Tracking equity: Comparing outcomes for women and girls across Australia

Report to the Council of Australian Governments

21 October 2013



UNDER EMBARGO UNTIL 3.00PM 19 NOVEMBER

Reform Council

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The Hon Tony Abbott MP Prime Minister Parliament House CANBERRA ACT 2600



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Dear Prime Minister

On behalf of the COAG Reform Council I am pleased to present our report *Tracking equity: comparing outcomes for women and girls across Australia.*

It is the goal of all Australian governments, as set out in COAG's reform agenda, that all Australians should enjoy opportunities for economic and social participation, good health and a safe and secure living environment.

With these goals in mind, in our first report on outcomes by gender we examine whether women and girls are benefitting from progress on national reforms.

We have found that girls and young women have achieved equity or surpassed boys and young men in school literacy, as well as Year 12 and higher qualification attainment. Despite these achievements, gaps remain in workforce participation and representation in leadership roles. This has economic implications across the lifespan with lower overall pay and smaller superannuation savings for women on retirement.

Women from low socio-economic backgrounds, women with disability, and female carers are disproportionately affected by these economic disadvantages.

We also find that Australian women are generally living healthy and long lives—with life expectancy well above the OECD average. However, more could be done to address health inequalities affecting Indigenous women, women from low socio-economic backgrounds, and those living in and regional and remote areas.

We have not closely examined the impacts of domestic and sexual violence—a key factor affecting health and wellbeing—because of a lack of robust, nationally comparable data. However, with COAG's endorsement we could make this a focus of future reporting when better data are available.

All Australian governments have agreed that more should be done to remove the barriers to economic and social participation for all Australians. The council hopes that the findings in this report will assist governments to achieve this goal for girls and women.

Yours sincerely

JOHN BRUMBY Chairman



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About this report

Outcomes for women and girls: progress on the national reform agenda

In 2012, COAG and the Select Council on Women's Issues asked the COAG Reform Council to report on the equality of outcomes for women and men in priority reform areas. This report, our first on outcomes by gender, looks at the experience of Australian women and girls in the context of the national reform agenda.

The national reform agenda

On 13 February 2011, COAG streamlined its 2008 reform agenda into five overarching themes common to all Australian jurisdictions. This report focuses on outcomes for women and girls across two of those key themes: a long-term strategy for economic and social participation; and better health services and a more sustainable health system for all Australians.

We have also drawn from the objectives of COAG's six National Agreements on health, housing, education, skills, disability and Indigenous reform in framing the indicators used in this report.

Comparing outcomes for women and men across Australia

In the report we highlight outcomes for women and girls—across the lifespan and across the nation. Where possible, we compare results for jurisdictions. We specifically examine:

- education and training outcomes and post-school study and work prospects
- participation in the labour force, as well as leadership and pay equality
- · health outcomes and use of health services
- use of homelessness services, and the reasons why women need them
- whether women with disabilities are receiving support for economic and social participation
- the contribution of women as carers, and the impacts on economic participation and wellbeing.

At Appendix C we provide information on the demographic contexts relevant to these comparisons.

Outcomes for different groups of women and girls

This report looks at whether different groups of women and girls are benefiting from COAG's reform agenda. Where data are available, we examine whether Indigenous women are benefiting from COAG's reform goals at the same pace as non-Indigenous women. We also compare outcomes for women with disability and women from different socio-economic backgrounds, and examine how geographic location impacts on some outcomes.

Data limitations

In some important areas, the council is hindered in its reporting on outcomes for women and girls by the lack of nationally comparable and recent data.

For instance, there are no recent national data on women's experience of domestic and sexual violence, key issues related to economic and social participation and women's health. The most recent data are from ABS' 2005 *Personal Safety Survey*. Data from the 2012 survey will be available at the end of 2013. If COAG agrees to the council reporting on gender outcomes in 2014, we propose to undertake detailed analysis of the data in our next report.

Key findings

Girls do well at school and more women are attaining higher qualifications. Women also live longer and healthier lives. However, women have lower starting salaries and pay, lower labour force participation, fewer opportunities for workplace leadership, and less superannuation to retire on. Domestic violence is a key reason women use homelessness services. Indigenous women, women from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and women with disability face particular challenges.

Girls do well at school but are less likely than boys to be fully engaged in study and/or work when they leave school

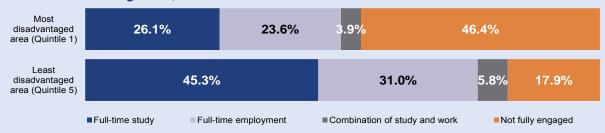
Girls outperform boys in reading and writing in both primary and secondary school, although boys continue to outperform girls in numeracy in every State and Territory. Young women (20–24 year olds) are more likely to complete Year 12 or equivalent. In 2012, 87.8% of young women had completed Year 12 compared with 84.1% of young men.

Women are also catching up to men in overall rates of higher qualification attainment—with a higher proportion of women under 30 than men under 30 now attaining educational qualifications at or above Certificate III level (for example 64.8% of women aged 25–29 compared with 62.7% of men).

However, although girls generally outperform boys at school, they are less likely overall to transition from school to full engagement in work, education or a combination of the two. In 2012, 73.5% of young women (aged 18–24) compared to 79.3% of young men were fully engaged in employment, education or training. Having narrowed slowly over time up to 2002, this gap has remained relatively unchanged for the past ten years.

Women from lower socio-economic areas are doubly disadvantaged. In 2011, 53.6% of young women living in the most disadvantaged areas were fully engaged in work or study after leaving school. In the least disadvantaged areas the proportion was 82.1%— 28.5 percentage points higher. The difference between young men from the most and least disadvantaged backgrounds was 19 percentage points.

Figure 1 Women aged 18–24, engagement in work or study, by socio-economic background, 2011



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Financial disadvantage starts with lower salaries and continues to retirement

Financial disadvantages start as soon as women enter the workforce. Graduate starting salaries are overall significantly lower for women than men—and in six of 23 specific fields. In 2013, women's average weekly earnings were 17.5% lower than men's (based on ordinary-time earnings).

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Women are less likely to be in higher-level or leadership roles. Less than 3% of ASX 500 companies are chaired by women, and 28.9% of parliamentarians are women. Women hold 39.2% of senior executive roles in the Australian Public Service despite making up 57.3% of the APS workforce. In State and Territory governments, between 27.6% and 40.0% of senior executives are women.

Access to child care significantly impacts on women's employment. In 2011 a quarter of families with children under 12 did not access child care due to the costs.

Lower pay and workforce participation means women are retiring with an average of 36% less superannuation than men.

Figure 2 Financial differences between men and women



Source: Graduate Careers Australia, ABS—see Appendix B

Women lead longer and healthier lives—but Indigenous women's life expectancy is shorter

Australian women live longer than men—with a life expectancy of 84.2 years compared to 79.7 years. Women are also less likely than men to have health risk factors like smoking, and high levels of alcohol consumption and overweight or obesity. However, Indigenous women are living much shorter lives than non-Indigenous women—on average 72.9 years.

Domestic violence and severe overcrowding are key issues affecting stable housing

Women are less likely than men to be homeless (42 per 10 000 women compared with 56 per 10 000 men). However, 489 per 10 000 Indigenous women are homeless compared with 29 per 10 000 non-Indigenous women. In very remote areas of Australia, 21% of Indigenous women live in severely crowded accommodation.

The main reason women report using homelessness services was domestic violence and family violence (34.3%). Nearly a fifth of women (18.7%) who used homelessness services also reported financial reasons as the main reason for needing them.

Women with disability face particular challenges

Women with disability face additional challenges for labour force participation. In 2009, around half (49.0%) of women with disability were in the labour force—significantly lower than the proportion of men with disability (59.8%). Women with disability are also less likely than men to use disability services. In 2010–11, 5.5% of women with disability and 8.7% of men used Employment Support Services and 31.2% of women and 37.8% of men used other disability support services.

More primary carers are women, and they have lower workforce participation

There are nearly twice as many female primary carers of people with disability (523 200) as male (248 200). Among all carers of people with disability, 61.3% of women are in the workforce compared with 76.9% of men. Female primary carers are also more likely to experience negative impacts relating to their caring role—such as feeling depressed, stressed and/or worried.



Recommendations

Recommendation 1

The COAG Reform Council recommends that COAG **agree** to annual performance reporting on gender outcomes against national reform areas, and that this report will cover:

- a. an assessment of national performance and the performance of jurisdictions against an agreed set of core indicators reflecting national reform themes
- b. more detailed analysis of gender outcomes in particular areas of the COAG reform agenda, which will vary in focus from year to year.

Recommendation 2

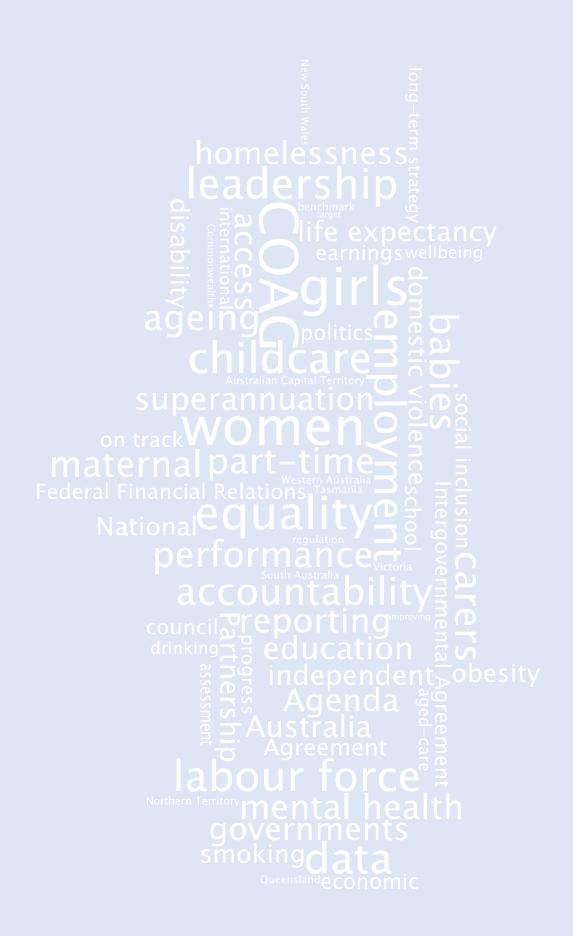
The COAG Reform Council recommends that COAG **agree** that the council will identify a set of core performance indicators for annual reporting, in consultation with jurisdictions.



Chapter 1

Education and employment skills

This chapter traces outcomes for girls and women through school, higher education and into post-school work or study. We look at how early advantages for girls at school do not necessarily translate to better engagement in post-school employment. We also look at how socio-economic background and geographic location affect outcomes.



Key findings

The Australian Early Development Index (AEDI) gives important context for the results in this chapter—providing information about how children have developed by the time they start school. AEDI results for 2012 show that boys are more developmentally vulnerable than girls across all the AEDI domains of physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language and cognitive skills, and communication skills and general knowledge.

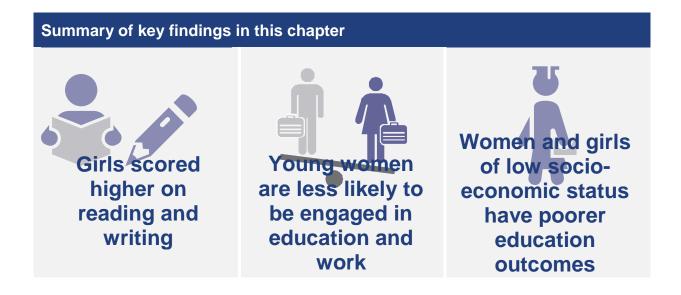
Nationally, and in every State and Territory, girls are outperforming boys on reading and writing scores at primary and high school levels—but their numeracy scores are generally lower. In 2012 this was strongly seen in Year 9 writing skills with girls scoring on average 40.5 points higher than boys. Nationally girls scored an average of 8.3 points lower in numeracy in Year 3 and 11.9 points lower by the time they reach Year 9.

More young women attain Year 12 or an equivalent than young men. From 2002 to 2012, the proportion of young women completing Year 12 or an equivalent increased by 6.1 percentage points from 81.7% to 87.8%. Young men increased by 5.8 percentage points from 78.3% to 84.1%.

Better performance at school is not leading to equal or better work and education outcomes for young women after leaving school. Fewer young women (aged 18 to 24 years) than men are engaged in education, training or work after school and the gap is not closing. In 2012, the proportion of young women fully engaged in education or work was 73.5%, compared to 79.3% for young men.

Lower rates of post-school study or employment for women are further exacerbated by lower socio-economic background. In 2011, 53.6% of young women living in the most disadvantaged areas were fully engaged in work or study. This was 28.5 percentage points less than young women in the least disadvantaged areas (82.1%).

Women are less likely to achieve a higher qualification, but the gap between women and men is closing. In 2002, the proportion of women aged 20–64 years with higher level qualifications (at or above Certificate level III) was 13 percentage points lower than men (37.7% for women compared to 50.7% for men). However, over the past ten years the proportion with higher level qualifications rose faster for women than it did for men. By 2012 the gap had closed to 3.5 percentage points—and women under 30 were more likely than men under 30 to have higher qualifications.



Literacy and numeracy

Girls are more developmentally prepared for school than boys. At school, girls' average scores were better than boys' in reading and writing. Boys did better in numeracy. Girls from low socioeconomic backgrounds scored below girls from high socioeconomic backgrounds in reading, writing and numeracy.

Readiness for school

The Australian Early Development Index (AEDI) assesses how children have developed by the time they start school. It uses domains of physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language and cognitive skills, communication skills and general knowledge—all of which contribute to school preparedness and performance. In 2012, 28.2% of boys were developmentally vulnerable in at least one domain, compared with 15.7% of girls (Australian Government 2013).

School reading, writing and numeracy

This section uses NAPLAN average scores. NAPLAN is Australia's national annual testing program for students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9 in literacy and numeracy.

In Year 3 and 9 reading, girls scored better than boys nationally and in every State and Territory (Figure 1.1). The biggest differences were in the Northern Territory and Tasmania. Figure 1.2 shows that in 2012 girls were consistently ahead of boys in writing scores nationally and in all States and Territories in both Years 3 and 9. Except for the ACT and the Northern Territory, the gap increased with year level and in Year 9 was 40.5 points nationally.



Figure 1.1 Gap between girls and boys, average scores, reading, 2012





Notes to 1.1 and 1.2: A positive value means that girls do better than boys. A negative value means that boys do better than girls. Source: ACARA—see Appendix B

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The smallest gaps between girls and boys were in numeracy. Figure 1.3 shows that in Year 3 boys outperformed girls in numeracy in every jurisdiction except Tasmania and the Northern Territory. By Year 9 the gaps were larger in each state and territory and boys outperformed girls everywhere.

Figure 1.3 Gap between girls and boys, average scores, numeracy, 2012



Notes: A positive value means that girls do better than boys. A negative value means that boys do better than girls.

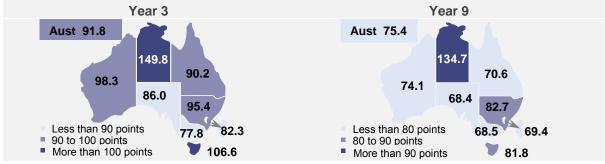
Source: ACARA—see Appendix B

Girls from low socio-economic backgrounds achieve lower scores

Across the domains of reading, writing and numeracy, girls from low socio-economic backgrounds score below girls from high socio-economic backgrounds.

Figure 1.4 provides a snapshot of the differing outcomes for girls of lower socio-economic background. Across Australia girls of higher socio-economic background score between 77.8 and 149.8 points higher in Year 3 reading than those of lower socio-economic background. Figure 1.4 also shows that this gap decreases in all jurisdictions between Years 3 and 9.

Figure 1.4 Difference between girls of low and high socio-economic background, reading, 2012



Notes:

1. A positive value means that high SES students do better than low SES students.

2. Socio-economic background is based on the highest educational qualification of either parent. Low socio-economic students are those with a parent who has Year 11 or below only. High socio-economic students are those with a parent who has a Bachelor degree or higher.

Source: ACARA—see Appendix B

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Year 12 attainment

More young women than men have attained a Year 12 or equivalent qualification. Women from low socio-economic backgrounds are much less likely to reach Year 12 compared to other women.

More 20-24 year old women have attained Year 12 or an equivalent than men

From 2002 to 2012, the proportion of 20-24 year old women who had completed Year 12 or an equivalent, or non-school qualification (at or above Certificate level II) increased by 6.1 percentage points (from 81.7% to 87.8%). In comparison the proportion of young men increased by 5.8 percentage points from 78.3% to 84.1%.

100 cent Women -Per 90 80 2002 2003 2004 2005 2006 2007

Figure 1.5 20-24 year olds with Year 12 or an equivalent or non-school Cert II, 2002-2012

Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Year 12 attainment highest in ACT and Victoria

2011 Census data indicate that the ACT had the highest proportion of young women completing Year 12 or an equivalent (92.0%). Victoria was also above the national average with 90.2%. Tasmania and the Northern Territory had the lowest proportions at 78.0% and 64.8% respectively.



Figure 1.6 20-24 year olds with Year 12 or an equivalent or non-school Cert II, 2011

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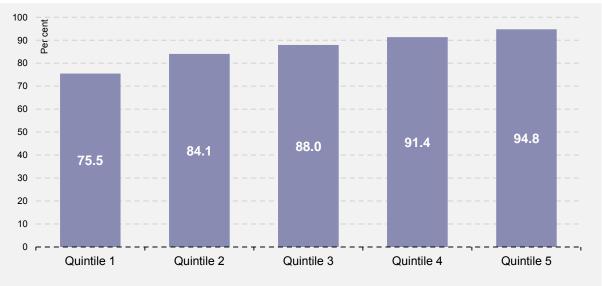
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Socio-economic disadvantage continues to Year 12

There is a large difference in Year 12 attainment according to area of socio-economic disadvantage. Young women from the most disadvantaged areas are 21% less likely to attain Year 12 or equivalent than women from the least disadvantaged areas.

Figure 1.7 shows that 75.5% of young women from the most disadvantaged areas achieve a Year 12 or equivalent attainment, compared with 94.8% of those from the least disadvantaged areas.

Figure 1.7 Year 12 or equivalent or non-school Cert II or above, 20-24 year old women, by area of socio-economic disadvantage, 2011



Transitioning to work or further education

Overall, fewer young women than young men are fully engaged in education, training and/or work and the gap between women and men has not improved over the last 10 years. Young women are more likely than young men to be in full-time study but less likely to be in full-time work. Low socio-economic background reduces the likelihood women will be in work or study.

This section reports how well young people transition to post-school education, training or work at levels for effective and full participation in work. It is a key measure of successful transition from school.

Young women are less likely to be fully engaged through study and/or employment

In 2012, the proportion of 18–24 year old women fully engaged in work, education, or a combination of part-time work and education after leaving school was 73.5%, compared to 79.3% for young men.

From 2002 to 2008, the proportion of fully engaged young women rose significantly by 2.6 percentage points, from 73.1% to 75.7%. 2008 was the highest year over the past decade for both young women and young men. However, from 2008 to 2011, the proportion fell significantly by 4.3 percentage points to 71.4% of young women in 2011. Although it rose slightly to 73.5% in 2012, this change was not statistically significant (Figure 1.8).

From 2002 to 2008, the gap between young women and men who are fully engaged in education or work was relatively steady (ranging from 7.6 to 9.5 percentage points). In the four years since 2008, the gap has ranged from a low of 4.0 percentage points (in 2009) to 9.5 percentage points in 2011.

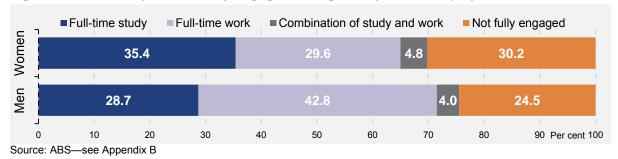
Figure 1.8 18–24 year olds fully engaged through study and/or employment

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Young women more likely to be in study than work, but less fully engaged in total

2011 Census data (Figure 1.9) indicate 35.4% of young women were in full-time study—6.7 percentage points higher than men. However, 29.6% of young women were in full-time work (13.2 percentage points lower than men). Adding in those combining study and work, young women were overall less likely than young men to be fully engaged in either study or work. 30.2% of young women were not fully engaged in either study or work compared to 24.5% of young men.

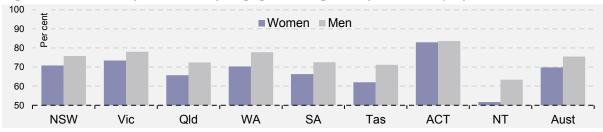
Figure 1.9 17–24 year olds fully engaged through study and/or employment, 2011



Young women in the ACT were most likely to be fully engaged in work or study

2011 Census data indicate that, nationally, 69.8% of young women were fully engaged in work or study, compared with 75.5% of men. Across States and Territories, this ranged from lows of 51.7% and 62.0% of young women in the Northern Territory and Tasmania respectively to a high of 82.9% of young women in the ACT. The Northern Territory had the largest gap between women and men (11.7 percentage points) and the ACT had the smallest gap (0.7 percentage points).

Figure 1.10 17–24 year olds fully engaged through study and/or employment, 2011



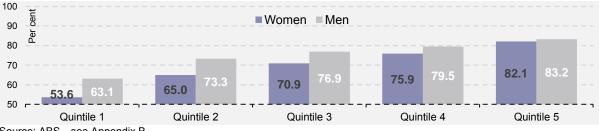
Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Socio-economic background greatly affects likelihood of post-school work or study for young women

Low socio-economic background has a greater impact on the likelihood of young women working or studying after school than young men.

In 2011, 53.6% of 17–24 year old women living in the most disadvantaged areas were fully engaged in work or study after school (Figure 1.11). This was 28.5 percentage points less than young women in the least disadvantaged areas (82.1%). In comparison, 63.1% of young men in the most disadvantaged area were fully engaged in work or study, which was 19 percentage points less than young men in the least disadvantaged area (83.2%).

Figure 1.11 17–24 year olds fully engaged through study and/or employment, by SEIFA IRSD quintile, 2011



Higher qualification levels

Men are overall more likely to have higher level qualifications than women. However, the gap is closing. Women under thirty are now more likely than men under thirty to have higher qualifications.

Women are gaining higher level qualifications at a faster rate than men

In 2002, the proportion of 20–64 year old (working-age) women with higher level qualifications (at or above Certificate level III) was 13 percentage points lower than men (37.7% for women compared to 50.7% for men).

Figure 1.12 shows that from 2002 to 2012, the proportion of both women and men with higher level qualifications rose. However, over the past ten years the proportion with higher level qualifications rose faster for women than it did for men. By 2012 the gap had closed from 13 to 3.5 percentage points—56.4% of women had higher level qualifications compared to 59.9% of men.

Figure 1.12 Proportion of 20–64 year olds with higher level qualifications, 2002–2012

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Over one in four working age women holds a bachelor degree or above

The faster increase in the proportion of women with higher level qualifications has mainly been driven by women attaining bachelor degrees or above. In 2011, 27.5% of working age women had a bachelor degree or above. This is a 19% increase since 2006 (when 23.1% of women had a bachelor degree or above).

20–64 year old women are more likely to have a bachelor degree or above than any other type of higher level qualification. In 2011, over one in four women of working age had a bachelor degree or above compared with:

- 11.7% of women who had a Certificate level III or IV
- 11.5% of women who had a Diploma or Advanced Diploma.

The results are different for men. In 2011, 20–64 year old men were more likely to have a Certificate level III or IV (26.3%) than a Bachelor degree or above (22.8%) or a Diploma or Advanced Diploma (8.7%).

A greater proportion of women under 30 have higher qualifications than men under 30

At ages 20–24 and 25–29, a higher proportion of women have higher level qualifications than men. For example, at age 25-29, 64.8% of women have higher qualifications and 62.7% of men (a difference of 2.1 percentage points). This is a major shift when compared with older age groups. For those aged over forty, men are much more likely than women to have higher qualifications. For example, at age 60–64, 52.7% of men have higher qualifications compared to 33.5% of women (a difference of 19.2 percentage points).

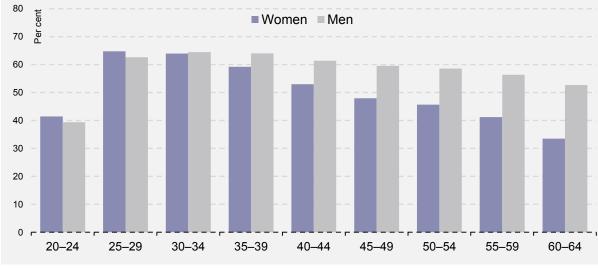


Figure 1.13 Proportion with higher level qualifications, by age, 2011

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Women living outside of major cities are less likely to have higher level qualifications

Continuing education outcomes for women are affected by geographic location. In 2011, 53.3% of working age women living in a major city had a higher level qualification compared to 38.5% of women living in remote or very remote areas. The gap between major cities and remote and very remote areas is above eight percentage points at all age ranges but reaches a maximum of 21.4 percentage points at ages 25–29 (68.1% compared to 46.7%).

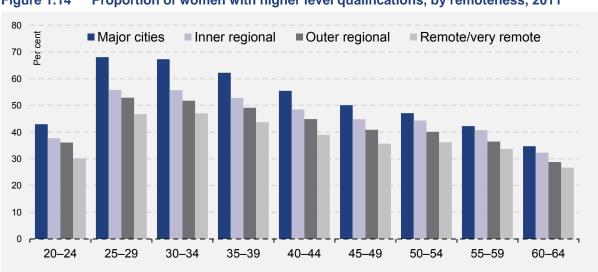


Figure 1.14 Proportion of women with higher level qualifications, by remoteness, 2011



Chapter 2

Economic participation

This chapter looks at women's participation in the workforce and at some of the key factors that influence career and financial outcomes throughout their lives. It compares women's labour force participation, pay rates, access to superannuation and take up of leadership roles with those of men. It also looks at the accessibility of child care for working families.



Key findings

Despite positive outcomes for girls and women in school and higher education, women are not benefitting equally from work, pay and superannuation.

In 2013, 70.7% of women aged 15–64 years were participating in the labour force nationally — still 12.1% lower than the rate for men, although a substantial increase from 30 years ago. Women aged over 15 were most likely to be participating in the labour force in the Northern Territory (69.7%) and the ACT (67.9%).

Just under half (46.1%) of women in employment work part time hours, compared to one in six men (16.8%). Of those women working part time, 22.0% reported that they would prefer to work more hours.

Around one in five women who were not in the labour force were caring for children. Mothers provide the majority of unpaid care for their children, and affordable child care can impact on their decision to return to the workforce. In 2012, families with children in long day care were paying more out of pocket costs as a proportion of their weekly disposable income than in 2010. As a proportion of average weekly disposable income, Families with children in full time long day care in the ACT paid the highest out of pocket costs and Queensland families paid the lowest.

Women's rates of pay are lower than men's, and this pay difference commences at the start of their careers. Women's graduate starting salaries are significantly lower than for men overall and in six out of 23 fields. More generally, women are paid around 17.5% or \$266 per week less than men.

The lower labour force participation of women, their lower rates of pay and unpaid caring work impact on financial independence in retirement. In 2009–10, 69.0% of women and 74.4% of men had any superannuation—but there was a big difference in the amount of super women accrued over their lifetime. On average, women reach retirement age with \$87 532 or 36% less superannuation than men.





Women's labour force participation is 12.1% lower than men's



The gap in weekly earnings for men and women is \$266



Women have \$87 532 less than men on retirement

Employment

Women's labour force participation has increased over the last three decades. Since 2008 it has levelled at about 70%—with a gender gap of 12.1%. Women are more than twice as likely to work part-time. One in five part-time women wanted more hours.

While men are more likely to participate in the labour force, the gender gap in labour force participation has decreased over the past three decades to 12.1% in 2013

In 2013, women's labour force participation rate for 15–64 year olds was 70.7%. Between 1978 and 2013, the gap between the proportion of men and women in the labour force narrowed from 36.6% to 12.1%. The labour force participation rate for women steeply increased from 1985 to 1990. However, it has remained relatively unchanged over the past five years—from 2008 to 2013 (Figure 2.1).

In 2010, Australia's female labour force participation rate was ranked 13 out of the 34 OECD countries. The OECD average was 64.9%. Iceland had the highest female labour force (82.7%) and Turkey had the lowest (30.2%) (OECD 2012).

95 Women in labour force Wen in labour force Men in employment

75 Women in employment

76 Wen in labour force Men in employment

77 Women in labour force Men in employment

78 Women in labour force Men in labour force Men in employment

Figure 2.1 National labour force participation rate, aged 15–64 years, by sex, 2002–2013

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Lowest female labour force participation in South Australia and Tasmania

In 2013, labour force participation for all women aged 15 years and over was highest in the Northern Territory (69.7%), and lowest in South Australia and Tasmania (both 56.4%). Western Australia had the largest gender gap in labour force participation (15.2 percentage points). The ACT, Tasmania and Northern Territory had the smallest gaps at 8.7, 8.9 and 9 percentage points respectively.



Figure 2.2 Labour force participation, 15 years and over, 2013

Notes: Seasonally adjusted rates are not available for the NT and ACT.

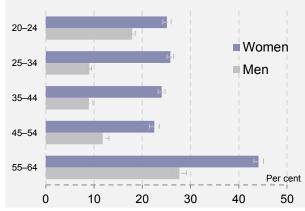
A higher proportion of women were not in the labour force than men—across all age groups

In 2012–13, at least one in five women in each age group were not in the labour force.

Women aged 45–54 were least likely to be out of the labour force (22.5%), compared with other women.

Women aged 25–34 were more likely to be out of the labour force than women in the surrounding age brackets—related to peak childbearing age.

Figure 2.3 Persons 20–64 years not in the labour force, 2012–13



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

One in five women out of the labour force were caring for children

In 2007, of the proportion of women aged 20–74 years who were not in the labour force, 22.5% reported that taking care of children was the main reason they were not participating. Women with dependent children are more likely to be out of the labour force than their male counterparts. Of the women not participating in the labour force in 2012–13, 42.8% had dependent children between 0–5 years, compared with 6.0% of men. This rate almost halved to 22.2% for women with dependent children aged 6–14 years old (7.4% for men).

In 2007, only 1.3% of men reported that taking care of children was the main reason they were not participating in the labour force.

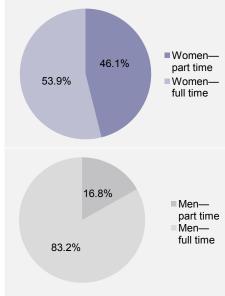
Women were more likely to be in part time employment than men—one in five of these women would prefer to work more hours

Between 1983 and 2013, the proportion of employed women who were working part-time increased from 36.0% to 46.1% (a 28.1% increase). For men, this rate has more than doubled—from 6.1% in 1983 to 16.8% in 2013. Notwithstanding the difference in growth rates, women employed in 2013 are much more likely to be in part-time work (46.1%) than their male counterparts (16.8%) (see Figure 2.4).

In 2012, of women working part time, 22.0% reported that they would have preferred to work more hours—compared with 30.4% of men. Of these, nearly half (47.6%) would have preferred to work full-time hours—compared with 67.9% of men.

Women reported that the main difficulty in finding work with more hours was that there were no vacancies in their line of work (16.6%), followed by too many applicants for available jobs (10.9%) and unsuitable hours (10.8%).

Figure 2.4 Proportion of part-time and full-time employees, 2013



Pay

Women are paid around 17.5% less than men, and pay differences start at the beginning of women's careers. The median starting salary for women graduates with a bachelor degree is lower than for men in many sectors.

In 2013, women earned an average \$266.20 per week less than men

Wages and salaries are the main source of income for most Australian households. In 2013, the average weekly ordinary full time earnings for women was \$1252.20 per week. This was 17.5% less than the equivalent earnings for men, who earned an average of \$1518.40 per week. Western Australia had the largest pay gap (26.9%) and Tasmania had the smallest (9.0%) (see Figure 2.5).

The pay gap persists even when accounting for differences between male and female labour force composition—such as a higher proportion of men in higher-paid managerial roles or roles with longer working hours and overtime. In 2012, women in non-managerial roles were paid an average \$4.20 less per hour than men in non-managerial roles—a difference of \$8736 per year assuming a 40 hour working week. The average hourly non-managerial, ordinary time rate for women was \$31.20 compared with \$35.40 for men—a difference of 11.9%.

Women Men ■ Gap (%) 2500 14.6% 13.5% 22.1% 26.9% 15.4% 9.0% 14.8% 20.4% 17.5% 2000 1500 1000 500 **NSW** Vic Qld WA SA Tas **ACT** NT Aust

Figure 2.5 Average weekly earnings, May 2013

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

According to the OECD measure of the gender wage gap, Australia ranks 14 out of 28 OECD countries. Australia's overall gender wage gap in 2010 was 14.0%, close to the OECD average of 15.7%. Japan and Korea had the largest gaps (28.7% and 38.9% respectively) and New Zealand had one of the lowest (6.8%) (see Figure 2.6).

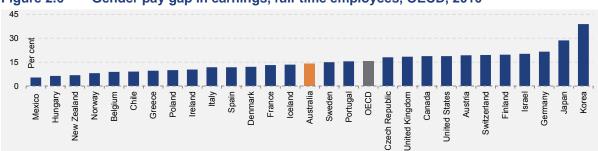


Figure 2.6 Gender pay gap in earnings, full-time employees, OECD, 2010

Notes: Calculated as the difference between male and female median full-time earnings expressed as a percentage of male median full-time earnings.

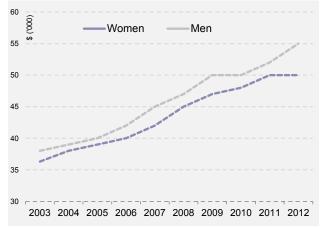
Source: OECD—see Appendix B

The pay disadvantage for women starts on graduation

In 2012, the median starting salary for women (under 25 years) bachelor degree graduates in their first full-time employment was \$50 000, unchanged from 2011. The equivalent rate for men was \$55 000 in 2012, up from \$52 000 in 2011. Over the past 10 years the median graduate starting salary for men has increased at a faster rate (44.7% since 2003) than for women (37.7% since 2003) (see Figure 2.7).

By field of study, male graduates under 25 had significantly higher median starting salaries than women in six out of 23 fields.

Figure 2.7 Women under 25 years, graduate median starting salaries, 2003–12



Source: Graduate Careers Australia—see Appendix B

The biggest gaps were in dentistry (a pay difference of \$14 400), architecture and building (\$9 000 difference) and law (\$4 300 difference) (Graduate Careers Australia 2013).

Even after accounting for differences in hours a gap of \$1872 remains

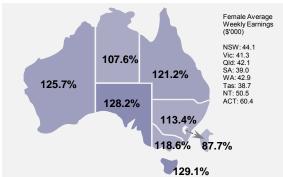
After accounting for mean weekly working hours of male and female graduates, the difference in hourly starting wages was 90 cents—\$25.30 for men compared to \$24.40 for women. Assuming women work 40 hours per week, this difference would be \$1872 to their annual salary.

By field of study, men were paid significantly more than women in architecture and building (\$22.90 compared to \$21.30), economics and business (\$23.10 compared to \$22.80) and law (\$26.10 compared to \$24.30). Female graduates had significantly higher hourly wages in engineering (\$30.40 compared to \$29.40) and pharmacy (\$19.20 compared to \$17.80) (Graduate Careers Australia 2013).

Female graduates have a higher median starting salary than women's average weekly earnings

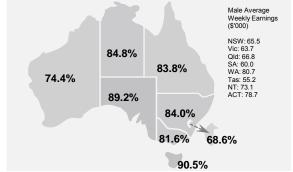
Women benefit economically from graduating. Median starting salaries for women graduates under 25 are over 100% of women's average weekly earnings in every state except the ACT (Figure 2.8). Female graduates in Tasmania and South Australia have the largest benefit, with median starting salaries at 129.1% and 128.2% of women's average weekly earnings respectively. In contrast, male graduates have a lower median starting salary than male average weekly earnings in all jurisdictions.

Figure 2.8 Median starting salaries for female graduates as a proportion of female Average Weekly Earnings, 2012



Source: Graduate Careers Australia—see Appendix B

Figure 2.9 Median starting salaries for male graduates as a proportion of male Average Weekly Earnings, 2012



Source: Graduate Careers Australia—see Appendix B

Access to child care

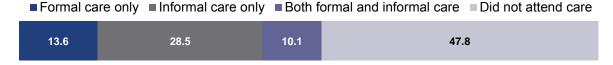
In 2011, additional formal child care or preschool was needed for 16.4% of children under 12 years old—mainly due to parents' work related reasons (51.1%). Between 2010 and 2012, the cost of long day care as a proportion of family income increased.

Nearly one in four 0–12 year olds attend formal child care services

Mothers typically provide the majority of primary care for their children (ABS 2006a). They are more likely than fathers to take time away from paid work for child rearing. Child care options can significantly affect whether the secondary earner in a family has the opportunity to participate in work.

In 2011, more than half of children aged 0–12 years usually attended some form of child care. Nearly one in four children used formal child care services—alone or in combination with informal care (see Figure 2.10). Long day care accounted for more than half (57.4%) of all formal child care used.

Figure 2.10 Children aged 0-12 years old, type of care usually attended, 2011



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Additional formal child care or preschool is needed for 1 in 6 children

In 2011, more formal child care or preschool services were needed for 16.4% of children aged 0–12 years—nearly 600 000 children. Parents' work commitments were the main reason cited for children needing more child care or preschool services (51.1%).

Additional formal child care or preschool services were needed for 20.6% of children in the ACT. This was the largest proportion of all States and Territories. South Australia had the lowest proportion, at 12.9% (see Figure 2.11).

Figure 2.11 Proportion of children aged 0–12 with parents needing more formal child care and preschool services, 2011



Cost was the reason one in four children did not access the care required

In 2011, cost was the reason that the formal child care or preschool required for one in four children (24.5%) aged 0–12 years was not used.

Nationally in 2012, after subsidies, families with one child in full time long day care spent between 8.2% and 9.4% of weekly disposable income on child care, depending on income (see Figure 2.12).

More than 615 000 children were in long day care in 2012—from nearly 500 000 families. The average number of hours that children used long day care was 27.5 hours per week (DEEWR, 2013).

Families in the ACT with one or two 0–12 year olds in long day care had the highest out-of-pocket costs as a proportion of weekly disposable income. Queensland had the lowest.

Figure 2.12 Out of pocket costs for one child in full time long day care as a proportion of weekly disposable income for families, by gross annual family income, 2012

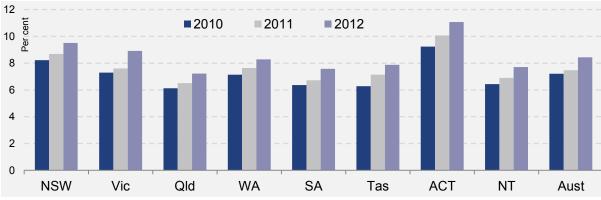


Source: DEEWR—see Appendix B

Costs increased for families with children in long day care

Families with one or two children in long day care paid more in 2012 than they did in 2010 as a proportion of their weekly disposable income. For families with a gross annual income of \$75 000, out-of-pocket costs increased by 17% for one child in full time care. In 2012 nationally, these families with one child in full time long day care paid 8.4% of weekly disposable income—parents in the ACT paid the highest proportion (11.1%), followed by NSW (9.5%) (see Figure 2.13).

Figure 2.13 Out of pocket costs for one child in full time long day care as a proportion of weekly disposable income for families with a gross annual income of \$75 000



Source: DEEWR—see Appendix B

Superannuation

Women are less likely than men to be earning any superannuation and those who do accumulate less during their working lives.

Women are less likely than men to earn any superannuation

In 2009–10, 69% of women aged 15–64 and 74.4% men had any superannuation (see Figure 2.14). By age group, women also had significantly lower rates of superannuation coverage in all groups over 25 years—including ten percentage points less coverage than men among 55–64 year olds. Women are also less likely to be salary sacrificing into superannuation—with 8.1% of men and 6% of women making pre-tax contributions to their superannuation.

100 Women Men cent Pe 80 60 40 76.4 74.0 69.0 64.0 52.0 20 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 Total

Figure 2.14 Proportion of the population with any superannuation, by age, 2009–10

Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Women accrue less superannuation than men

In 2009–10 women reached retirement age with an average of 36% or \$87 532 less superannuation than men.

The difference in superannuation accumulation starts early. In 2009–10, 15–24 year old women already had an average of \$1853 less superannuation than men. This was despite equal rates of overall superannuation coverage for men and women in that age group (see Figure 2.15). By the time women are between 35–44 years old they have on average \$19 479 less in their superannuation.

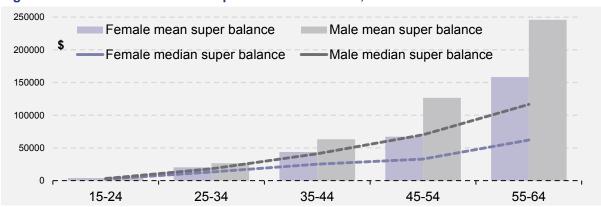


Figure 2.15 Mean and median superannuation balance, 2009–10

The gap in superannuation is likely to continue

The Australia Institute has projected the gap in lifetime earnings and in superannuation at retirement. Assuming men and women have uninterrupted work lives from 20 to 65 years of age, earn the average full time wage, and retire at 65, the average female will earn \$2 942 399 over her lifetime and have a superannuation balance of \$973 836. With these same assumptions a man would earn \$3 568 386 over his lifetime and have a superannuation balance of \$1 181 017. This is a projected difference of \$207 181 in the superannuation of men and women at retirement (Cameron 2013).

■ Projected Women \$2 942 399 super at retirement Projected Men \$3 568 386 lifetime earnings \$ 0 \$1 000 000 \$2 000 000 \$3 000 000 \$4 000 000

Figure 2.16 Projected lifetime earnings and superannuation at retirement, by sex

Notes:

Assumes men and women have uninterrupted work lives from 20 to 65 years, that they earn the average full time wage for men and women respectively, and retire at 65 years.

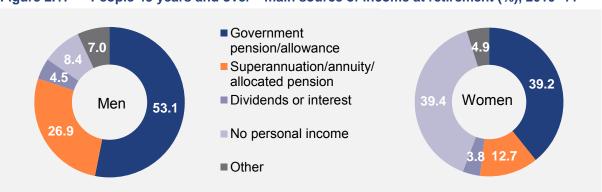
Source: The Australia Institute—see Appendix B

Retired women are less likely to have superannuation and those who do have relatively lower amounts

In 2010-11, 12.7% of retired women 45 years and over cited their main source of income as superannuation, annuity or allocated pension (that is, not a Government-allocated pension)—less than half the proportion of men (26.9%) (see Figure 2.17).

At retirement, 39.4% of women had no personal income and were relying on savings, assets or their partner's income. Only 8.4% of men funded their retirement in this way.

In 2009–10, superannuation lump sums received by women during the last two years were 19% lower (\$41 173) than for men (\$50 954). Women also received 28% less superannuation than men in average weekly earnings from superannuation—\$345.29 compared with \$481.70 for men.



People 45 years and over-main source of income at retirement (%), 2010-11 **Figure 2.17**

Note: 'No personal income' includes people living off savings, assets, partner's income etc.

Leaders of business and government

In 2012, less than 3% of the Chairs and CEOs of ASX 500 companies were women. Women also held less than 10% of the companies' board and key management positions. Women now hold 28.9% of the parliamentary positions around Australia. However, internationally we fall below the OECD average for women in the lower houses of national parliaments.

Women are underrepresented in line managerial roles

In 2012, less than 3% of board Chairs and CEOs were women in the ASX 500 companies. The position of CEO was held by only 12 women—2.4% of the ASX 500 CEO cohort. Female directors on boards do better with 9.2% (292 women) representation in ASX 500 companies (Figure 2.18).

In 2012, 9.2% of executive roles were held by women in the ASX 500 companies. Executive, or key management roles include line roles (managers who have direct responsibility for profit and loss or client service) and support roles (all other key management personnel roles).

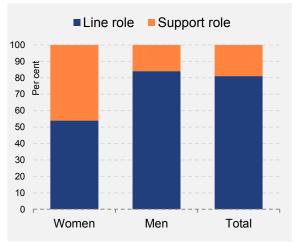
When broken down by line roles and support roles, women are more represented in support roles. Women hold 6.2% of line roles, compared to 22.5% of support roles.

This imbalance is particularly clear in the proportion of women in supporting roles relative to the number of roles available, and the balance of men in these roles (see Figure 2.19). Around 45.8% of women are in support roles and 54.0% in line roles. This is a very different split to the proportion of men in support and line roles, which more closely reflects the balance of actual positions available (16.1% and 83.9% respectively). This is an important difference as line roles are generally a source of candidates for higher level leadership roles (EOWA 2012).

Figure 2.18 Women in leadership roles in ASX 500 companies, 2012

Figure 2.19 Women and men in key management roles in ASX 500 companies, 2012





Source: 2012 Australian Census of Women in Leadership—see Appendix B

Women are underrepresented in lower houses in parliaments around Australia, with the highest rates of representation in the Northern Territory and the ACT

As at 10 October 2013, women made up 28.9% of all elected representatives in parliaments across Australia. In the lower house, the ACT and the Northern Territory were the best performers, with women making up 41.2% and 36.0% of parliamentarians respectively. NSW (20.4%) and Queensland (20.2%) had the lowest proportions of women in their lower houses of parliament.

40 cent 30 Per Australia 20 10 0 Vic Qld WA SA **NSW** Tas **ACT** NT Cwlth

Figure 2.20 Representation of women in Australian parliaments—lower house, 2013

Source: Commonwealth Parliamentary Library, AEC—see Appendix B

Since Edith Cowan's debut in 1921 as the first women to enter an Australian Parliament increasing numbers of women have represented their communities as members of parliament. Women are now better represented in the upper house (36.4%)—for those parliaments that have both houses—than in the lower or single house (26.0%). Victoria is the exception where representation is almost equal at 33.0% and 32.5% in the lower and upper house respectively.

Women's representation in Australia's lower house of parliament is below the OECD average

The Inter-Parliamentary Union collects data from 189 nations about their parliaments, including the number of women elected. For international comparison, only data from the single or lower house of the national parliament is used. Following the 2013 federal election, 26.0% of the Commonwealth House of Representatives were women. This places Australia below the OECD average of 27.8%.

Figure 2.21 below shows how Australia compares with other OECD countries, and a selection of other nations. Between 1995 to 2011, Australia achieved a 15 percentage point improvement in the proportion of women in parliament compared to an average improvement of 9 percentage points across OECD countries (OECD 2012).

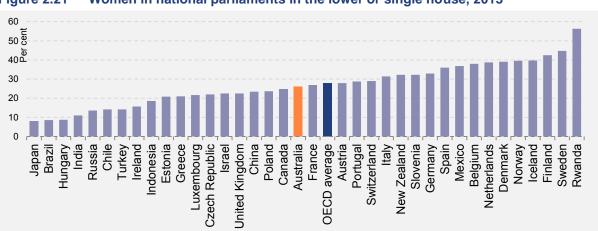


Figure 2.21 Women in national parliaments in the lower or single house, 2013

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union—see Appendix B

Public sector leadership

Women are underrepresented in the most senior levels of the public sector in every State and Territory and the Commonwealth Government. Women occupy 40% of the Australian Government's board positions and 31.2% of State Government corporations' board positions.

Women make up 39.2% of the senior executive service in the Australian Public Service

The Australian Public Service (APS) includes staff employed under the *Public Service Act 1999* by Australian Government departments and agencies. The APS is made up of over 150 000 people in over 100 organisations around Australia and the world.

While women make up the majority of the APS (57.3%), they are not equally represented in senior executive roles. Women make up only 39.2% of senior executive positions, with representation decreasing at the higher levels.

When looking at the pattern of employment in the APS (Figure 2.22), women are disproportionately in lower levels of employment—levels APS1 to APS6. However, a crucial entry stage into public sector leadership is the executive level (EL). While the proportion of women and men at the EL1 level is almost the same, men hold the majority of positions from EL2 up through the senior executive service (SES). The gap between the percentages of men and women in senior positions increases with level from 18.6 percentage points at the EL2 level to 43.7 percentage points at SES3 level.

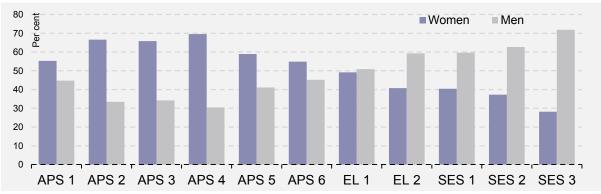


Figure 2.22 Employment levels in the APS, by sex, 2012

Source: APSC—see Appendix B

In 2012 Australian Government boards achieved their target of over 40% women board members

The Australian Government has set an equality target of a minimum 40% women and 40% men on its boards by 2015. This target applies to portfolios, rather than each board, and only applies to where the Government has some control or influence in selecting or approving candidates. On 30 June 2013, overall the Australian Government Boards exceeded the target with women making up 41.7% of board members. Individually, 13 out of 18 of portfolios reached the target.

UNDER EMBARGO UNTIL 3.00PM 19 NOVEMBER

Reform Council

The majority of senior executives are men in every State and Territory's public sector

In 2011, the representation of women in the senior executive positions of State and Territory public sectors was lower than that of men. Western Australia (27.6%) had the smallest proportion of women, followed by Tasmania (30.0%), Queensland (31.5%) and NSW (32.0%). Over 40% of senior executive roles were held by women in both South Australia and the Northern Territory.

■ Women ■ Men 80 cent 70 Per 60 50 40 30 20 10 **NSW** Vic Qld WA SA Tas **ACT** NT

Figure 2.23 Public sector senior executive positions, 2011

Source: Western Australia State of the Service Report 2011-12—see Appendix B

31.2% of board positions are held by women in State owned corporations

In 2013, 31.2% of board positions in State Government owned corporations were held by women—an improvement of 3 percentage points from the 2012 findings. This review of boards includes 82 corporations owned by State Governments (Women on Boards 2013).

South Australia had the highest percentage of women on their boards at 48.9%, followed by Victoria (32.8%) and Queensland (35.4%). NSW (24.2%) and Tasmania (25.6%) had the lowest percentage of women on their State owned corporations' boards.



Figure 2.24 Director positions held by women on State owned corporation boards, 2013

Source: Women on Boards—see Appendix B

Note: Data were not reported for the ACT and Northern Territory.



Chapter 3

Health status and access to health services

This chapter looks at health outcomes for women and girls—their health status as well as the accessibility and availability of healthcare services. We find that while women have better outcomes than men in a number of population health measures, they are also more likely to experience barriers to health services. We also find that some women are more likely to have poorer health outcomes, in particular Indigenous women and women from areas of socio-economic disadvantage.



Key findings

Australian women overall enjoy a life expectancy that, at 84 years, ranks among the highest in the world.

Australian women are less likely than men to engage in behavioural risk factors—like smoking and excess alcohol consumption—that are major contributors to the nation's burden of disease. However, many women are making unhealthy lifestyle choices—such as having an inactive lifestyle. Women are also more likely to report experiencing high/very high levels of psychological distress.

In 2011–12, more than half the female population were overweight or obese—1 in 4 women were overweight (28.0%) and one in four were obese (27.1%). Around 7 in 10 women reported sedentary lifestyles or low levels of exercise (72.6%). Women living in the most disadvantaged areas (63.4%) or outside of major cities (62.0%) were more likely to be overweight or obese.

One in eight women (12.8%) reported high/very high levels of psychological distress.

A significantly higher proportion of women compared to men report cost and unacceptable wait times as barriers to receiving healthcare services. Around 30% of women who attended a GP consultation waited longer than they felt acceptable for the appointment compared to around 25% of men. Women were more likely to report unacceptable wait times if they lived outside major cities or in an area of socio-economic disadvantage.

Women deferred access to a range of health services because of cost, at a significantly higher rate than men—including dentists (23.5%), prescriptions (11.2%), specialists (10.6%) and GPs (8.7%).

Women in disadvantaged groups do not enjoy the same health status or access to services as women in the general population. Indigenous women in particular have poorer health outcomes—in the period 2005–07, Indigenous women had a life expectancy of 72.9 years.



Life expectancy

Australian women live longer than men but life expectancy is about 10 years less for Indigenous women. Heart disease and cancer are responsible for the largest proportion of female deaths.

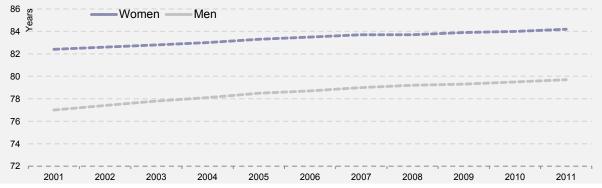
Australian women live longer than men

Nationally between 2001 and 2011, women's life expectancy increased by 1.8 years—to 84.2 years (see Figure 3.1). Male life expectancy also increased and more quickly—by 2.7 years to 79.7 years.

On average, women born between 2009 and 2011 are expected to live beyond their 84th birthday in all States and Territories except:

- Tasmania, where female life expectancy is 82.5 years
- the Northern Territory, where female life expectancy is 80.5 years.

Figure 3.1 Life expectancy in Australia from 2001–2011

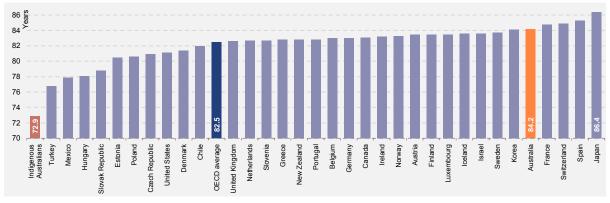


Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Life expectancy for Australian women is among the OECD's highest—but not for Indigenous Australian women

Overall, life expectancy for Australian women is high compared to other OECD countries (see Figure 3.2). However, Indigenous Australian women live much shorter lives (72.9 years in the period 2005–07), nearly 10 years less than the female OECD average.

Figure 3.2 Women's life expectancy, Australia and OECD countries, 2010 or most recent



Notes: Life expectancy for Indigenous Australian women is from the period 2005–07; life expectancy for women in Australia, France, Iceland, Mexico, Sweden is from 2011; life expectancy for women in Canada is from 2008.

Source: OECD, ABS—see Appendix B

Women in the Northern Territory and Tasmania have higher death rates

Nationally between 2001 and 2011, the female death rate fell from 5.4 deaths to 4.7 deaths per 1000 women. The equivalent male rate was 8.2 in 2001, and fell to 6.7 in 2011. Consistently over this period, the Northern Territory (7.8 to 6.4 per 1000 women) and Tasmania (6.3 to 5.5 per 1000 women) have had higher female death rates than the other jurisdictions (see Figure 3.3).

o oo population Qld SA - Tas -- ACT 1000 7 힘 6 5 2001 2004 2008 2002 2003 2005 2006 2007 2009 2010 2011 Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.3 Standardised female death rates, 2001–2011

Cancer and heart disease—the cause of most female deaths

Nationally in 2011, heart disease (139.6 deaths per 100 000 females) and cancers (137.3 deaths per 100 000 females) were responsible for most female deaths (see Figure 3.4). These diseases were also responsible for the most male deaths (199.4 per 100 000 males and 218.4 per 100 000 males, respectively).

Looking at death rates by cause of death, women had lower rates than men across all categories—with the exception of deaths caused by mental and behavioural disorders. Of the deaths caused by mental and behavioural disorders in 2011, 63.8% were women. Deaths caused by mental and behavioural disorders were at a rate of 27.0 per 100 000 for women (or 4865 female deaths in 2011) and 25.9 per 100 000 for men (or 2766 male deaths in 2011). The majority of these deaths were due to dementia (4547 female deaths in 2011).

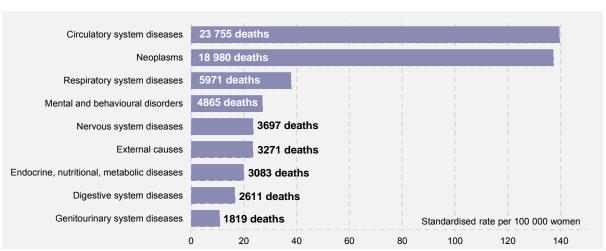


Figure 3.4 Underlying causes of death of Australian women, 2011

Smoking, drugs and alcohol

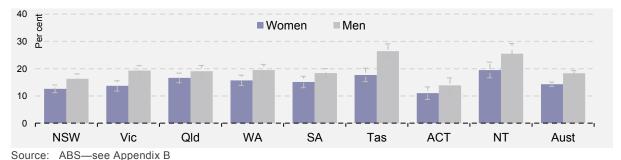
Overall, women are less likely than men to be daily smokers, or be at risk of harm from alcohol, or to use illicit drugs in their lifetime.

Younger and middle aged (25–34 and 45–54 years) women are more likely to smoke than women over 65, but overall the proportion of women smokers has fallen

In 2011–12, women were significantly less likely to be smokers than men (see Figure 3.5). Between 2007–08 and 2011–12, the proportion of adult women smokers fell significantly, from 17.2% to 14.3%. NSW (12.6%) and the ACT (11.0%) had a lower proportion of women smokers than the national average. Queensland (16.6%), Tasmania (17.7%) and the Northern Territory (19.5%) were higher.

Nationally, women under 65 are more likely than older women to be smokers. In 2011–12, 17.1% of 25–34 year olds and 17.4% of 45–54 year olds smoked—more than double the proportion of 65–74 year olds (7.2%) and over 75 year olds (3.6%). However, the proportion of 35–44 year old female smokers fell significantly from 20.3% in 2007–08 to 16.5% in 2011–12.

Figure 3.5 Adult smokers, 2011–12



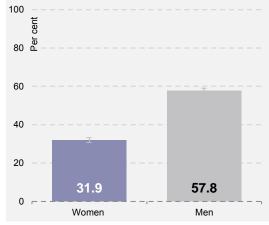
Women have lower levels of risky alcohol consumption—both short and long term

In 2011–12, women were less likely than men to drink at risky levels on a single occasion, or at levels that put them at lifetime risk of harm (see Figure 3.6 and Figure 3.7).

Nationally, nearly one in three women reported drinking more than four standard drinks on at least one single occasion in the last 12 months. A significantly higher proportion of women in the Northern Territory drink at these levels (45.3%), compared to women nationally.

In 2011–12, around one in ten women were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol—drinking more than two standard drinks per day.

Figure 3.6 Adults drinking at risky levels on a single occasion, 2011–12



A significantly higher proportion of women in Western Australia (13.1%) and the Northern Territory (14.4%) were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol than nationally. Women in Victoria (8.2%) were less likely to be at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol than nationally.

Three in five (59.4%) women aged 18–24 years drank at risky levels at least once in the previous 12 months—significantly higher than other age groups.

The proportion of women at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol does not vary greatly by age. However, a significantly higher proportion of women in the 55–64 age bracket (12.7%) are at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol than 18–24 year olds (8.6%), 25–34 year olds (9.1%), 65–74 year olds (8.9%) and women over 75 years old (7.0%).

Women less likely than men to use illicit drugs

In 2010, over one in three women (36.5%) over 14 years old had used any illicit drug in their lifetime (see Figure 3.8). This was lower than for men (43.2%). Women were also less likely to have used illicit drugs more recently—6.5% of women had used any illicit drug in the previous month compared to one in ten men (10.1%).

Around one in five women aged 20–29 years old (24.3%) had used any illicit drug in the previous 12 months—higher than for women of other ages.

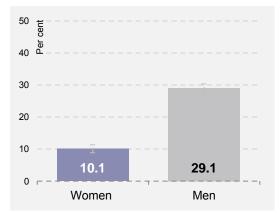
A similar proportion of women and men use pharmaceuticals for non-medical purposes

In 2010, a similar proportion of women (4.2%) and men (4.1%) over 14 years old had used pharmaceutical drugs for non-medical purposes in the previous year.

However, of those women who had used pharmaceutical drugs for non-medical purposes, most were using them daily or weekly (31.0%). The most common frequency of use for men was once or twice a year (33.9%). Non-medical purposes includes to enhance the experience of other drugs, enhance performance, or for cosmetic purposes.

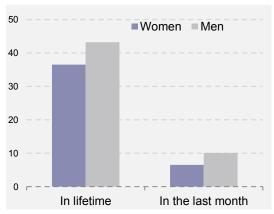
Painkillers/analgesics were the pharmaceutical most likely to have been taken for non-medical reasons by both women (3.3%) and men (2.8%).

Figure 3.7 Adults at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol, 2011–12



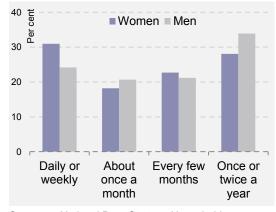
Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Figure 3.8 Proportion of people over 14 years using illicit drugs, 2010



Source: National Drug Strategy Household Survey—see Appendix B

Figure 3.9 Recent users of pharmaceuticals for non-medical purposes frequency of use, 2010



Source: National Drug Strategy Household

Survey—see Appendix B

Diabetes and weight

Women are less likely than men to have diabetes or to be overweight or obese. Indigenous women are at higher risk of diabetes or high blood-sugar levels than non-Indigenous women.

Women are less likely than men to have diabetes

There are two main types of diabetes: type 1 diabetes, caused by insulin deficiency, and type 2 diabetes, caused by insulin resistance.

Type 2 diabetes is projected to become the leading cause of disease burden in Australia by 2023 (AIWH 2010).

Factors contributing to type 2 diabetes can relate to diet, weight and exercise. Type 2 diabetes is more prevalent, affecting 3.9% of Australians, compared with type 1 diabetes, which affects 0.6% (ABS 2013a).

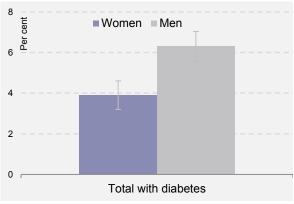
The proportion of women with any type of diabetes is significantly lower than the proportion of men. In 2011–12, 3.9% of adult women had diabetes, compared to 6.3% of adult men (see Figure 3.10).

Indigenous women are four times more likely to have diabetes or high blood sugar levels than non-Indigenous women

In 2004–05, more than one in eight (13%) Indigenous women reported having diabetes/high blood sugar levels. In comparison, around 3% of non-Indigenous women reported having diabetes/high blood sugar levels (see Figure 3.11).

Indigenous women in remote areas are at greater risk of diabetes than their counterparts in non-remote areas. In 2004–05, Indigenous women living in remote areas were 14 times more likely to have diabetes or high blood sugar levels as non-Indigenous women (ABS, 2009).

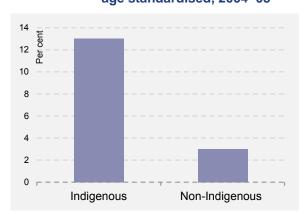
Figure 3.10 Proportion of adults with diabetes, 2011–12



Note: Data were obtained by measuring fasting plasma glucose and do not distinguish between types of diabetes.

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.11 Proportion of women with diabetes by Indigenous status, age standardised, 2004–05



One in four women are overweight, and one in four women are obese

In 2011–12 women were significantly less likely to be overweight (28.0%) than men (42.6%) but were as likely to be obese (around 27%). More women (42.7%) than men (29.0%) are in the 'normal' weight range (see Figure 3.12).

Around seven in ten women (72.6%) reported being inactive or having low levels of exercise—38.2% reported being sedentary and 34.4% reported low levels of exercise.

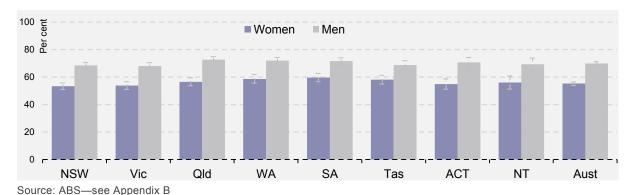
Figure 3.13 shows similar rates of overweight and obesity across States and Territories. In 2011–12, South Australia had the highest rates of overweight or obese women (59.6%).

Figure 3.12 Adults weight by BMI category, 2011–12



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

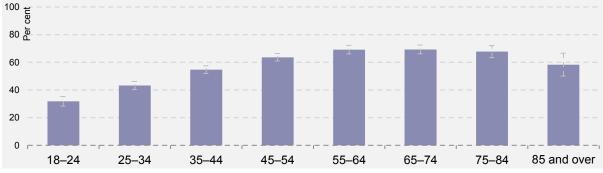
Figure 3.13 Rates of overweight and obesity, 2011–12



Older women are more likely to be overweight or obese

Nearly one in three women aged 18–24 (31.8%) were overweight or obese—and the likelihood of overweight and obesity increases with age. In 2011–12 women aged 45–84 years old were significantly more likely to be overweight or obese than women in younger age groups (see Figure 3.14).

Figure 3.14 Proportion of women who are overweight or obese, 2011–12



Smoking, drinking, weight and disadvantage

Indigenous women, women living in disadvantaged areas, and women living outside major cities are more likely to smoke. Women living in the most disadvantaged areas and women living outside major cities are more likely to be overweight and obese. Indigenous women and women living outside major cities are more likely to be at risk of long term harm from alcohol.

Indigenous women are more at risk from smoking and alcohol consumption

In 2008, more than 4 in 10 Indigenous women (44.9%) over 15 years old were current smokers and 2.7 times more likely than non-Indigenous women to smoke.

This was the case in all age groups but the difference was greatest for young women—Indigenous 15–17 year old women were five times more likely to smoke than non-Indigenous 15–17 year old women.

Figure 3.15 Proportion of Indigenous women who are current smokers, 2008



Source: ABS-see Appendix B

In 2008, 10.1% of Indigenous women aged over 15 years reported having an average daily consumption of more than two standard drinks—a level that put them at risk of lifetime harm.

Women in disadvantaged areas are more likely to smoke and to be overweight or obese but less likely to be at risk of long term harm from alcohol

In 2011–12, more than one in five women (21.1%) living in the most disadvantaged areas were current daily smokers. They were:

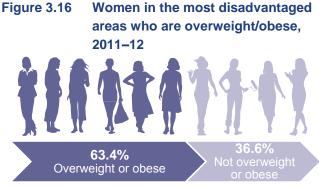
- significantly more likely to smoke than women in any other area
- around three times as likely to smoke as women in the least disadvantaged areas (7.1%).

UNDER EMBARGO UNTIL 3.00PM 19 NOVEMBER

Reform Council

In 2011–12, more than six in ten women (63.4%) living in the most disadvantaged areas were overweight or obese.

This was significantly higher than the proportion of women in the least disadvantaged areas (47.0%) who were overweight or obese.



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Women in the most disadvantaged areas were significantly less likely to be drinking at a level creating lifetime risk of harm from alcohol than women in the least disadvantaged areas:

- 6.3% of women living in the most disadvantaged areas were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol
- 12.8% of women living in the least disadvantaged areas were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol.

Women living outside major cities were more likely to smoke, drink at levels creating lifetime risk of harm, and have excess weight than other women

In 2011–12, women living outside major cities (18.8%) were significantly more likely to smoke than women living in major cities (13.0%).

Remoteness was also a compounding factor for overweight and obesity—women were more likely to be overweight or obese if they lived outside a major city (62.0%) than in a major city (53.4%).

Over one in 10 women (11.6%) living outside major cities were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol

This was significantly higher than for women in major cities, of whom 9.4% were at lifetime risk of harm from alcohol.

Figure 3.17 Women living outside major cites at risk of long term harm from alcohol, 2011–12

Source: ABS-see Appendix B

At risk

Mental health

Women, particularly Indigenous women, are more likely to report high and very high levels of psychological distress than men.

One in eight women report high/very high levels of psychological distress

In 2011–12, 12.8% of women reported high/very high levels of psychological distress—significantly higher than men (8.8%) (see Figure 3.18). A significantly higher proportion of women than men reported high/very high levels of psychological distress in all age groups between 24 and 74 years.

The proportion of women who reported high/very high psychological distress levels was generally consistent across the jurisdictions—from 11.0% in the ACT to 13.6% in Queensland.

The proportion of women with high/very high psychological distress has fallen significantly, for younger women in particular

Positively, between 2001 (15.3%) and 2011–12 (12.8%) there was a significant drop in the proportion of women reporting high/very high levels of psychological distress (see Figure 3.19).

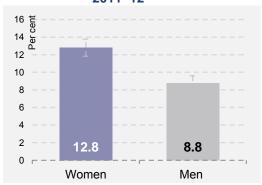
This fall was driven by women in younger age groups.

In 2001, 22.0% of young women aged 18–24 years reported high/very high levels of psychological distress. In that year, this result was double the rate for men of the same age. However by 2011–12, the proportion of 18–24 year old women reporting high/very high psychological distress had fallen significantly, to 13.1%.

One in three Indigenous women report high/very high psychological distress

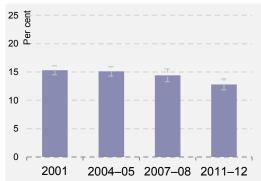
In 2008, 34.3% of Indigenous women experienced high/very high levels of psychological distress (see Figure 3.20). This was significantly higher than for Indigenous men (27.8%).

Figure 3.18 High/very high levels of psychological distress, 2011–12



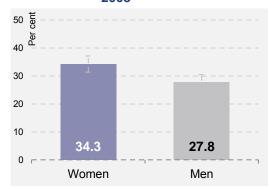
Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.19 Proportion of women with high/very high levels of psychological distress



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.20 Indigenous adults with high/very high levels of psychological distress, 2008



More than one in five women report mental disorder with symptoms in last 12 months

In 2007 women were less likely than men to have experienced a lifetime mental disorder. Nearly half of men (48.1%) reported a lifetime mental disorder, compared with 43.0% of women.

However, 22.3% of women had experienced symptoms of a lifetime mental disorder in the 12 months prior to interview—compared with 17.6% of men (see Figure 3.21).

Women were significantly more likely to have anxiety disorders (17.9%) and affective disorders (7.1%) than men (10.8% and 5.3%, respectively), and to have experienced symptoms in the last 12 months. In contrast, women (3.3%) were significantly less likely to have had symptoms from a substance use disorder in the last 12 months than men (7.0%) (see Figure 3.22).

Women with mental disorders more likely than men to use GP mental health services

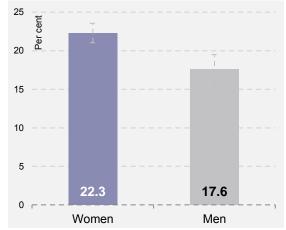
There are some significant differences in the mental health services used by men and women.

A range of factors can impact on how different people use mental health services—including how different groups use health services generally, the accessibility of different services and the type and the severity of mental health condition.

In 2007, 40.7% of women with a lifetime mental disorder and symptoms in the 12 months prior to interview used mental health services in the previous year—a significantly higher proportion than men (27.5%).

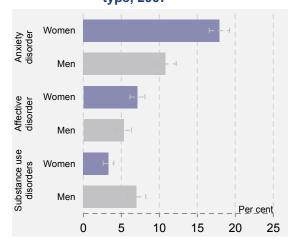
This difference in service use was driven by the use of GP services. In 2007, for people with a lifetime mental disorder who had experienced symptoms in the previous 12 months:

Figure 3.21 Proportion of 16–85 year olds with a lifetime mental disorder and symptoms in the previous 12 months, 2007



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.22 Proportion of 16–85 year olds with a lifetime mental disorder and symptoms in the previous 12 months, by type, 2007



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

- 29.9% of women used GP services for mental health problems, significantly higher than the proportion of men (18.0%)
- 13.2% of women used psychologist services, not significantly different to men (13.1%)
- 8.3% of women used psychiatrist services, not significantly different to men (7.5%).

One in four women with a lifetime mental disorder and symptoms in the 12 months prior to interview reported they had an unmet need for counselling (10.1%), or a partially met need for counselling (15.5%). One in four also reported an unmet need for information (13.5%), or a partially met need for information (12.4%).

Barriers to services

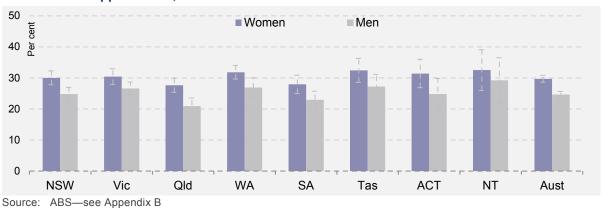
Cost and unacceptable waiting times are barriers to healthcare services for a significantly higher proportion of women than men.

Women are more likely to report waiting an unacceptable time to see a GP than men

In 2011–12, 85.6% of women attended a GP consultation, compared with 76.2% of men.

Nationally, 29.7% of women who saw a GP in the previous 12 months felt they waited longer than acceptable to get an appointment, compared with 24.6% of men. In the larger States, a significantly higher proportion of women than men felt they waited longer than acceptable to get an appointment (see Figure 3.23).

Figure 3.23 Proportion of people who waited longer than they felt acceptable to get a GP appointment, 2011–12



Women living outside major cities or in the most disadvantaged areas are more likely to report waiting an unacceptable time to see a GP

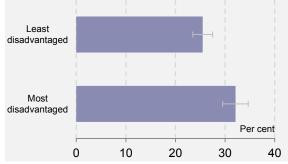
In 2011–12, women living in major cities (28.3%) were significantly less likely than women in inner regional areas (32.5%) and outer regional areas (35.0%) to report they waited longer than acceptable to see a GP. Women in the most disadvantaged areas (32.1%) were more likely to report an unacceptable wait time than women in the least disadvantaged areas (25.5%).

Figure 3.24 Proportion of women waiting longer than they felt acceptable to see a GP, by remoteness, 2011–12



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.25 Proportion of women waiting longer than they felt acceptable to see a GP, by area of disadvantage, 2011–12

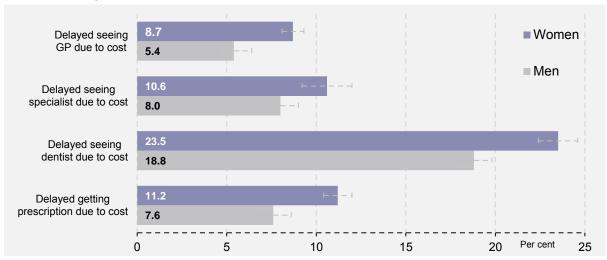


A higher proportion of women than men reported that cost was a barrier to healthcare

Women were more likely to defer access to health services due to cost than men, in particular:

- 8.7% of women delayed seeing a GP due to cost, compared to 5.4% of men
- nearly one in four (23.5%) women reported they deferred access to a dentist due to cost, compared to 18.8% of men
- 11.2% of women delayed getting a prescription due to cost, compared to 7.6% of men (see Figure 3.26)

Figure 3.26 Proportion of people deferring access to GPs, medical specialists, dentists or prescribed medication due to cost, 2011–12



Notes:

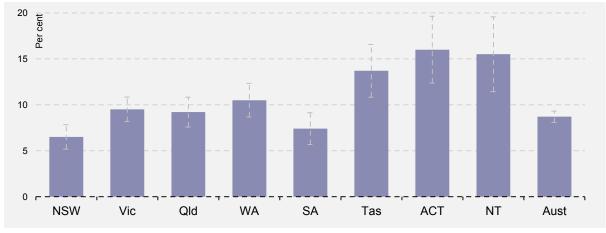
1. Data on people who delayed seeing a dentist due to cost are not age standardised.

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Women in Tasmania, the ACT and the Northern Territory were more likely to defer access to a GP due to cost

Women in Tasmania (13.7%), the ACT (16.0%) and the Northern Territory (15.5%) were significantly more likely than women nationally to defer access to a GP due to cost. Women in NSW (6.5%) were significantly less likely to defer access to a GP due to cost (Figure 3.27).

Figure 3.27 Proportion of women who delayed seeing a GP due to cost, 2011–12



Ageing and aged care

A higher proportion of women than men over 60 report needing assistance, and having unmet need for more help. More women use aged care services, related to their longer life expectancy.

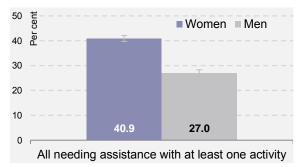
Women over 60 are more likely to need assistance—and to report unmet need for help

Data on need for assistance are reported for people aged over 60 years. In 2009, women over 60 were significantly more likely than men to need assistance with at least one activity (see Figure 3.28), including:

- transport (17.6% of women and 11.2% of men)
- household chores (21.8% of women and 10.3% of men)
- property maintenance (26.4% of women and 16.0% of men).

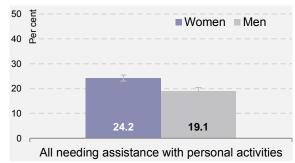
For those over 60 with disability, women were more likely to report needing assistance with personal activities than men (see Figure 3.29). Significant differences included mobility (13.8% of women and 9.3% of men) and health care (17.9% of women and 14.7% of men).

Figure 3.28 Proportion over 60 years needing assistance with at least one activity, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.29 Proportion over 60 years with disability needing assistance with personal activities, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

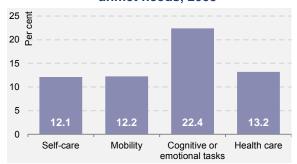
A higher proportion of women than men over 60 reported unmet need for assistance—30.7% of women needing assistance with at least one activity, and 20.8% of women with disability needing assistance with personal activities, had needed more help.

Figure 3.30 Proportion of women over 60 years, with unmet needs, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Figure 3.31 Proportion of women over 60 years with disability, with unmet needs, 2009



A higher proportion of women than men use aged care services, and women are likely to stay in permanent residential aged care for a longer period of time

A larger proportion of older Australians using community aged care services and residential aged care services are women, related to the longer life expectancy of women. More than half of the population over 65 are women and this increases with age—in 2011, of those aged over 85 years, 65.6% of the population were women and 34.4% were men.

The former Community Aged Care Packages (CACPs) provided low level community aged care. Extended Aged Care at Home (EACH) and Extended Aged Care at Home Dementia (EACH) packages provided high level community aged care. From 1 August 2013, CACPs and EACH and EACHD packages have become Home Care Packages. Residential care is for people unable to be cared for in their own homes.

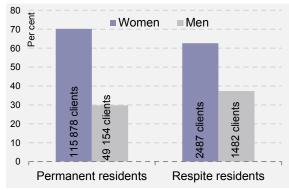
In 2011, more women used community aged care and residential aged care than men (see Figure 3.32 and Figure 3.33) and the take up of services has increased over time. At 30 June 2011:

- 28 774 women were using CACP compared to 12 252 men
- 4348 women were using EACH compared to 2556 men and 1814 women were using EACHD compared to 1155 men (see Figure 3.32)
- 115 878 women were in permanent residential aged care compared to 49 154 men (Figure 3.33).

Figure 3.32 Number of clients in community aged care programs by type, 2011

Source: AIHW—see Appendix B

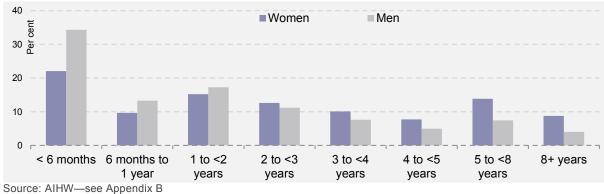
Figure 3.33 Proportion and number of male and female clients using residential aged care, 2011



Source: AIHW—see Appendix B

Men tend to enter permanent residential aged care at a younger age than women. Men also tend to have a shorter length of stay (see Figure 3.34). On average, women stayed in permanent residential aged care for 168.1 weeks compared with 109.5 weeks for men.

Figure 3.34 Length of stay of permanent residential aged care clients, by age, 2010–11





Chapter 4

Living in a safe and secure environment

This chapter looks at the issues of safety for women, the proportion of women who are homeless, and the outcomes for women that use homelessness services. It examines the disproportionate number of women who are homeless in rural and remote areas—particularly Indigenous women. The chapter also assesses key reasons that women need homelessness services, and the outcomes for those that use them.



Key findings

Overall, women are less likely to be homeless than men, with significant variation in rates across States and Territories. In 2011, the Northern Territory had the highest rate of homelessness overall, and the highest rate for women at 761 per 10 000.

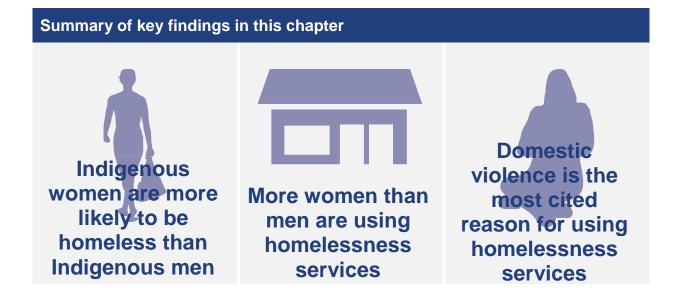
The proportion of people who were homeless greatly increased with remoteness (0.4% in a major cities to 9.0% in very remote areas)—and this trend is more strongly seen for women than it is for men. Non-Indigenous women in very remote Australia are three times as likely as those in major cities to be homeless. Non-Indigenous men in very remote areas are almost twice as likely as those in major cities to be homeless.

Living in severe crowding is overall the most common circumstance for women who experience homelessness—primarily because a high proportion Indigenous women in remote areas live in severely crowded accommodation. **21% of Indigenous women in very remote areas live in severely crowded dwellings** compared to less than 1% of both non-Indigenous and Indigenous women living in major cities.

More women accessed specialist homelessness services than men—119 women per 10 000 requested assistance in 2011–12 compared with 84 men per 10 000. The most frequently cited reasons that women use these services are domestic violence, housing crisis and financial issues. 34.3% of female clients reported the main reason they were using services was due to domestic and family violence.

In 2011–12, **57.7% of female clients who sought accommodation assistance had sustained housing at the end of receiving support**—much higher than for men (35.9%).

Limitations with the availability and timeliness of data have prevented us from reporting comprehensively on domestic and sexual violence. In Appendix A we have set out options for further reporting on these issues when more recent, national data are available.



Homelessness

Women are less likely than men to be homeless in all jurisdictions except the Northern Territory. Women in remote and very remote areas—and particularly Indigenous women—have higher rates of homelessness. Women are more likely to be living in severely crowded dwellings.

Women have overall lower rates of homelessness

In 2011, the national rate of homelessness was lower for women than men—at 42 per 10 000 women compared with 56 per 10 000 men.

Women also had lower overall rates of homelessness in all States and Territories except the Northern Territory, where the rate was around 8% higher for women—at 761 per 10 000 women compared with 702 per 10 000 men. Tasmania had the lowest rate for both women (26 per 10 000 women) and men (38 per 10 000 men).

Indigenous women and women in remote areas more likely to be homeless

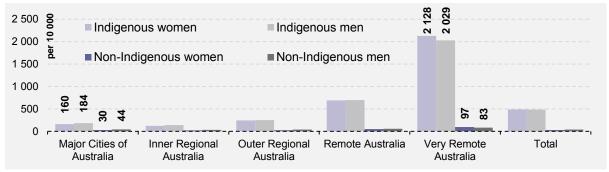
Figure 4.1 Rate of homeless persons women and men, 2011 Women Men 761 39 702 53 38 32 48 43 33 49 36 49 26 38

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

In 2011, 19.4% of homeless women lived in very remote areas, compared with 14.0% of homeless men. Indigenous women were more likely to be homeless overall (489 per 10 000 Indigenous women) compared with non-Indigenous women (29 per 10 000 non-Indigenous women) and Indigenous men (487 per 10 000 Indigenous men).

Figure 4.2 also shows that the number of homeless women increases with geographic remoteness. Indigenous women in very remote areas are 13 times more likely to be homeless than Indigenous women in major cities. Non-Indigenous women in very remote Australia are three times more likely to be homeless than non-Indigenous women living in major cities. On the other hand, non-Indigenous men in very remote Australia are approximately twice as likely to be homeless than those living in major cities.

Figure 4.2 Rates of homelessness, by geographic location, 2011



Higher rates of severe crowding in very remote areas

People who lack control of space as a result of living in a dwelling which needs four or more extra bedrooms to accommodate them are considered to be living in severely crowded dwellings. In 2011, severe crowding was the most common type of homelessness experienced by women—with a rate of 19 per 10 000 women living in severely crowded dwellings (Figure 4.3).

The next most common circumstance of homelessness experienced by women was living in supported accommodation for homeless people—with 10 women in 10 000 in this situation. Supported accommodation is often an appropriate service response to those who are homeless—including people who have become homeless because of relationship breakdown, financial stress or other reasons that prevent their accommodation being stable and secure. Homelessness services are discussed later in this chapter.

In very remote areas the rate of women living in severe crowding was 971 per 10 000—51 times higher than the national rate of 19 per 10 000 women (see Figure 4.3). Women in remote areas are also more likely than men in remote areas to experience severe crowding—with 728 per 10 000 of all men in remote areas living in severely crowded dwellings. This is influenced by the overall higher rates of severe crowding for Indigenous men (19.8%) and women (20.7%) in very remote areas (from Figure 4.3).

60 **8** ■Women All areas 50 ₽ ■Men 40 30 20 10 Improvised Staying with other Boarding houses Severely crowded ΑII Supported dwellings, sleeping accommodation for and temporary households dwellings out homeless temporarily lodging 1 200 Women Very remote areas 1 000 ber ■ Men 800 600 400 200 Staying with other Boarding houses Severely crowded Improvised Supported ΑII dwellings, sleeping accommodation for households and temporary dwellings homeless temporarily lodging out

Figure 4.3 Rates of homelessness by type, 2011

Homelessness services

Women use specialist homelessness services at higher rates than men. The main reason one in three women needed services was domestic violence. More than half of women using accommodation assistance had sustained accommodation at the end of support.

More women than men used specialist homelessness services in 2011-12

Specialist homelessness services include general support and assistance, accommodation, specialised services, assistance to sustain housing tenure and domestic violence services (AIHW, 2012). Nationally in 2011–12, 119.3 per 10 000 women and girls received services compared to 84.4 per 10 000 men and boys. A higher rate of women than men used services in each State and Territory (see Figure 4.4). The largest age cohort of women and girls using services was 25–34 year olds (21.3%), followed by 18–24 year olds (19.1%), and 35–44 year olds (18.5%).

In 2011–12, a greater proportion of clients of homelessness services were women (58.8%) than men (41.2%). This was also true for Indigenous clients:

- 61.4% of Indigenous clients were women compared to 38.6% of men
- 57.3% of non-Indigenous clients were women compared to 42.7% of men.

The highest rates of women and girls using services was in the Northern Territory (394.5 female clients per 10 000 females). The lowest was in NSW (83.9 female clients per 10 000 females).

Figure 4.4 Clients per 10 000 people, 2011–12



Source: AIHW-SHSC-see Appendix B

One in three women reported domestic or family violence was the main reason for using specialist homelessness services

The leading reason women used services was due to interpersonal relationships (43.8%) (see Figure 4.5). This was primarily due to violence at home—34.3% of female clients reported the main reason they were using services was due to domestic and family violence. One in four of the women reporting domestic or family violence as the main reason for using services was in the 25–34 year old age group (27.8%).

Around one in four women (24.8%) reported accommodation as the main reason for requesting assistance—primarily made up of women in housing crisis (11.6%), and women in inadequate or inappropriate dwelling conditions (9.2%). Women's next most reported main reason for using services were financial reasons (18.7%).

Figure 4.5 Main reason female clients sought specialist homelessness services, 2011–12



Source: AIHW-SHSC-see Appendix B

After using specialist homelessness services, the proportion of women clients in public housing increased 27.5%

For women who received homelessness services, the biggest change in their housing situation was an increase in access to public or community housing—from 18.9% of women in public or community housing at the beginning of support to 24.1% at the end (see Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6 Women clients' housing situation at the beginning and end of support, 2011–12



Notes: Data are restricted to clients aged 18 years or over and clients aged 15–17 years who presented alone.

Source: AIHW-SHSC-see Appendix B

More than half of women who sought assistance for accommodation in 2011–12 had sustained accommodation after using specialist homelessness services

In 2011–12, 57.7% of women who sought accommodation had sustained housing at the end of receiving support. This included:

- 50.2% of women who requested short term or emergency accommodation
- 61.6% of women who requested medium term accommodation
- 79.4% of women who requested long term accommodation (see Figure 4.7).

This was much higher than for men (35.9%). The highest proportion of female clients who had sustained housing at the end of accommodation assistance was in the Northern Territory (71.0%).

Figure 4.7 Proportion of female clients with sustained accommodation at the end of support, 2011–12



.Notes: Data are restricted to clients aged 18 years or over and clients aged 15–17 years who presented alone.

Source: AIHW-SHSC-see Appendix B



Chapter 5

Disability

This chapter reports the economic participation of women with disability and their use of disability services. It also looks at how well women with disability are supported by reporting the proportion of women with disability who need more formal assistance than they currently receive.



Key findings

In this chapter we report on the participation and experience of women with disability. There are more than two million women with disability in Australia (ABS 2009). Women with disability face greater barriers to workforce participation than women generally.

Around half (49.0%) of women with disability participate in the labour force—significantly lower than the proportion of men with disability participating (59.8%). However, women with disability who receive Newstart or Youth Allowance are more likely to report other earnings than men.

Nationally, around one in three (33.7%) women with disability report needing more formal assistance than they receive—rates are significantly higher in Victoria (41.5%).

Women with disability are less likely to use State and Territory delivered disability support services (31.2%) than men (37.8%) nationally and in all jurisdictions except the Northern Territory. Women are also less likely to use disability employment services than men.

Summary of key findings in this chapter



1 in 3 women with disability need more formal help



Women with disability are less likely to use disability services than men



1 in 2 women with disability participate in the labour force

Economic participation

Around half of women with disability participate in the labour force—significantly lower than for men with disability. However, women with disability receiving government income support are more likely than men to report earnings.

Women with disability have a significantly lower labour force participation rate than men with disability

The barriers that exist for women in achieving economic participation are greater for women with disability.

Nationally in 2009, around one in every two (49.0%) women with disability participated in the labour force—significantly lower than the proportion of men with disability (59.8%) who participated (see Figure 5.1). In the 25–34 year old age bracket, there was a 19.5 percentage point difference between the proportion of women (55.6%) and men (75.1%) with disability who participated in the labour force.

In 2009 the participation rates for women with disability in Western Australia (54.8%), the ACT (65.1%) and the Northern Territory (62.8%) were significantly higher than the national average. In Western Australia, between 2003 and 2009 the proportion of women with disability in the labour force increased—from 50.2% in 2003 to 54.8% in 2009.

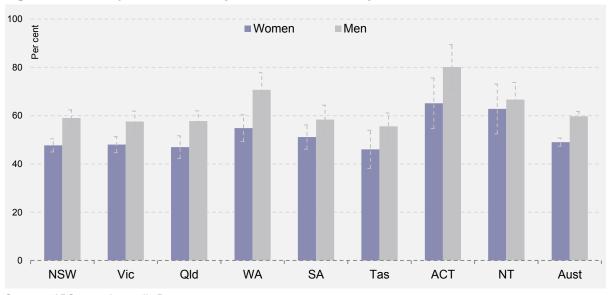


Figure 5.1 Proportion of 15–64 year olds with disability in the labour force, 2009

UNDER EMBARGO UNTIL 3.00PM 19 NOVEMBER

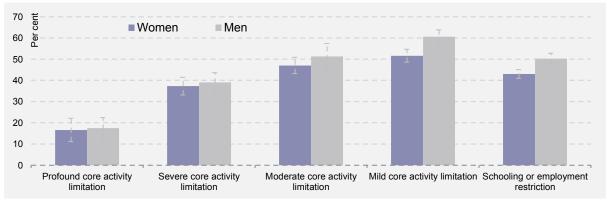
Reform Council

There is a significant gap between labour force participation rates for women and men with mild disability

Labour force participation varies with disability severity. In 2009, one in six women (16.6%) with profound disability were in the labour force, compared with 51.6% of women with mild disability. People with profound disability are unable to do, or always need help with, a core activity task, and those with mild disability can perform core activity tasks without help—but may need aids, equipment or help or supervision with other life tasks.

There was a significant difference between the proportion of women and men with mild disability participating in the labour force. In 2009, one in two women (51.6%) with mild disability were in the labour force compared to 60.6% of men with mild disability—a difference of 9 percentage points.

Figure 5.2 Proportion of people with disability participating in the labour force, by disability status, 2009



Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Fewer women with disability receive income support but those that do have a better connection to the labour force

On 29 June 2012, there were fewer women than men with disability receiving government income support payments:

- 372 842 women compared with 428 845 men were receiving the Disability Support Pension (Centrelink administrative data)
- 56 904 women and 64 387 men with disability and limited work capacity (0–29 hours per week) were receiving Newstart or Youth Allowance (Centrelink administrative data).

An indicator of how well people with disability are supported is their connection to the labour force, and a measure of this is the proportion of people with disability receiving income support payments who also report earnings.

Of those women with disability and an assessed capacity to work 15–29 hours per week who received Newstart or Youth Allowance, one in five (20.2%) reported receiving earnings from paid employment. This was a higher proportion than for men (13.2%) (Centrelink administrative data).

Service use and unmet demand

Women with disability are less likely than men to use services that can assist with economic participation and social inclusion. Around one in three women with disability report needing more formal assistance than they receive.

Around one in three women who may have needed disability support services actually used them

State and Territory delivered disability support services include accommodation support, community support, community access and respite (see Appendix D for definitions). Use of these services can help improve wellbeing, independence and social inclusion.

In 2010–11, women (31.2%) were less likely than men (37.8%) to use State and Territory delivered disability support services in all jurisdictions except the Northern Territory (where 25.1% of women and 20.1% of men with disability who may have needed these services used them) (see Figure 5.3). Women in South Australia (47.8%) and Tasmania (46.5%) were more likely to be using these services, while women in Queensland (21.8%) were least likely.

The biggest gap in rates of women and men using disability support services is in the ACT. In 2010–11, 39.8% of women used services compared to 61.5% of men.

Girls and younger women with disability are more likely than older women to use disability support services. In 2010–11, 15–24 year old women had the highest rate of disability support service use (46.8%) and 55–64 year olds had the lowest (21.4%). Women and girls were less likely to use disability support services than men across all age groups except 10–14 year olds (40.8% of girls with disability aged 10–14 years used disability support services, and 30.5% boys did).

Figure 5.3 0–64 year olds with disability who may have needed State and Territory disability support services who used them, 2010–11

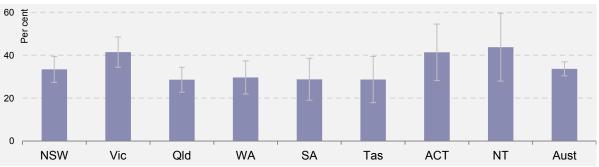


Source: ABS-see Appendix B

One in three women report needing more formal assistance

In 2009, 33.7% of women who may have needed disability support services reported needing more formal assistance. This was not significantly different to the proportion for men (35.0%). Women in Victoria (41.5%) were significantly more likely than women nationally (33.7%) to report needing more formal assistance (see Figure 5.4). Under one in five women (17.8%) who had taken action in the previous 12 months to get more formal assistance still reported needing more formal assistance.

Figure 5.4 Proportion of 0–64 year old women with disability reporting unmet demand for formal assistance, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Women less likely than men to use Disability Employment Services

Specialist employment services for people with disability are provided by the Commonwealth government. There are two parts to Disability Employment Services:

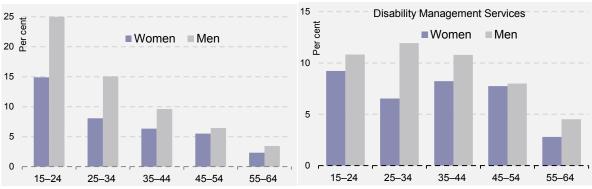
- Disability Management Service—provides assistance to jobseekers with disability, injury or a health condition who need assistance to find a job and occasional support to keep a job
- Employment Support Service—provides assistance to people with permanent disability who need regular, ongoing support to keep a job.

In 2010–11, women were less likely than men with disability and an employment restriction to use disability employment services, and this was true for all age groups:

- 5.5% of women with disability and 8.7% of men used Employment Support Services
- 6.0% of women with disability and 8.0% of men used Disability Management Services.

There were some substantial differences in the proportion of men and women who used Disability Employment Services in the younger age groups—in particular the proportion of women (14.9%) and men (25.0%) aged 15–24 years old using Employment Support Services (see Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5 People with disability with an employment restriction accessing employment services for people with disability, by age, 2010–11



Source: AIHW-see Appendix B



Chapter 6

Caring responsibilities

There are more women than men who are unpaid carers for people with disabilities and elderly people—and almost twice as many female primary carers as men. This chapter looks at the contribution women make as carers and the economic and wellbeing outcomes for women in caring roles.



Key findings

In this chapter we look at people with unpaid caring responsibilities for elderly people or people with disability. The care provided by these informal or unpaid carers has an estimated replacement value of \$40 billion annually, and the work done by primary carers accounts for around half of this amount—at \$22 billion annually (Access Economics 2010).

There are more women than men in unpaid caring roles and almost twice as many female primary carers as men.

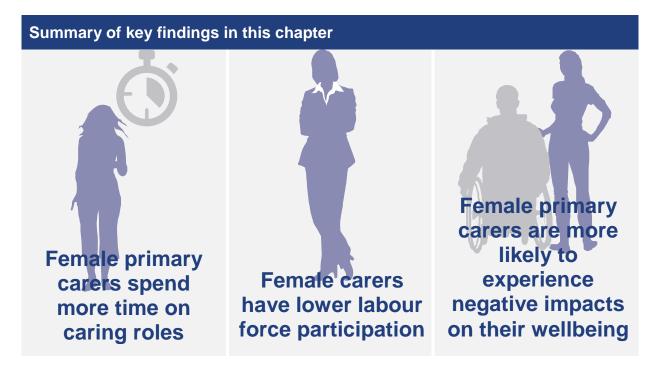
Female primary carers are also more likely than males to be spending more time in their role—with 40% of females compared with 28% of male primary carers spending more than 40 hours a week caring.

Carers most frequently cite family responsibility, and their ability to perform the role best as the main reasons for taking on a caring role. 71.4% of women reported they took on the role for one or more of the following reasons:

- had no choice
- no other family or friends were available or willing
- alternative care too costly
- no other care arrangements available.

Among carers aged 15 to 64, women have lower labour force participation (61.3%)—relative to female non-carers (74%) and also to male carers (76.9%).

Female primary carers of people with disabilities also have higher rates of reporting negative impacts on their health and wellbeing arising from their caring responsibilities—62.5% of women report experiencing negative impacts, compared with 48.4% of men.



Caring roles

The majority of carers are women and women spend more time in caring roles than men. 71.4% of female primary carers reported at least one of the reasons they took on the role was that alternatives were not available or they had no other option.

More women than men are carers

In 2009 there were 2.6 million carers in Australia—1.45 million women and 1.18 million men. There are more than twice as many female primary carers than males. Figure 6.1 shows that 248 200 or 2.3% of Australian men and 523 200 or 4.8% of Australian women were primary carers. Figure 6.2 shows that the gap between the number of female and male carers decreases with age. There are more primary male carers over 75 than females.

Women Men Total

15

All carers Primary carers

Figure 6.1 Proportion of the population who are carers, 2009

Source: ABS-see Appendix B

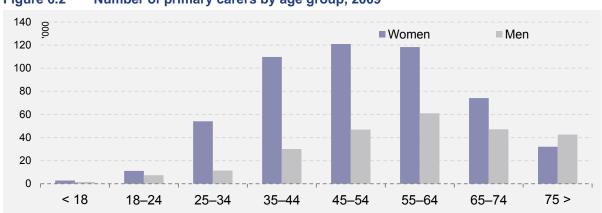


Figure 6.2 Number of primary carers by age group, 2009

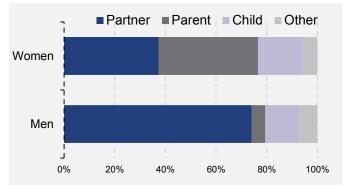
Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Women spend more time on caring roles

Figure 6.3 shows a larger proportion of female primary carers (38.5%) spend 40 hours or more caring for the main recipient of their care than males (27.4%).

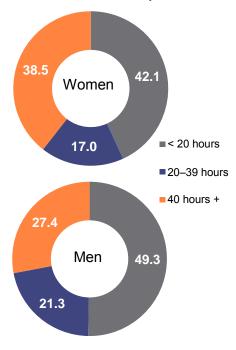
Among people who spent 40 hours or more per week on caring roles, women were mainly caring for parents (39.1%) and partners (37.4%)—whereas men were mainly caring for partners (74.2%) (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4 Primary carers who spend 40 hours + caring—relationship to main care recipient, 2009



Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Figure 6.3 Primary carers—% of time caring for main care recipient, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

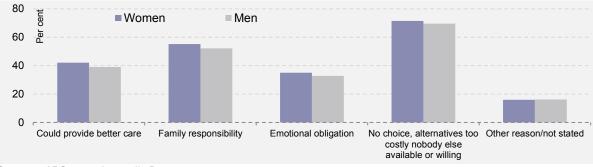
Men and women have similar reasons for taking up primary caring roles

71.4% of women and 69.6% of men reported one or more of the following reasons for taking on a primary caring role:

- had no choice
- · no other family or friends were available or willing
- alternative care too costly
- no other care arrangements available.

Family responsibility and the ability to provide better care were also frequently cited reasons.

Figure 6.5 Reasons male and female primary carers took on the role, 2009



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Note: values for 'no other family or friends available', 'no other friends or family willing', 'alternative care too costly', 'no other care available' and 'no other choice' were aggregated.

Experience of carers

Female carers of people with disability have lower labour force participation than males. They are also more likely to experience negative impacts from the pressures of their caring role.

Labour force participation of female carers is lower than for non-carers and male carers

Female carers of people with disability have lower labour force participation than female non-carers in every State and Territory and nationally. Male carers also have significantly lower labour force participation, however the difference between male carers and non-carers is smaller than for females.

Nationally, the labour force participation rate for female carers aged 15 to 64—61.3%—is 12.7 percentage points below the national rate for female non-carers—74%. The rate for male carers—76.9%—is 8.6 percentage points below the national rate for male non-carers—85.5%. This pattern is similar for female primary carers who have significantly lower labour force participation overall—at 50.9%.

By jurisdiction

- the ACT had the highest rate of female carer labour force participation—at 64.4%, but this was still 18.2 percentage points below the female non-carer rate in the ACT
- Victoria had the lowest labour force participation by female carers at 59.1%
- the second lowest rate for female carers was in the Northern Territory (60.5%), which also had the biggest gap—with female carer participation 22.8 percentage points lower than its high overall female labour force participation rate
- the smallest gap between female carer and non-carer labour force participation was in NSW—with carers 9.3 percentage points lower.

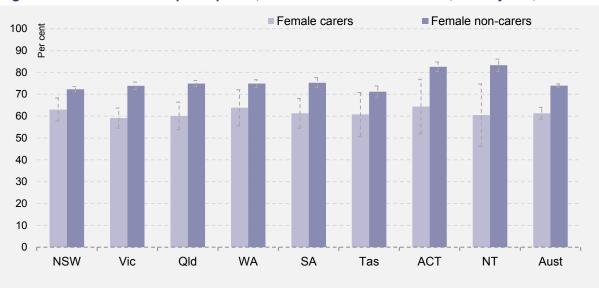


Figure 6.6 Labour force participation, female carers and non-carers, 15–64 years, 2009

Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Reform Council

More women than men report experiencing negative impacts

Among carers of people with disability, women are more likely than men to report experiencing negative impacts relating to their caring role. These negative impacts can include: 'frequently feeling worried, depressed, angry or resentful, feeling weary and lacking energy, or have been diagnosed with a stress related illness due to their caring role.'

In 2009, 62.5% of women reported experiencing negative impacts, compared with 48.4% of men. This pattern was seen across Australia—in all states and territories.

The difference for men and women was greatest in NSW where 39.6% of men and 63.1% of women experience negative impacts.

100 cent ■Women ■Men Per 80 60 40 20 NSW Vic Qld WA SA Tas **ACT** NT Aust

Figure 6.7 Proportion of carers who experience negative impacts, 2009

Source: ABS—see Appendix B



Chapter 7

The case for annual reporting

This chapter outlines options for continued reporting on COAG's reform priorities by gender. It recommends annual reporting on a set of fixed indicators, and also on specific focus-areas within COAG's broad-ranging reform framework.



The value of regular performance reporting

The role of the COAG Reform Council is to assess the performance of governments towards outcomes agreed under the COAG Reform Agenda. This report responds to a request from COAG to report on the equality of outcomes for women and men in priority reform areas.

It is a 'one-off' report. But there is a case for annual reporting on the equality of outcomes.

First, the report shows that there are significant differences in outcomes for women and men in key areas of COAG's reform agenda, including education, employment, health and homelessness. In many areas, particularly employment, women's outcomes are less favourable than men's. But in other areas, such as health status, women have more favourable outcomes. These differences impact on economic and social participation, one of COAG's key goals. It is important to understand them better.

Second, the report also shows that there has been steady progress in improving outcomes for women in many areas, but that in other areas progress has stalled or gone backwards. Regular performance reporting can track progress over time, highlighting areas where attention may be needed under the national reform agenda.

Scope of reporting

In this first report we have focused on high-level indicators of COAG's reform priorities for women and girls. The council proposes to identify—in consultation with jurisdictions—a set of core performance indicators which reflect the reform priorities. These can then be tracked over time in annual reporting.

In addition, there is scope for more in-depth analysis of particular areas to gain a better understanding of the differences in outcomes for women and men, and also for different groups of women. The council proposes to undertake more detailed analysis of outcomes in particular areas, which would vary in focus from year to year. For example, there could be a focus on:

- · outcomes for men and boys
- outcomes for Indigenous women and men
- outcomes for women of different ages, which could indicate changes over time
- key transition points, such as from school to employment, education or training, or into retirement
- women's health issues, including antenatal and sexual health.

As we noted at the beginning of this report, limitations with available data prevented us from reporting on the different experiences of violence for men and women—and in particular, the issues of domestic and sexual violence. At Appendix A we have flagged some issues that could be further explored when updated data are available—in particular from the ABS' *Personal Safety Survey* which is due to be released later in 2013.



Appendices

Appendix A Experiences of violence

New data will be released at the end of 2013 which will enable better reporting on women and men's personal safety.

We have not included comprehensive findings on women's experience of violence in this report because recent, nationally comparable data on domestic and family violence were not available. Updated results are expected from the ABS' *Personal Safety Survey* later in 2013, and would provide a basis for future reporting. In this Appendix we present some findings from the 2005 release which, when updated, could be included in future reports as part of more detailed reporting on violence.

Defining and reporting on family and domestic violence

In presenting information about safe and secure environments for women, their partners and their children, it is important to consider issues regarding reporting of family and domestic violence. The ABS notes the challenges to data collection in *Defining the Data Challenge for Family, Domestic and Sexual Violence, 2013* clarifying that:

...the term 'Family and Domestic Violence' covers a wide range of abusive behaviours committed in the context of intimate relationships such as those involving family members, children, partners, ex-partners, or caregivers. Family and Domestic Violence can include many types of behaviour or threats, including: physical violence, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, verbal abuse and intimidation, economic and social deprivation, damage of personal property and abuse of power. Types of relationships also vary and can include family and co-habitation, while some are specific to family violence legislation such as cultural and kinship relationships, foster care relationships, blood relatives who do not co-habit or care situations, such as elder abuse. (ABS 2013b)

What we know from the ABS Personal Safety Survey from 2005

Fewer women than men experience violence

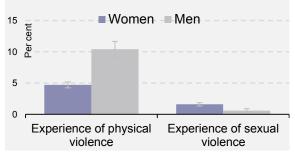
Overall, women experience less violence than men. In 2005, 10.8% of men compared to 5.8% of women had experienced violence in the last 12 months. Women and men's experiences violence are also quite different—they reported that over their lifetime (since 15 years of age):

- 50.1% of men and 39.9% of women had experienced violence—more men (49.0%) than women (33.3%) experienced physical violence, while more women (19.1%) than men (5.5%) experienced sexual violence
- physical assault against women was most commonly perpetrated by a previous partner (39.9%) or family and friends (36.5%), while perpetrators of physical assault towards men were most likely to be strangers (65%)
- women were most likely to be assaulted by a male perpetrator in a home (74.9%), while men were most likely to be physically assaulted by a male in the open (35%) or at a licensed premises (31.4%) (ABS 2006b, pp. 17, 29–30).

Young women experienced physical and sexual violence at higher rates than older women

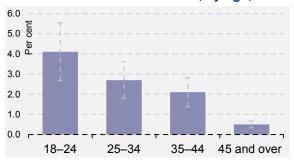
Young women and men report experiencing violence in the last 12 months at higher rates than older women and men for both physical and sexual violence. In 2005, 1.6% of women reported experiencing sexual violence in the last 12 months. Women aged 18 to 24 years had the highest rate of sexual violence experienced in the last 12 months, at a rate of 4.1% (see Figure A.2).

Figure A.1 Experience of violence in the last 12 months, by type, by sex, 2005



Source: ABS-see Appendix B

Figure A.2 Women's experience of sexual violence in the last 12 months, by age, 2005

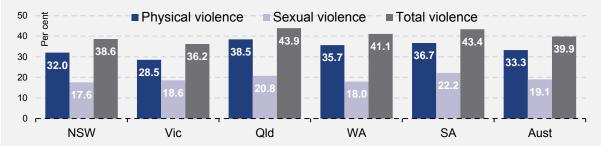


Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Over their lifetime 39.9% of women had experienced violence, and these rates differ by state

In 2005 it was estimated that, over their lifetime, 39.9% of women had experienced violence. The rate of violence experienced by women differed by state—women in Queensland (43.9%) reported experiencing the highest rates of overall violence, while Victorian women reported the lowest rate (36.2%) (see Figure A.3). Data was unavailable for Tasmania, the ACT or the Northern Territory.

Figure A.3 Women's experience of violence over their lifetime, 2005



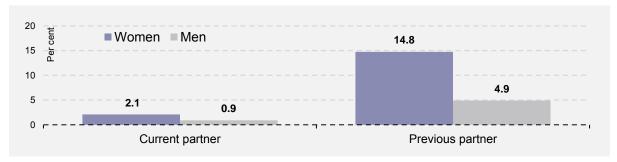
Source: ABS-see Appendix B

The majority of partner violence is perpetrated against women

Partner violence statistics provide some insight into family and domestic violence. However, this data refers only to physical violence and sexual violence from a partner. As such, they underestimate the rates of family and domestic violence.

Over their lifetime, 14.8% of women had experienced violence from a previous partner, and 2.1% had experienced violence from a current partner (ABS 2006b, p.11). The majority of partner violence was perpetrated against women—women were the victims of 75.5% of previous partner violence and 70.1% of current partner violence.

Figure A.4 Violence from a previous partner over their lifetime, 2005



Source: ABS—see Appendix B

Appendix B Figure and chapter references

The following tables provide information about data we have used in figures and in supporting text (where not referring to a figure). We also identify where we have used unpublished data, which are available in the statistical supplement to this report on our website. References to data used in the key findings of each chapter can be found in the information for the sections of each chapter. Other non-data references can be found in Appendix E.

Chapter 1: Education and employment skills

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Literacy and I	numeracy
Figure 1.1	Title: NAPLAN mean scale scores for reading (year level) students, by State and Territory, by Indigenous status and geolocation, 2012
	Data collection: ACARA (2012) 2012 National Assessment Program—Literacy and Numeracy: achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy, Melbourne (available http://www.nap.edu.au/results-and-reports/naplan-results/results.html)
Figure 1.2	Title: NAPLAN mean scale scores for writing (year level) students, by State and Territory, by Indigenous status and geolocation, 2012
	Data collection: ACARA (2012) 2012 National Assessment Program — Literacy and Numeracy: achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy, Melbourne (available http://www.nap.edu.au/results-and-reports/naplan-results/results.html)
Figure 1.3	Title: NAPLAN mean scale scores for numeracy, (year level) students by State and Territory, by Indigenous status and geolocation, 2012
	Data collection: ACARA (2012) 2012 National Assessment Program — Literacy and Numeracy: achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy, Melbourne (available http://www.nap.edu.au/results-and-reports/naplan-results/results.html)
Figure 1.4	Title: NAPLAN mean scale scores for reading Year 3 and 9 girls, by socio-economic background, 2012
	Data collection: ACARA (2012) 2012 National Assessment Program — Literacy and Numeracy: achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy, Melbourne (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.1)
	Notes: See Appendix D for definitions of low and high socio-economic background.
Supporting text (p.16)	Title: AEDI results vulnerable on one or more, or two or more domain/s (2012)
	Data source: Australian Government, (2013). A Snapshot of Early Childhood Development in Australia 2012—AEDI National Report, Australian Government, Canberra (available http://www.rch.org.au/uploadedFiles/Main/Content/aedi/Report_NationalReport_2012
	13041.pdf—Table 2.6)

Year 12 attain	Year 12 attainment	
Figure 1.5	Title: Year 12 (or equivalent) or a non-school qualification at Certificate II level or above, persons aged 15–64 years, 2002–2012	
	Data collection: ABS—Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&6227055003do002 20	
	1205.xls&6227.0.55.003&Data Cubes&1125F05E7F887017CA257AC4000FDDB8&0&May 2012&29.11.2012&Latest— Tables 1.1–1.11)	
Figure 1.6	Title: Proportion of young people aged 20–24 years who have completed year 12 (or equivalent) or gained a qualification at AQF Certificate II level or above, 2011	
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.2)	
Figure 1.7	Title: Proportion of young people aged 20–24 years who have completed year 12 (or equivalent) or attained a formal qualification at AQF Certificate II level or above, by SEIFA IRSD quintiles, 2011	
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.3)	
Supporting text (p.18)	Title: Year 12 (or equivalent) or a non-school qualification at Certificate II level or above, persons aged 15–64 years, 2002–2012	
	Data collection: ABS—Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&6227055003do002_201205.xls&6227.0.55.003&Data Cubes&1125F05E7F887017CA257AC4000FDDB8&0&May 2012&29.11.2012&Latest—	
	Tables 1.1–1.11)	
Transitioning	to work or further education	
Figure 1.8	Title: Proportion of persons fully engaged through study for a qualification and/or employment, aged 18–24 years, by sex, 2002–12	
	Data collection: ABS—Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&6227055003do009_201205.xls&6227.0.55.003&Data	
	<u>Cubes&4454862146002EC7CA257AC4000FDF3E&0&May 2012&29.11.2012&Latest—</u> Tables 1.1–1.11)	
Figure 1.9	Title: Proportion of persons aged 17–24 years who are fully engaged in post-school education, training or employment, by state and territory, by sex—2011	
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.4)	
Figure 1.10	Title: Proportion of persons aged 17–24 years who are fully engaged in post-school education, training or employment, by state and territory, by sex—2011	
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.4)	
Figure 1.11	Title: Proportion of persons aged 17–24 years who are fully engaged in post-school education, training or employment, SEIFA IRSD, by sex, Australia, 2011	
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.5)	

Supporting text (p.20)	Title: Proportion of persons fully engaged through study for a qualification and/or employment, aged 18–24 years, by sex, 2002–12 Data collection: ABS—Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available <a 1.1–1.11)<="" 2012&29.11.2012&latest_tables="" a="" ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&6227055003do009_20_1205.xls&6227.0.55.003&Data_Cubes&4454862146002EC7CA257AC4000FDF3E&0&May 2012&29.11.2012&Latest_Tables 1.1–1.11)</th></tr><tr><td>Supporting text (pp.20–21)</td><td>Title: Proportion of persons aged 17–24 years who are fully engaged in post-school education, training or employment, by state and territory, by sex—2011 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.4)</td></tr><tr><td>Higher qualifi</td><td>cation levels</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 1.12</td><td>Title: Non-school qualification at Certificate III level or above, persons 20–64 years, 2002–12 Data collection: ABS — Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&6227055003do005_20
1205.xls&6227.0.55.003&Data
Cubes&C8A9BEBF01444BC9CA257AC4000FDE5C&0&May 2012&29.11.2012&Latest—
Tables 1.1–1.11)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 1.13</td><td>Title: Proportion of working age population with higher level qualifications (AQF Certificate III and above), 20–64 years, by sex, 2011 Data collection: ABS — Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (created in Table Builder Basic) (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.6)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 1.14</td><td>Title: Proportion of working age population with higher level qualifications (AQF Certificate III and above), 20–64 years, by remoteness, females, 2011 Data collection: ABS — Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (created in Table Builder</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Basic) (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.7 and 1.8)</td></tr><tr><td>Supporting text (p.22)</td><td>Title: Non-school qualification at Certificate III level or above, persons 20–64 years, 2002–12</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: ABS — Survey of Education and Work 2012 (available
Supporting text (p.22)	Title: Proportion of working age people with higher level qualifications (AQF Certificate III and above), by sex, by age, 2006, 2011 Data collection: ABS — Census of Population and Housing, 2011 (created in Table Builder Basic) (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 1.6)
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Chapter 2: Economic participation

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Employment	
Figure 2.1	Title: Labour force status by sex—persons aged 15 to 64 years—trend, seasonally adjusted and original, 1978–2013 Data collection: ABS—Labour Force, Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/meisubs.NSF/log?openagent&6202018.xls&6202.0&TimeSeriesSpreadsheet&457C0DE1F4569AB0CA257BA400139D2E&0&Jun2013&11.07.2013&Latest—Data1)
Figure 2.2	Title: Labour force status by sex, by State and Territory—persons aged over 15 years—seasonally adjusted (with the exception of the Northern Territory and the ACT), 2013 Data collection: ABS—Labour Force, Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/6202.0Jun%202013?OpenDocument —Table 2 and Tables 4–11)
Figure 2.3	Title: Persons not in labour force, 20–74 years, by age, 2012–13 Data collection: ABS Gender Indicators—Labour Force Survey (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&economicsecurity.xls&4125.0&Data Cubes&2D1B83554FBCBDEFCA257BD300144158&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 17)
Figure 2.4	Title: Employed persons, full time or part time status by sex, 2013 Data collection: ABS—Labour Force, Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/meisubs.NSF/log?openagent&6202002.xls&6202.0&Time SeriesSpreadsheet&C6B38722AC008AC3CA257BA40013863C&0&Jun2013&11.07.2013 &Latest—Data1)
Supporting text (p.28)	Title: Labour force participation rates by gender, 1990, 2000 and 2010: Proportion of people aged 15–64 in the labour force who are either in work or looking for work Data collection: OECD, OECD Employment Database 2012 (available <a 18)<="" 2013&27.08.2013&latest—table="" a="" ausstats="" cubes&2d1b83554fbcbdefca257bd300144158&0&aug="" href="http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/deliver/fulltext?itemId=/content/chapter/9789264179370-5-en&mimeType=freepreview&isPreview=true&redirecturl=http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/social-issues-migration-health/closing-the-gender-gap/gender-equality-in-employment 9789264179370-5-en—Table III.A1.1, p.235)</td></tr><tr><td>Supporting text (p.29)</td><td>Title: Persons not in labour force, main reason not currently working, 20–74 years, by age, 2007 Data collection: ABS Gender Indicators—Survey of Employment Arrangements, Retirement and Superannuation (available
Supporting text (p.29)	Title: Persons not in labour force, 20–74 years, by age and for parents by age of youngest dependent child aged under 15 years, 2001–02 to 2012–13 Data collection: ABS Gender Indicators—Labour Force Survey (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&economicsecurity.xls&4125.0&Data Cubes&2D1B83554FBCBDEFCA257BD300144158&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 17)

Supporting text	Title: Employed persons, full-time or part-time status—by sex, September 2008 to September 2012
(p.29)	Data collection: Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 2012 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&62650do001_201209_new_ntls&6265.0&DataCubes&E67DF720E449BAECCA257B8700121EDA&0&September201_2&12.06.2013&Latest_Table 1)
Supporting text (p.29)	Title: Underemployed part-time workers, main difficulty in finding work with more hours Data collection: Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 2012 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&62650do006_201209.xls&6265.0&DataCubes&8A0675C8DA0F7557CA257B18000D38CB&0&September2012&21.02.2013&Latest—Table 6)
Pay	
Figure 2.5	Title: Average Weekly Earnings (Dollars)—Trend, Nationally and for each State and Territory
	Data collection: ABS—Average Weekly Earnings (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/6302.0May%202013?OpenDocument —Table 1 and Tables 11A to 11H)
Figure 2.6	Title: The gender pay gap: Narrowing but more slowly and still wide at the top: Gender pay gap in earnings for full-time employees, across the earnings distribution, 2010
	Data collection: OECD (available http://www.oecd- <a 07="" 2013="" graduate%20salaries%202012%20tables%20and%20figures.xlsx"="" href="mailto:ilibrary.org/deliver/fulltext?itemId=/content/chapter/9789264179370-5-en&mimeType=freepreview&isPreview=true&redirecturl=http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/social-issues-migration-health/closing-the-gender-gap/gender-equality-in-employment_9789264179370-5-en—Figure 13.1)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 2.7</td><td>Title: Summary of median salaries for bachelor degree graduates aged less than 25, and 25 and over, in first full-time employment and with previous full-time employment experience, 2003–2012</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: Graduate Careers Australia—Graduate Salaries 2012 (available http://www.graduatecareers.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/Graduate%20Salaries%202012%20Tables%20and%20Figures.xlsx —Table 3)
Figure 2.8	Title: Median starting salaries for bachelor degree graduates aged less than 25 and in first full-time employment by State or Territory of employment, and comparison of all graduates to the average weekly earnings (AWE) for that State or Territory, 2012
	Data collection: Graduate Careers Australia—Graduate Salaries 2012 (available http://www.graduatecareers.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/Graduate%20Salaries%202012%20Tables%20and%20Figures.xlsx —Table 4)
Figure 2.9	Title: Median starting salaries for bachelor degree graduates aged less than 25 and in first full-time employment by State or Territory of employment, and comparison of all graduates to the average weekly earnings (AWE) for that State or Territory, 2012
	Data collection: Graduate Careers Australia—Graduate Salaries 2012 (available http://www.graduatecareers.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/Graduate%20Salaries%202012%20Tables%20and%20Figures.xlsx —Table 4)

Supporting text (p.30)	Title: Non-managerial adult hourly ordinary time cash earnings, 21 years and over, by industry, 2006, 2008, 2010 and 2012
	Data collection: ABS Gender Indicators—Survey of Employee Earnings and Hours (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&economic security.xls&4125.0&Data Cubes&2D1B83554FBCBDEFCA257BD300144158&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 20)
Supporting text (p.31)	Title: Median starting salaries of bachelor degree graduates in first full-time employment and aged less than 25, by field of education and sector of employment, 2012
	Data collection: Graduate Careers Australia—Graduate Salaries 2012 (available http://www.graduatecareers.com.au/wp-
	content/uploads/2013/07/Graduate%20Salaries%202012%20Tables%20and%20Figures. xlsx—Figure 1)
Supporting text (p.31)	Title: Mean weekly working hours and calculated hourly starting salaries for male and female bachelor degree graduates aged less than 25 and in first full-time employment by field of education, 2012
	Data collection: Graduate Careers Australia—Graduate Salaries 2012 (available http://www.graduatecareers.com.au/wp-
	content/uploads/2013/07/Graduate%20Salaries%202012%20Tables%20and%20Figures. xlsx—Table N)
Access to chi	Idcare
Figure 2.10	Title: Children aged 0–12 years, Type of care usually attended by age of child, 2011
	Data collection: ABS Childhood Education and Care, Australia, June 2011 (available <a "="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44020do001_201106.xls&4402.0&Data Cubes&7E85C579F3DC2047CA2579FF0011C268&0&June_2011&16.05.2012&Latest}—Table 1)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 2.11</td><td>Title: Children aged 0–12 years by whether any or additional formal child care or preschool was required, 2008, 2011</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Childhood Education and Care Survey 2008 and 2011, Cat. no. 4402.0, Canberra (available</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>http://www.pc.gov.au/ data/assets/pdf file/0020/121763/05-government-services-2013-chapter3.pdf—Table 3A.39)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 2.12</td><td>Title: Out-of-pocket costs of child care for families with children in full time centre-based long day care, as a proportion of weekly disposable income, by gross annual family incomes, 2012 (per cent)</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: DEEWR (unpublished) (available http://www.pc.gov.au/ data/assets/pdf file/0020/121763/05-government-services-2013-chapter3.pdf—Table 3A.42)
Figure 2.13	Title: Out-of-pocket costs of child care for families with children in full time centre-based long day care, as a proportion of weekly disposable income, by gross annual family incomes, 2012 (per cent)
	Data collection: DEEWR (unpublished) (available http://www.pc.gov.au/ data/assets/pdf_file/0020/121763/05-government-services-2013-chapter3.pdf—Table 3A.42)

Supporting text (p.32)	Title: Children aged 0–12 years, Type of care usually attended by age of child, 2011 Data collection: ABS Childhood Education and Care, Australia, June 2011 (available <a "="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44020do001_201106.xls&4402.0&Data Cubes&7E85C579F3DC2047CA2579FF0011C268&0&June_2011&16.05.2012&Latest}—Table 1)</th></tr><tr><td>Supporting text (p.32)</td><td>Title: Main reason children aged 0–12 years required any or additional formal child care or preschool, 2008, 2011 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Childhood Education and Care Survey 2008 and 2011, Cat. no. 4402.0, Canberra (available http://www.pc.gov.au/ data/assets/pdf file/0020/121763/05-government-services-2013-chapter3.pdf—Table 3A.40)
Supporting text (p.33)	Title: Main reason any or additional formal child care or preschool required for children aged 0–12 years was not accessed, 2008, 2011 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Childhood Education and Care Survey 2008 and 2011, Cat. no. 4402.0, Canberra (available http://www.pc.gov.au/_data/assets/pdf_file/0020/121763/05-government-services-2013-chapter3.pdf —Table 3A.41)
Supporting text (p.33)	Title: Number of children and families using long day care, September quarter 2004 to September quarter 2012 Data collection: DEEWR administrative data (available http://www.mychild.gov.au/documents/docs/Child_Care_In_Australia.pdf — p.11, Table 3 and p.16, Table 9)
Superannuati	on
Figure 2.14	Title: Proportion of population with superannuation coverage Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Survey of Income and Housing, 2009–10 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.1)
Figure 2.15	Title: Mean and median superannuation balance Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Survey of Income and Housing, 2009–10 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.2)
Figure 2.16	Title: Projected lifetime earnings and superannuation at retirement Data collection: Cameron, P. (2013) What's choice got to do with it? Women's lifetime financial disadvantage and the superannuation gender pay gap Policy Brief No 55, The Australia Institute, July. (available https://www.tai.org.au/index.php?q=node%2F19&pubid=1199&act=display , pp.10–11)
Figure 2.17	Title: Persons aged 45 years and over who have retired from the labour force, main source of personal income at retirement and main source of current personal income, by sex Data collection: ABS, Retirement and Retirement Intentions, Australia, July 2010 to June 2011 (available

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Supporting text	Title: Proportion salary-sacrificing for superannuation Data collection: ABS (unpublished), Survey of Income and Housing, 2009–10 (available in
(p.34)	the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.3)
Supporting	Title: Weekly income from superannuation and lump sum payment, retired population
text (p.35)	Data collection: ABS (unpublished), Survey of Income and Housing, 2009–10 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.4)
Leaders of bu	siness and government
Figure 2.18	Title: Gender data
	Data collection: EOWA (2012) 2012 Australian Census of Women in Leadership (available http://www.wgea.gov.au/sites/default/files/2012_CENSUS%20REPORT.pdf —Appendix 2 — summary data ASX 500)
Figure 2.19	Title: Gender data
	Data collection: EOWA (2012) 2012 Australian Census of Women in Leadership (available http://www.wgea.gov.au/sites/default/files/2012 CENSUS%20REPORT.pdf—Appendix 2 – summary data ASX 500)
Figure 2.20	Title: Composition of Australian Parliaments by Party and Gender, as at 26 June 2013; Senators & Members
	Data collection: Commonwealth Parliamentary Library (2013) Composition of Australian Parliaments by Party and Gender (available http://www.aph.gov.au/~/media/05%20About%20Parliament/54%20Parliamentary%20Depts/544%20Parliamentary%20Library/Browse%20by%20topic/Currentwomen.ashx — Composition of Australian Parliaments by Party and Gender);
	Title: Senators and Members Search Results
	Data collection: Parliament of Australia (2013) Senators & Members (available http://www.aph.gov.au/Senators and Members (available nttp://www.aph.gov.au/Senators & Members, results by Gender)
Figure 2.21	Title: Composition of national parliaments (lower or single house only) by gender, 2013
	Data collection: Inter-Parliamentary Union (2013) Women in National Parliaments (available http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm —World Classification; data are also available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.5)
	Title: Senators and Members Search Results
	Parliament of Australia (2013) Senators & Members (available http://www.aph.gov.au/Senators and Members (available members/Parliamentarian Search Results?q=&mem=1∥=-1&gen=2&ps=0">Members (available members) are also available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.5)
	Notes: Data are accurate as at 1 September 2013 for all nations except Australia, which was updated using the results of the 7 September 2013 federal election.

Public sector leadership

Figure 2.22 Title: Ongoing staff: base classification by sex, 30 June 1998 to 30 June 2012

Data collection: Australian Public Service Employment Database (2012) (available http://www.apsc.gov.au/about-the-apsc/parliamentary/aps-statistical-bulletin/2011-12/section-3/table-9—Table 9)

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Figure 2.23	Title: Senior executive positions in the public sector, by State and Territory, by sex, 2011 Data collection: WA Public Sector Commission (2012) State of the Service 2012 (available http://www.publicsector.wa.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/state of the sector 2012 1.pdf—Figure 2.12; data available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 2.6)
Figure 2.24	Title: Government Owned Corporations 2013 Data Collection: Women on Boards (2013) Government Owned Corporations 2013 (available http://www.womenonboards.org.au/pubs/bdi/2013/govt-owned-corps.htm — Government Owned Corporations 2013)
Supporting text (p.38)	Title: Ongoing staff: base classification by sex, 30 June 1998 to 30 June 2012 Data collection: Australian Public Service Employment Database (2012) (available http://www.apsc.gov.au/about-the-apsc/parliamentary/aps-statistical-bulletin/2011-12/section-3/table-9 —Table 9)
Supporting text (p.38)	Title: Gender Balance as at 30 June 2013 Data collection: Department of Families, Community Services, Housing and Indigenous Affairs (2013) Gender Balance on Australian Government Boards Report 2012–2013 (available http://www.dss.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/08-2013/attachment-b-gender-balance-on-australian-government-boards-report.pdf —Table 1)
Supporting text (p.39)	Title: Government Owned Corporations 2013 Data Collection: Women on Boards (2013) Government Owned Corporations 2013 (available http://www.womenonboards.org.au/pubs/bdi/2013/govt-owned-corps.htm — Government Owned Corporations 2013)

Chapter 3: Health

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Life expectar	псу
Figure 3.1	Title: Life expectancy, Selected ages, States and territories—2001 to 2011 Data collection: ABS Deaths Australia 2011 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&33020do003_2011.xls&33_02.0&Data Cubes&CDDD0FF719395EF9CA257AAF0013CD21&0&2011&08.11.2012&Previous—Table 3.9)

Figure 3.2	Title: Life expectancy, Female population at birth, Years
	Data collection: OECD (available http://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/OECD-Health-Data-2013-Frequently-Requested-Data.xls —Table 'LE females at birth') and
	Title: Life expectancy, selected ages, Australia—2001–2011
	Data collection: ABS Deaths Australia 2011 (available <a 1.5)<="" a="" ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&33020do003_2011.xls&33_02.0&Data_cubes&CDDD0FF719395EF9CA257AAF0013CD21&0&2011&08.11.2012&Previous—Table 3.9)</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Title: Experimental life tables for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians— 2005–2007</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: ABS, Experimental life tables for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians (available
Figure 3.3	Title: Death rates, summary, Australia, 2001–2011
rigule 3.3	Data collection: Data collection: ABS Deaths Australia 2011 (available <a (australia).xls&3303.0&data="" (australia).xls&3303.<="" <a="" ausstats="" causes="" death="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&33030_1 underlying causes of death (australia).xls&3303.0&Data
Supporting	Title: Life expectancy, Selected ages, States and territories—2001 to 2011
text (p.44)	Data collection: ABS Deaths Australia 2011 (available <a (australia).xls&3303.0&data="" <<="" <a="" ausstats="" causes="" death="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&33030_1 underlying causes of death (australia).xls&3303.0&Data

Smoking, drug	gs and alcohol
Figure 3.5	Title: Smoker status, Proportion of persons Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 2.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubes&4A5CB50AE9A7A149CA257B82001796F0&0&2011- 2012&30.07.2013&Previous—Table 2.1 to 2.9) Notes: Data are age standardised. Data do not include very remote areas which may affect the Northern Territory results.
Figure 3.6	Title: Alcohol consumption – Short-term/Single occasion risk by age and sex – Proportion of persons Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43640do009 2011201
Figure 3.7	Title: Alcohol consumption – Long-term/Lifetime risk by age and sex – Australia, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43640do008 2011201 2.xls&4364.0.55.001&Data Cubes&EBEAF6D63BC3CEECCA257AA30014C2DF&0&2011- 12&29.10.2012&Previous—Table 8.3)
Figure 3.8	Title: Use of any illicit drug, people aged 14 years or older, by sex, 2010 (per cent) Data collection: AIHW—2010 National Drug Strategy Household Survey Report (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737421314 —Table 5.3)
Figure 3.9	Title: Frequency of use of pharmaceuticals for non-medical purposes, recent users aged 14 years or older, by sex, 2010 Data collection: AIHW—2010 National Drug Strategy Household Survey Report (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737421314 —Table 10.6)
Supporting text (p.46)	Title: Smoker status, Proportion of persons, 2011–12, by age and sex Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 2.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubes&4A5CB50AE9A7A149CA257B82001796F0&0&2011-2012&30.07.2013&Previous—Table 2.1 to 2.9)
Supporting text (p.46)	Title: Proportion of adults who are daily smokers, by State and Territory, by sex by age, 2007–08 Data collection: ABS National Health Survey 2007–08 (available http://www.coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NHA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —Table NHA.4.7) Notes: Data are age standardised.

Supporting text (p.46)	Title: Alcohol consumption—Short-term/Single occasion risk by age and sex—State & Territory tables
	Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4364.0.55.0012011-12?OpenDocument —Table 9.3)
Supporting text (p.47)	Title: Alcohol consumption—Long-term/Lifetime risk by age and sex—State & Territory tables
	Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4364.0.55.0012011-12?OpenDocument —Table 8.3)
Supporting	Title: Alcohol consumption—Long-term/Lifetime risk by age and sex—Australia, 2011–12
text (p.47)	Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available
	http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43640do008_2011201 2.xls&4364.0.55.001&Data
	<u>Cubes&EBEAF6D63BC3CEECCA257AA30014C2DF&0&2011-12&29.10.2012&Previous</u> —Table 8.3)
Supporting	Title: Use of any illicit drug, people aged 14 years or older, by sex, 2010 (per cent)
text (p.47)	Data collection: AIHW—2010 National Drug Strategy Household Survey Report (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737421314 —Table 5.3 and Table 5.4)
Supporting text (p.47)	Title: Recent users of pharmaceuticals for non-medical purposes by age, sex and frequency of use, 2010
(p)	Data collection: AIHW—2010 National Drug Strategy Household Survey Report (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737421314 —Table 10.3, 10.4 and 10.6)
Diabetes and	weight
3.10	Title: Prevalence of diabetes (fasting plasma glucose), Proportion of persons
	Data collection: ABS—Australian Health Survey: Biomedical Results for Chronic Diseases, 2011–12—Australia (available
	http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43640do011 2011201 2.xls&4364.0.55.005&Data Cubes&8F12AABB067D4627CA257BBB00121CEA&0&2011-12&05.08.2013&Latest—Table 11.3)
3.11	Title: Persons: Whether had long term medical conditions, by selected type and number, by Indigenous status and sex, age standardised rates, Australia—2004–05
	Data collection: ABS—National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey 2004–05 (available http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/Ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/B1BCF4E6DD320A0BCA25714
	C001822BC/\$File/47150_2004-05.pdf—Table 13)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.

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3.12	Title: Body Mass Index, by age and sex—Australia Data collection: Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 —Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 5.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubes&467D17DC2348336ACA257B8200179772&0&2011- 2012&30.07.2013&Previous—Table 5.1) Notes: Data are age standardised.
3.13	Title: Body Mass Index by age and sex – Australia, states and territories
	Data collection: Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 —Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 5.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubsc.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 5.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubsc.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 ABS Updated http://ww
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
	Data do not include very remote areas which may affect the Northern Territory results.
3.14	Title: Body Mass Index by age and sex—Australia Data collection: Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 5.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubes&467D17DC2348336ACA257B8200179772&0&2011- 2012&30.07.2013&Previous—Table 5.1)
Supporting text (p.48)	Title: Profiles of Health, Australia 2011–13—Diabetes Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results 2011–12 (available
	http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/4338.0~2011- 13~Main%20Features~Diabetes~10004—'Diabetes')
Supporting	Title: Diabetes in the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population, 2004–05
text (p.48)	Data collection: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey 2004–05 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/4724.0.55.001Main%20Features52004-05?opendocument&tabname=Summary&prodno=4724.0.55.001&issue=2004-05#=&view_" Comparing with non-Indigenous Australians')
Supporting	Title: Level of exercise by age and sex—Australia
text (p.49)	Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12— Australia (available <a ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43640do011_2011201_2.xls&4364.0.55.001&Data Cubes&860E12E20A56C429CA257AA30014C373&0&2011_12&29.10.2012&Previous}—Table 11.3)</td></tr><tr><td>Supporting</td><td>Title: Body Mass Index by age and sex – Australia, states and territories</td></tr><tr><td>text (p.49)</td><td>Data collection: Data collection: ABS Australian Health Survey: Updated Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&2011-12 AHS Updated Results - Table 5.xls&4364.0.55.003&Data Cubes&467D17DC2348336ACA257B8200179772&0&2011-2012&30.07.2013&Previous —Table 5.1 to Table 5.9)

Smoking, drinking, weight and disadvantage	
Figure 3.15	Title: Indigenous persons aged 15 years and over, by age groups by sex—smoker status Data collection: ABS, National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey 2008 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/SUBSCRIBER.NSF/log?openagent&4714.0 aust 010 2008.xls&4714.0&Data Cubes&6959208EE47E867DCA25770B0016F56D&0&2008&21.04.2010&Previous— Table 10)
Figure 3.16	Title: National rates of overweight and obesity for adults, by sex by SEIFA IRSD quintiles, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.1) Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.17	Title: Proportion of persons aged 18 years and over who exceeded the lifetime alcohol risk guidelines, by sex, by remoteness, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.2) Notes: Data are age standardised.
Supporting text (p.50)	Title: Indigenous persons aged 15 years and over, by age groups by sex—smoker status Data collection: ABS, National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey 2008 (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737420038 — Table 2.18.1)
Supporting text (p.50)	Title: Revised 2002 and 2008 NATSISS alcohol data by risk level, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, 2013—NATSISS alcohol data based on 2009 NHMRC guidelines—Lifetime risk of harm, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people aged 15 years and over, 2002 and 2008 Data collection: ABS, National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4714.0.55.005Chapter202013 — Table 3.1)
Supporting text (pp.50–51)	Title: Proportion of adults who are daily smokers, nationally by sex by SEIFA IRSD quintiles, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.3) Notes: Data are age standardised.
Supporting text (p.51)	Title: Proportion of adults at risk of long term harm from alcohol, nationally by sex by SEIFA IRSD quintiles, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.4) Notes: Data are age standardised.

Supporting text (p.51)	Title: Proportion of persons aged 18 years and over who are current daily smokers, by sex, by remoteness, 2011-12
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.5)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Supporting text (p.51)	Title: Proportion of persons aged 18 years and over who are overweight/obese, by sex, by remoteness, 2011-12
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Australian Health Survey: First Results, 2011–12 — Australia (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.6)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Mental health	
Figure 3.18	Title: High/ very high level of psychological distress by age, 18 years and over, 2001, 2004–05, 2007–08 and 2011–2012
	Data collection: ABS, Australian Health Survey: First Results 2011–12 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 8)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.19	Title: High/very high levels of psychological distress by age, 18 years and over, 2001, 2004–05, 2007–08 and 2011–12
	Data collection: ABS, Australian Health Survey: First Results 2011–12 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 8)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.20	Title: High/very high level of psychological distress for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples by age, 18 years and over, 2008
	Data collection: ABS, National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey 2008 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&DataCubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&LatestTable 9)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.21	Title: 12-month mental disorder by type of disorder, by age, 16–85 years, 2007
	Data collection: ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing: Summary of Results, 2007 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest_Table 10)

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Figure 3.22	Title: 12-month mental disorder by type of disorder, by age, 16–85 years, 2007 Data collection: ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing: Summary of Results, 2007 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 10)
Supporting text (p.52)	Title: Levels of psychological distress, Proportion of persons—State and Territory tables Data collection: ABS, Australian Health Survey: First Results 2011–12 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4364.0.55.0012011-12?OpenDocument —Table 4.3)
Supporting text (p.52)	Title: High/ very high level of psychological distress by age, 18 years and over, 2001, 2004–05, 2007–08 and 2011–2012 Data collection: ABS, Australian Health Survey: First Results 2011–12 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 8).
Supporting text (p.53)	Title: Lifetime mental disorders by type of disorder, by age, 16–85 years, 2007 Data collection: ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing: Summary of Results, 2007 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&health.xls&4125.0&Datacubes&9183BE7E7D13C28FCA257BD30014425E&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&LatestTable 11)
Supporting text (p.53)	Title: Mental disorders, by services used for mental health problems Data collection: ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing: Summary of Results, 2007 (available <a a="" ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&43260do001_2007.xls&4326.0&Data_cubes&8986F614A36BD4C5CA2574EA00122338&0&2007&23.10.2008&Latest_Table 12)</td></tr><tr><td>Supporting text (p.53)</td><td>Title: Mental disorders, by persons who used services for mental health problems—Perceived need for help Data collection: ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing: Summary of Results, 2007 (available <a href=" http:="" log?openagent&43260do001_2007.xls&4326.0&data_cubes&8986f614a36bd4c5ca2574ea00122338&0&2007&23.10.2008&latest_table_14)<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au="">
Barriers to services	

Figure 3.23

Title: Proportion of persons who saw a GP in the last 12 months who waited longer than felt acceptable to get an appointment, by State and Territory, by sex, 2011–12

Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Patient Experience Survey 2011–12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.7)

Notes: Data are age standardised.

Figure 3.24	Title: Proportion of persons who saw a GP in the last 12 months who waited longer than felt acceptable to get an appointment, by remoteness and SEIFA, by sex, 2011–12 Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Patient Experience Survey 2011–12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.8) Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.25	Title: Proportion of persons who saw a GP in the last 12 months who waited longer than
rigure 3.25	felt acceptable to get an appointment, by remoteness and SEIFA, by sex, 2011–12
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Patient Experience Survey 2011–12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.8)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Figure 3.26	Title: People deferring access to GPs, medical specialists or prescribed medication due to cost, by remoteness and SEIFA, by sex, 2011–12
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Patient Experience Survey 2011–12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.9);
	Title: Persons 15 years and over who needed health services, Barriers to use in the last 12 months by demographic characteristics
	Data collection: ABS Patient Experience Survey: Summary of Findings 2011–12 (All data with the exception of 'delayed seeing dentist due to cost' available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.10. Data on 'delayed seeing dentist due to cost' available:
	http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/SUBSCRIBER.NSF/log?openagent&48390do001_201 112.xls&4839.0&Data Cubes&8C860061B8BD3A9ACA257ABE0012EEF2&0&2011- 12&23.11.2012&Latest—Table 7)
	Notes: Data are age standardised, with the exception of data on 'delayed seeing dentist due to cost'.
Figure 3.27	Title: People deferring access to GPs, medical specialists or prescribed medication due to cost, by State and Territory, by sex, 2011-12
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Patient Experience Survey 2011–12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 3.10)
	Notes: Data are age standardised.
Supporting text	Title: Persons 15 years and over, Use of health services for own health in the last 12 months by age and sex
(p.54)	Data collection: ABS Patient Experience Survey: Summary of Findings 2011–12 (available

Ageing and aged care	
Figure 3.28	Title: Persons aged 60 and over, Living in Households, Needing Assistance—Extent to which need met by sex and activities—2009
	Data collection: ABS Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data_ <a ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data_2009&13.02.2012&Latest</td></tr><tr><td rowspan=2>Figure 3.29</td><td>Title: Persons aged 60 and over, Living in Households, Needing Assistance—Extent to which need met by sex and activities—2009</td></tr><tr><td>Data collection: ABS Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data
	<u>Cubes&130C7F83B6FDF4C0CA2579A0000D55D9&0&2009&13.02.2012&Latest</u> —Table 25)
Figure 3.30	Title: Persons aged 60 and over, Living in Households, Needing Assistance—Extent to which need met by sex and activities—2009
	Data collection: ABS Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data Cubes&130C7F83B6FDF4C0CA2579A0000D55D9&0&2009&13.02.2012&Latest—Table
	25)
Figure 3.31	Title: Persons aged 60 and over, Living in Households, Needing Assistance—Extent to which need met by sex and activities—2009
	Data collection: ABS Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data
	<u>Cubes&130C7F83B6FDF4C0CA2579A0000D55D9&0&2009&13.02.2012&Latest</u> —Table 25)
Figure 3.32	Title: CACP, EACH, and EACHD clients by sex and age group (years), 30 June 2011 (per cent)
	Data collection: AIHW, Department of Health and Ageing data sources (available in Aged Care Packages in the Community 2010–11: a Statistical Overview, available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737422912 —Table A2.4)
Figure 3.33	Title: Permanent and respite residents, by sex and age group, 30 June 2011
	Data collection: AIHW, Department of Health and Ageing data sources (available in Residential Aged Care in Australia 2010–11: a statistical Overview, available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=10737422907 —Table A2.1)

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Chapter 4: Living in a safe and secure environment

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Homelessness	
Figure 4.1	Title: States and Territories, Rate of homeless persons per 10,000 of the population–by selected characteristics–2001, 2006 and 2011
	Data collection: ABS Census of Population and Housing: Estimating homelessness, 2011 (available
	http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&20490do001_2011.xls&2049.0&Data
	<u>Cubes&4B</u> 192F075234A583CA257AB1001709B0&0&2011&12.11.2012&Previous— Table 5)
Figure 4.2	Title: Homeless operational groups, number of persons, by Indigenous status and sex, remoteness of usual residence, 2011
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.1)
Figure 4.3	Title: Homeless operational groups, number of persons, by Indigenous status and sex, Remoteness of usual residence, 2011
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.1)
Supporting	Title: Homeless persons, Selected characteristics—2011, 2006, 2011
text (p.62)	Data collection: ABS Census of Population and Housing: Estimating homelessness, 2011 (available
	http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&20490do001_2011.xls&20_49.0&Data
	<u>Cubes&4B192F075234A583CA257AB1001709B0&0&2011&12.11.2012&Previous</u> — Table 5)
Supporting text	Title: Homeless operational groups, number of persons, by Indigenous status and sex, remoteness of usual residence, 2011
(pp.62–63)	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) Census of Population and Housing (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.1)
Homelessness services	
Figure 4.4	Title: All clients and support periods, by State and Territory, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, Annual report 2011–12, National supplementary tables (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.2)
Figure 4.5	Title: All clients by their main reason for seeking assistance, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.10)

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Figure 4.6	Title: Housing situation: beginning and end of support, female clients aged 18 years or over and 15–17 years presenting alone
	Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, 2011-12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.2)
Figure 4.7	Title: Clients seeking assistance for accommodation and whether they had sustained accommodation at the end of support: type of accommodation support by sex by State/Territory, 18 years or over and 15–17 years presenting alone
	Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, 2011-12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.3)
Supporting	Title: All clients and support periods, by age and sex, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
text (p64)	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, Annual report 2011–12, National supplementary tables (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.1)
Supporting text (p64)	Title: All clients and support periods, by State and Territory, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
()	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, Annual report 2011–12, National supplementary tables (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.2)
Supporting text (p64)	Title: All clients by Indigenous status and age and sex, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
, ,	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, Annual report 2011–12, National supplementary tables (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.4)
Supporting text (p64)	Title: All clients by their main reason for seeking assistance, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
(60.)	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.10)
Supporting text (p64)	Title: All clients with a main reason for seeking assistance as domestic or family violence, by age and sex, 2011–12, adjusted for non-response
	Data collection: AIHW Specialist Homelessness Services Collection (available http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542534 —Table S2.11)
Supporting text (p65)	Title: Housing situation: beginning and end of support, female clients aged 18 years or over and 15–17 years presenting alone
	Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, 2011-12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.2)
Supporting text (p65)	Title: Clients seeking assistance for accommodation and whether they had sustained accommodation at the end of support: type of accommodation support by sex by State/Territory, 18 years or over and 15–17 years presenting alone
	Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) Specialist Homelessness Services Collection, 2011-12 (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Table 4.3)

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Chapter 5: Disability

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Economic par	rticipation
Figure 5.1	Title: Labour force participation rate for people with disability aged 15–64 years, all with reported disability, by sex, by State/Territory, 2009 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/reports/disability/comparing-performance-10-11/Disability_2010-11-statistical_supplement.pdf —Table NDA.1.4)
Figure 5.2	Title: Persons Aged 15–64, Living In Households, Disability status by sex and labour force status–2009 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data Cubes&130C7F83B6FDF4C0CA2579A0000D55D9&0&2009&13.02.2012&Latest —Table 12)
Supporting text (p.70)	Title: Labour force participation rate for people with disability aged 15–64 years, all with reported disability, by sex, by State/Territory, 2009 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/reports/disability/comparing-performance-10-11/Disability_2010-11-statistical_supplement.pdf —Table NDA.1.7)
Supporting text (pp.70–71)	Title: Persons Aged 15–64, Living In Households, Disability status by sex and labour force status–2009 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44300do001_2009.xls&4430.0&Data Cubes&130C7F83B6FDF4C0CA2579A0000D55D9&0&2009&13.02.2012&Latest —Table 12)
Service use a	nd unmet demand
Figure 5.3	Title: Potential population aged 0–64 years accessing State/Territory delivered disability support services (total), by sex, by age group and State/Territory, 2010–11 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —Table NDA.d.1)
Figure 5.4	Title: People aged 0–64 years in potential population who need more formal assistance than they are currently receiving, by sex, by State/Territory, 2009 Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/reports/disability/comparing-performance-10-11/Disability_2010-11-statistical_supplement.pdf —Table NDA.5.16)

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Figure 5.5	Title: People with disability (aged 15–64 years with an employment restriction) accessing Disability Employment Services/Open Employment Services (Employment Support Services and Disability Management Services), by sex, age group and State/Territory, 2010–11 Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) DS NMDS 2010–11 (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement
	FINAL.pdf—Tables NDA.d.12 and NDA.d.13)
Supporting text (p.72)	Title: Potential population aged 0–64 years accessing State/Territory delivered disability support services (total), by sex, by age group and State/Territory, 2010–11
	Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —Table NDA.d.1)
Supporting text (p.72)	Title: People aged 0–64 years in potential population who have taken action in the last twelve months to get more formal assistance but who still need more formal assistance, by sex, by State/Territory, 2009
	Data collection: ABS, Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2009 (available http://www.coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/reports/disability/comparing-performance-10-11/Disability_2010-11-statistical_supplement.pdf —Table NDA.5.1)
Supporting text (p.73)	Title: People with disability (aged 15–64 years with an employment restriction) accessing Disability Employment Services/Open Employment Services (Employment Support Services and Disability Management Services), by sex, age group and State/Territory, 2010–11
	Data collection: AIHW (unpublished) DS NMDS 2010–11 (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —Tables NDA.d.12 and NDA.d.13)

Chapter 6: Caring responsibilities

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Caring roles	
Figure 6.1	Title: Carer status by sex and by age, 2009 Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001 2009.x ls&4436.0&Data Cubes&2D94FC38FF8BE68BCA25798A000E3A5D&0&2009&20.01.2012&Latest—
Figure 6.2	Table 1) Title: Carer status by sex and by age, 2009 Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au="">

Figure 6.3	Title: Primary carers aged 15 years and over, Average time currently spent caring for main recipient of care—Sex and by relationship to main recipient of care—2009
	Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au=""> <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au=""> <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au=""> <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au=""> <a ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/aus</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 6.4</td><td>Title: Primary carers aged 15 years and over, Average time currently spent caring for main recipient of care—Sex and by relationship to main recipient of care—2009</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a ausstats="" href="lscale=" http:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x"="" lscale="ls</td></tr><tr><td>Figure 6.5</td><td>Title: Primary carers aged 15 years and over, Relationship to main recipient of care by sex by reasons for taking on caring role, 2009</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x ls&4436.0&Data http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x ls&4436.0&Data http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x ls&4436.0&Data ls&4436.0&Data http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x ls&4436.0&Data ls&4436.0&Data ls&4436.0 ls&4436.0
Supporting	Title: Carer status by sex and by age, 2009
text (pp.78–79)	Data collection: ABS Caring in the Community, Australia, 2009 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x ls&4436.0&Data <a ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a a="" ausstats="" href="https://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" https:="" log?openagent&44360do001_2009.x<="" subscriber.nsf="" www.abs.gov.au=""> <a href="https://www.abs.gov.ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log.openagent&44360do001_2009.x <a href=" ht<="" td="">
Experience of	carers
Figure 6.6	Title: Labour force participation rate for all carers and non-carers aged 15–64 years, by carer sex, by carer age group, by State/Territory, 2009
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) 2009 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —NDA.g.19)
Figure 6.7	Title: Proportion of primary carers (carers of people with disability aged 0–64 years) who experience negative impacts on their wellbeing due to caring role, by carer sex, by carer age group, by State/Territory, 2009
	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) 2009 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement_FINAL.pdf —Additional 1)
Supporting text	Title: Labour force participation rate for all carers and non-carers aged 15–64 years, by carer sex, by carer age group, by State/Territory, 2009
(pp.80–81)	Data collection: ABS (unpublished) 2009 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (available http://coagreformcouncil.gov.au/sites/default/files/files/NDA%20Statistical%20Supplement FINAL pdf NDA g 10)
	ement_FINAL.pdf—NDA.g.19)

Appendix A: Experiences of violence

Reference	Full title, data collection and notes
Experiences	of violence
Figure A.1	Title: Experience of violence during the last 12 months, by age and type of violence, violence from a partner and sex of perpetrator, 18 years and over, 2005 Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available via the ABS Gender Indicators <a ausstats="" href="http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&safety and justice.xls&4125.0&Data Cubes&85C365535F8863D1CA257BD300144311&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 1)</td></tr><tr><td>Figure A.2</td><td>Title: Experience of violence during the last 12 months, by age and type of violence, violence from a partner and sex of perpetrator, 18 years and over, 2005 Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available via the ABS Gender Indicators http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&safety and justice.xls&4125.0&Data Cubes&85C365535F8863D1CA257BD300144311&0&Aug 2013&27.08.2013&Latest—Table 1)
Figure A.3	Title: Personal Safety Survey, Australia: State Tables, 2005—Females, Experience of violence, Since the age of 15, When most recent incident occurred Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4906.0.55.0042005?OpenDocument —Table 3)
Figure A.4	Title: Experience of violence by current partner, Since the age of 15—Selected demographics Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&49060_2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latesthttp://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?open agent&49060_2005%20(reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571 D00080E985&0&2005%20(Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latest—Table 20) Title: Experience of violence by previous partner (a) , Since the age of 15—Selected demographics Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&49060_2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latesthttp://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&49060_2005%20(reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005%20(Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latest—Table 21) Title: Selected population characteristics Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&49060_2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latesthttp://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&49060_2005 (reissue).pdf&4906.0&Publication&056A404DAA576AE6CA2571D00080E985&0&2005 (Reissue)&21.08.2006&Latest—Appendix 1)

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Supporting text

(pp.87-88)

Title: Personal Safety, Australia

Data collection: ABS Personal Safety Survey, 2005 (available

http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/4430.02009?OpenDocument—

Table 3, Table 15, Table 16)

Appendix C: Contextual factors

Reference

Full title, data collection and notes

Contextual factors

C.1

Title: Estimated Resident Population, by sex, States and Territories

Data collection: ABS (2012) Australian Demographic Statistics, June quarter 2012, cat. no. 3101.0 (available at link—Table 4)

http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&31010do001 201303.xls&3101.0&Data Cubes&F4FF895F151ED7CFCA257BF100135FBC&0&Mar 2013&26.09.2013&Latest

Title: Socio-economic deciles and quintiles, persons, place of usual residence, area based SEIFA, by sex and State and Territory, 2011

Data collection: Census 2011 (socio-economic disadvantage and remoteness data extracted with Census table builder, October 2013) (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Tables C.1).

Title: Remoteness area by, persons, place of usual residence, by sex and State and Territory, 2011

Data collection: Census 2011 (socio-economic disadvantage and remoteness data extracted with Census table builder, October 2013) (available in the statistical supplement to this report, Tables C.2).

Title: Estimated resident Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population, States and Territories–5 year age groups (to 85 and over)–30 June 2011

Data collection: ABS (2013) Estimates of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians, June 2011, cat. no. 3238.0 (available at link—Table 1)

http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&3238055001d001 201106. xls&3238.0.55.001&Data Cubes&CC8CACDD2EA57C83CA257BD60010DF38&0&June 2011&30.08.2013&Latest

Title: All Persons, Disability rates by sex, State or Territory, remoteness and country of birth–2009

Data collection: ABS (2009) Disability Australia cat. no. 4446.0 (available at link—Table 1)

http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/subscriber.nsf/log?openagent&44460do001_2009.xls&4446.0&Data

Cubes&E08A1AE9402E778BCA257881001642F2&0&2009&02.05.2011&Previous

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Appendix C Contextual information

Table C.1 provides contextual population data relevant to *Tracking equity: Comparing outcomes for women and girls across Australia.*

Table C.1 Key contextual factors, by State and Territory

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	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Total population (%)									
In each State and Territory (2012)	32.1	24.8	20.1	10.7	7.3	2.3	1.7	1.0	100
In most disadvantaged areas (2011)	22.8	16.8	18.5	12.5	23.4	31.6	2.0	27.6	19.3
In remote and very remote areas (2011)	0.5	0.1	3.0	6.9	3.7	2.1	N/A	44.2	2.3
Indigenous persons in each State and Territory (2011)	2.9	0.9	4.2	3.8	2.3	4.7	1.7	29.8	3.0
With disability (2009)	18.6	18.4	17.9	17.4	20.9	22.7	16.1	15.2	18.5
With profound/severe core activity limitation (2009)	5.9	6.2	5.6	4.9	6.4	6.8	4.5	4.0	5.8
	Femal	e and m	nale pop	ulation	ıs (%)				
Females in each State and Territory (2012)	50.4	50.5	50.1	49.5	50.5	50.2	50.2	47.5	50.2
Males in each State and Territory (2012)	49.6	49.5	49.9	50.5	49.5	49.8	49.8	52.5	49.8
Females as proportion of Australian population (2012)	32.2	24.9	20.1	10.6	7.3	2.3	1.7	1.0	100
Males as a proportion of the Australian population (2012)	32.1	24.6	20.2	10.9	7.3	2.3	1.7	1.1	100
Females in most disadvantaged socio- economic areas (2011)	23.1	16.9	18.8	12.7	23.5	32.0	1.9	28.6	19.6
Males in most disadvantaged socio-economic areas (2011)	22.6	16.7	18.3	12.3	23.2	31.2	2.2	26.6	19.1
Proportion of female population that is Indigenous (2011)	3.0	0.9	4.4	4.0	2.3	4.9	1.6	45.6	3.1

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Proportion of male population that is Indigenous (2011)	3.0	0.9	4.4	3.8	2.3	5.0	1.8	39.6	3.1
Proportion of female population in remote and very remote areas (2011)	0.5	0.1	2.8	6.0	3.4	2.0	N/A	42.8	2.1
Proportion of male population in remote and very remote areas (2011)	0.6	0.1	3.2	7.9	3.9	2.2	N/A	41.6	2.5
Females with disability (2009)	18.7	19.3	17.5	18.3	21.9	22.3	17.8	13.7	18.9
Males with disability (2009)	18.5	17.4	18.2	16.5	19.8	23.2	14.4	16.7	18.1
Females with profound/severe core activity limitation (2009)	6.7	6.6	6.0	5.8	7.4	7.0	5.3	4.3	6.5
Males with profound/severe core activity limitation (2009)	5.2	5.8	5.1	3.9	5.3	6.5	3.7	3.8	5.2

Source: ABS and Census—see Appendix B

Appendix D Terms used in this report

Accommodation services disassuita AIHW Australia	vices that provide accommodation to people with disability and vices that provide the support needed to enable people with bility to remain in their existing accommodation or move to more able or appropriate accommodation. tralian Institute of Health and Welfare
	tralian Institute of Health and Welfare
D (
	ers to the All Ordinaries Index comprising the 500 largest urities listed on the ASX and the constituents are not screened for dity.
At risk of long term harm from alcohol to the	ned as no more than two standard drinks on any day, according to 2009 National Health and Medical Research Guidelines. Men women are identified 'at risk of long term harm from alcohol' if have an average of more than two standard drinks per day in the week.
Boarding hollege	ers to people living in boarding houses for the homeless (not lents, religious orders or hospitals).
(.Δ(.Ρ	nmunity aged care packages. Providing a low level of community ed care.
Carer a pe	ne Disability chapter of this report we use the term carer to refer to erson caring for someone with a disability who lives with the carer. her information about the definitions for carers and primary carers ublished in the statistical supplement to this report on our website.
Census Cen	sus of Population and Housing
	Chief Executive Officer is the corporate executive responsible for rations of an organisation
Chair	Chair of the board is the highest ranking individual in a spany's board of directors
COAG Cou	ncil of Australian Governments
COUNTRY OF DIFTE	Census records a person's country of birth, using the current nes of countries.
Carer of he	erson of any age who provides any informal assistance, in terms elp or supervision, to persons with disabilities or long-term ditions or persons who are elderly (aged 60 years or over).

Community access	Services which are designed to provide opportunities for people with disability to gain and use their abilities to enjoy their full potential for social independence. People who do not attend school or who are not employed full-time mainly use these services.
Community support	Services that provide the support needed for a person with disability to live in a non-institutional setting (not including support with the basic needs of living such as meal preparation and dressing included under accommodation support).
Couch surfing	Refers to people who do not have fixed tenure but are staying temporarily with other households.
Disadvantaged area	See 'most disadvantaged area' or 'least disadvantaged area'.
Directors	Directors are those holding a seat on the board, including executive and non-executive members but excluding alternate directors.
Disability	Any activity limitation, restriction or impairment that restricts everyday activities and lasts longer than six months. Information on how the term is defined for specific measures in this report can be found in the statistical supplement published on our website.
EACH	Extended Aged Care at Home. Providing high level community aged care for people able to be cared for in their homes.
EACHD	Extended Aged Care at Home Dementia. Providing high level community aged care for people with dementia who are able to be cared for in their homes.
Executive roles	See Key management personnel.
Formal child care	Organised care provided by a person other than the child's parent or guardian, usually outside of the child's home—for example, centre based long day care, family day care, outside school hours care, vacation care and occasional care (excluding babysitting).
Higher level qualifications	Certificate III or above.
Homelessness	 This report follows the ABS definition of homelessness: when a person does not have suitable accommodation alternatives they are considered homeless if their current living arrangement: is in a dwelling that is inadequate, or has no tenure, or if their initial tenure is short and not extendable, or does not allow them to have control of, and access to space for social relations.
IGA	Intergovernmental Agreement on Federal Financial Relations, the overarching framework for the Commonwealth's financial relations with the States and Territories. The NAHA is an agreement under the IGA.

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Indigenous	We use the terms 'Indigenous', 'Indigenous Australians' and 'Indigenous people' to refer to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.
Key management personnel	The Australian Securities Exchange (ASX) 500 companies report women in who form part of the executive key management personnel—'persons having authority and responsibility for planning, directing and controlling the activities of the entity, directly or indirectly, including any director (whether executive or otherwise) of that entity' (Australian Accounting Standard AASB 124). Executive positions have been classified in the 2012 Australian Census of Women in Leadership as either line or support roles: • Line roles—where the individual has direct responsibility for the profit and loss or client service, and are seen as essential for rising to the most powerful positions in the company (for example; CEO, Chief Financial Officer, Business unit head – function or region, sales, markets, production, manufacturing). • Support roles—all other key management personnel role, including where an individual has responsibility for a corporate service that indirectly contributes to the success of the company (for example; legal, company secretary, strategy and business development, human resources, IT, communication, finance and tax, risk and compliance).
Labour force participation rate	The proportion of the population in paid work or actively looking for paid work—those employed plus those unemployed.
Least disadvantaged area	We use the term 'least disadvantaged area' to refer to the 20% least disadvantaged areas, according to the ABS SEIFA.
Levels of exercise	Level of exercise is based on frequency, intensity (ie walking, moderate exercise and vigorous exercise) and duration of exercise (for fitness, recreation or sport). From these components, an exercise score was derived using factors to represent the intensity of the exercise: 3.5 for walking; 5.0 for moderate exercise; 7.5 for vigorous exercise. Scores were grouped into the following categories: Very low: score less than 100 Low: score of 100 to less than 1600 Moderate: score of 1600 to 3200 or score of more than 3200 but with less than 2 hours of vigorous exercise High: score of more than 3200 plus 2 hours or more of vigorous exercise. The Australian Health Survey collects information on the level of exercise undertaken during one week prior to interview.
Low socio- economic background	We use the term 'low socio-economic background' to refer to students whose parents' highest education level is Year 11 or below.

Most	We use the term 'most disadvantaged area' to refer to the 20% most
disadvantaged area	disadvantaged areas, according to the ABS SEIFA.
NAPLAN	NAPLAN stands for National Assessment Program—Literacy and Numeracy. It is Australia's national annual testing program for students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9. The tests cover skills in reading, writing, spelling, grammar and punctuation and numeracy.
Non-managerial employees	Employees who are not managerial employees including non- managerial professionals and some employees with supervisory responsibilities.
Obesity	Measured using Body Mass Index (BMI) values, derived from measured height and weight information, using the formula: weight (kg) /height $(m)^2$. Obesity for adults is defined as BMI equal to or greater than 30. For example, a woman 165cm tall, who weighs 82kg or above has a BMI in the 'obese' category.
Ordinary-time cash earnings	Payments for award, standard or agreed hours of work, including allowances, penalty payments, payments by measured result and regular bonuses. Salary sacrifice amounts are included. Excluded are non-cash components of salary packages, overtime payments, and payments not related to the survey reference period, such as retrospective pay, pay in advance, leave loadings, and severance pay and termination and redundancy payments.
Other temporary lodging	Primarily refers to people staying in hotels, motels, etc. who have no usual address.
Overweight	Measured using Body Mass Index (BMI) values, derived from measured height and weight information, using the formula: weight (kg)/height (m) ² . Overweight for adults is defined as BMI equal to 25 but less than 30. For example, a woman 165cm tall, who weighs between 68kg and 81kg has a BMI in the 'overweight' category.
Preschool services	Comprises services that deliver early childhood education programs provided by a qualified teacher that are aimed at children in the year before they commence full time schooling, although different starting ages occur across jurisdictions.
Primary carers	A person aged 15 years and over who provides the most informal assistance, in terms of help or supervision, to a person aged 0-64 years with one or more disabilities or a person aged 60 years and over. The assistance has to be ongoing, or likely to be ongoing, for at least six months and be provided for one or more of the core activities (communication, mobility and self-care).
Psychological distress	Measured using the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale-10 (K10), a scale of non-specific psychological distress. Levels of psychological distress for Indigenous respondents are measured using a modified five-level version of the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K5).

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Residential aged care	Residential aged care homes provide full time care in purpose-built aged care homes owned by the care provider.
Respite	Services providing a short-term and time-limited break for families and other voluntary caregivers of people with disability, to assist in supporting and maintaining the primary care-giving relationship, while providing a positive experience for the person with disability.
Rough sleeping	Refers to people who are living in improvised dwellings, tents or sleeping out. This is the most readily recognised form of homelessness.
SCRGSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision, an intergovernmental committee, supported by a Secretariat within the Productivity Commission. Under the IGA, the Steering Committee is responsible for compiling and supplying performance information for the COAG Reform Council's reports.
Sedentary and low exercise levels	Sedentary and low exercise levels are inadequate exercise levels. Sedentary refers to sitting in one place for extended periods of time.
SEIFA	Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) ranks areas in Australia according to relative socio-economic disadvantage. It is a general measure of relative socio-economic disadvantage that captures more information than income alone.
Severe overcrowding	Refers to people who are living in dwellings that need four or more extra bedrooms to accommodate the occupants adequately, as determined by the Canadian National Occupancy Standard.
Significant	The term 'significant' is used to say that a difference or change is not due to chance. There are various tests for significance. The word 'significant' is not used outside this statistical meaning.
Specialist Homelessness Services (SHS)	See Supported accommodation
Supported accommodation	Refers to people living in supported accommodation for the homeless supplied by State and Territory governments.
Sustained accommodation	Sustained accommodation is defined as being a house, townhouse or flat where the client had tenure and where the client did not present again at a specialist homelessness agency within 30 days of seeking accommodation assistance.
Temporary accommodation	At points in this report, we have grouped supported accommodation, boarding houses, and other temporary lodging (all of which are defined above) under the heading of temporary accommodation.

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About the COAG Reform Council

The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) established the COAG Reform Council as part of the arrangements for federal financial relations to assist COAG to drive its reform agenda. Independent of individual governments, we report directly to COAG on reforms of national significance that require cooperative action by Australian governments.

Our mission is to assist COAG to drive its reform agenda by strengthening the public accountability of governments through independent and evidence based assessment and performance reporting.

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