 980	4 123	8 103	131 123	140 053	271 176	4 524	5 267	9 791	139 627	149 443	289 070
Outer Regional	3 588	3 531	7 119	70 674	70 306	140 980	2 810	2 894	5 704	77 072	76 731	153 803
Remote	192	168	360	4 127	3 630	7 757	197	196	393	4 516	3 994	8 510
Very Remote	100	82	182	1 246	1 041	2 287	47	35	82	1 393	1 158	2 551
Migratory	11	3	14	408	275	683	159	65	224	578	343	921
Total	7 871	7 907	15 778	207 578	215 305	422 883	7 737	8 457	16 194	223 186	231 669	454 855
Australian Capital Territory												
Major Cities	1 776	1 792	3 568	144 527	149 801	294 328	5 354	5 206	10 560	151 657	156 799	308 456
Inner Regional	3	3	6	396	309	705	4	7	11	403	319	722
Outer Regional	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Remote	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Very Remote	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Migratory	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Total	1 779	1 795	3 574	144 923	150 110	295 033	5 358	5 213	10 571	152 060	157 118	309 178
Northern Territory												
Major Cities	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Inner Regional	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Outer Regional	4 690	4 807	9 497	47 072	43 088	90 160	3 784	3 035	6 819	55 546	50 930	106 476
Remote	4 416	4 502	8 918	16 619	15 623	32 242	1 500	1 296	2 796	22 535	21 421	43 956
Very Remote	16 058	16 227	32 285	8 904	6 805	15 709	1 307	899	2 206	26 269	23 931	50 200

Table A.2

Table A.2      **Population (number), 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
Geographic region	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Migratory	58	30	88	1 532	193	1 725	240	43	283	1 830	266	2 096
Total	25 222	25 566	50 788	74 127	65 709	139 836	6 831	5 273	12 104	106 180	96 548	202 728
Other Territories												
Major Cities	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Inner Regional	102	110	212	210	169	379	16	3	19	328	282	610
Outer Regional	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Remote	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Very Remote	10	8	18	1 060	878	1 938	64	43	107	1 134	929	2 063
Migratory	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Total	112	118	230	1 270	1 047	2 317	80	46	126	1 462	1 211	2 673
Australia												
Major Cities	60 858	64 233	125 091	5 744 322	5 983 574	11 727 896	253 727	266 618	520 345	6 058 907	6 314 425	12 373 332
Inner Regional	41 303	41 911	83 214	1 801 177	1 852 533	3 653 710	65 766	70 003	135 769	1 908 246	1 964 447	3 872 693
Outer Regional	46 200	48 402	94 602	915 425	889 444	1 804 869	40 911	38 113	79 024	1 002 536	975 959	1 978 495
Remote	17 382	17 651	35 033	150 955	131 350	282 305	10 046	7 309	17 355	178 383	156 310	334 693
Very Remote	36 126	35 756	71 882	66 640	48 992	115 632	8 822	4 783	13 605	111 588	89 531	201 119
Migratory	121	65	186	5 420	1 656	7 076	1 351	315	1 666	6 892	2 036	8 928
Total	201 990	208 018	410 008	8 683 939	8 907 549	17 591 488	380 623	387 141	767 764	9 266 552	9 502 708	18 769 260

(a) Includes persons who stated they were both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander.

– Nil or rounded to zero. .. Not applicable. **na** Not available.

Source: ABS 2001 Census.

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
New South Wales												
0	5	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	5
1	5	3	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	3	8
2	9	4	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	4	13
3	6	8	14	3	—	3	—	—	—	9	8	17
4	11	9	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	9	20
5	7	8	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	8	15
6	6	10	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	10	16
7	13	10	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	10	23
8	10	7	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	7	17
9	12	9	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	9	21
10-14	44	46	90	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	46	90
15-19	35	30	65	3	3	6	—	—	—	38	33	71
20-24	29	16	45	8	—	8	—	—	—	37	16	53
25-34	71	75	146	9	10	19	—	—	—	80	85	165
35-44	58	73	131	15	4	19	—	—	—	73	77	150
45-54	34	48	82	15	11	26	—	—	—	49	59	108
55-64	26	21	47	6	3	9	—	—	—	32	24	56
65-74	10	11	21	—	3	3	—	—	—	10	14	24
75+	5	7	12	—	3	3	—	—	—	5	10	15
Total	396	395	791	59	37	96	—	—	—	455	432	887
Victoria												
0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
3	—	4	4	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	7	7

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
7	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3
8	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
9	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
10-14	21	17	38	3	—	3	—	—	—	24	17	41
15-19	22	19	41	5	—	5	—	—	—	27	19	46
20-24	13	7	20	4	4	8	—	—	—	17	11	28
25-34	29	20	49	11	6	17	—	—	—	40	26	66
35-44	18	18	36	8	13	21	—	—	—	26	31	57
45-54	5	9	14	6	8	14	—	—	—	11	17	28
55-64	—	—	—	3	—	3	—	—	—	3	—	3
65-74	—	3	3	3	—	3	—	—	—	3	3	6
75+	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
Total	123	100	223	43	34	77	—	—	—	166	134	300
Queensland												
0	10	14	24	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	14	24
1	36	37	73	—	—	—	—	—	—	36	37	73
2	40	38	78	—	3	3	—	—	—	40	41	81
3	57	48	105	—	—	—	—	—	—	57	48	105
4	56	49	105	—	3	3	—	—	—	56	52	108
5	59	51	110	—	3	3	—	—	—	59	54	113
6	56	61	117	—	—	—	—	—	—	56	61	117
7	53	53	106	—	3	3	3	—	3	56	56	112
8	44	59	103	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	59	103

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
9	59	57	116	—	—	—	—	—	—	59	57	116
10-14	301	278	579	9	14	23	6	—	6	316	292	608
15-19	288	235	523	12	13	25	3	—	3	303	248	551
20-24	235	238	473	8	12	20	—	3	3	243	253	496
25-34	464	523	987	27	20	47	4	5	9	495	548	1 043
35-44	382	400	782	29	24	53	—	—	—	411	424	835
45-54	316	311	627	27	19	46	—	—	—	343	330	673
55-64	154	183	337	10	8	18	—	—	—	164	191	355
65-74	101	117	218	—	3	3	—	—	—	101	120	221
75+	64	72	136	3	—	3	—	—	—	67	72	139
Total	2 775	2 824	5 599	125	125	250	16	8	24	2 916	2 957	5 873
Western Australia												
0	29	25	54	3	—	3	—	—	—	32	25	57
1	42	33	75	—	—	—	—	—	—	42	33	75
2	66	52	118	3	—	3	3	—	3	72	52	124
3	78	79	157	—	—	—	—	—	—	78	79	157
4	66	72	138	—	—	—	3	—	3	69	72	141
5	92	65	157	—	3	3	—	—	—	92	68	160
6	102	87	189	—	—	—	3	—	3	105	87	192
7	74	81	155	—	3	3	3	—	3	77	84	161
8	94	87	181	3	—	3	—	—	—	97	87	184
9	92	76	168	3	—	3	—	3	3	95	79	174
10-14	497	484	981	8	8	16	4	4	8	509	496	1 005
15-19	414	406	820	7	7	14	3	3	6	424	416	840
20-24	332	366	698	5	8	13	4	3	7	341	377	718
25-34	679	738	1 417	25	20	45	—	3	3	704	761	1 465

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
35-44	517	612	1 129	17	18	35	—	3	3	534	633	1 167
45-54	406	457	863	16	9	25	3	—	3	425	466	891
55-64	264	274	538	5	—	5	—	—	—	269	274	543
65-74	182	199	381	5	—	5	—	—	—	187	199	386
75+	112	128	240	—	3	3	—	—	—	112	131	243
Total	4 138	4 321	8 459	100	79	179	26	19	45	4 264	4 419	8 683
South Australia												
0	8	7	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	7	15
1	18	27	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	18	27	45
2	27	35	62	—	—	—	—	—	—	27	35	62
3	43	33	76	—	—	—	—	—	—	43	33	76
4	38	33	71	—	—	—	—	—	—	38	33	71
5	43	51	94	3	—	3	—	—	—	46	51	97
6	41	48	89	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	48	89
7	46	53	99	—	—	—	—	—	—	46	53	99
8	44	50	94	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	50	94
9	41	37	78	—	—	—	3	—	3	44	37	81
10-14	190	203	393	3	4	7	—	—	—	193	207	400
15-19	203	204	407	8	3	11	—	—	—	211	207	418
20-24	181	178	359	—	5	5	—	—	—	181	183	364
25-34	318	371	689	9	5	14	—	—	—	327	376	703
35-44	218	270	488	12	5	17	—	—	—	230	275	505
45-54	161	164	325	11	6	17	—	—	—	172	170	342
55-64	81	101	182	3	—	3	—	—	—	84	101	185
65-74	55	53	108	3	4	7	—	—	—	58	57	115
75+	23	40	63	—	3	3	—	—	—	23	43	66

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Total	1 779	1 958	3 737	52	35	87	3	–	3	1 834	1 993	3 827
Tasmania												
0	3	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	3
1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
4	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
5	3	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	3
6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
8	–	3	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	3
9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
10-14	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
15-19	3	3	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	3	6
20-24	–	3	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	3
25-34	3	3	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	3	6
35-44	6	5	11	–	–	–	–	–	–	6	5	11
45-54	3	3	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	3	6
55-64	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
65-74	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
75+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Total	21	20	41	–	–	–	–	–	–	21	20	41
Australian Capital Territory												
0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
1	3	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	3
2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–



Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	3	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6
10-14	3	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6
15-19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20-24	3	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6
25-34	5	9	14	3	—	3	—	—	—	8	9	17
35-44	4	8	12	3	—	3	—	—	—	7	8	15
45-54	3	3	6	—	3	3	—	—	—	3	6	9
55-64	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3
65-74	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
75+	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	24	32	56	6	3	9	—	—	—	30	35	65
Northern Territory												
0	142	159	301	—	—	—	3	—	3	145	159	304
1	226	231	457	—	—	—	—	—	—	226	231	457
2	274	271	545	3	3	6	—	3	3	277	277	554
3	340	366	706	—	4	4	3	—	3	343	370	713
4	373	342	715	4	5	9	—	3	3	377	350	727
5	431	403	834	—	6	6	—	—	—	431	409	840
6	400	408	808	3	8	11	3	—	3	406	416	822
7	410	349	759	7	3	10	—	—	—	417	352	769

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
8	381	349	730	3	3	6	—	—	—	384	352	736
9	377	364	741	3	3	6	3	—	3	383	367	750
10-14	1 925	1 721	3 646	16	8	24	7	7	14	1 948	1 736	3 684
15-19	1 808	1 788	3 596	11	8	19	5	4	9	1 824	1 800	3 624
20-24	1 597	1 521	3 118	21	21	42	4	3	7	1 622	1 545	3 167
25-34	2 577	2 785	5 362	33	22	55	4	5	9	2 614	2 812	5 426
35-44	1 800	2 031	3 831	35	27	62	4	3	7	1 839	2 061	3 900
45-54	1 090	1 251	2 341	40	15	55	6	3	9	1 136	1 269	2 405
55-64	603	703	1 306	13	7	20	—	—	—	616	710	1 326
65-74	271	412	683	3	3	6	—	3	3	274	418	692
75+	139	236	375	3	4	7	—	3	3	142	243	385
Total	15 164	15 690	30 854	198	150	348	42	37	79	15 404	15 877	31 281
Other Territories												
0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10-14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15-19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20-24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Table A.3

Table A.3 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
25-34	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
35-44	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
45-54	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
55-64	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
65-74	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
75+	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
Australia												
0	197	205	402	3	—	3	3	—	3	203	205	408
1	330	331	661	—	—	—	—	—	—	330	331	661
2	419	400	819	6	6	12	3	3	6	428	409	837
3	524	538	1 062	3	7	10	3	—	3	530	545	1 075
4	544	505	1 049	4	8	12	3	3	6	551	516	1 067
5	635	578	1 213	3	12	15	—	—	—	638	590	1 228
6	608	614	1 222	3	8	11	6	—	6	617	622	1 239
7	596	549	1 145	7	9	16	6	—	6	609	558	1 167
8	576	555	1 131	6	3	9	—	—	—	582	558	1 140
9	587	546	1 133	6	3	9	6	3	9	599	552	1 151
10-14	2 981	2 752	5 733	39	34	73	17	11	28	3 037	2 797	5 834
15-19	2 773	2 685	5 458	46	34	80	11	7	18	2 830	2 726	5 556
20-24	2 390	2 332	4 722	46	50	96	8	9	17	2 444	2 391	4 835
25-34	4 146	4 524	8 670	117	83	200	8	13	21	4 271	4 620	8 891
35-44	3 006	3 417	6 423	119	91	210	4	6	10	3 129	3 514	6 643
45-54	2 018	2 246	4 264	115	71	186	9	3	12	2 142	2 320	4 462
55-64	1 128	1 285	2 413	40	18	58	—	—	—	1 168	1 303	2 471
65-74	619	795	1 414	14	13	27	—	3	3	633	811	1 444

Table A.3

Table A.3      **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
75+	346	483	829	6	13	19	–	3	3	352	499	851
Total	24 423	25 340	49 763	583	463	1 046	87	64	151	25 093	25 867	50 960

(a) Includes persons who stated they were both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander.

– Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS 2001 Census.

Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Major Cities of Australia												
0	3	4	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	4	7
1	15	10	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	10	25
2	10	20	30	3	—	3	—	—	—	13	20	33
3	11	20	31	3	3	6	—	—	—	14	23	37
4	18	17	35	3	3	6	—	—	—	21	20	41
5	19	17	36	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	17	36
6	22	23	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	22	23	45
7	22	17	39	—	—	—	—	—	—	22	17	39
8	20	18	38	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	18	38
9	24	16	40	—	—	—	3	3	6	27	19	46
10-14	96	121	217	6	4	10	—	—	—	102	125	227
15-19	100	102	202	12	6	18	—	—	—	112	108	220
20-24	78	62	140	14	8	22	—	—	—	92	70	162
25-34	151	184	335	36	26	62	3	—	3	190	210	400
35-44	104	163	267	27	24	51	—	—	—	131	187	318
45-54	79	121	200	27	20	47	—	—	—	106	141	247
55-64	39	45	84	10	4	14	—	—	—	49	49	98
65-74	11	18	29	4	3	7	—	—	—	15	21	36
75+	8	9	17	3	5	8	—	—	—	11	14	25
Total	830	987	1 817	148	106	254	6	3	9	984	1 096	2 080
Inner Regional Australia												
0	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
1	3	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6
2	10	4	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	4	14
3	5	7	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	7	12

Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
4	8	3	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	3	11
5	7	11	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	11	18
6	7	11	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	11	18
7	11	10	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	10	21
8	13	7	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	7	20
9	12	8	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	8	20
10-14	57	41	98	3	—	3	3	—	3	63	41	104
15-19	42	42	84	3	—	3	—	3	3	45	45	90
20-24	24	21	45	4	3	7	—	—	—	28	24	52
25-34	54	79	133	4	5	9	—	—	—	58	84	142
35-44	61	60	121	12	6	18	—	—	—	73	66	139
45-54	38	32	70	9	8	17	—	—	—	47	40	87
55-64	11	12	23	—	3	3	—	—	—	11	15	26
65-74	6	10	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	10	16
75+	7	7	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	7	14
Total	379	368	747	35	25	60	3	3	6	417	396	813
Outer Regional Australia												
0	10	6	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	6	16
1	13	21	34	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	21	34
2	37	22	59	—	—	—	—	—	—	37	22	59
3	40	20	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	40	20	60
4	30	30	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	30	60
5	37	30	67	—	3	3	—	—	—	37	33	70
6	35	29	64	—	—	—	—	—	—	35	29	64
7	30	33	63	—	3	3	3	—	3	33	36	69
8	26	26	52	—	—	—	—	—	—	26	26	52

Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
9	23	33	56	3	—	3	—	—	—	26	33	59
10-14	270	256	526	7	5	12	6	—	6	283	261	544
15-19	266	221	487	7	9	16	3	—	3	276	230	506
20-24	121	139	260	4	8	12	—	3	3	125	150	275
25-34	233	340	573	21	12	33	—	—	—	254	352	606
35-44	206	249	455	25	20	45	—	3	3	231	272	503
45-54	145	205	350	21	14	35	3	—	3	169	219	388
55-64	68	113	181	9	3	12	—	—	—	77	116	193
65-74	43	54	97	—	3	3	—	—	—	43	57	100
75+	24	43	67	3	—	3	—	—	—	27	43	70
Total	1 657	1 870	3 527	100	80	180	15	6	21	1 772	1 956	3 728
Remote Australia												
0	9	12	21	3	—	3	—	—	—	12	12	24
1	30	28	58	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	28	58
2	42	31	73	—	—	—	—	—	—	42	31	73
3	37	37	74	—	3	3	—	—	—	37	40	77
4	33	32	65	—	—	—	—	—	—	33	32	65
5	62	36	98	3	—	3	—	—	—	65	36	101
6	47	56	103	—	3	3	3	—	3	50	59	109
7	33	48	81	—	—	—	—	—	—	33	48	81
8	56	43	99	—	—	—	—	3	3	56	46	102
9	59	51	110	—	—	—	3	—	3	62	51	113
10-14	286	236	522	—	—	—	—	3	3	286	239	525
15-19	226	229	455	3	3	6	—	—	—	229	232	461
20-24	192	182	374	3	—	3	3	3	6	198	185	383
25-34	397	437	834	9	7	16	—	3	3	406	447	853

Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
35-44	316	407	723	13	8	21	—	—	—	329	415	744
45-54	231	247	478	16	5	21	—	—	—	247	252	499
55-64	126	138	264	5	—	5	—	—	—	131	138	269
65-74	78	87	165	3	—	3	—	—	—	81	87	168
75+	56	55	111	—	—	—	—	—	—	56	55	111
Total	2 316	2 392	4 708	58	29	87	9	12	21	2 383	2 433	4 816
Very Remote Australia												
0	170	183	353	—	—	—	—	—	—	170	183	353
1	267	268	535	3	—	3	—	—	—	270	268	538
2	321	325	646	3	3	6	—	3	3	324	331	655
3	432	454	886	—	3	3	—	—	—	432	457	889
4	456	424	880	4	6	10	—	3	3	460	433	893
5	510	486	996	3	8	11	—	3	3	513	497	1 010
6	496	497	993	3	7	10	—	—	—	499	504	1 003
7	502	441	943	7	6	13	3	—	3	512	447	959
8	460	461	921	4	4	8	—	—	—	464	465	929
9	467	441	908	3	3	6	—	3	3	470	447	917
10-14	2 270	2 096	4 366	23	23	46	8	7	15	2 301	2 126	4 427
15-19	2 140	2 091	4 231	20	16	36	5	3	8	2 165	2 110	4 275
20-24	1 974	1 925	3 899	23	32	55	4	—	4	2 001	1 957	3 958
25-34	3 309	3 482	6 791	46	33	79	5	8	13	3 360	3 523	6 883
35-44	2 318	2 538	4 856	41	33	74	7	3	10	2 366	2 574	4 940
45-54	1 525	1 638	3 163	43	23	66	4	4	8	1 572	1 665	3 237
55-64	886	978	1 864	14	9	23	—	—	—	900	987	1 887
65-74	481	626	1 107	6	9	15	—	3	3	487	638	1 125
75+	251	369	620	3	5	8	—	—	—	254	374	628



Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Total	19 235	19 723	38 958	249	223	472	36	40	76	19 520	19 986	39 506
Migratory												
0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10-14	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3
15-19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20-24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
25-34	3	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6
35-44	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3
45-54	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3
55-64	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
65-74	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
75+	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	6	9	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	9	15
Australia												
0	195	205	400	3	—	3	—	—	—	198	205	403
1	328	330	658	3	—	3	—	—	—	331	330	661
2	420	402	822	6	3	9	—	3	3	426	408	834

Table A.4

Table A.4 **People who speak an Australian Indigenous language at home, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous (a)</i>			<i>Non-Indigenous</i>			<i>Not stated</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
3	525	538	1 063	3	9	12	–	–	–	528	547	1 075
4	545	506	1 051	7	9	16	–	3	3	552	518	1 070
5	635	580	1 215	6	11	17	–	3	3	641	594	1 235
6	607	616	1 223	3	10	13	3	–	3	613	626	1 239
7	598	549	1 147	7	9	16	6	–	6	611	558	1 169
8	575	555	1 130	4	4	8	–	3	3	579	562	1 141
9	585	549	1 134	6	3	9	6	6	12	597	558	1 155
10-14	2 979	2 753	5 732	39	32	71	17	10	27	3 035	2 795	5 830
15-19	2 774	2 685	5 459	45	34	79	8	6	14	2 827	2 725	5 552
20-24	2 389	2 329	4 718	48	51	99	7	6	13	2 444	2 386	4 830
25-34	4 147	4 525	8 672	116	83	199	8	11	19	4 271	4 619	8 890
35-44	3 008	3 417	6 425	118	91	209	7	6	13	3 133	3 514	6 647
45-54	2 018	2 246	4 264	116	70	186	7	4	11	2 141	2 320	4 461
55-64	1 130	1 286	2 416	38	19	57	–	–	–	1 168	1 305	2 473
65-74	619	795	1 414	13	15	28	–	3	3	632	813	1 445
75+	346	483	829	9	10	19	–	–	–	355	493	848
Total	24 423	25 349	49 772	590	463	1 053	69	64	133	25 082	25 876	50 958

(a) Includes persons who stated they were both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander.

– Nil or rounded to zero. .. Not applicable. **na** Not available.

Source: ABS 2001 Census.

Table A.5

**Table A.5      Estimated resident population, 2001**

<i>Age</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>OT</i>	<i>Australia</i>
Indigenous males										
0	1 877	326	1 727	858	301	237	43	779	3	6 151
1	1 869	346	1 748	852	329	224	49	731	3	6 151
2	1 853	370	1 683	904	325	223	57	674	4	6 093
3	1 872	369	1 704	894	318	223	48	612	2	6 042
4	1 854	365	1 758	850	317	219	47	703	1	6 114
5	1 982	370	1 846	910	333	227	53	767	1	6 489
6	1 988	380	1 824	915	337	261	67	739	3	6 514
7	1 851	388	1 810	899	350	226	62	744	1	6 331
8	1 902	408	1 820	914	358	245	61	730	1	6 439
9	1 901	394	1 790	873	357	224	49	703	1	6 292
10-14	8 704	1 702	7 923	4 349	1 577	1 269	203	3 417	8	29 152
15-19	6 899	1 429	6 272	3 355	1 354	982	210	3 007	18	23 526
20-24	5 250	1 115	4 943	2 667	1 031	658	170	2 758	8	18 600
25-34	9 605	2 155	9 252	5 194	2 004	1 114	352	4 943	16	34 635
35-44	8 058	1 623	7 201	3 933	1 567	1 026	265	3 395	15	27 083
45-54	5 364	1 159	4 589	2 463	977	762	154	2 066	10	17 544
55-64	2 937	532	2 098	1 176	474	377	50	1 056	12	8 712
65-74	1 248	237	1 075	571	213	164	13	439	2	3 962
75+	418	131	463	304	82	57	10	229	2	1 696
Total	67 432	13 799	61 526	32 881	12 604	8 718	1 963	28 492	111	227 526
Indigenous females										
0	1 711	340	1 681	832	315	194	60	734	2	5 869
1	1 743	335	1 674	861	324	219	44	705	3	5 908
2	1 765	393	1 694	858	348	229	53	656	3	5 999
3	1 819	378	1 666	809	326	210	60	608	2	5 878
4	1 829	371	1 754	797	312	216	48	667	5	5 999
5	1 787	350	1 709	850	331	185	55	676	1	5 944
6	1 797	403	1 719	849	332	235	49	701	4	6 089
7	1 853	347	1 703	827	331	240	50	649	4	6 004
8	1 834	357	1 730	837	331	232	46	645	4	6 016
9	1 755	373	1 686	831	352	224	48	643	2	5 914
10-14	8 155	1 698	7 504	3 992	1 549	1 090	238	3 066	12	27 304
15-19	6 151	1 279	6 054	3 172	1 228	972	187	2 955	11	22 009
20-24	4 942	1 111	5 429	2 752	1 020	702	178	2 664	11	18 809
25-34	10 539	2 260	10 739	5 422	2 089	1 238	350	4 986	22	37 645
35-44	8 632	1 737	7 915	4 128	1 679	1 166	263	3 644	15	29 179
45-54	5 568	1 153	4 986	2 652	1 024	691	130	2 230	9	18 443
55-64	2 884	585	2 606	1 330	546	339	54	1 194	10	9 548
65-74	1 516	299	1 247	714	277	160	11	613	3	4 840
75+	711	185	674	422	137	80	7	336	1	2 553
Total	67 456	14 047	64 384	33 050	12 940	8 666	1 946	28 383	122	230 994
Indigenous persons										
0	3 588	666	3 408	1 690	616	431	103	1 513	5	12 020
1	3 612	681	3 422	1 713	653	443	93	1 436	6	12 059
2	3 618	763	3 377	1 762	673	452	110	1 330	7	12 092

Table A.5

**Table A.5      Estimated resident population, 2001**

<i>Age</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>OT</i>	<i>Australia</i>
3	3 691	747	3 370	1 703	644	433	108	1 220	4	11 920
4	3 683	736	3 512	1 647	629	435	95	1 370	6	12 113
5	3 769	720	3 555	1 760	664	412	108	1 443	2	12 433
6	3 785	783	3 543	1 764	669	496	116	1 440	7	12 603
7	3 704	735	3 513	1 726	681	466	112	1 393	5	12 335
8	3 736	765	3 550	1 751	689	477	107	1 375	5	12 455
9	3 656	767	3 476	1 704	709	448	97	1 346	3	12 206
10-14	16 859	3 400	15 427	8 341	3 126	2 359	441	6 483	20	56 456
15-19	13 050	2 708	12 326	6 527	2 582	1 954	397	5 962	29	45 535
20-24	10 192	2 226	10 372	5 419	2 051	1 360	348	5 422	19	37 409
25-34	20 144	4 415	19 991	10 616	4 093	2 352	702	9 929	38	72 280
35-44	16 690	3 360	15 116	8 061	3 246	2 192	528	7 039	30	56 262
45-54	10 932	2 312	9 575	5 115	2 001	1 453	284	4 296	19	35 987
55-64	5 821	1 117	4 704	2 506	1 020	716	104	2 250	22	18 260
65-74	2 764	536	2 322	1 285	490	324	24	1 052	5	8 802
75+	1 129	316	1 137	726	219	137	17	565	3	4 249
Total	134 888	27 846	125 910	65 931	25 544	17 384	3 909	56 875	233	458 520
Non-Indigenous males										
0	43 238	30 444	23 569	11 796	8 624	2 987	2 003	1 054	7	123 738
1	43 144	30 797	23 581	12 005	9 016	2 896	2 061	1 073	9	124 593
2	43 029	31 152	23 601	12 130	9 116	3 082	2 056	1 130	10	125 309
3	42 624	31 609	23 633	12 168	9 133	2 848	2 032	1 228	6	125 296
4	43 614	32 283	24 173	12 451	9 276	3 002	2 167	1 021	11	128 012
5	43 682	32 423	24 483	12 651	9 748	3 105	2 099	1 063	3	129 284
6	44 344	33 204	25 342	12 897	9 933	3 250	2 214	1 127	11	132 336
7	44 837	33 497	25 411	13 019	9 748	3 290	2 171	1 079	9	133 077
8	45 026	33 057	25 558	13 097	9 893	3 191	2 217	1 025	9	133 089
9	45 517	33 294	25 522	13 142	9 926	3 195	2 196	1 123	5	133 939
10-14	222 638	164 602	126 394	67 384	50 199	16 376	11 257	4 957	32	663 931
15-19	222 070	164 351	127 734	68 107	51 367	16 257	12 506	4 680	40	667 142
20-24	214 669	163 593	119 409	64 219	47 934	13 505	13 116	5 669	30	642 176
25-34	474 429	357 266	253 446	136 789	103 544	28 475	25 140	13 930	60	1 393 194
35-44	495 420	361 971	263 023	144 042	112 924	33 639	23 975	13 579	45	1 448 787
45-54	439 521	320 464	245 658	132 770	104 520	32 506	22 749	11 627	28	1 310 051
55-64	313 085	225 604	174 387	87 428	73 821	23 737	13 590	6 406	32	918 158
65-74	222 481	161 424	113 139	56 266	55 197	16 856	7 428	2 354	8	635 182
75+	153 403	111 461	76 851	36 314	40 739	11 555	4 635	858	4	435 832
Total	3 196 771	2 352 496	1 744 914	918 675	734 658	223 752	155 612	74 983	355	9 403 126
Non-Indigenous females										
0	40 428	28 927	22 391	11 306	8 404	2 762	1 934	1 103	12	117 273
1	40 896	29 977	21 998	11 639	8 519	2 729	2 005	1 027	15	118 812
2	40 894	29 304	22 230	11 686	8 758	2 998	2 067	1 027	17	118 978
3	40 513	29 821	22 516	11 461	8 750	2 704	1 986	1 069	10	118 837
4	41 488	30 475	22 852	11 656	8 906	2 889	2 015	998	17	121 305
5	41 583	30 610	23 345	11 900	9 059	3 000	2 064	1 027	5	122 611
6	42 585	31 576	23 789	12 254	9 387	3 057	2 105	978	18	125 750

Table A.5

**Table A.5 Estimated resident population, 2001**

Age	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	OT	Australia
7	42 231	31 600	23 748	12 361	9 309	3 009	2 144	1 016	14	125 442
8	42 651	31 710	23 898	12 480	9 527	3 055	2 094	1 031	14	126 479
9	42 914	31 734	24 643	12 466	9 536	3 123	2 169	1 013	8	127 625
10-14	212 666	157 879	119 729	64 052	47 167	15 681	10 835	4 657	52	632 790
15-19	211 581	159 281	122 314	64 890	49 219	15 620	11 858	4 207	69	639 024
20-24	207 777	159 658	117 662	61 161	45 324	13 297	12 944	4 952	49	622 827
25-34	479 284	367 156	258 074	134 555	100 656	29 740	25 518	13 090	98	1 408 222
35-44	494 779	370 481	270 836	144 563	113 349	34 795	25 401	11 988	75	1 466 412
45-54	437 064	328 009	244 095	130 856	106 613	32 720	23 989	9 826	47	1 313 333
55-64	305 923	224 656	165 219	82 602	74 688	23 467	13 446	4 335	54	894 405
65-74	238 757	175 817	116 050	59 014	59 836	17 828	7 985	1 595	13	676 909
75+	239 544	175 713	112 733	55 651	64 519	18 185	7 237	971	7	674 560
Total	3 243 558	2 424 384	1 758 122	916 553	751 526	230 659	159 796	65 910	588	9 551 594
Non-Indigenous persons										
0	83 666	59 371	45 960	23 102	17 028	5 749	3 937	2 157	19	241 011
1	84 040	60 774	45 579	23 644	17 535	5 625	4 066	2 100	24	243 405
2	83 923	60 456	45 831	23 816	17 874	6 080	4 123	2 157	27	244 287
3	83 137	61 430	46 149	23 629	17 883	5 552	4 018	2 297	16	244 133
4	85 102	62 758	47 025	24 107	18 182	5 891	4 182	2 019	28	249 317
5	85 265	63 033	47 828	24 551	18 807	6 105	4 163	2 090	8	251 895
6	86 929	64 780	49 131	25 151	19 320	6 307	4 319	2 105	29	258 086
7	87 068	65 097	49 159	25 380	19 057	6 299	4 315	2 095	23	258 519
8	87 677	64 767	49 456	25 577	19 420	6 246	4 311	2 056	23	259 568
9	88 431	65 028	50 165	25 608	19 462	6 318	4 365	2 136	13	261 564
10-14	435 304	322 481	246 123	131 436	97 366	32 057	22 092	9 614	84	1 296 721
15-19	433 651	323 632	250 048	132 997	100 586	31 877	24 364	8 887	109	1 306 166
20-24	422 446	323 251	237 071	125 380	93 258	26 802	26 060	10 621	79	1 265 003
25-34	953 713	724 422	511 520	271 344	204 200	58 215	50 658	27 020	158	2 801 416
35-44	990 199	732 452	533 859	288 605	226 273	68 434	49 376	25 567	120	2 915 199
45-54	876 585	648 473	489 753	263 626	211 133	65 226	46 738	21 453	75	2 623 384
55-64	619 008	450 260	339 606	170 030	148 509	47 204	27 036	10 741	86	1 812 563
65-74	461 238	337 241	229 189	115 280	115 033	34 684	15 413	3 949	21	1 312 091
75+	392 947	287 174	189 584	91 965	105 258	29 740	11 872	1 829	11	1 110 392
Total	6 440 329	4 776 880	3 503 036	1 835 228	1 486 184	454 411	315 408	140 893	943	18 954 720

Source: ABS 2001 ERP.

Table A.6

**Table A.6      Estimated resident population, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Total</i>
New South Wales			
Major Cities	56 773	2 296 067	2 343 454
Inner Regional	43 697	646 997	658 182
Outer Regional	25 922	232 803	224 084
Remote	6 178	17 778	15 280
Very Remote	2 318	3 126	2 558
Victoria			
Major Cities	13 655	1 723 827	1 790 763
Inner Regional	9 711	500 685	507 509
Outer Regional	4 410	124 926	123 268
Remote	70	3 058	2 844
Queensland			
Major Cities	31 208	919 736	948 812
Inner Regional	22 995	453 477	462 094
Outer Regional	41 318	308 966	295 183
Remote	11 513	43 986	37 026
Very Remote	18 876	18 749	15 007
Western Australia			
Major Cities	21 168	652 437	669 134
Inner Regional	5 295	114 536	112 334
Outer Regional	9 717	90 826	85 610
Remote	10 670	43 118	36 926
Very Remote	19 081	17 758	12 549
South Australia			
Major Cities	11 789	525 029	548 473
Inner Regional	2 197	92 350	92 651
Outer Regional	5 910	88 180	84 770
Remote	1 220	23 076	21 301
Very Remote	4 428	6 023	4 331
Tasmania			
Inner Regional	8 869	141 336	149 782
Outer Regional	7 911	76 970	75 947
Remote	402	4 155	3 812
Very Remote	202	1 291	1 118
Australian Capital Territory			
Major Cities	3 901	155 248	159 512
Inner Regional	8	364	284
Northern Territory			
Outer Regional	10 687	51 038	45 117
Remote	10 108	16 644	15 156
Very Remote	36 080	7 301	5 637
Other Territories			
Inner Regional	216	326	542
Very Remote	17	2 025	2 042
Australia			
Major Cities	138 494	6 272 344	6 460 148
Inner Regional	92 988	1 950 071	1 983 378
Outer Regional	105 875	973 709	933 979
Remote	40 161	151 815	132 345

Table A.6

**Table A.6      Estimated resident population, 2001**

	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous</i>	<i>Total</i>
Very Remote	81 002	56 273	43 242
Total	458 520	9 404 212	9 553 092

(a) Some states and territories do not have all five remoteness classifications.

– Nil or rounded to zero. .. Not applicable. **na** Not available.

Source: ABS 2001 ERP.