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The Productivity Commission acts as the Secretariat for the Steering Committee.

Secretariat

Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision

Productivity Commission

LB 2 Collins Street East Post Office

Melbourne VIC 8003

Level 28

35 Collins Street

Melbourne VIC 3000

Telephone: 03 9653 2100 or Freecall: 1800 020 083

Facsimile: 03 9653 2359

E-mail: gsp@pc.gov.au

<http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp>

Suggestions:

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

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Foreword

This is the tenth edition of the Report on Government Services. The first was published in 1995, following an historic agreement by Heads of Government in July 1993. Much has been achieved in the intervening years.

The first Report effectively set the baseline for subsequent reporting. It contained data on the efficiency and effectiveness of government services in the areas of public housing, school education, vocational education and training, police, courts administration, corrective services, and child protection and support.

The breadth and depth of reporting have developed considerably since then. For example, in the area of health, the Review now also reports on primary and community health, and the management of breast cancer and mental health; in the community services area, it reports on aged care, services for people with a disability and children's services. The housing chapter now includes reporting on community housing and State-owned and managed Indigenous housing.

Following advice from the Prime Minister in 1997, the Review has increased its reporting on Indigenous Australians across all service areas. Since 2003 a separate Compendium of data on services to Indigenous people has been published. In an important new initiative, the Council of Australian Governments has also commissioned the Review to produce a regular report on indicators of Indigenous disadvantage, to provide a consistent basis for assessing outcomes and progress over time. The first of these, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: key indicators* was produced in November 2003; the next report will be released in May 2005.

The past ten years have not just seen the Report grow greatly in size. The Review's Steering Committee has also striven to make it a better and more useful resource for governments. In particular, to discharge the Review's function of facilitating assessments of performance over time and across jurisdictions, the accuracy, consistency and comparability of data in the Report have been targeted for continual refinement.

In a recent feedback survey of users, 92 per cent of central agency respondents considered the Report 'important' for evaluating and formulating government policy; and 91 per cent considered it so for briefing ministers and departmental executives.

From a broader perspective, the Report has helped provide impetus for governments to work towards national approaches in data collection. In turn, this has contributed to convergence in approaches to service delivery in some areas with consequent gains in efficiency and effectiveness. It has also assisted agencies in identifying and benchmarking their services against best practice. I believe that this will be of even greater value as we strengthen the Report's focus on outcomes.

As in past volumes, the 2005 Report contains a number of improvements. These include reporting new indicators for children's services, services for people with a disability and corrective services. Reporting on Indigenous Australians has improved for aspects of education and public hospital services.

Not all areas of reporting have progressed as well as they should, however. In particular, given its social and economic importance, and the potential to collect useful data, reporting on school education continues to fall short. For example, improvements in the scope and timeliness of data relating to literacy and numeracy foreshadowed in the 2004 Report have not eventuated. Also, expected new reporting on student performance in primary science was not available this year. There is clearly scope to do better.

As always, the production of this Report has depended on the active cooperation and support of many people from a range of government departments and agencies. Special thanks are due to the members of the many workings groups who provide the 'engine room' for the Review. Statistical bodies — in particular, the Australian Bureau of Statistics and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare — provided invaluable advice and assistance. And the Review's Secretariat in the Productivity Commission has continued to do a sterling job.

I would like to thank everyone involved for their contribution to this important joint undertaking over the past decade and I look forward to further advances in coming years.

Gary Banks
Chairman

January 2005

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This Report is in two volumes: *Volume 1* contains Part A (Introduction), Part B (Education), Part C (Justice), Part D (Emergency Management) and the CD-ROM attachment; *Volume 2* contains Part E (Health), Part F (Community Services), Part G (Housing) and Appendix A (the descriptive statistics appendix).

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Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision

This Report was produced under the direction of the Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision (SCRGSP). The Steering Committee comprises the following current members:

Mr Gary Banks	Chairman	Productivity Commission
Ms Kathryn Campbell	Aust. Govt.	Department of Finance and Administration
Mr Michael Willcock	Aust. Govt.	Department of the Treasury
Ms Joanna Davidson	Aust. Govt.	Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet
Mr Mark Ronsisvalle	NSW	Department of Treasury
Ms Leigh Sanderson	NSW	The Cabinet Office
Ms Pam Williams	Vic	Department of the Premier and Cabinet
Ms Kathleen Charles	Vic	Department of Treasury and Finance
Ms Anna Moynihan	Qld	Department of the Premier and Cabinet
Mr Ken Sedgwick	Qld	Department of Treasury
Mrs Petrice Judge	WA	Department of the Premier and Cabinet
Mr Timothy Marney	WA	Department of Treasury and Finance
Mr David Imber	SA	Department of Treasury and Finance
Mr Martin Brine	SA	Department of Premier and Cabinet
Ms Rebekah Burton	Tas	Department of Premier and Cabinet
Ms Susan Killion	ACT	Chief Minister's Department

Mr Tony Stubbin	NT	NT Treasury
Dr Rolf Gerritsen	NT	Department of the Chief Minister
Ms Susan Linacre		Australian Bureau of Statistics

People who have also served on the Steering Committee during the production of this Report include:

Mr Glenn Poole	Qld	Department of Treasury
Ms Louisa Pink	Qld	Department of the Premier and Cabinet
Mr Phillip Mussared	Tas	Department of Treasury and Finance
Ms Nicola Best	NT	Department of the Chief Minister
Mr Andrew Rice	ACT	Chief Minister's Department

Acronyms and abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACAP	Aged Care Assessment Program
ACAT	Aged Care Assessment Team
ACCCHS	Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Service
ACHS	Australian Council on Healthcare Standards
ACIR	Australian Childhood Immunisation Register
ACPR	Australian Centre for Policing Research
ACSAA	Aged Care Standards and Accreditation Agency
ACSQHC	Australian Council for Safety and Quality in Health Care
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
AFAC	Australasian Fire Authorities Council
AFP	Australian Federal Police
AGCCCS	Australian Government Census of Child Care Services
AGPAL	Australian General Practice Accreditation Limited
AHCA	Australian Health Care Agreements
AIC	Australian Institute of Criminology
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ANTA MINCO	Australian National Training Authority Ministerial Council
ANTA	Australian National Training Authority
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
AR-DRG	Australian refined diagnosis related group
ARHP	Aboriginal Rental Housing Program
ARIA	Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia
ASGC	Australian Standard Geographical Classification
ATSIC	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission

ATSIS	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Services
Aust	Australia
AVETMISS	Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard
BEACH	Bettering the Evaluation and Care of Health
CAA	Convention of Ambulance Authorities
CACP	Community Aged Care Package (program)
CAD	computer aided dispatch
CD ARIA Plus	Census District Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia (upgraded version)
CD-ROM	Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CHINS	Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey
CI	confidence interval
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CRA	Commonwealth Rent Assistance
CRS	Commonwealth Rehabilitation Services
CSDA	Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement
CSDMAC	Community Services and Disabilities Ministers' Advisory Council
CSHA	Commonwealth State Housing Agreement
CSTDA	Commonwealth State/Territory Disability Agreement
Cwlth	Commonwealth
DCIS	Ductal carcinoma in situ
DEA	data envelopment analysis
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DFaCS	Department of Family and Community Services
DHA	Department of Health and Ageing
DOTARS	Department of Transport and Regional Services
DSE	Department of Sustainability and Environment
DVA	Department of Veterans' Affairs
EACH	Extended Aged Care at Home (program)

EBA	Enterprise Bargaining Agreement
EMA	Emergency Management Australia
EPC	Enhanced Primary Care
ERP	estimated resident populations
ESL	Emergency Services Levy
ESO	emergency service organisation
FDCQA	Family Day Care Quality Assurance
FESA	Fire and Emergency Services Authority of WA
FRS	Fire and Rescue Service
FTE	full time equivalent
FWE	full time workload equivalent
GDP	gross domestic product
GP	general practitioner
GST	goods and services tax
HACC	Home and Community Care (program)
HbA1c	glycated haemoglobin
HMAC	Housing Ministers' Advisory Committee
HRSCEET	House of Representatives Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training
ICD-10-AM	Australian modification of the International Standard Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, version 10.
IHANT	Indigenous Housing Authority of the NT
IMP	Information Management Plan (SAAP)
ITAB	Industry Training Advisory Bodies
JJNMDS	Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set
K10	Kessler – 10 scale
KiDS	Key Information Directory System (NSW)
LBOTE	Language background other than English
LMO	local medical officer
LSI	Likert Summation Index

MAB	Management Advisory Board
MBS	Medicare Benefits Schedule
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MDS	minimum data set
NCAC	National Childcare Accreditation Council
NCAG	National Corrections Advisory Group
NCPASS	National Child Protection and Support Services
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research
NDCA	National Data Collection Agency
NESB	non-English speaking background
NFD	not further defined
NHCDC	National Hospital Cost Data Collection
NIDP	National Information Development Plan
NMDS	national minimum data set
NMHS	National Mental Health Strategy
NOOSR	National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition
NRCP	National Respite for Carers Program
NSCSP	National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing
NSMHS	National Survey of Mental Health Services
NSW	New South Wales
NT	Northern Territory
OMP	other medical practitioner
OSHCQA	Outside School Hours Care Quality Assurance
PBS	Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme
PIP	Practice Incentives Program
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
QFRS	Queensland Fire and Rescue Service
QIAS	Quality Improvement and Accreditation System
Qld	Queensland

QPA	Quality Practice Accreditation
RACGP	Royal Australian College of General Practitioners
RCS	Resident Classification Scale
RRMA	Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Areas
RSE	relative standard error
RTO	Registered Training Organisation
SA	South Australia
SAAP	Supported Accommodation Assistance Program
SAAS	SA Ambulance Service
SAR	service activity reporting
SCRCSSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision
SCRGSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision
SDA	service delivery area
SE	standard error
SES/TES	State Emergency Service/Territory Emergency Service
SLA	statistical local area
SMART	SAAP Management and Reporting Tool
TAFE	technical and further education
Tas	Tasmania
UCC	user cost of capital
ULN	upper limit of normal
VET	vocational education and training
VHC	Veterans' Home Care
Vic	Victoria
WA	Western Australia
WHO	World Health Organisation

Glossary

Definitions of indicators and other terms can also be found at the end of each chapter.

Access A reflection of how easily the community can obtain a delivered service (output).

Appropriateness Measures how well services meet client needs and also seek to identify the extent of any underservicing or overservicing.

Capability In the context of the health performance framework, the capacity of an organisation, program or individual to provide health care services based on appropriate skills and knowledge (see the ‘Health preface’).

Constant prices See ‘real dollars’.

Continuity In the context of the health performance framework, the provision of uninterrupted, timely, coordinated healthcare, interventions and actions across programs, practitioners and organisations (see the ‘Health preface’).

Cost effectiveness A measure of how well inputs (such as employees, cars and computers) are converted into outcomes for individual clients or the community. Cost effectiveness is expressed as a ratio of inputs to outcomes. For example, cost per life year saved is a cost effectiveness indicator reflecting the ratio of expenditure on breast cancer detection and management services (including mammographic screening services, primary care, chemotherapy, surgery and other forms of care) to the number of women’s lives that are saved.

Current prices See ‘nominal dollars’.

Descriptors	Descriptive statistics included in the Report that relate to the size of the service system, funding arrangements, client mix and the environment within which government services are delivered. These data are provided to highlight and make more transparent the differences among jurisdictions.
Effectiveness	A reflection of how well the outputs of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service (also see program effectiveness).
Efficiency	A reflection of how resources are used to produce outputs and outcomes, expressed as a ratio of inputs to outputs (technical efficiency), or inputs to outcomes (cost effectiveness). (Also see ‘cost effectiveness’ and ‘technical efficiency’.)
Equity	Equity indicators reflect the gap between service delivery outputs or outcomes for special needs groups and the general population. Equity of access relates to all Australians having <i>adequate</i> access to services, where the term <i>adequate</i> may mean different rates of access for different groups in the community (see chapter 1, box 1.5 for more detail).
Inputs	The resources (including land, labour and capital) used by a service area in providing the service.
Nominal dollars	Refers to financial data expressed ‘in the price of the day’ and which is not adjusted to remove the effects of inflation. Nominal dollars do not allow for inter-year comparisons because reported changes may reflect changes to financial levels (prices and/or expenditure) and adjustments to maintain purchasing power due to inflation.
Output	The service provided by a service area — for example, a completed episode of care is an output of a public hospital.

Outcome	The impact of the service on the status of individuals or a group. A service provider can influence an outcome but external factors can also apply. A desirable outcome for a school, for example, would be to add to the ability of the students to participate in, and interact with, society throughout their lives. Similarly, a desirable outcome for a hospital would be to improve the health status of an individual receiving a hospital service.
Process	The way in which a service is produced or delivered.
Program effectiveness	Reflects how well the outcomes of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service (also see effectiveness).
Quality	Reflects the extent to which a service is suited to its purpose and conforms to specifications.
Real dollars	Refers to financial data measured in prices from a constant base year to adjust for the effects of inflation. Real dollars allow the inter-year comparison of financial levels (prices and/or expenditure) by holding the purchasing power constant.
Responsiveness	In the context of the health performance framework, the provision of services that are client oriented and respectful of clients' dignity, autonomy, confidentiality, amenity, choices, and social and cultural needs (see the 'Health preface').
Safety	In the context of the health performance framework, the avoidance, or reduction to acceptable levels, of actual or potential harm from health care services, management or environments, and the prevention or minimisation of adverse events associated with health care delivery (see the 'Health preface').
Sustainability	In the context of the health performance framework, the capacity to provide infrastructure (such as workforce, facilities and equipment), be innovative and respond to emerging needs (see the 'Health preface').

Technical efficiency

A measure of how well inputs (such as employees, cars and computers) are converted into service outputs (such as hospital separations, education classes or residential aged care places). Technical efficiency reflects the ratio of outputs to inputs. It is affected by the size of operations and by managerial practices. There is scope to improve technical efficiency if there is potential to increase the quantity of outputs produced from given quantities of inputs, or if there is potential to reduce the quantities of inputs used in producing a certain quantity of outputs.

Unit costs

Average cost — an indicator of efficiency, as used throughout this Report.

Terms of reference

The Review, to be conducted by a joint Commonwealth/State and Territory Government working party, is to undertake the following:

- establish the collection and publication of data that will enable ongoing comparisons of the efficiency and effectiveness of Commonwealth and State Government services, including intra-government services. This will involve:
 - establishing performance indicators for different services which would assist comparisons of efficiency and effectiveness. The measures should, to the maximum extent possible, focus on the cost effectiveness of service delivery, as distinct from policy considerations that determine the quality and level of services; and
 - collecting and publishing data that are consistent with these measures. The Review should also address the procedures for the ongoing collection and publication of benchmark data; and
- compile and assess service provision reforms that have been implemented or are under consideration by Commonwealth and State Governments.

The Review will cover all major types of reform, including those involving the separation of policy development from service provision. Case studies of particular reforms could be provided where appropriate.

The Review will need to keep abreast of developments in other relevant reviews and working parties, including the Commonwealth/State Government working party (initiated by the Council of Australian Governments) investigating Commonwealth/State Government roles and responsibilities.

1 The approach to performance measurement

1.1 Aims of the Review

Heads of government established the Review of Government Service Provision (the Review) to provide information on the effectiveness and efficiency of government services in Australia (see terms of reference, p. xxii). A Steering Committee, comprising senior representatives from the central agencies of all governments, manages the Review with the assistance of a Secretariat provided by the Productivity Commission. The Review was established under the auspices of the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) in 1993 to:

- provide ongoing comparisons of the performance of government services
- report on service provision reforms that governments have implemented or that are under consideration.

The Report on Government Services, now in its tenth edition, is a tool for government. It has been used for strategic budget and policy planning, and for policy evaluation. Information in the Report has been used to assess the resource needs and resource performance of departments. It has also been used to identify jurisdictions with whom to share information on services.

The data in this Report can also provide an incentive to improve the performance of government services, by:

- enhancing measurement approaches and techniques in relation to aspects of performance, such as unit costs and service quality
- helping jurisdictions identify where there is scope for improvement
- promoting greater transparency and informed debate about comparative performance.

In May 2004, a survey of users and producers of the Report was undertaken (previous surveys were conducted in 1998 and 2001). The response rate for the survey was relatively low but the survey findings provide meaningful feedback on how the Report is performing. Some key findings are outlined in box 1.1.

Box 1.1 Key results of the 2004 feedback survey on the Report on Government Services

In May 2004, a survey of users of, and contributors to, the Report on Government Services was undertaken to obtain feedback on how the Report is being used and the extent to which the Report meets the objectives of the Review. Central and line agency respondents used the Report for evaluating and formulating government policy, evaluating and demonstrating resource needs, and briefing ministers, members of Parliament and departmental executives. Central agency respondents were more likely than line agency respondents to consider the Report important for these purposes. In particular, 100 per cent of respondents from central agencies considered the Report important for evaluating and demonstrating the performance of line agencies in the delivery of services, compared with 73 per cent of line agency respondents.

Over 95 per cent of the respondents rated the Report as 'adequate' or 'better' on a range of criteria — usefulness, credibility, relevance and objectivity. The responses on timeliness (85 per cent) and comparability (80 per cent) were lower.

The Steering Committee will use the survey results to look at ways of improving the Report.

In 2002, COAG asked the Steering Committee to prepare a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage as part of the COAG reconciliation commitment. The first edition of this report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003* (the Indigenous Disadvantage Report) (SCRGSP 2003), was released in November 2003. In contrast to the Report on Government Services with its focus on efficiency and effectiveness, the Indigenous Disadvantage Report focuses on outcomes for Indigenous people. It does not report on individual government services. The reporting framework has two tiers: 'headline' indicators for the longer term outcomes sought; and a second tier of 'strategic areas for action' indicators that are potentially responsive to government policies and programs. The 2003 Indigenous Disadvantage Report is included on the CD-ROM that accompanies the Report on Government Services, and can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp).

1.2 The role of government in delivering services

All services included in the Report on Government Services affect the community in significant ways. Some services form an important part of the nation's social welfare system (for example, public housing), some are provided to people with specific needs (for example, aged care and disability services), while others are typically used by each person in the community at some stage during their life (for example, school education, police services and emergency services).

More generally, the services that governments deliver are largely concerned with:

- providing ‘public goods’,¹ including:
 - creating a legal framework that determines the rules for ownership of property and the operation of markets (for example, enforcing property rights, checking abuses of power and upholding the rule of law) — a framework that encompasses the work of the courts, police and corrective services agencies in maintaining law and order
 - managing adverse events, including the work of emergency services (such as fire and flood control) and some aspects of the health system
- enabling higher or more equitable availability and consumption of those services that governments consider to have particular merits or to generate beneficial spillover effects² for the community. Examples include education, health services, ambulance services, community services and housing.

How governments deliver services

Governments use a mix of methods to deliver services to the community, including:

- providing the services themselves (a ‘provider’ role)
- managing and funding external providers through grants or the purchase of services (a ‘purchaser’ role)
- subsidising users (through vouchers or cash payments) who then purchase services from external providers
- creating community service obligations on public and private providers
- reducing tax obligations in particular circumstances (known as ‘tax expenditures’).

1.3 Reasons for measuring comparative performance

Government services, including the services covered in this Report, are vital to the community’s wellbeing. Improving them can result in major social and economic

¹ Public goods are those where one person’s consumption does not reduce consumption by others, and where it is not possible to exclude individuals from access (for example, national defence). These goods tend not to be produced in private markets because people can consume the good without paying for them.

² In private markets, the production of services that result in spillover effects tends to be lower than is desirable for society as a whole because individuals cannot appropriate the wider benefits to society.

benefits. Governments are continually re-evaluating whether the community is receiving the appropriate service mix and whether the services are reaching those most in need. Moreover, governments need to know whether their policies are effective, being implemented efficiently and reaching those people for whom they are intended.

Traditionally, much of the effort to improve the effectiveness of government services has focused on increasing the level of resources devoted to them. This approach overlooks another important means of enhancing services — that is, finding better and more cost-effective ways in which to use existing resources. Productivity growth has had an important influence on living standards in Australia. During the 1990s, for example, productivity growth more than doubled, underpinning historically strong growth in average incomes (Parham 2002). Innovation (the introduction of new products or processes) can be important to productivity growth in all sectors, including government services.

Performance measurement provides one means of shifting the focus from resources (or inputs) to the use of resources to deliver desired outcomes of government services. Performance measurement can:

- provide governments with indicators of their performance over time
- make performance more transparent, allowing assessment of whether program objectives are being met
- help clarify government objectives and responsibilities
- inform the wider community about government service performance
- encourage ongoing performance improvement
- promote analysis of the relationships between agencies and between programs, allowing governments to coordinate policy within and across agencies.

The three main reasons for reporting *comparative* performance information across jurisdictions are:

- to allow agencies to identify peer agencies that are delivering better or more cost effective services from which they can learn
- to generate additional incentives for agencies to address substandard performance
- implicitly, to verify good performance and indicate whether agencies are getting it right.

Comparative data are particularly important for government services, given that limited information is available to those deciding what services to supply and to

whom. Each jurisdiction has, for example, only one police service and one protection and support service. As a result, choices are always constrained for consumers of these services, and those responsible for delivering the services do not have access to the same level of information that is available to providers in markets with more providers.

Reporting comparative performance measures facilitates interjurisdictional learning, particularly where governments have adopted different policy approaches. While no analysis of cost-effectiveness is carried out in the Report, the information contained in the Report contributes to the ability of governments to assess the cost-effectiveness of their service delivery.

Governments have considered a range of general policy approaches when deciding how to deliver services. These approaches include:

- moving from historical or input based funding to output based funding (for example, casemix funding in public hospitals in Victoria)
- separating the purchaser and provider roles for government organisations (for example, the separation of functions and corporatisation)
- outsourcing the provider roles (for example, competitive tendering for correctional services in Queensland)
- devolving and decentralising decision making on how to deliver services by government service providers (for example, devolving decision making in Victorian government schools to local school communities)
- examining alternative delivery mechanisms (for example, deinstitutionalising community services and offering direct consumer funding and choice in disability services in WA)
- examining interactions among services
- implementing user charging (for example, pricing court reporting services for Australian courts).³

Comparisons that draw on reliable performance information can help governments better understand the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, and the circumstances in which each may work best. Overall, governments now place a greater emphasis on achieving outcomes, which has been reflected in the Report's changes to its performance indicator frameworks in recent times.

³ The implementation issues associated with these types of reform are examined in SCRCSSP (1997 and 1998).

1.4 Scope

This tenth Report on Government Services contains performance information on 14 service areas (box 1.2). These government services have two important features:

- their key objectives are common or similar across jurisdictions
- they make an important contribution to the community and/or economy.

Box 1.2 Services covered in the 2004 Report

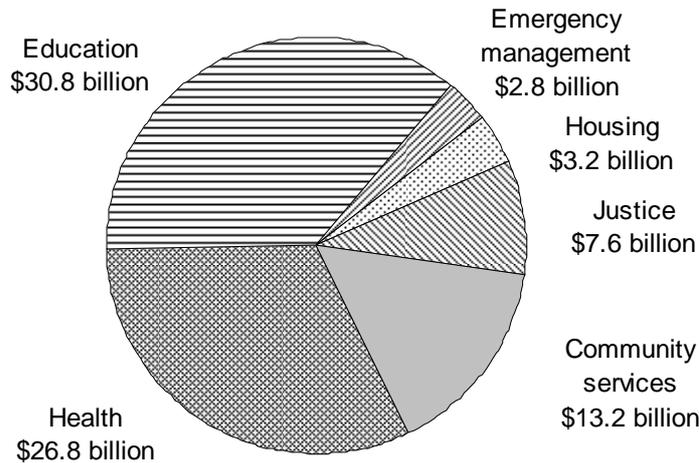
Education	— School education (chapter 3)
	— Vocational education and training (chapter 4)
Justice	— Police (chapter 5)
	— Court administration (chapter 6)
	— Corrective services (chapter 7)
Emergency management	— Fire and ambulance services (chapter 8)
Health	— Public hospitals (chapter 9)
	— Primary and community health (chapter 10)
	— Breast cancer detection and management, and specialised mental health services (chapter 11)
Community services	— Aged care services (chapter 12)
	— Services for people with a disability (chapter 13)
	— Children's services (chapter 14)
	— Protection and support services (chapter 15)
Housing	— Public and community housing, State and Territory owned and managed Indigenous housing and Commonwealth Rent Assistance (chapter 16)

The services in the Report absorb a significant level of government expenditure. While not all data here relate to the same time period, the services in this 2005 Report accounted for approximately \$84.4 billion in 2003-04 (figure 1.1), representing around 57.5 per cent of government recurrent expenditure in that year. (This is equivalent to about 10.4 per cent of gross domestic product.)

Funding from government may not meet the full cost of delivering a service to the community, and not-for-profit organisations or users may also contribute funding

and other resources. The scope of the Report, however, is confined to the cost to government, for reasons explained in box 1.3.

Figure 1.1 **Estimated government recurrent expenditure on services covered by the 2005 Report^{a, b, c}**



^a Data for 2003-04 were not available for all services. See table 2.1 in Chapter 2. ^b Community services expenditure excludes juvenile justice. ^c The estimate for health expenditure relates to only the health services discussed in the health chapters of the Report: public hospitals, primary and community health services, breast cancer screening and specialised mental health services.

Source: relevant chapters.

Box 1.3 **Cost to government and non-government organisations**

The Report provides information about the cost of services to government. Governments aim to maximise the benefit to the community from the use of government funds. Some argue that the Report should also account for the costs where non-government groups such as charities, not-for-profit organisations, private providers and users contribute resources for the services covered by the Report. Although the contributions of these other groups are not negligible, the purpose of the Report is to provide information to assist government decision making. The information required depends on the type of assessment needed to support a decision. When government provides the service directly, it may wish to assess the internal management of the service. On other occasions, it may wish to assess whether to provide the service directly or to purchase, part fund or subsidise the service. Alternatively, it may wish to assess from which organisation to purchase the service.

(Continued on next page)

Box 1.3 (Continued)

If a government provides services directly, then it is accountable for all resources used. The Report thus aims to include the full costs of providing the service. When focusing on government decision making in the role of direct service provider, the Report aims to compare the full cost to government of service delivery, including the cost of capital (where possible) in each State and Territory. This approach allows governments to compare the internal management of their services with that of their counterparts in other jurisdictions.

The Report also includes information on the cost to government of services delivered in other ways, including through funding to government and non-government service providers. This information can assist governments in assessing their purchase decisions. This Report has not sought to facilitate comparisons between the internal management of government providers and that of non-government providers, and there would be difficulties in collecting data to make such comparisons. As a result, there is no attempt to compare the full cost of delivery by non-government organisations with the full cost of delivery by government service providers. Consequently, for services delivered by non-government agencies, this Report emphasises the costs to government, along with outputs, outcomes and service quality.

Sometimes, a private organisation will offer to deliver a service at a lower price to government than that offered by an equivalent government provider, even though it may use at least as many resources as the government provider. This situation can typically arise for not-for-profit organisations such as charities, which may be able to charge less because they operate the service as an adjunct to another activity or because they have access to resources that are not costed at market rates (such as donations, church buildings and volunteers).

This Report examines the performance of the service elements for which government is responsible and accountable. The focus is on reporting performance information on the effectiveness and efficiency of government expenditure, linked to the purchase or supply of specific services rather than to general government income support. The Report thus covers aged care but not the aged pension, disability services but not disability pensions, and children's services but not family payments (although descriptive information on income support is provided in some cases). Commonwealth Rent Assistance is reported on the basis that it is a targeted payment to assist in the purchase of housing services, and is not general income support (chapter 16).

1.5 Approach

The Report includes performance comparisons, based on a common method, across jurisdictions for a range of services. This approach has the following benefits:

- The use of a common method across services leads to a data set that is a convenient and useful resource for people interested in more than one service area.
- There are opportunities to share insights into approaches to performance assessment across services.
- Progress in performance reporting in any one service area is demonstrated to reinforce what is possible and to encourage improved reporting by other services.
- There is the capacity to efficiently address issues that arise across all service areas (for example, how to measure timeliness, how to assess other aspects of quality, and how to cost superannuation).
- There is an opportunity to assess the full breadth of consequences to service areas of issues that have an impact on (or are affected by) multiple service areas. An example is recidivism and the various elements of justice services: a reduction in recidivism may be achieved by an increased allocation of resources in one service area — say, corrective services — but with a potentially greater saving achieved in other service areas — say, police and the courts.

A number of the services covered by the Report are also subject to other comparative performance measurement across jurisdictions. Advantages of the approach taken in the Report are:

- a focus on non-technical information, making it accessible to non-specialists
- the regular publication of the Report, allowing monitoring of performance over time
- the compilation of performance reporting across a number of service areas in the one document, facilitating the sharing of insights across service areas.

Guiding principles

The aim of the Report is to provide objective government performance information to facilitate informed policy judgments and sound outcomes. The following guiding principles apply.

-
- *A focus on outcomes* — performance indicators should focus on outcomes from the provision of government services, reflecting whether service objectives have been met.
 - *Comprehensiveness* — the performance indicator framework should be as comprehensive as possible, assessing performance against all important objectives.
 - *Comparability* — data should be comparable across jurisdictions wherever possible. Reporting comparable information is a high priority of the Review and is related to progressive data availability. Where data are not yet comparable across jurisdictions, time series analysis is particularly important. Time series comparisons have been made where possible to add another dimension to performance reporting.
 - *Progressive data availability* — while the ultimate aim is comparable data for all jurisdictions, progress may differ across jurisdictions, so data are generally presented for those jurisdictions that can currently report (rather than waiting until the data are available for all jurisdictions).
 - *Timeliness* — data published in the Report need to be as recent as possible to retain relevance for decision makers. In some cases, there may be a tradeoff between the accuracy and timely availability of data, because recent data might have had fewer opportunities to undergo validation.

Where possible, the approach taken in the Report is to use acceptable (albeit imperfect) indicators that are already in use or available in Australia or internationally. Adopting these indicators can lower the costs of, and reduce delays in, reporting performance. Although the Steering Committee values time series data as a means of evaluating developments in service delivery, performance indicators may change from one Report to the next when better or more appropriate performance indicators are developed.

While the Report does not establish best practice benchmarks, the information in the Report could be used to help jurisdictions identify appropriate benchmarks (box 1.4).

The new performance indicator framework

The Steering Committee developed a new general framework for performance indicators in 2002 and this framework has now been implemented in all chapters. The new approach reflects governments' adoption of accrual accounting and depicts the Review's focus on outcomes, consistent with demand by governments for

outcome oriented performance information. The new framework also accentuates the importance of equity and draws out the distinction between equity and access.

Box 1.4 Benchmarking

Benchmarking service delivery is a systematic process of searching for and encouraging the introduction of best practice in the use of scarce resources, so as to deliver more efficient and effective services. The three main forms of benchmarking are: (1) results benchmarking (comparing performance within and between organisations using performance indicators of effectiveness and efficiency), (2) process benchmarking (analysing systems, activities and tasks that turn resource inputs and outputs into outcomes) and (3) setting best practice standards (establishing goals and standards to which organisations can aspire).

Benchmarking typically involves a number of steps. Whatever the chosen approach or focus, the steps usually include:

- deciding why, when, and what to benchmark
- analysing plans and performance (reviewing objectives and identifying performance indicators and own performance)
- establishing benchmarking partners
- obtaining the data and analysing differences
- identifying best practices and the most useful improvements
- implementing improvements in practice
- assessing improvements and re-benchmarking (MAB/MIAC 1996).

The performance information in the Report can contribute to many of the above steps in a results benchmarking cycle, including by identifying better approaches adopted by agencies' peers and thus helping governments to implement best practice.

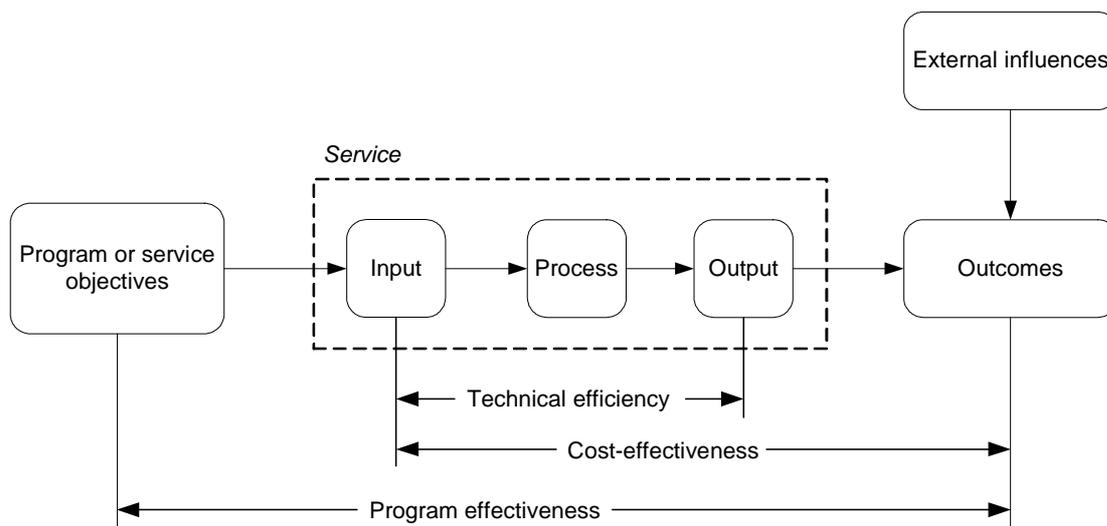
The service process

When reviewing the framework, the relationships among objectives, inputs, outputs and outcomes were examined. Figure 1.2 portrays the influence of factors external to a service, and distinguishes between program efficiency and program effectiveness.

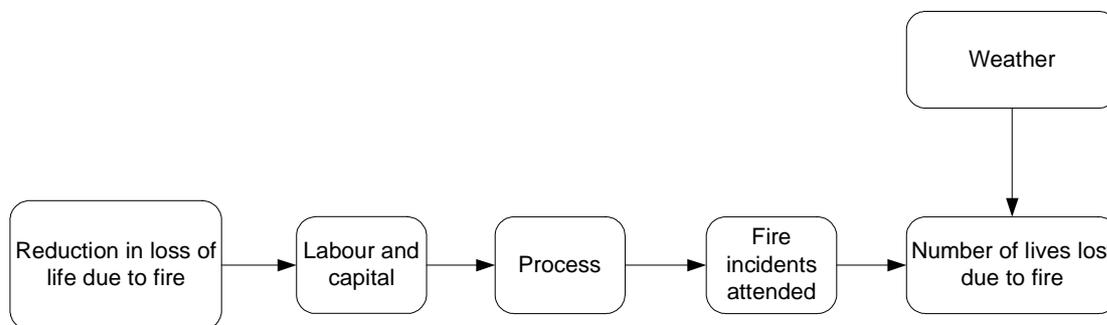
For each service, governments have a number of objectives that relate to desired outcomes for the community. To achieve these objectives, governments fund service providers and/or provide services. To do this, service providers transform funds/resources (inputs) into services (outputs). The rate at which resources are used to make this transformation is known as 'technical efficiency'. The impacts of these outputs on individuals, groups and the community are the outcomes of the

service. The rate at which resources are used to generate outcomes is referred to as 'cost-effectiveness' in this Report. Often, outcomes are also influenced by factors external to the service. Outputs too may be affected by external factors, but to a lesser extent. The glossary to the Report provides further definitions.

Figure 1.2 **Service process**



Example: fire services



Objectives

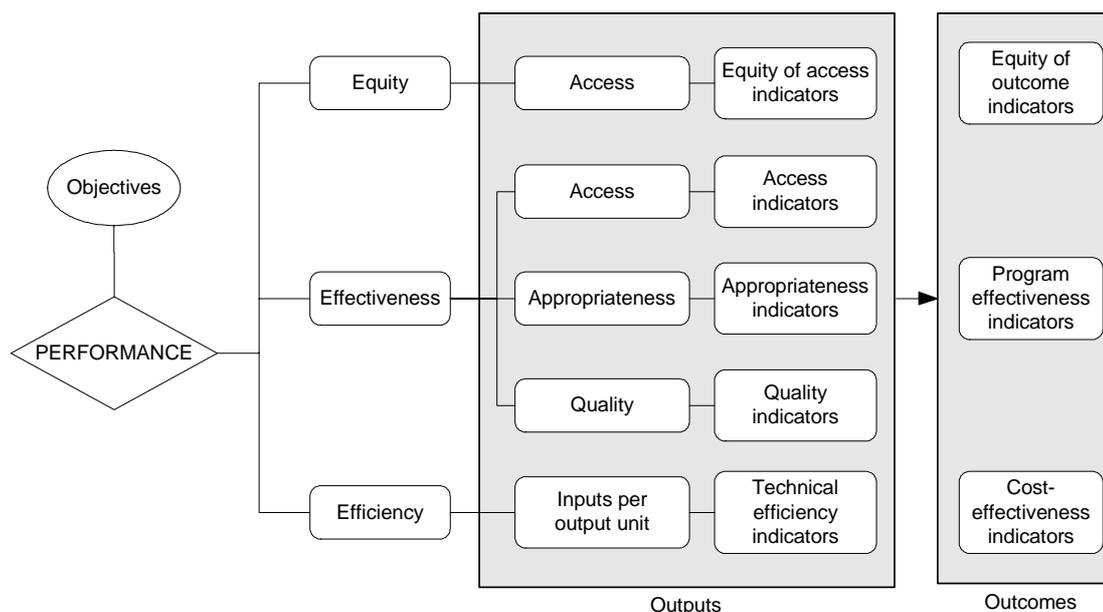
A number of the objectives (or desired outcomes) for each government funded service are similar across jurisdictions, although the priority that each jurisdiction gives to each objective may differ. The Steering Committee's approach to performance reporting is to focus on the extent to which each *shared* objective for a service has been met. Objectives for each service are outlined, and performance indicators consistent with those objectives are reported.

Separating outputs and outcomes

Outcome indicators provide information on the impact of a service on the status of an individual or a group, and on the success of the service area in achieving its objectives, although other factors may affect outcomes for an individual or group. The outcomes of a service should align with the objectives of the service. Outputs, on the other hand, are the services delivered.

While the aim of the Review is to focus on outcomes, they are often difficult to measure. The Report thus includes measures of outputs with an understanding that there is a correlation between some outputs and outcomes, and that measures of outputs can be proxies for measures of outcomes. For this reason, budget statements may specify that a service will aim to produce outputs with certain characteristics such as quality, timeliness and responsiveness. The new performance framework is set out in figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3 A general framework and examples of performance indicators



Outcomes may be short term (intermediate) or longer term (final). Short term outcomes are usually more closely linked to the operations of the service provider, whereas longer term outcomes are more affected by capital investment and external factors. A police random breath testing program (set up relatively quickly via a re-allocation of resources), for example, may achieve the intermediate outcome of fewer drunk drivers and lead to a short term reduction in road deaths, but the final outcome of a permanent long term reduction in road deaths will reflect external factors such as the design quality of cars and capital investment in improved roads or additional random breath testing units.

The approach in this Report is to:

- use both short term (or intermediate) and long term (or final) outcome indicators as appropriate where possible
- make clear that the service is only one contributing factor and, where possible, point to data on other factors. (Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this Report.)

Output indicators can be grouped according to the desired characteristics of a service — for example, accessibility, appropriateness or quality. These desired characteristics may differ across services. By contrast, outcomes depend on the performance of a service in a number of characteristics, and are subject to external factors; as such, they are not grouped in the same way.

Equity, effectiveness and efficiency

Since its inception, the Review has taken a comprehensive view of performance monitoring, acknowledging the tradeoffs inherent in allocating resources and the dangers of analysing only some aspects of the service. A unit of service may have a high cost but be more effective than a lower cost service in meeting each client's specific needs and, therefore, be more cost-effective. Performance assessment should thus incorporate indicators across all relevant dimensions.

In the past, the Review framework gave equal prominence to effectiveness and efficiency as the two overarching dimensions of performance. Equity was treated as a subdimension of effectiveness. Performance literature, on the other hand, often refers to equity as a third element of performance, separate from effectiveness and efficiency. The principal reason for the separation is that effectiveness indicators are generally absolute measures of performance, whereas equity indicators relate to the gap between service delivery outputs and outcomes for special needs groups and the general population. The Review's new framework reflects this approach.

Moreover, accentuating equity highlights the potential for tradeoffs across all three performance dimensions — equity, effectiveness and efficiency. Improving outcomes for a group with special needs, for example, may necessitate a decrease in measured efficiency. Assessing performance across all three dimensions remains important.

Equity

The term ‘equity’ has a number of interpretations, which are discussed in box 1.5. Equity in the context of this Report reflects equity of access, whereby all Australians are expected to have adequate access to services. Equity indicators measure how well a service is meeting the needs of certain groups in society.

Box 1.5 Equity

Equity is an important concept in economic literature, with two elements:

- horizontal equity — the equal treatment of equals
- vertical equity — the unequal but equitable treatment of unequals.

In the context of performance measurement for service delivery, horizontal equity is exhibited when services are available to everyone in the community, and there are no restrictions on access — that is, everyone is allowed to access the service. Service delivery exhibits vertical equity when it accounts for the special needs of certain groups in the community and adjusts aspects of service delivery to suit these needs. This approach may be needed where geographic, cultural or other reasons mean some members of the community have difficulty accessing the service.

Facilitating access to key services for people with special needs is an important reason for governments to fund services (for example, housing services for those having difficulties accessing housing in the private sector). A number of criteria can be used to classify those groups who may have special difficulties in accessing government services. These include:

- language or literacy proficiency
- gender
- age
- physical or mental capacity
- race or ethnicity
- geographic location.

In May 1997, the Prime Minister (with the support of the Premiers and Chief Ministers) requested that the Review give particular attention to the performance of mainstream services in relation to Indigenous Australians. Improvements to reporting for this group are discussed in chapter 2. The Indigenous Disadvantage Report (mentioned earlier) focuses on outcomes for Indigenous Australians in a range of ‘strategic’ areas, and complements the Report on Government Services,

which will continue to include indicators on the delivery of services to Indigenous Australians.

Identifying service recipients as belonging to groups with special access difficulties poses challenges, particularly when relying on client self-identification. If members of such groups are required to identify themselves, then the accuracy of the data will partly depend on how a group perceives the advantages (or disadvantages) of identification and also whether such perceptions change over time. Varying definitions of these groups in data collections over time and across jurisdictions and service areas may also create comparability problems.

The Report often uses the proportion of each target group in the broader community as a point of comparison when examining service delivery to special needs groups. This approach is sensible for some services (for example, schools), but must be treated with caution for other services (for example, aged care). Another option is to collect a more accurate profile of need (for example, the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program's collection of data on the characteristics of those seeking assistance).

Where geographic location is used to identify groups with special needs, data are usually disaggregated according to either the metropolitan, rural and remote area classification system or the Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) Australian Standard Geographical Classification of remoteness areas. These classifications are generally based on population density and/or the distance that residents need to travel to access services. The geographic classification system used in each chapter is outlined in chapter 2.

Such classifications are imperfect indicators of the time and cost of reaching a service. Further, they do not consider the client's capacity to bear the cost of receiving the service (Griffith 1998). To improve the model, service centre locations would need to be reclassified according to the services they provide and the client's cost of receiving the service. Moreover, for some services, classification systems based on distance or population are not useful indicators of access to services — for example, ambulances can sometimes respond more quickly in rural areas than in metropolitan areas because there is less traffic.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness indicators reflect how well the outputs of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service. Indicators of the effectiveness of outputs in the new framework can be grouped according to desired characteristics that are considered

important to the service. For most chapters, these desired characteristics include access, appropriateness and/or quality.

Access

Access indicators reflect how easily the community can obtain a delivered service (output) (for example, access to school education and police services). In this Report, access has two main dimensions, undue delay (timeliness) and undue cost (affordability). Timeliness indicators used to measure access in this Report include waiting times (for example, in public hospitals and for aged care services). Affordability indicators relate to the proportion of income spent on particular services (for example, out-of-pocket expenses in children's services).

Appropriateness

Appropriateness indicators measure how well services meet client needs. An appropriateness indicator for the Supported Accommodation and Assistance Program, for example, is the proportion of clients receiving the services that they are judged to need. Appropriateness indicators also seek to identify the extent of any underservicing or overservicing (Renwick and Sadkowsky 1991).

Some services have developed measurable standards of service need against which the current levels of service can be assessed. The 'overcrowding' measure in housing, for example, measures the appropriateness of the size of the dwelling relative to the size of the tenant household. Other services have few measurable standards of service need; for example, the appropriate number of medical treatments available for particular populations is not known. Data on differences in service levels, however can indicate where further work could identify possible underservicing or overservicing.

Quality

Quality indicators reflect the extent to which a service is suited to its purpose and conforms to specifications. The Review includes indicators of service quality because they are important to performance assessment and policy formulation. Information about quality is particularly important for performance assessment when there is a strong emphasis on increasing efficiency (as indicated by lower unit costs). Moreover, there is usually more than one way in which to deliver a service, and each alternative has different implications for cost and quality. Information about service quality is needed to ensure governments consider all useful delivery alternatives.

The Steering Committee's approach is to identify and report on *aspects* of quality, particularly actual or implied competence. Actual competence can be measured by the frequency of positive (or negative) events resulting from the actions of the service (for example, deaths resulting from health system errors such as an incorrect dose of drugs). Implied competence can be measured by the extent to which aspects of the service delivery process (such as inputs, processes and outputs) conform to specifications — for example, through accreditation.

Data generated by services for quality control purposes can often be a useful source of information for quality indicators. To the extent that aspects of service delivery (such as inputs, processes and outputs) conform to specifications, they are proxies for quality outputs — for example, the level of accreditation of public hospitals and facilities for aged care.

The framework of indicators for this Report treats quality as one aspect of effectiveness and distinguishes it from access and appropriateness (figure 1.3). This distinction is somewhat artificial because these other aspects of service provision also contribute to a meaningful picture of quality. No perfect indicator of service quality exists; each indicator has its own strengths and weaknesses.

Efficiency

Efficiency indicators reflect how well services use their resources to produce outputs and achieve outcomes. Government funding per unit of service is typically used as an indicator of technical efficiency — for example, recurrent funding per annual curriculum hour for vocational education and training. Such an indicator is unlikely, however, to encompass a service's full cost to society.

Where possible, full unit costs are used as the indicator of efficiency. Comparisons of unit cost of a service are a more meaningful input to public policy when they use the full cost to government, accounting for all resources consumed in providing the service. Problems can occur when some costs of providing services are overlooked or treated inconsistently (for example, superannuation, overheads or the user cost of capital). The Steering Committee believes, where full cost information is not available in the short term, that data should at least be calculated consistently across jurisdictions. Further, data treatment should be fully transparent.

Where there are shortcomings in the data, other indicators of efficiency are used (including partial productivity ratios such as staff level per student in government schools, staff per prisoner in corrective services and administrative costs as a proportion of total expenditure in services for people with a disability).

1.6 Using the data in this Report

Data comparability

For each service, the performance indicator framework shows which data are provided on a comparable basis and which are not directly comparable. Where data are not directly comparable, appropriate qualifying commentary is provided in the text or footnotes. Data may not be directly comparable if:

- definitions or counting rules differ or are so broad that they result in different interpretations (for example, depreciation rules)
- the scope of measurement varies (for example, the waiting time for elective surgery)
- benchmarks differ (for example, literacy standards)
- the sample size is too small for statistical reliability.

These differences may result in biased estimates, but it is not always clear whether biases are necessarily material. Even where the differences are significant, relatively simple adjustments may resolve them in many cases — for example, payroll tax exemption has a material influence on the comparability of unit cost indicators, and cost data are adjusted in most chapters to account for payroll tax (SCRCSSP 1999). Differences in the marginal tax rates of payroll tax systems, conversely, are unlikely to have a material impact on unit costs.

Validation

Data contained in this Report vary in the extent to which they have been reviewed or validated. At a minimum, all data have been signed off by the contributor and subjected to peer review by the working group for each service. Some data are verified and supplied by data collection agencies such as the ABS and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.

Timeliness and accuracy

Timeliness of data is an important consideration for policy decision making. Sometimes, however, there is a tradeoff between the accuracy of data and its timely availability; in particular, data that are provided in a timely fashion might have had fewer opportunities to undergo rigorous validation.

The Review's process of iterative data collection is intended to manage this tradeoff between timeliness and accuracy. The Review publishes data that jurisdictions have provided on an annual basis, with appropriate qualifications. The ongoing nature of the Report provides an opportunity for the Review to improve the data, particularly its comparability, over time. This approach has increased scrutiny of the data and led to timely improvements in data quality.

Improving the timeliness and accuracy of the data requires a high level of cooperation between the Steering Committee and participating agencies from all jurisdictions. Users of the Report are also an important source of feedback on issues relating to the improvement of performance reporting. The Steering Committee welcomes feedback, which can be forwarded to the Secretariat (see the contact details inside the front cover of the Report).

Effects of factors beyond the control of agencies

The differing environments in which service agencies operate affect both the outcomes achievable and those achieved by the agencies. There may be significant differences in clients, available inputs, prices and geography, and any comparison of performance across jurisdictions needs to consider these differences. Relatively high unit costs, for example, may result from geographic dispersal, a high proportion of special needs clients, inefficient performance or a combination of these and other factors. Similarly, a poor result for an effectiveness indicator may have more to do with client characteristics than service performance. The provision of information that allows effective interpretation can thus be more important than the result.

The Report does not attempt to adjust results provided by jurisdictions for differences that may affect service delivery but it does provide information on environmental differences to assist readers to interpret performance indicator results. Users of the Report will often be better placed to make the necessary judgments, perhaps with the benefit of additional information about their jurisdiction's circumstances or priorities. The Commonwealth Grants Commission adopts a different approach reflecting its different role (SCRCSSP 2000).

The Report provides information on environmental differences to assist readers to interpret performance indicator results. This information takes the form of profiles of each service area, footnotes to tables and figures, and a statistical appendix (appendix A). The statistical appendix provides a range of general descriptive information for each jurisdiction, including the age profile, spatial distribution, income levels and education levels of the population, the tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status). The information for each

jurisdiction has two parts: (1) a description of the main distinguishing characteristics and (2) a set of source tables.

1.7 Other approaches and exercises

Techniques for measuring efficiency

The approach to developing the efficiency indicators used in the Report is primarily that of unit cost (although some chapters contain other measures of efficiency). Data envelopment analysis (DEA) is another measurement technique that appears to be suited to assessing efficiency in the delivery of government services. Typically using linear programming, DEA calculates the efficiency of an organisation within a group relative to observed best practice (not actual best practice) within that group. The approach operates by identifying best performers in terms of input use and output production. Other service providers are allocated a single efficiency score based on their performance relative to that of the best performers.

‘Measures of Australia’s Progress’

In April 2004, the ABS published the second issue of *Measures of Australia’s Progress* (ABS 2004). The publication presents indicators across three domains of progress — economic, social and environmental. Each indicator signals recent progress, typically denoting developments over the past 10 years to help Australians address the question, ‘Has life in our country got better, especially during the past decade?’. The framework includes both headline and supplementary indicators, and focuses on outcomes rather than inputs or processes. The publication includes special articles that relate to, rather than measure, progress — for example, material about multiple disadvantage, and levels of progress in Australia and other Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development countries.

Performance monitoring in other countries

Performance reporting exercises are undertaken in other countries using various approaches (see previous reports). In 2002, the United Kingdom introduced regular web-based reporting against public service agreements, and all key performance data on public service delivery is now available on a single website. Web-based reporting provides accountability and transparency, and allows the public to assess how the United Kingdom Government is delivering across all areas of government. Public service agreements measure agency performance by setting out the aim of the department or program, the supporting objectives and the key outcome-based targets that are to be achieved during a specified period (HM Treasury 2004).

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2 Recent developments in the Report

2.1 Developments in reporting

This is the tenth Report on Government Services produced by the Review. Reporting is an iterative process, and the Review endeavours each year to build on developments of previous years. Since the Review published its first Report in 1995 (SCRCSSP 1995), there has been a general improvement in the data collected. A notable improvement for the 2005 Report is the implementation of performance indicator interpretation boxes. These boxes aim to provide a succinct commentary on the rationale for an indicator's inclusion, explanation of how the indicator is defined and how it should be interpreted, and an overview of conceptual caveats.

Other enhancements fall into two categories:

- improvements to the data reported against performance indicators, including:
 - improved comparability, timeliness and/or quality of data
 - expanded reporting for special needs groups (such as Indigenous Australians)
 - improved reporting of full costs to government
- the inclusion of new indicators, refinements to those already reported, or reporting against performance indicators for the first time.

Improvements in reporting for the 2005 Report

Education

The scope of reporting in the 'Education preface' has been improved through the inclusion of additional educational attainment data:

- Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, by broad age categories (15–19 year olds and 20–24 year olds), sex and highest level of school completed, by State and Territory

-
- the proportion of 20–24 year olds who completed year 12 or equivalent, or gained a qualification at Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) level 2 or above
 - the proportion of 25–29 year olds who gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above.

In chapter 3 ('School education'), the scope of reporting has been improved by:

- including a greater disaggregation of capital-related data items and data for full time equivalent school enrolments, by gender
- improving the comparability of the indicator 'recurrent expenditure per student' by reporting a three year time series using comparable, accrual-based data.

In chapter 4 ('Vocational education and training' [VET]) the scope of student participation data has been refined to maintain consistency with the Australian National Training Authority National Report on VET (ANTA 2004). The ANTA National Report no longer publishes all performance indicators for the VET sector for individual states and territories.

Justice

The new Review performance indicator framework has been implemented in chapter 5 ('Police services'). All chapters have now implemented the new outcomes focused framework, although not all chapters have populated all dimensions of the framework.

In chapter 7 ('Corrective services'), the indicator 'prisoner/offender programs — education' has been reported on a comparable basis for the first time.

Emergency management

Chapter 8 ('Emergency management') has been restructured. Under the new structure, performance reporting is based on different types of emergency events (fire events, ambulance events and road rescue events), rather than on different types of emergency service organisation (fire service organisations, ambulance service organisations and road rescue organisations) as reported in the 2004 Report. The purpose of the new structure is to allow for a more complete assessment of the performance of government resources committed to the management of emergency events.

Health

In chapter 9 ('Public hospitals'):

- three indicators ('public hospital separation rates', 'separation rates by target group', and 'labour cost per casemix-adjusted separation') have been removed from the performance framework because they had limited usefulness as indicators of the performance of hospitals. The data have been moved to the descriptive section of the chapter
- perinatal, neonatal and fetal death rates are reported by Indigenous status for the first time.

In chapter 11 ('Health management issues'), Indigenous suicide data are averaged over three year periods to smooth volatility in year-on-year movements, particularly for smaller jurisdictions, which tend to have fewer cases but relatively large variations in rates from year to year.

Community services

In chapter 12 ('Aged care services') the indicator 'unmet need' is reported using data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2003 Survey of Disability, Aging and Carers, which is conducted every five years. New data are reported on Indigenous access to Commonwealth Carelink Centres, and payroll tax is separately identified in residential expenditure data.

In chapter 14 ('Children's services'):

- the access indicator of service affordability, 'service costs', has been reported for the first time
- data from the ABS 2002 Survey of Child Care are reported for the first time to provide information on the outcome indicator, 'demand for (additional) childcare'.

In chapter 15 ('Protection and support services') the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) effectiveness indicator 'client satisfaction' is reported on a comparable basis for the first time.

2.2 Progress with indicator development

A new Review framework was implemented for most chapters in the 2004 Report. The implementation of the new framework in chapter 5 ('Police services') for this Report, means that the framework has now been applied in all chapters. The

implementation of the framework has led to the development of new indicators in particular areas, and to a reassessment of indicators reported. Refinement of performance information is continuing as new research and data become available. To assess progress against two of the Review's key aims — (1) the provision of information about outcomes achieved and (2) the facilitation of assessment of performance in a comprehensive fashion against all important objectives (through reporting against all dimensions of the framework) — the indicators reported in each service area this year have been assessed against each category of the new framework. This assessment reveals the following:

- There is a paucity of information about cost-effectiveness, made apparent by the separate depiction of outputs and outcomes in the new framework diagram. The lack of cost-effectiveness data partly reflects the difficulty of collecting this type of information. No cost-effectiveness indicators are reported, and only one notional indicator of cost-effectiveness has been developed (for breast cancer detection and management).
- Few outcome indicators relate to equity, although this can be attributed to the rearrangement of indicators according to the new framework, which accentuates the importance of equity and draws out the distinction between equity and access.
- There are relatively few indicators of output quality compared with those for other output categories.
- There are relatively few output indicators of equity or access, again partly because these two performance areas were previously combined but the new framework treats them separately.

An analysis of gaps in reporting needs to be viewed in conjunction with the scope for improving currently reported indicators; it does not reveal the quality of the indicators that are reported (for example, whether they are necessarily the most appropriate).

2.3 Progress with key data issues

The Review has identified the following key data issues that affect the quality of information in the Report: timeliness of data; comparability of data; changes to the administrative data collections; full costing of government services; and reporting of data for special needs groups.

Timeliness

As noted in chapter 1, recent data are more useful for policy decision making, but there can be a tradeoff between the accuracy of the data and their timeliness. The Review's approach is to publish imperfect data with caveats. This approach allows increased scrutiny of the data and reveals the gaps in critical information, providing the foundation for developing better data over time. Table 2.1 summarises the time periods for data reported this year. The following is of particular note:

- There is a marked delay in the provision of learning outcomes data.
- Data for services for people with a disability have been affected by the introduction of a new data collection. While current data were available in previous years, data are now lagged. (Changes to administrative data sets are discussed below.)
- There are no data for the current period for specialised mental health services.
- There is significant scope for improving the timeliness of some maternity services data.
- Data on the 'interval cancer rate' in the breast cancer detection and management section of chapter 11 rely on data matching and follow-up between screening periods and between screening services and medical services. Such processes take a number of years, hence the marked lag in reporting.
- The most recent data for health expenditure on Indigenous people are from 1998-99.

Table 2.1 Time period of reported performance results, 2005 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	2000-01 or 2000	2001-02 or 2001	Previous year (2002-03 or 2002)	Current year (2003-04 or 2003)
<i>Education</i>				
School education		Learning outcomes✓	Efficiency✓	Participation and retention✓
VET				✓
<i>Justice</i>				
Police services			Higher courts, lower courts, hospitalisations and reporting rates✓	✓
Court administration				✓
Corrective services				✓
<i>Emergency management</i>				
Fire events			Hospitalisations and deaths✓	✓
Ambulance events				✓
Road rescue events				✓
<i>Health</i>				
Public hospitals			Hospitalisations✓	Quality✓
Maternity services		Quality✓	Hospitalisations, deaths and efficiency ✓	Quality and outcomes✓
Primary and community health			Hospitalisations✓	General practice✓
Breast cancer ^a	Interval cancer✓		Efficiency✓	✓
Mental health			✓	
<i>Community services</i>				
Aged care services			ACAT✓	✓
Services for people with a disability			Services✓ Efficiency ^b	Efficiency ^c ✓
Children's services				✓
Child protection and out-of-home care			Substantiation/ re-substantiation✓	✓
SAAP				✓
<i>Housing assistance</i>				
Public housing				✓
Community housing				✓
State owned and managed Indigenous housing				✓
Commonwealth Rent Assistance				✓

ACAT = aged care assessment teams. SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ^a Data for the 'interval cancer rate' rely on data matching and follow-up between cancer screening periods and between screening services and medical services. Such processes take a number of years, hence the marked lag in reporting. ^b Cost per user of government provided services and the government contribution per user of non-government provided services. ^c Administrative expenditure as a proportion of total expenditure.

Comparability of data

The term ‘comparable’ is explained in chapter 1. The performance indicator framework diagrams in each chapter are shaded to reflect which indicators are reported on a comparable basis. The proportion of performance indicators reported in each service area with comparable data is outlined in table 2.2. Emergency management, maternity services, children’s services, and child protection and out-of-home care have the smallest proportion of indicators reported on a comparable basis.

Table 2.2 Indicators reported on a comparable basis, 2005 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	<i>Indicators with data reported</i>	<i>Indicators with data reported on a comparable basis</i>	<i>Proportion comparable</i>	<i>Change since last year in indicators reported on a comparable basis</i>
	no.	no.	%	no.
<i>Education</i>				
School education	10	8	80	–
VET	19	14	74	–
<i>Justice</i>				
Police services	29	15	50	–
Court administration	6	3	50	–
Corrective services	12	10	83	1
Emergency management	16	2	13	–
<i>Health</i>				
Public hospitals ^a	11	5	45	-2
Maternity services	10	3	30	–
Primary and community health	20	20	100	–
Breast cancer	11	7	64	–
Mental health	8	4	50	–
<i>Community services</i>				
Aged care services	13	11	85	–
Services for people with a disability	13	8	62	2
Children’s services	14	4	29	2
Child protection and out-of-home care	14	4	29	–
SAAP	11	5	45	1
<i>Housing</i>				
Public housing	12	12	100	–
Community housing	10	–	–	–
State owned and managed				
Indigenous housing	9	9	100	–
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	11	11	100	–

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ^a Three indicators (‘public hospital separation rates’, ‘separation rates by target group’, and ‘labour cost per casemix-adjusted separation’) have been removed from the performance framework because they had limited usefulness as indicators of the performance of hospitals. The data have been moved to the descriptive section of the chapter. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Changes to administrative data collections

The discontinuation of data sets and the commencement of reporting from new data sets have implications for performance reporting by the Review. Time series comparisons, scope, comparability and accuracy of data can be affected, as can the ability to develop performance indicators.

Review requirements are not necessarily a priority in the development or refinement of national minimum data sets (NMDSs) or other types of information infrastructure. There can be, for example, a significant delay between the first data collection period and when data from a new data set become publicly available. This delay is partly due to implementation problems that can affect data quality for several years. In other cases, collection of data is staged, so comprehensive data sets are not immediately available. For the purposes of the Review, this can mean that reporting scope and data quality are diminished for some time until the new data sets are fully operational. The Steering Committee has taken steps to minimise the occurrence and impact of data time lags on the Report.

Specialised mental health services

Mental health care NMDSs have been developed, covering public community mental health services and specialised psychiatric care for patients admitted to public and private hospitals. These data will be collated by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) and will eventually replace the National Survey of Mental Health Services (the current source of national performance-related data). The aim is to mainstream data for mental health services, and there is a long term plan to restructure and combine mental health and broader health data sets with this aim in mind. Limited data from the admitted patient mental health care NMDS are available (for separations and patient days) and are reported in the descriptive section of the chapter 11 ('Health management issues').

Juvenile justice

The AIHW is developing an NMDS for juvenile justice, which is in the pilot test stage. A performance indicator framework is also being developed. The 2005 Report continues to include descriptive information on juvenile justice until performance-related data are available for future reports.

Services for people with a disability

In recognition of changing information needs in the services for people with disability, a new Commonwealth State/Territory Disability Agreement (CSTDA) NMDS collection — developed jointly by the National Disability Administrators and the AIHW — has been implemented. The CSTDA NMDS collection replaces the Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement Minimum Data Set snapshot day census collection. Data from these collections are not comparable.

The 2005 Report includes six months of data from the CSTDA NMDS for 2002-03 (from 1 January 2003 to 30 June 2003). Subsequent reports will include CSTDA NMDS data for a full year.

Costing of services

In addition to the Review objective that funding of, or costs for, service delivery be measured and reported on a comparable basis, a further objective of the Review is that efficiency estimates reflect the full costs to government. The Review has identified three priority areas for improving the comparability of unit costs, and developed appropriate guidelines in each case:

- including superannuation on an accrual basis (SCRCSSP 1998b)
- accounting for differences in the treatment of payroll tax (SCRCSSP 1999b)
- including the full range of capital costs (for asset measurement only, see SCRCSSP 2001).

Other issues influence the comparability of cost estimates. Where possible, the Review has sought to ensure consistency in:

- reporting accrued benefits to employees (such as recreation and long service leave)
- apportioning relevant departmental overhead costs
- reporting non-government sourced revenue.

Reforms to treasury and finance department accounting guidelines in most jurisdictions require government agencies to adopt accrual accounting, rather than cash accounting, in their financial reporting frameworks. Accrual accounting is based on the principle that the agency recognises revenue and expenses when they are earned and incurred respectively. Cash accounting, in contrast, recognises revenue and expenses when they are collected and paid respectively. The majority of agencies and jurisdictions have adopted or already fully implemented accrual accounting.

Accrual accounting has assisted the Review in meeting its full costing principle, but has produced a break in the time series for financial data. Government finance statistics data published by the ABS since 1998-99 are based on accrual methods, but are not consistent with earlier data collected on the basis of cash accounting methods. As a general rule, care needs to be taken when comparing financial data in cases where some agencies adopted accrual accounting later than others.

Table 2.3 provides an overview of the Review's progress in reporting on an accrual basis, meeting the principle of reporting full cost to government (incorporating depreciation and the user cost of capital) and adjusting for differences in superannuation and payroll tax. A brief discussion of each of the issues follows.

Superannuation

The treatment of superannuation is a significant issue when measuring the unit cost for many services because it often makes up a major component of overall costs and can be treated differently across services and jurisdictions. The Review researched the current treatment of superannuation costs and developed approaches to improve the consistency of treatment of superannuation in cost estimates (SCRCSSP 1998b). The extent to which individual agencies consistently report actuarial estimates of superannuation costs depends on the respective jurisdictions' implementation of accrual accounting systems.

Table 2.3 Progress of unit cost comparability, 2005 Report

Service area/indicator framework	What is the accounting regime? ^a	Full cost to government			
		Is depreciation included?	Is the user cost of capital included?	Is superannuation included on an accrual basis?	Is payroll tax treated in a consistent manner?
<i>Education</i>					
School education	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
VET	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Justice</i>					
Police services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Court administration	Accrual	✓	x	✓	✓
Corrective services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Emergency management</i>					
Fire events	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ambulance events	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Health</i>					
Public hospitals	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Maternity services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Primary and community health ^b	Accrual
Breast cancer	Accrual	na	na	na	na
Mental health	Accrual	x	x	✓	na
<i>Community services</i>					
Aged care services ^c	Accrual	na
Services for people with a disability	Accrual	x	x	✓	✓
Children's services	Accrual	✓	x	✓	x
Child protection and out-of-home care ^c	Accrual	✓	x	✓	✓
SAAP ^c	Accrual
<i>Housing assistance</i>					
Public housing	Accrual	✓	✓	na	✓
Community housing	Transition	x	x	x	x
State owned and managed Indigenous housing	Accrual	x	x	na	✓
Commonwealth Rent Assistance ^d	Accrual

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ✓ Majority of jurisdictions have included this item or reported it separately, or have included it on an accrual basis. x Majority of jurisdictions have not included or reported this item, or not included it on an accrual basis. ^a Accrual: the majority of jurisdictions have reported in accrual terms for the data in the 2005 Report. Transition: the majority of jurisdictions have not reported on either a pure cash or accrual basis. ^b Costs comprise mostly Australian Government transfer payments to private service providers or households. ^c Costs comprise mostly Australian, State or Territory government transfer payments to private service providers or households. ^d Costs comprise mostly Australian, State or Territory government transfer payments to households. na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Payroll tax

Payroll tax makes up a small but significant part of the cost of many government funded and delivered services. It is particularly significant for services with a high proportion of labour costs. Differences in the treatment of payroll tax, therefore can affect the comparability of unit costs across jurisdictions and services. These differences include payroll tax exemptions, marginal tax rates, tax-free thresholds and clawback arrangements. Accounting for the effect of payroll tax can be particularly important for improving the comparability of the unit costs of private and public service providers where the tax treatment of the two types of organisation may differ.

The Steering Committee (SCRCSSP 1999b) recommended two approaches for managing the comparability of cost data affected by payroll tax issues:

- When the majority of services are taxable, include a hypothetical payroll tax amount in cost estimates for exempt services, based on the payroll tax liability had the service not been exempt from payroll tax.
- When the majority of services are tax exempt, deduct the payroll tax amount from the costs of those government services that are taxable.

The Steering Committee subsequently expressed a preference for removing payroll tax from reported cost figures, where feasible, so cost differences between jurisdictions are not caused by differences in jurisdictions' payroll tax policies. In some chapters, however, it has not been possible to separately identify payroll tax, so a hypothetical amount is still included where relevant.

The chapters on VET, school education and the section on State owned and managed Indigenous housing add a hypothetical payroll tax amount for exempt jurisdictions. The chapters on police services, court administration, corrective services, emergency management and public hospitals, corrective services, and the section on public housing deduct the amount from those services that are taxable. The chapter on services for people with a disability presents the data adjusted in both ways. In the chapter on protection and support services, payroll tax is included for jurisdictions that are liable, but data difficulties mean no adjustment is made for those jurisdictions that are not liable. Payroll tax for residential aged care services will be separately reported for the first time this year. The Review is still examining this issue for some service areas — for example, breast cancer detection and management, and mental health management.

The goods and services tax

There were major changes to the Australian tax system from 1 July 2000 with the introduction of The New Tax System. A major component of The New Tax System is the goods and services tax (GST), under which government agencies are treated in the same manner as other businesses — that is, government agencies are not exempt from GST on their purchases, and can claim input tax credits for the GST paid on inputs. Data reported in this Report are net of GST paid and input tax credits received unless otherwise specified. The GST appears to have little quantifiable impact on the performance indicators in this Report.

Capital costs

Under accrual accounting, the focus is on the capital used (or consumed) in a particular year, rather than on the cash expenditure incurred in its purchase (for example, the purchase costs of a new building). Capital costs comprise two distinct elements:

- depreciation — defined as the annual consumption of non-current physical assets used in delivering government services
- the user cost of capital — the opportunity cost of funds tied up in the capital used to deliver services (that is, the return that could be generated if the funds were employed in their next best use).

It is important to incorporate the full impact of capital costs in cost comparisons. Capital can be a significant component of service delivery costs. Given that it is costed in full for contracted elements of service delivery, any comparison with non-contractual government services requires the inclusion of an appropriate capital component in the cost of non-contractual services. Unit costs calculated on the basis of recurrent expenditure underestimate the underlying costs to governments. The inclusion of capital expenditure in unit cost calculation, however, does not guarantee accurate or complete estimates of these costs in a given year.

To improve the comparability of unit costs, the Steering Committee decided that both depreciation and the user cost of capital should be included in unit cost calculations (with the user cost of capital for land to be reported separately). The Steering Committee also agreed that the user cost of capital rate should be applied to all non-current physical assets, less any capital charges and interest on borrowings already reported by the agency (to avoid double counting). The rate used for the user cost of capital is based on a weighted average of rates nominated by jurisdictions (currently 8 per cent).

Depreciation and the user cost of capital are derived from the value assigned to non-current physical assets. Differences in the techniques for measuring the quantity, rate of consumption and value of non-current physical assets may reduce the comparability of cost estimates across jurisdictions. In response to concerns regarding data comparability, the Steering Committee initiated a study — *Asset Measurement in the Costing of Government Services* (SCRCSSP 2001) — to examine the extent to which differences in asset measurement techniques applied by participating agencies affect the comparability of reported unit costs. The study considered the likely materiality of differences in asset measurement techniques for corrective services, housing, police services and public hospitals.

The study found that differences in asset measurement techniques can have a major impact on reported capital costs, and have the potential to affect the cost rankings among jurisdictions. Its results suggested that the differences created by these asset measurement effects are generally relatively small in the context of total unit costs because capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost (except for housing). In housing, where the potential for asset measurement techniques to influence total unit costs is greater, the adoption under the Commonwealth State Housing Agreement of a uniform accounting framework has largely prevented this from occurring. The adoption of national uniform accounting standards across all service areas would be a desirable outcome from the perspective of the Review.

Other costing issues

Other costing issues include the reporting of accrued benefits to employees, the apportionment of costs shared across services (mainly overhead departmental costs) and the treatment of non-government sourced revenue. The issue of accrued benefits to employees is addressed primarily through the adoption of accrual accounting and the incorporation of explicit references within the definition of costs. Full apportionment of departmental overheads is consistent with the concept of full cost recovery. The practice of apportioning overhead costs varies across the services in the Report. For non-government sourced revenue, some services deduct such revenue from their estimates of unit costs where it is relatively small (for example, in police services and court administration). The costs reported are therefore an estimate of net cost to government. However, where revenue from non-government sources is significant (such as with public hospitals, fire services and ambulance services), the net cost to government does not enable an adequate assessment of efficiency. In these instances, it is necessary to report both the gross cost and the net cost to government to obtain an adequate understanding of efficiency.

Reporting for special needs groups

For some chapters, the Report contains data on the performance of agencies in catering to special needs groups. The chapters on aged care services, services to people with a disability, and children's services examine the performance of government services in addressing the needs of particular groups in society. The Review also collects data, where available, on the performance of agencies delivering services for three groups across all chapters of the Report: Indigenous people, people from a non-English speaking background, and people living in communities outside the capital cities (that is, people living in other metropolitan areas, or rural and remote communities). There is a paucity of data on outcomes for these groups (tables 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6).

Indigenous Australians

In May 1997, the Prime Minister asked the Review to give particular attention to the performance of mainstream services in meeting the needs of Indigenous Australians. The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) reinforced this request at its 3 November 2000 meeting, where heads of government agreed that ministerial councils will develop action plans, performance reporting strategies and benchmarks to facilitate review of progress in this area. Table 2.4 provides a stocktake of data on Indigenous Australians in the Report. It does not signify the quality of the data.

COAG report on Indigenous disadvantage

In April 2002, COAG commissioned the Steering Committee to produce a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage. The Review released the first edition of this Report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003* (SCRGSP 2003), in November 2003.

Indigenous compendium

Since 2003, the Steering Committee has compiled all of the data included in the Report on Government Services on services for Indigenous people into a separate Indigenous compendium. The most recent compendium was released in May 2004 (SCRGSP 2004).

Data collection issues

The task of collecting data on Indigenous Australians is complicated by the fact that many administrative data collections do not distinguish between Indigenous and non-Indigenous clients. The method and level of identification of Indigenous people appear to vary across jurisdictions. Further, surveys do not necessarily include an Indigenous identifier; when they do, it may not provide for sufficient sampling to provide reliable results.

The ABS has an important role in this area. Work being undertaken by the ABS includes:

- an ongoing program to develop and improve Indigenous data flowing from Australian, State and Territory administrative systems
- work with other agencies to ensure Indigenous people are identified in relevant systems and that statistics are of adequate quality. Priority is initially being given to the improvement of births and deaths statistics in all states and territories. Other priorities include hospital, community services, education, housing, and law and justice statistics
- work with other agencies to develop and support national Indigenous information plans, Indigenous performance indicators and Indigenous taskforces on a number of topics
- an expansion of its Household Survey Program to collect more regular Indigenous statistics, including regular Indigenous general social surveys, Indigenous sample supplementation in regular health surveys, and annual Indigenous labour force estimates.

The Review will draw on these initiatives in future reports.

Table 2.4 Reporting of at least one data item on Indigenous Australians, 2005 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	<i>Descriptive</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Outputs</i>		
			<i>Equity</i>	<i>Effectiveness</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>					
Education preface	✓	x	x	x	x
School education	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
VET	x	x	✓	x	x
<i>Justice</i>					
Justice preface	x	x	x	x	x
Police services	✓	✓	x	x	x
Court administration	x	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	✓	x	x	✓	✓
<i>Emergency management</i>					
Fire events	x	x	x	x	x
Ambulance events	x	x	x	x	x
Road rescue events	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>					
Health preface	✓	✓	x	x	x
Public hospitals	✓	x	x	x	x
Maternity services	x	✓	x	x	x
Primary and community health	✓	✓	x	x	x
Breast cancer	x	✓	x	x	x
Mental health	✓	✓	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>					
Community services preface	✓	x	x	x	x
Aged care services	✓	x	✓	x	x
Services for people with a disability	x	x	✓	✓	x
Children's services	x	x	✓	x	x
Child protection	✓	x	x	✓	x
Out of home care	✓	x	x	✓	x
SAAP	x	✓	✓	✓	x
<i>Housing</i>					
Public housing	✓	x	x	x	x
Community housing	✓	x	x	x	x
State owned and managed Indigenous housing	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	x	✓	✓	x	x

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ✓ At least one data item is reported. x No data are reported.

People living in rural and remote areas

The Steering Committee selectively reports on the performance of governments in delivering services to people in communities outside the capital cities. Table 2.5 indicates which service sectors are reporting at least one data item on services delivered to people in regional and remote areas.

Reporting data on rural and remote communities is complicated by the number of classification systems that exist. The chapters on emergency management, public hospitals, aged care services, disability services, children's services and housing now use the ABS Australian Standard Geographical Classification of remoteness areas. Whereas a number of other services (VET, primary and community health, and health management issues) still use the rural, remote and metropolitan areas classification (or a variant). The chapter on school education uses its own system developed for education ministers.

People from a non-English speaking background

A number of chapters in the Review report data on the performance of governments in providing services to people from a non-English speaking background. Table 2.6 indicates which services have reported at least one performance indicator for all jurisdictions.

Reporting data on people from a non-English speaking background is complicated by the number of classification systems that exist. People speaking a language other than English at home (reported for VET, breast cancer detection and management, and children's services), people with a language background other than English (reported for school education and corrective services) and people born in a non-English speaking country (reported for aged care services, protection and support services, and services for people with a disability) are the classifications currently adopted in the Report. Some services are considering reporting future data using the cultural and language diversity classification.

Table 2.5 Reporting of at least one data item on rural and remote communities, 2005 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	<i>Descriptive</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Outputs</i>		
			<i>Equity</i>	<i>Effectiveness</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>					
Education preface	x	x	x	x	x
School education	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
VET	x	x	✓	x	x
<i>Justice</i>					
Justice preface	x	x	x	x	x
Police services	x	x	x	x	x
Court administration	x	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Emergency management</i>					
Fire events	x	x	x	✓	x
Ambulance events	x	x	x	x	x
Road rescue events	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>					
Health preface	x	x	x	x	x
Public hospitals	✓	x	x	x	x
Maternity services	x	x	x	x	x
Primary and community health	x	x	✓	✓	x
Breast cancer	x	✓	x	x	x
Mental health	x	✓	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>					
Community services preface	x	x	x	x	x
Aged care services	x	x	✓	✓	x
Services for people with a disability	x	x	✓	✓	x
Children's services	x	x	✓	x	x
Child protection	x	x	x	x	x
Out-of-home care	x	x	x	x	x
SAAP	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Housing</i>					
Public housing	✓	x	x	x	x
Community housing	✓	x	x	x	x
State owned and managed Indigenous housing	✓	x	x	x	x
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	✓	✓	✓	x	x

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ✓ At least one data item is reported. x No data are reported.

Table 2.6 Reporting of at least one data item on people from a non-English speaking background, 2005 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	<i>Descriptive</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Outputs</i>		
			<i>Equity</i>	<i>Effectiveness</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>					
Education preface	x	x	x	x	x
School education	✓	✓	x	x	x
VET	x	x	✓	x	x
<i>Justice</i>					
Justice preface	x	x	x	x	x
Police services	x	x	x	x	x
Court administration	x	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Emergency management</i>					
Fire events	x	x	x	x	x
Ambulance events	x	x	x	x	x
Road rescue events	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>					
Health preface	x	x	x	x	x
Public hospitals	x	x	x	x	x
Maternity services	x	x	x	x	x
Primary and community health	x	x	x	x	x
Breast cancer	x	✓	x	x	x
Mental health	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>					
Community services preface	x	x	x	x	x
Aged care services	x	x	✓	x	x
Services for people with a disability	x	x	✓	✓	x
Children's services	x	x	✓	x	x
Child protection	x	x	x	x	x
Out-of-home care	x	x	x	x	x
SAAP	x	x	✓	✓	x
<i>Housing</i>					
Public housing	x	x	x	x	x
Community housing	x	x	x	x	x
State owned and managed Indigenous housing	x	x	x	x	x
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	x	x	x	x	x

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ✓ At least one data item is reported. x No data are reported.

2.4 'Cross-cutting' issues

There is growing emphasis on the management of policy issues that cover more than one service area or ministerial portfolio — for example, government policies

aimed at specific client constituencies or community groups such as older people, women, children, Indigenous Australians, people in rural and remote areas, and people from non-English speaking backgrounds. Improving the management of these issues can contribute to more effective and efficient service provision. Greater efficiency can come from more clearly defined priorities, and from the elimination of duplicated or contradictory programs. Improved outcomes can result from a more holistic and client centred approach to service delivery.

The Review has not fully explored this issue, but is increasingly making it a focus. The frameworks in chapter 11 ('Health management issues') are one means of reporting outcomes for a range of different services working in concert. The ultimate aim of that chapter is to report on the performance of primary, secondary and tertiary health services in improving outcomes for people with breast cancer or mental illness. The frameworks and the scope of services reported are evolving over time. The mental health management section, for example, currently reports only on the performance of specialised mental health services, but people with a mental illness also access primary and community health services (such as general practitioners, and drug and alcohol services) (see chapter 10), as well as aged care services (see chapter 12), services for people with a disability (see chapter 13) and public housing (see chapter 16). People with a mental illness sometimes also enter corrective services (see chapter 7).

Other references in this Report relating to cross-cutting issues include:

- mortality rates and life expectancy (see the 'Health preface'), with mortality rates being influenced by education, public health, housing, primary and community health, and hospital services (as well as external factors)
- younger people with a disability residing in residential aged care facilities (chapter 13)
- long term aged care in public acute hospitals (see chapter 12)
- potentially preventable hospitalisations (see chapter 10) — for example, effective primary and community health services making it less likely that people with asthma or diabetes will require hospitalisation due to these conditions
- the proportion of general practitioners with links to specialist mental health services (see chapter 11), given that general practitioners often refer people to specialist health and health-related services, and that the quality of their links with these services and of their referral practices can influence the appropriateness of services received by clients
- recidivism rates (reported in the 'Justice preface').

Counter-terrorism

A number of service areas included in this Report are contributing to government initiatives to improve security throughout Australia in response to the terrorist attacks on the United States on 11 September 2001. In particular, emergency services, police and public hospitals are key services involved in governments' responsibilities under the National Counter Terrorism Plan.¹ The performance indicator results included in the Report for these services are likely to reflect governments' actions to fulfil their responsibilities under the Plan, including restructuring, coordinating across services, employing extra staff, purchasing extra equipment, training staff, and/or extending working hours. The police, for example, have developed operational procedures for dealing with a broad range of chemical and biological hazards, and have improved their cooperation with emergency services and health professionals to ensure police officers can appropriately analyse risks and implement effective responses.

While performance data do not explicitly include the details of these government activities, such activities need to be kept in mind when interpreting performance results — for example:

- Counter-terrorism activities might have led to an increase in government expenditure, but the outputs or outcomes (for example, increased security patrols, emergency planning or improved security) do not show up in the data in the chapters. In this case, performance results for efficiency indicators may suggest a fall in value for money.
- Counter-terrorism requirements might have been accommodated by an increase in productivity rather than an increase in expenditure, but if the additional outputs or outcomes are not recorded in the chapters, then performance results will not reflect the improvement in productivity.

The agencies with the primary responsibilities for counter-terrorism (such as the defence forces, the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation and the relevant coordinating bodies) are not within scope for this Report, so comprehensive and detailed reporting of counter-terrorism is not possible.

¹ A National Counter Terrorism Committee with officials from the Australian, State and Territory governments was established and has developed a National Counter Terrorism Plan. All governments have responsibilities under the Plan to prevent acts of terrorism or, if such acts occur, to manage their consequences within Australia.

2.5 Related Review projects

The Steering Committee has also undertaken research into other issues relevant to the performance of government services. The information in *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003* (discussed earlier) complements the Indigenous data and performance indicators presented in this Report. The former describes overall ‘state-of-the-nation’ outcomes for Indigenous people, with a view to all government departments and agencies together being responsible, so there is no reporting on an individual government agency basis. The Report on Government Services, on the other hand, provides information on the performance of specified government agencies and programs in delivering services to Indigenous people.

In previous years, the Steering Committee published reports on:

- efficiency measures for child protection and support pathways (SCRCSSP 2003). The study developed and tested a method to allow States and Territories to calculate more meaningful, comparable and robust efficiency measures for the protection and support services they deliver
- the extent to which differences in asset measurement techniques applied by participating agencies affect the comparability of reported unit costs (SCRCSSP 2001)
- a survey of the satisfaction of clients of services for people with a disability (Equal and Donovan Research 2000)
- the use of activity surveys by police services in Australia and New Zealand (SCRCSSP 1999a) as a means of drawing lessons for other areas of government that are considering activity measurement in output costing and internal management
- an examination of payroll tax (SCRCSSP 1999b) and superannuation (SCRCSSP 1998b) in the costing of government services
- data envelopment analysis as a technique for measuring the efficiency of government services delivery (SCRCSSP 1997b).

Earlier research involved case studies of issues and options in the implementation of government service reforms. The Steering Committee has published a case study report (SCRCSSP 1997a) that covers:

- purchasing community services in SA
- using output-based funding of public acute hospital care in Victoria
- implementing competitive tendering and contracting for Queensland prisons

and one (SCRCSSP 1998a) that covers:

- devolving decision making in Victorian Government schools
- using competitive tendering for NSW public hospital services
- offering consumer funding and choice in WA services for people with a disability
- pricing court reporting services in Australian courts.

The Steering Committee has also developed checklists on common issues in implementing these reforms, such as:

- timing program implementation
- decentralising decision making
- measuring and assessing performance
- measuring quality
- directly linking funding to performance
- charging users (SCRCSSP 1998a).

The Steering Committee will continue to focus on research that is related to performance measurement, which is likely to help improve reporting for individual services.

2.6 References

ANTA (Australian National Training Authority) 2004, *Annual National Report of the Australian Vocational Education and Training System 2003*, Brisbane.

Equal and Donovan Research 2000, *National Satisfaction Survey of Clients of Disability Services*, Report prepared for the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision and the National Disability Administrators, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

SCRCSSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision) 1995, *Report on Government Service Provision 1995*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 1997a, *Reforms in Government Service Provision 1997*, AGPS, Canberra.

— 1997b, *Data Envelopment Analysis: A Technique for Measuring the Efficiency of Government Service Delivery*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 1998a, *Implementing Reforms in Government Services 1998*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 1998b, *Superannuation in the Costing of Government Services*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 1999a, *Linking Inputs and Outputs: Activity Measurement by Police Services*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 1999b, *Payroll Tax in the Costing of Government Services*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 2001, *Asset Measurement in the Costing of Government Services*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 2003, *Efficiency Measures for Child Protection and Support Pathways, Reforms in Government Service Provision*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2003, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 2004, *Report on Government Services 2004: Indigenous Compendium*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

B Education preface

Education is a lifelong activity, delivered both informally (for example, by family, through the community or at work) and formally through the three sectors that comprise Australia's education and training system (the school education, vocational education and training [VET] and higher education sectors).

Australia's formal system of education and training has a range of objectives, some of which are common across all sectors of education (for example, to increase knowledge) while others are more specific to a particular sector. The objectives of:

- the school education sector, as reflected in the national goals for schooling (box 3.1), include a focus on developing the capacities and talents of all young people so they have the necessary knowledge, understanding, skills and values for a productive and rewarding life
- the VET sector, as reflected in the National Strategy for VET 1998–2003 (box 4.3), include a focus on equipping Australians for the world of work, enhancing labour mobility and achieving equitable outcomes within VET. The objectives of the VET sector, as reflected in the current National Strategy for VET 2004–10 (box 4.3), include a focus on giving industry a highly skilled workforce to support strong performance in the global economy and giving Indigenous Australians skills for viable jobs and to ensure their learning culture will be shared
- the higher education sector, as reflected in the *Higher Education Report for the 2003–2005 Triennium*, include advancing and applying knowledge and understanding to benefit the Australian economy and society.

Australian, State and Territory governments provide funding to government and non-government providers to deliver formal education and training services within each of the three education and training sectors. Government providers include government schools (preschool, primary and secondary), technical and further education (TAFE) institutes and universities. Non-government providers include privately operated schools and preschools, and private registered training organisations (RTOs) in the VET sector.

Chapters 3 and 4 cover the performance of the school education and VET sectors. Preschool programs, which provide a variety of educational and developmental

experiences for children before full time schooling, are covered in chapter 14. Comparisons between the government and non-government school systems are included.

Areas of government involvement in education that are not covered in this Report include:

- universities (although some information is included in this preface)
- the transportation of students
- income support payments for students
- adult community education (except VET programs).

Services provided by other government agencies (such as health, housing and community services) influence education outcomes but are not formally part of Australia's education and training system. These services are not covered in the school education and VET chapters, but are discussed in other chapters of the Report.

Indigenous status, language and cultural background, disability status, socioeconomic status, gender and geographic location are also factors that potentially influence educational outcomes. It is a priority of the Review to improve the reporting of data to better assess the influence of these factors on the educational outputs and outcomes reported.

The remainder of this preface provides an overview of Australia's education and training system and its broad outcomes.

Profile of the education and training system

Roles and responsibilities

Different levels of government and non-government authorities and stakeholders carry out the roles and responsibilities of administering, funding and determining the objectives of the school education sector. The Australian Government's roles and responsibilities in delivering education and training services include:

- providing funding to non-government schools and to State and Territory governments for government schools, to support agreed priorities and strategies
- providing funding via the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) to states and territories for the delivery of VET programs and services, and support for VET infrastructure

-
- being the primary funding source for, and developer of policy related to, the higher education sector
 - providing financial assistance for students.

State and Territory governments' roles and responsibilities in providing education and training services include:

- having constitutional responsibility for the provision of schooling to all children of school age
- having the major financial responsibility for government school education, and contributing funds to non-government schools
- regulating both government and non-government school activities and policies
- determining school curricula, course accreditation, student assessment and student awards for both government and non-government schools
- administering and delivering VET and school education in government schools
- administering and funding TAFE institutes for the delivery of VET programs and services
- funding other RTOs for the delivery of VET programs and services, including community education providers and private providers
- regulating the delivery of VET services, including conducting quality audits, coordinating the registration of training organisations and managing the accreditation of nationally recognised education and training programs
- being responsible for legislation relating to the establishment of universities and the accreditation of higher education courses.

More detailed descriptions of the roles and responsibilities of governments in the school and VET sectors can be found in the respective chapters.

The Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) coordinates strategic policy at the national level, develops national agreements on shared objectives and interests, and negotiates the scope and format of national reporting on the performance of government and non-government schools. Membership of MCEETYA comprises Australian, State and Territory ministers and the New Zealand Minister with responsibility for education, employment, training and youth affairs.

The ANTA Ministerial Council (ANTA MINCO) comprises the Australian, State and Territory ministers with responsibility for VET. The ANTA MINCO determines strategic policy and sets national objectives and priorities for the VET sector. It is also responsible for approving funding for State and Territory training

systems based on the performance of the jurisdictions in meeting specific service delivery targets negotiated under the ANTA agreement. From July 2005, the ANTA will be abolished and its responsibilities will be taken into the Australian Government Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST). A Ministerial Council on Vocational Education will be established to ensure continued harmonisation of a national system of standards, assessment and accreditation with goals agreed in a Commonwealth–State funding agreement.

Table B.1 Australian, State and Territory (including local) government real expenditure on education (2002-03 dollars)^a

	2000-01 ^b	2001-02 ^b	2002-03	Average annual real growth
	\$m	\$m	\$m	%
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(10 393)	(10 938)	(10 989)	2.9
Australian Government operating expenses	11 436	12 023	12 109	2.9
Australian Government expenses less transfers	1 043	1 085	1 120	3.6
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(103)	(114)	(112)	4.5
State and Territory (including local) operating expenses	26 378	27 791	29 095	5.0
State and Territory (including local) expenses less transfers	26 275	27 677	28 983	5.0
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(252)	(264)	(292)	7.6
Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses	9 798	10 350	11 194	6.9
Multi-jurisdictional (university) expenses less transfers	9 546	10 086	10 902	6.9
Total intra-sector transfers	(10 749)	(11 316)	(11 393)	3.0
Total Australia operating expenses	47 612	50 164	52 398	4.9
Total operating expenses net of transfers	36 863	38 848	41 004	5.5

^a Based on accrual operating expenses for education. ^b The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) provided nominal figures. Real expenditure was calculated from these figures based on the ABS GDP price deflator (2002-03 = 100) (table A.26). ^c Payments between levels of government within the public sector.

Source: ABS (2004a); ABS Public Finance Statistics (unpublished).

Funding

Education and training is a major area of expenditure and activity for Australian, State and Territory governments. Total government operating expenses (net of transfers) for all governments for school education, VET and higher education was \$41.0 billion (table B.1) in 2002-03, which was equivalent to 5.4 per cent of gross

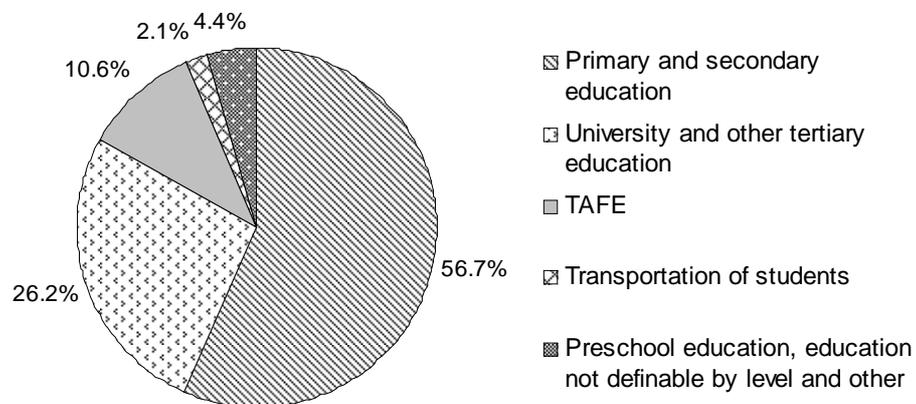
domestic product (GDP). Private household final consumption expenditure on education in 2002-03 was \$10.8 billion, or 1.4 per cent of GDP (ABS 2004a).

Australian Government operating expenses for the three education and training sectors in 2002-03 were \$12.1 billion, of which \$11.0 billion (90.8 per cent) comprised grants to other levels of government. State, Territory and local government operating expenditure was \$29.1 billion for the same year. Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses were \$11.2 billion. The intra-sector transfers, such as grants, were \$11.4 billion (table B.1).

Between 2000-01 and 2002-03, the average annual real growth rate of total government expenditure on education was 4.9 per cent. With the introduction of accrual accounting, the education expenditure data for 1999-2000 and earlier years included in previous reports are not comparable.

Schools accounted for the highest proportion of the \$41.0 billion government expenditure on education and training (56.7 per cent) in 2002-03, followed by universities (26.2 per cent) and TAFE institutes (10.6 per cent) (table B.1, figure B.1).

Figure B.1 Total government expenditure on education, 2002-03^{a, b}



^a Totals may not add to 100 as a result of rounding. ^b Based on accrual operating expenses for education.
Source: ABS (2004a).

Non-government schools received the highest proportion of Australian Government direct recurrent funding, accounting for 66.8 per cent of total recurrent Australian Government specific purpose payments to schools (table 3A.6). State and Territory governments provided 91.4 per cent of recurrent funding for government schools (table 3A.9). The Australian Government spent an average of \$3649 per student in

non-government schools and an average of \$939 per student in government schools in 2002-03 (table 3A.6).

The breakdown of State and Territory government expenditure across the education and training system varied across jurisdictions in 2002-03. The proportion of State, Territory and local government expenditure allocated to total school education (including primary, secondary, preschool, education not definable by level, and other) ranged from 89.2 per cent in Queensland to 77.7 per cent in the NT. The highest proportion of expenditure on TAFE was in Victoria (18.0 per cent) and the lowest proportion was in Queensland (10.8 per cent). There was little difference across jurisdictions in the proportion of expenditure on university education — the ACT had the highest proportion (2.9 per cent) and NSW and the NT had no expenditure (table B.2).

Size and scope

There were 3.3 million full time school students attending 9607 schools in Australia, including 6930 government schools, in 2003 (ABS 2004b). Over 1.7 million people undertook VET programs in Australia in 2003. Of these, 1.2 million students were government-funded (NCVER 2004). These programs were delivered in 1250 TAFE and other government provider locations and 7080 community education and other registered provider training locations (table 4A.3).

There were almost 930 000 students attending higher education providers who received funding from the Australian Government in 2003, an increase of 3.7 per cent on the number in 2002. These students undertook a variety of courses ranging from diplomas to doctorates across almost 50 providers. The most common course was the bachelor degree, which accounted for almost two thirds of all students. Students undertook their course mainly on campus on a full-time basis in the management and commerce, and the society and culture fields. Students in these fields undertook, for example, courses in accounting, tourism, marketing, political science, law, economics and criminology. In addition to the providers in receipt of Australian Government funds, around 120 other higher education providers were accredited by State and Territory educational authorities (DEST unpublished).

Table B.2 State and Territory (including local) government expenditure, 2002-03

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW^a</i>	<i>Vic^b</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA^c</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas^d</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
School education										
Preschool, not definable by level, and other ^e	%	5.9	4.5	12.0	6.0	9.6	6.5	4.8	10.8	7.1
Primary and secondary	%	80.5	77.3	77.1	79.9	75.4	81.1	77.8	66.8	78.4
Total ^f	%	86.4	81.8	89.2	86.0	85.1	87.6	82.6	77.7	85.5
TAFE	%	13.6	18.0	10.8	13.5	13.8	12.2	14.5	15.5	14.1
University	%	–	0.2	0.1	0.5	1.1	0.1	2.9	–	0.3
Other tertiary	%	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	6.9	0.1
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total	\$m	9 777	6 839	5 343	3 156	2 261	752	518	452	29 095

^a Most expenditure for preschools in NSW is contained in other budget areas and not included in this table. NSW 'primary and secondary' expenditure includes: some special education expenditure for preschool students; all special education expenditure for school students; and higher education expenditure.

^b Expenditure for preschools in Victoria is contained in other budget areas and is not included in this table.

^c Special education expenditure for WA is included under 'primary and secondary'. ^d Expenditure for preschools and special education in Tasmania is included under 'primary and secondary'. ^e Except where footnotes indicate otherwise, includes expenditure for preschools, special education and other education not definable by level (including transportation of students and education not elsewhere classified). The latter is defined as: adult education courses that are essentially nonvocational, other than those offered by TAFE institutes; migrant education programs; and other educational programs not definable by level. ^f Totals may not add due to rounding. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2004a).

Learning pathways

The Australian education and training system, comprises the compulsory years of schooling (until 16 years of age in Tasmania and 15 years of age in all other jurisdictions), and the range of pathways and the options available to students in post-compulsory education and training (box B.1). The Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) was developed to provide a comprehensive, nationally consistent framework for all qualifications in post-compulsory education and training. It was introduced in 1995 and fully implemented by the end of 1999. The AQF encourages flexible learning pathways. Modules from VET certificates, for example, can be integrated with senior secondary certificates, and both VET diplomas and higher education diplomas can gain credit towards a bachelor degree. Similarly, the VET sector recognises some higher education qualifications.

Under the AQF, VET certificates (mainly certificates I and II) may be achieved in schools and may contribute towards the Senior Secondary Certificate of Education, resulting in a dual qualification.

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- There were 202 900 students enrolled in VET in schools programs in 2003, an increase of approximately 9.7 per cent on the number in 2002. The proportion of senior secondary students undertaking VET within their senior secondary certificate rose from approximately 16 per cent in 1996 to 44 per cent in 2002.
 - These VET programs were offered by 1996 schools in 2002, or 95.2 per cent of all schools offering senior secondary programs.
 - Enrolments were highest in management and commerce programs, which accounted for 23.9 per cent of all enrolments by major field of education in 2003 (NCVER 2004).
 - In 2002, 60.6 per cent of students participating in VET in schools programs undertook workplace learning.
 - By the end of 2002, nearly 7639 students were involved in a school-based New Apprenticeship, an increase of approximately 32 per cent on the number in 2001.

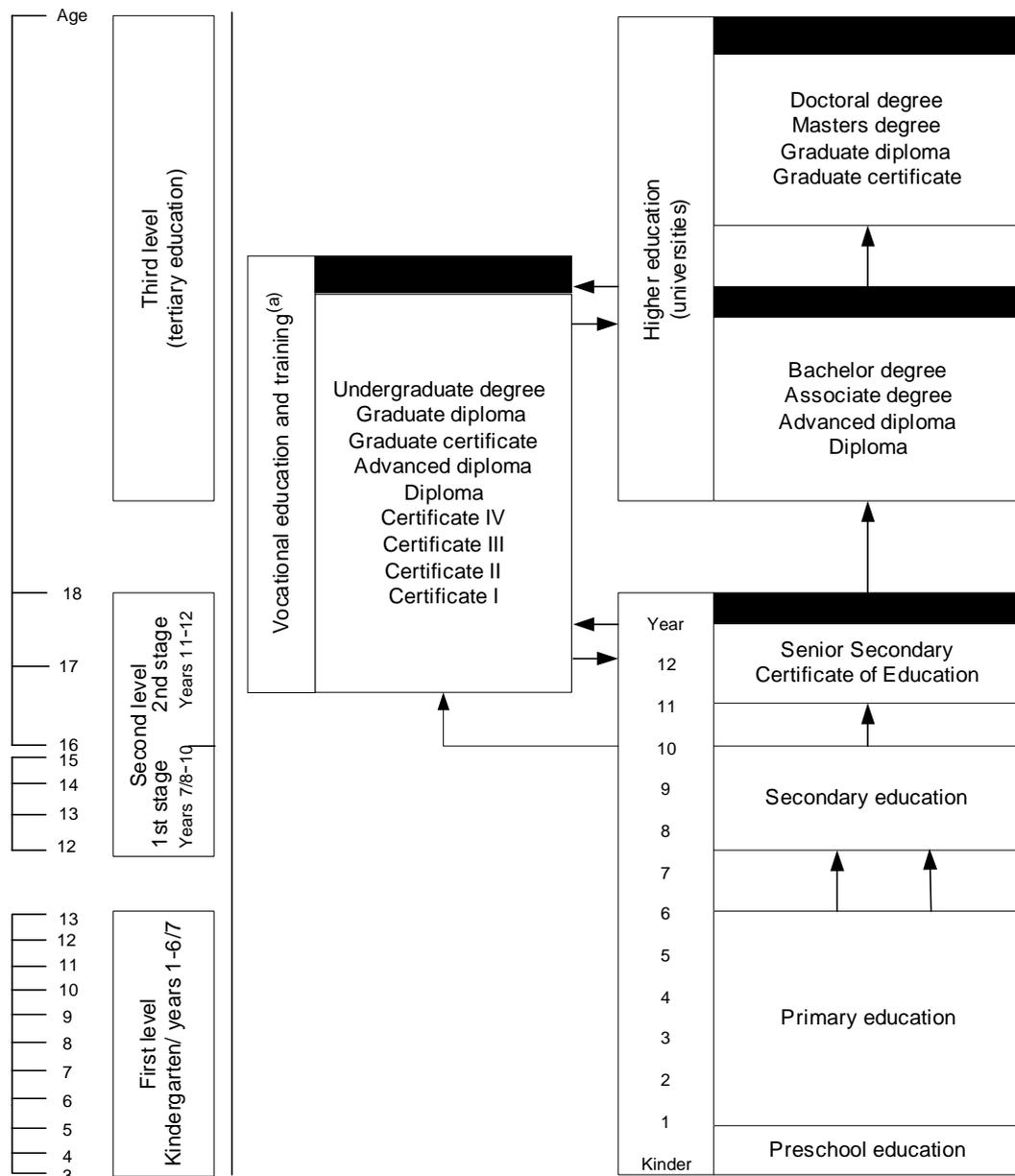
Care needs to be taken in interpreting these data, because data definitions across states and territories are not yet consistent.

Role and purpose of VET

The main focus of the VET system is to provide individuals with skills that are needed for employment. The emphasis is on the development of work-related competencies through training (delivered in classrooms, workplaces and online) that lead to nationally recognised skills and qualifications. These skills prepare individuals for employment at the technical, trade and professional levels, in addition to providing access to general education and literacy programs.

The Australian VET system includes both publicly and privately funded training, delivered by a wide range of institutions and enterprises that can be formally registered and periodically audited against established quality standards. Cooperative arrangements among governments, industry partners, community groups and training providers are fostered and promoted.

Box B.1 Outline of the Australian education and training system^{a, b}



^a Undergraduate degrees, graduate diplomas and graduate certificates are not offered within the VET system in all jurisdictions. ^b Providers deliver qualifications in more than one sector. Schools, for example, are delivering certificates I–II, universities are delivering certificates II–IV, and VET providers are delivering graduate certificates and graduate diplomas (higher education qualifications in some jurisdictions, but in others also VET), all subject to meeting the relevant quality assurance requirements.

Source: Based on National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (2000).

Measuring the performance of the education and training system

Measuring the effectiveness and efficiency of the Australian education and training system is a complex task. Individual performance indicator frameworks for the school education and VET sectors have been developed for the Review of Government Service Provision, but there is significant interaction between the two sectors, and between these sectors and the university sector. Socioeconomic factors, geographic location, age, Indigenous status, language background and the performance of other government agencies (particularly health, housing and community services) also influence educational outcomes.

Effectiveness

Data on participation (in education, training and work), school leaver destinations, education enrolment experience and educational attainment are presented in this section.

Participation in education and training

Successive Australian governments have viewed education as a key means to improving economic and social outcomes, as well as improving the equity of outcomes in society. They have sought, therefore, to increase estimated rates of participation in education and training. Estimated participation rates are hereafter referred to as 'participation rates'.

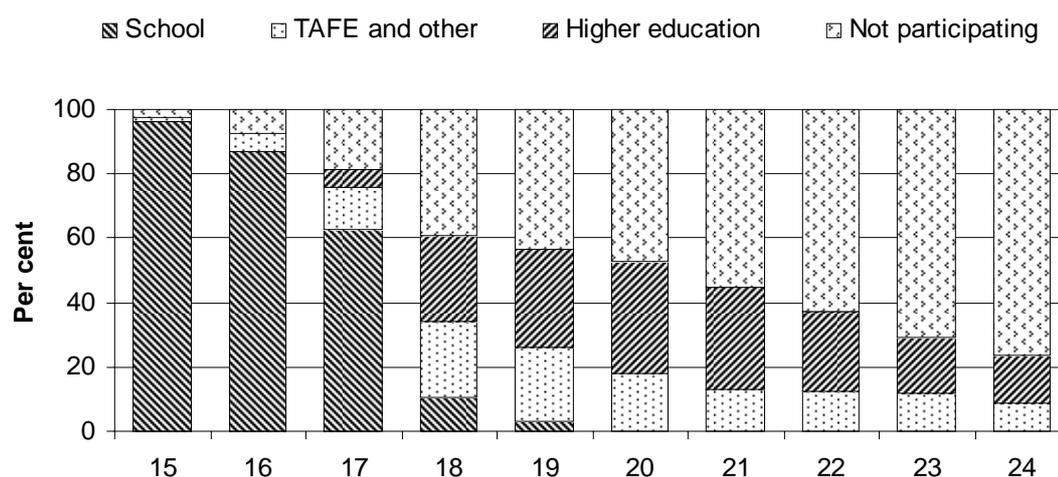
The education and training participation rates quoted in this section are estimates of the proportion of the population in a given age group who are enrolled in any course of study, on either a full or a part time basis, at an educational institution in May each year. These estimates are derived from unpublished data from the annual Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) survey of Education and Work. Estimates referring to small subgroups of the Australian population are susceptible to high sampling error, so jurisdictional comparisons need to be made with care.

To assist with making comparisons across jurisdictions, 95 per cent confidence intervals are presented below the estimates in each participation rate table. Confidence intervals are a standard way of expressing the degree of sampling error associated with the survey estimates. An estimate of 80 with a confidence interval of ± 2 , for example, means that if the total population had been surveyed rather than a sample, or had another sample been drawn, there is a 95 per cent chance that the result would lie between 78–82.

The participation rate for a jurisdiction, therefore, can be thought of in terms of a range. If one jurisdiction's rate ranges from 78–82 and another's from 77–81, then it is not possible to say with confidence that one differs from the other. Where ranges do not overlap, there is a high likelihood that there is a statistically significant difference. To say that there is a statistically significant difference means there is a high probability that there is an actual difference; it does not imply that the difference is necessarily large or important.

Beyond the age of compulsory school education (16 years in Tasmania and 15 years in all other jurisdictions), the percentage of people participating in education and training declines. Nationally, the participation rate was 97.5 for 15 year olds, 81.4 per cent for 17 year olds, 56.8 per cent for 19 year olds and 23.4 per cent for 24 year olds, in 2003 (figure B.2).

Figure B.2 Participation in education and training by people aged 15–24 years, by sector, 2003^{a, b}



^a 'Other' includes all education or training participation at institutions other than schools, higher education institutions and TAFE institutes. ^b Student participation is likely to be underestimated because data are for May, not for the whole year.

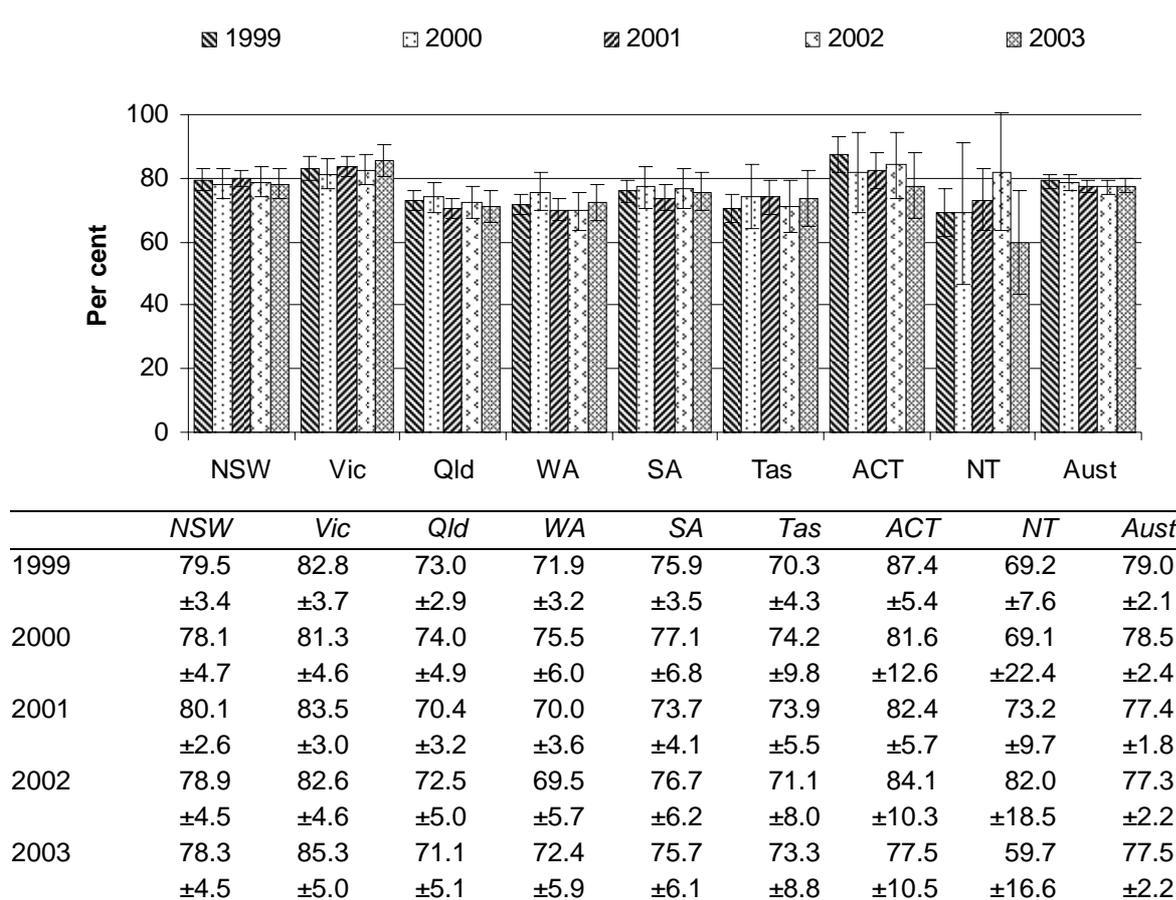
Source: ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

The level of participation in education and training varies across jurisdictions for many reasons. These include different age/grade structures, starting age at school, minimum leaving age, the number of compulsory years of schooling and the level of service provision. Other influences on participation include labour market changes, population movements, urbanisation, socioeconomic status and Indigenous status.

The rate of participation in education and training for 15–19 year old people was highest in Victoria (85.3 per cent) and lowest in the NT (59.7 per cent) in 2003. The participation rate for 15–19 year old people fluctuated most over time in the NT

(figure B.3). The apparent volatility may be due to the reliability of the estimates obtained from a small sample, rather than a result of volatility in the actual participation rates. Participation rates for school education are reported in chapter 3.

Figure B.3 Participation in education and training by people aged 15–19 years^a

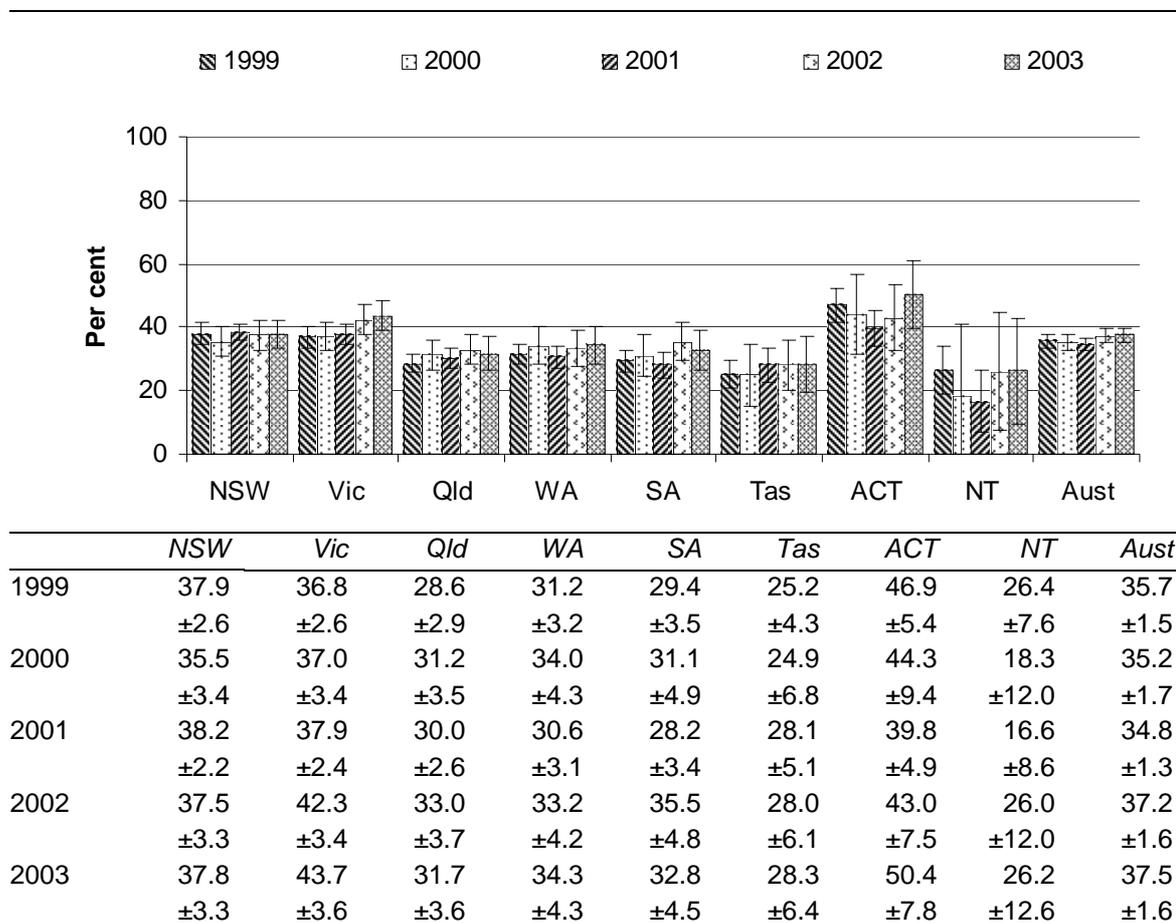


^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. The method by which standard errors are calculated has been revised for the 2005 Report, resulting in higher, more conservative confidence intervals. The corresponding participation rates remain unchanged.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work and survey of Transition from Education and Work (unpublished).

The participation rate for 20–24 year olds was highest in the ACT (50.4 per cent) and lowest in the NT (26.2 per cent) in 2003. The participation rate for 20–24 year olds over time was variable in the ACT and the NT, and relatively constant within all other jurisdictions between 1999 and 2003 (figure B.4). The apparent volatility may be due to the reliability of the estimates obtained from a small sample, rather than a result of volatility in the actual participation rates.

Figure B.4 **Participation in education and training by people aged 20–24 years^a**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. The method by which standard errors are calculated has been revised for the 2005 Report, resulting in higher, more conservative confidence intervals. The corresponding participation rates remain unchanged.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work and survey of Transition from Education to Work (unpublished).

Participation in education, training and work

Research undertaken by bodies such as the Dusseldorp Skills Forum and the Australian Council for Educational Research suggests that young people who are not participating full time in education, training, work or some combination of these activities are more likely to have difficulty in making a transition to full time employment by their mid-20s. A full time participation measure has been developed to monitor the proportion of the population that is at risk of marginal participation (or nonparticipation) in the labour market. Young people are counted as participating full time if they are engaged in full time education or training, full time work, or a combination of both part time education or training and part time work.

Table B.3 shows that, in most jurisdictions, full time participation rates decline from age 15 years through to age 18 years and remain stable from age 18 years through to age 24 years. The full time participation rate for 15–24 year olds in 2003 was highest in the ACT (87.4 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (77.4 per cent).

Table B.3 Full time participation in education, training or work, 2003 (per cent)^{a, b}

Age (years)	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
15	97.6 ±2.2	99.0 ±1.4	95.6 ±3.2	96.4 ±3.3	99.1 ±1.7	100.0 ..	100.0 ..	88.7 ±18.6	97.6 ±1.0
16	92.7 ±3.6	96.9 ±2.5	95.0 ±3.4	91.5 ±5.0	96.4 ±3.7	98.4 ±3.2	96.4 ±5.7	100.0 ..	94.6 ±1.5
17	90.3 ±4.1	93.0 ±3.7	79.1 ±6.1	82.4 ±6.7	87.5 ±6.5	80.7 ±10.4	95.4 ±6.4	94.2 ±11.2	87.6 ±2.2
18	75.9 ±5.9	86.3 ±5.0	75.8 ±6.3	73.5 ±7.6	67.1 ±9.3	73.7 ±11.7	60.2 ±14.0	94.0 ±12.9	77.2 ±2.8
19	80.8 ±5.3	82.1 ±5.4	70.8 ±6.8	79.1 ±7.1	74.5 ±8.3	57.3 ±13.8	79.2 ±11.7	79.4 ±21.1	78.0 ±2.8
20	79.6 ±5.5	80.8 ±5.3	73.0 ±6.6	86.2 ±6.0	75.1 ±8.2	80.1 ±11.0	89.7 ±8.1	60.1 ±31.1	79.1 ±2.7
21	77.4 ±5.6	80.5 ±5.5	71.4 ±6.7	76.2 ±7.4	74.0 ±9.1	78.3 ±11.1	85.9 ±9.2	72.4 ±27.2	76.8 ±2.8
22	75.4 ±5.8	81.1 ±5.4	67.1 ±7.1	78.9 ±7.4	85.7 ±6.9	65.3 ±14.1	98.1 ±3.8	64.6 ±31.3	76.5 ±2.8
23	81.1 ±5.4	76.9 ±5.7	73.7 ±6.8	74.4 ±7.6	67.5 ±9.3	69.1 ±14.0	89.9 ±8.4	70.1 ±20.4	76.8 ±2.8
24	73.6 ±6.0	79.2 ±5.6	75.0 ±6.8	77.6 ±7.3	68.5 ±9.2	70.1 ±13.4	82.4 ±10.6	52.5 ±28.9	75.3 ±2.9
15–19	87.2 ±4.7	91.5 ±5.2	82.9 ±5.5	84.4 ±6.3	84.9 ±6.4	82.6 ±9.3	85.3 ±10.9	91.3 ±19.8	86.8 ±2.3
20–24	77.4 ±4.4	79.7 ±4.6	72.0 ±5.1	78.6 ±6.1	74.2 ±6.2	73.0 ±9.6	89.2 ±10.1	64.8 ±18.7	76.9 ±2.2
15–24	82.2 ±3.0	85.3 ±3.2	77.4 ±3.6	81.5 ±4.2	79.6 ±4.0	78.1 ±6.2	87.4 ±7.1	78.9 ±12.7	81.8 ±1.5

^a 95 per cent confidence interval refers to the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. The method by which standard errors are calculated has been revised for the 2005 Report, resulting in higher, more conservative confidence intervals. The corresponding participation rates remain unchanged.

^b Full time participation is defined as participation in full time education or training or full time work, or a combination of both part time education or training and part time work. .. Not applicable.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

School leaver destinations

Approximately 295 100 people aged 15–24 years who attended school in 2002 were not attending school in May 2003. Of these students, 89 900, or 30.5 per cent were early school leavers. Males were more likely to be early school leavers, making up

56.7 per cent of the total. Higher education institutions attracted 85 100 school leavers in 2003, or 28.8 per cent of all school leavers. Institutes of TAFE attracted 74 700 school leavers (25.3 per cent). While 67.7 per cent of year 12 leavers went on to post-school education and training, only 38.5 per cent of early school leavers undertook any further study (table B.4).

Table B.4 School leaver destination (15–24 year olds), 2003^{a, b}

Type of institution attended in May 2003	Unit	Year 12 leavers			Early school leavers ^c			All school leavers		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Enrolled										
Higher education ^d	%	39.9	41.9	41.0	np	np	np	26.6	31.1	28.8
TAFE institutes	%	23.7	20.6	22.0	37.5	26.7	32.8	28.4	22.2	25.3
Other study ^{e, f}	%	2.9	6.2	4.7	3.3	6.2	4.6	3.0	6.2	4.6
Total enrolled	%	66.5	68.8	67.7	42.0	33.6	38.5	58.1	59.5	58.8
Not enrolled	%	33.5	31.3	32.3	58.0	66.2	61.6	41.9	40.5	41.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enrolled										
Higher education ^d	'000	38.7	45.3	84.1	np	np	np	39.4	45.7	85.1
TAFE institutes	'000	23.0	22.2	45.2	19.1	10.4	29.5	42.1	32.6	74.7
Other study ^{e, f}	'000	2.8	6.7	9.6	1.7	2.4	4.1	4.5	9.1	13.6
Total enrolled	'000	64.6	74.3	138.9	21.4	13.1	34.6	86.0	87.4	173.4
Not enrolled	'000	32.5	33.8	66.3	29.6	25.8	55.4	62.0	59.6	121.6
Total ('000)	'000	97.1	108.0	205.1	51.0	39.0	89.9	148.1	147.0	295.1

^a Data for people who attended school in 2002 and were not attending school in May 2003. ^b Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^c Those who left school earlier than year 12. ^d The estimates for male and female early school leavers have a relative standard error of greater than 50 per cent and are considered too unreliable for general use. ^e Includes business colleges, industry skills centres and other educational institutions. ^f The estimates of male year 12 leavers, and male, female and total early school leavers have relative standard errors of 25–50 per cent and need to be used with caution. **np** Not published.

Source: ABS (2004c); ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

Education enrolment experience

Nationally, approximately 2.7 million people aged 15–64 years applied to enrol in an educational institution in 2003. Of the people who applied to enrol, 2.4 million (91.1 per cent) were studying in 2003, while 5.9 per cent deferred study and 3.1 per cent were unable to gain placement (table B.5).

Table B.5 Applications to enrol in an educational institution, by people aged 15–64 years

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>2002</i>	<i>2003</i>
Applied to enrol						
Studying in May	%	89.0	89.3	90.5	91.8	91.1
Gained placement but deferred study	%	7.4	7.3	6.4	5.1	5.9
Unable to gain placement ^a	%					
TAFE	%	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.7
Other ^b	%	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.4
Higher education	%	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Total unable to gain placement		3.6	3.4	3.1	3.0	3.1
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total applied to enrol	'000	2 537.5	2 527.8	2 552.9	2 603.2	2 674.1
Did not apply to enrol	'000	9 945.1	10 124.9	10 235.4	10 323.6	10 401.0
Total^c	'000	12 482.6	12 652.7	12 788.3	12 926.8	13 075.1

^a Reasons included: the course was full; the course was cancelled; the applicant was not eligible/entry score was too low; the applicant applied too late; or other reasons. ^b Includes other educational institutions not separately listed. ^c Totals may not add as a result of rounding.

Source: ABS (2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004c); ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

Educational attainment in Australia

An important objective of the education system is to improve the skill base of the population, with the benefit of improving worker productivity and facilitating economic growth and employment. Educational attainment of the labour force is used as a proxy indicator for the stock of skills. It understates the skill base, however, because it does not capture skills acquired through partially completed courses, courses not leading to a formal qualification, or training and experience learned at work.

There were 6.4 million people aged 15–64 years who had a non-school qualification in 2003. Of this group, 36.8 per cent had a postgraduate degree, graduate diploma/graduate certificate or bachelor degree as their highest non-school qualification. Of the 6.7 million people in this age group without non-school qualifications, 33.6 per cent had completed the highest level of secondary school (ABS 2004c).

There were 5.2 million employed people who had a non-school qualification in 2003, representing 56.1 per cent of employed people aged 15–64 years (ABS 2004c). Those persons whose level of highest educational attainment is a bachelor degree or above were more likely to be employed (84.3 per cent), while people who did not complete secondary school were the least likely (57.0 per cent) (table B.6).

Table B.6 Level of highest educational attainment of people aged 15–64 years, by labour force status, 2003^{a, b}

<i>Labour force status</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Bachelor degree or higher</i>	<i>Advanced diploma/ diploma</i>	<i>Certificate III or IV</i>	<i>Certificate I, II or NFD</i>	<i>Year 12</i>	<i>Year 11 or below</i>	<i>Total^c</i>
Employed	%	84.3	79.1	83.7	63.6	72.5	57.0	71.0
Unemployed	%	2.7	3.5	3.5	7.9	5.1	6.1	4.7
Not in labour force	%	13.0	17.4	12.8	28.5	22.3	36.9	24.3
Total^d	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All people	'000	2 360.6	965.1	1 993.0	137.1	2 627.0	4 863.9	13 075.1

NFD = not further defined. ^a At May. ^b School year level estimates include some people with certificate I and II qualifications. ^c Includes people who never attended school and people whose level of highest educational attainment could not be determined. ^d Totals may not add as a result of rounding.

Source: ABS (2004c); ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

People employed as professionals were most likely to have completed a bachelor or higher degree as their level of highest educational attainment in 2003 (69.1 per cent), while the level of highest educational attainment for the majority of tradespeople and related workers was a certificate III or IV (57.0 per cent). People employed as clerical sales and service workers, intermediate production and transport workers, elementary clerical sales and service workers, and labourers and related workers were most likely to have year 12 or below as their highest level of educational attainment (table B.7).

Table B.7 Level of highest educational attainment of employed people aged 15–64 years, by occupation (per cent) 2003^{a, b}

<i>Occupation in current job</i>	<i>Bachelor degree or higher</i>	<i>Advanced diploma/ diploma</i>	<i>Certificate III or IV</i>	<i>Certificate I, II or NFD</i>	<i>Year 12</i>	<i>Year 11 or below</i>	<i>Total^c</i>	<i>Total</i>
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Managers and administrators	33.1	8.7	16.5	0.7	14.9	24.8	100.0	629.5
Professionals	69.1	12.9	4.7	0.2	7.8	4.5	100.0	1 709.7
Associate professionals	20.9	13.1	17.9	0.8	22.5	23.4	100.0	1 156.7
Tradespeople and related workers	2.7	3.9	57.0	0.7	12.5	22.4	100.0	1 208.1
Advanced clerical, sales and service workers	11.3	10.5	10.0	1.7	29.7	35.8	100.0	375.4
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	10.0	9.3	14.2	1.2	31.4	33.2	100.0	1 613.4
Intermediate production and transport workers	4.1	3.2	19.2	1.3	18.7	52.1	100.0	807.5
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers	6.0	4.8	7.3	1.3	33.9	45.7	100.0	959.8
Labourers and related workers	3.9	3.4	11.8	1.6	20.9	57.2	100.0	821.0
All occupations	21.4	8.2	18.0	0.9	20.5	29.9	100.0	9 281.2

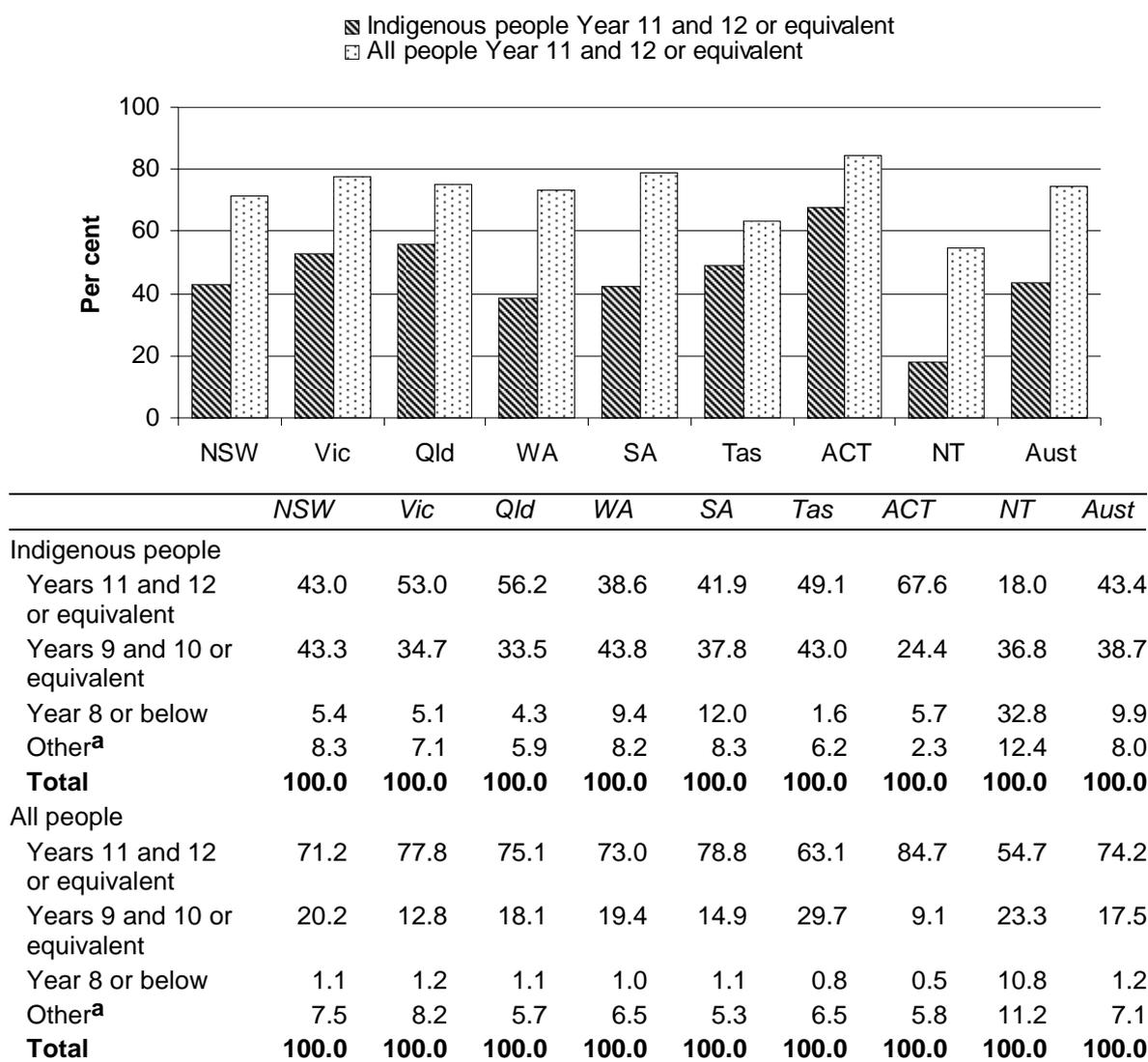
NFD = not further defined. ^a At May. ^b School year level estimates include some people with Certificate I and II qualifications. ^c Includes people who never attended school and people whose level of highest educational attainment could not be determined, therefore, the sum of the row percentages will not add to 100.

Source: ABS (2004c); ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

Additional attainment data for Indigenous and all students are provided from the 2001 Census. These data provide information on the differences between Indigenous and all students on the highest level of school completed. The greatest difference between Indigenous and all students was the proportion of students who completed senior years of schooling.

The proportion of all students who completed year 11 or equivalent and/or year 12 or equivalent was higher for all students than for Indigenous students for all jurisdictions for 20–24 year olds. Nationally, 43.4 per cent of Indigenous students and 74.2 per cent of all students completed year 11 or equivalent and/or year 12 or equivalent in 2001 (figure B.5).

Figure B.5 **Highest level of schooling completed by people aged 20–24 years, by Indigenous status**



^a 'Other' includes people who did not go to school, are still at school and those not stated.

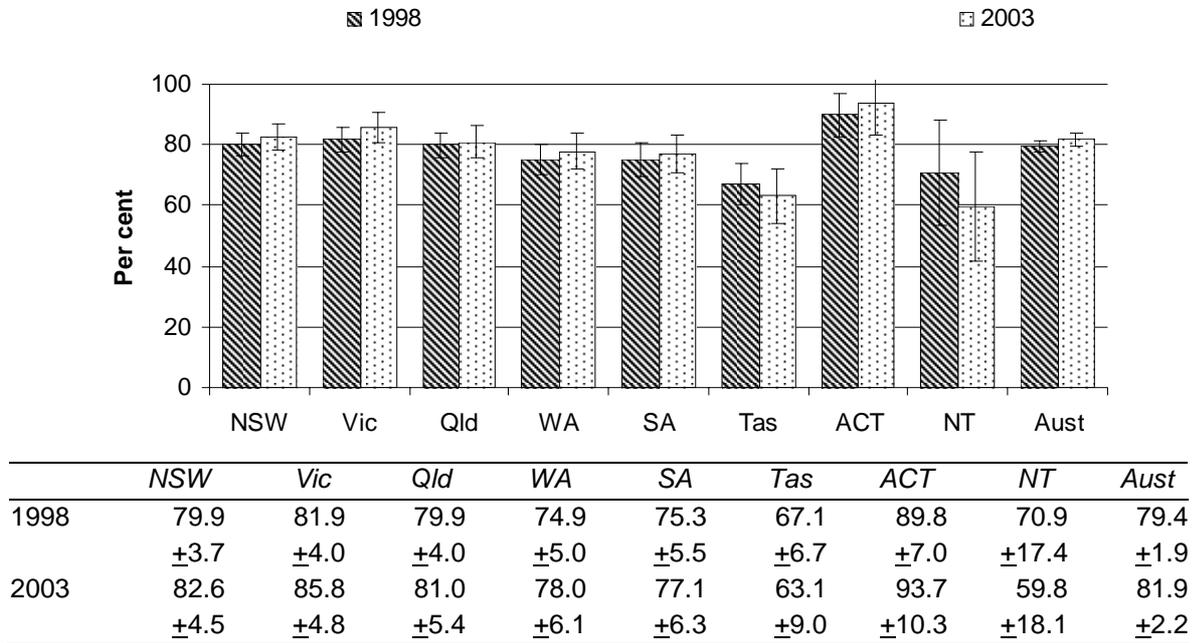
Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing (unpublished).

Supplementary attainment data for students are provided for this Report from the ABS survey of Education and Work. These data provide information on:

- the proportion of 20–24 year olds who have completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above
- the proportion of 25–29 year olds who have gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above.

The proportion of 20–24 year olds who have completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above was relatively stable both nationally and in all jurisdictions over the five year period (figure B.6).

Figure B.6 Proportion of 20–24 year olds who completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above^a

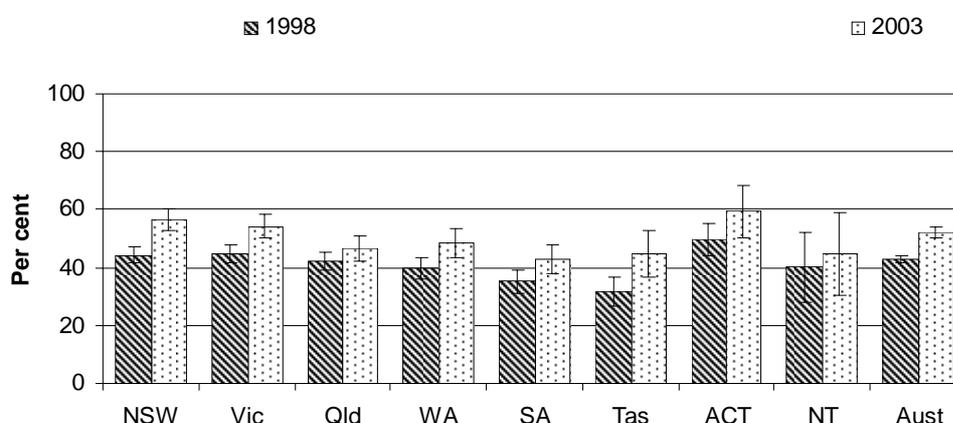


^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

The proportion of 25–29 year olds who have gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above either increased or was relatively stable in all jurisdictions. Nationally, the average increase between 1998–2003 was 21.8 per cent over the five year period (figure B.7).

Figure B.7 Proportion of 25–29 year olds who gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above^a



	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
1998	44.3	45.0	42.3	40.0	35.2	31.7	49.6	40.1	42.8
	+2.8	+3.0	+3.0	+3.8	+3.8	+4.9	+5.5	+11.9	+1.4
2003	56.4	54.3	46.7	48.4	42.7	44.8	59.4	44.9	52.1
	+3.8	+4.0	+4.4	+5.1	+5.1	+8.2	+8.9	+14.3	+1.9

^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished).

Efficiency

Data on school education and VET recurrent unit costs are presented in this section.

Comparing unit costs across jurisdictions

Comparing the unit costs of providing a particular service across jurisdictions can help to identify whether states or territories have scope to improve their efficiency. Special characteristics within jurisdictions, however, mean it would be difficult for all jurisdictions to attain the same level of unit costs while achieving similar outcomes. One way of better understanding how special characteristics may affect costs is to compare the variations in the unit costs across jurisdictions for services that aim to achieve similar outcomes, such as government school education (table B.8) and VET (table B.9).

The greater jurisdictional variation in the unit costs of VET compared with those in schools raises questions about the likely causes. Further analysis would be necessary to identify, for example, whether the effects of scale or dispersion are greater for VET than for schools, or whether the quality of the services or the efficiency of service provision differs more. Notwithstanding this, school education

unit costs are not comparable to those of VET, due to the differing bases upon which they are calculated, and the differences between the two education sectors.

Table B.8 School education recurrent unit costs, 2002-03^{a, b, c}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Government primary schools										
In-school cost per FTE student ^d	\$	8 715	7 347	7 969	8 051	8 302	8 107	8 413	11 510	8 165
Difference from national average	%	6.74	-10.02	-2.39	-1.39	1.68	-0.70	3.04	40.97	–
Government secondary schools										
In-school cost per FTE student ^d	\$	11 302	10 014	9 724	10 974	9 643	10 014	11 773	15 634	10 561
Difference from national average	%	7.01	-5.18	-7.93	3.91	-8.70	-5.19	11.47	48.04	–

FTE = full time equivalent. ^a Based on accrual data. ^b A notional user cost of capital based on 8 per cent of total written down value of capital assets as at 30 June 2003 is applied to all jurisdictions. ^c Schools data include payroll tax estimates for WA and the ACT to achieve greater comparability across jurisdictions. ^d Schools data are total government expenditure on government schools divided by average FTE student population in 2002 and 2003. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: table 3A.8.

Table B.9 VET institution recurrent unit costs, 2002-03^{a, b, c}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
VET ^d										
Cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour	\$	14.63	11.79	14.13	13.67	15.34	13.34	13.38	22.22	13.76
Difference from national average	%	6.30	-14.34	2.68	-0.69	11.43	-3.08	-2.82	61.44	–

^a Based on accrual data. ^b A notional user cost of capital based on 8 per cent of total written down value of capital assets as at 30 June 2003 is applied to all jurisdictions. ^c VET data include payroll tax estimates for the ACT to achieve greater comparability across jurisdictions. ACT payroll tax estimates are excluded from the Australian total. ^d VET data are based on the 2003 calendar year. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: table 4A.18.

References

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2000, *Transition from Education and Work 1999*, Cat. no. 6227.0, Canberra.

— 2001, *Transition from Education and Work 2000*, Cat. no. 6227.0, Canberra.

— 2002, *Education and Work 2001*, Cat. no. 6227.0, Canberra.

— 2003, *Education and Work 2002*, Cat. no. 6227.0, Canberra.

— 2004a, *Government Finance Statistics, Education, 2002-03*. Cat. no. 5518.055.001, Canberra.

— 2004b, *Schools Australia, 2003*, Cat. no. 4221.0, Canberra.

— 2004c, *Education and Work 2003*, Cat. no. 6227.0, Canberra.

NCVER (National Centre for Vocational Education Research) 2004, *Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics, Students and Courses 2003*, ANTA, Adelaide.

NOOSR (National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition) 2000, *December 2000 Country Education Profiles*, Canberra.

3 School education

This chapter focuses on performance information — equity, effectiveness and efficiency — for government funded school education in Australia. Reporting relates to government funding only, not to the full cost to the community of providing school education. Descriptive information and performance indicators are generally reported for:

- government primary and secondary schools
- non-government primary and secondary schools
- school education as a whole (government and non-government primary and secondary schools).

Schooling aims to provide education for all young people. The main purposes of school education are to assist students in:

- attaining knowledge, skills and understanding in key learning areas
- developing their talents, capacities, self-confidence, self-esteem and respect for others
- developing their capacity to contribute to Australia’s social, cultural and economic development.

This year, the chapter has been enhanced by including:

- an increased disaggregation of capital-related data items
- data for full time equivalent (FTE) school enrolments by gender
- a time series of recurrent expenditure per student using comparable, accrual based data.

Section 3.1 contains a profile of school education in Australia. This section provides the context for assessing performance indicators in the subsequent sections. Section 3.2 includes the framework of performance indicators for school education, and section 3.3 presents and discusses the available data relating to this framework. In section 3.4, future directions in the development and reporting of performance indicators for school education are discussed. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions’ comments in section 3.5 and definitions of key terms and indicators in section 3.6.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 3 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2005\Attach3A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2005\Attach3A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 3A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details inside the front cover of the Report).

3.1 Profile of school education

Service overview

Schools are the institutions within which organised school education takes place. They are differentiated by the type and level of education they provide, their ownership and management, and the characteristics of their student body. The formal statistical definition of schools used for this chapter is:

... an establishment that satisfies all of the following criteria:

- its major activity is the provision of full time day primary, secondary or special school education or primary or secondary distance education
- it is headed by a principal (or equivalent) responsible for its internal operation
- it is possible for students to enrol and be active in a course of study for a minimum of four continuous weeks (excluding breaks for school vacations) (ABS 2004).

Student performance can be affected by factors that may be partly or totally outside the influence of the school system, such as student commitment, family environment (including wealth, parents' educational attainment and support for the child) and the proximity of the school to other educational facilities. It is beyond the scope of this Report to consider the effect of all factors, but this section provides some context for the performance information presented later in the chapter. Further information is provided in appendix A.

Roles and responsibilities

Under constitutional arrangements the State and Territory governments have responsibility to ensure the delivery of schooling to all children of school age. They determine curricula, regulate school activities and provide most of the funding. State and Territory governments are directly responsible for the administration of government schools, for which they provide the majority of government expenditure. Non-government schools operate under conditions determined by State and Territory government registration authorities and also receive Australian, State and Territory government funding.

The Australian Government funds government and non-government schools through specific purpose payments. The Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) — comprising Australian, State and Territory, and New Zealand education ministers — is the principal forum for developing national priorities and strategies for schooling.

Funding

Australian, State and Territory government recurrent expenditure on school education was \$27.0 billion in 2002-03 (table 3.1). Expenditure on government schools was \$21.8 billion, or 80.6 per cent of the total. Government schools account for most of the expenditure by State and Territory governments. These governments also contribute to the funding of non-government schools and provide services used by both government and non-government schools. More information, including on Australian Government spending on Indigenous specific programs, can be found in tables 3A.6 and 3A.7.

Nationally, State and Territory governments provided 91.4 per cent of total government recurrent expenditure on government schools in 2002-03, and the Australian Government provided 8.6 per cent. In contrast, government expenditure on non-government schools in that year was mainly provided by the Australian Government (71.5 per cent), with State and Territory governments providing 28.5 per cent (table 3.1).

The expenditure data presented in this and the 2004 Report represent recurrent expenditure that was recorded using accrual-based accounting principles. These data are not directly comparable with data presented in earlier reports for two reasons. First, data presented in the 2003 and earlier reports also included recurrent grants made by the Australian Government for capital expenditure and excluded notional user cost of capital (UCC) for State and Territory governments. Second,

data presented in the 2001 and earlier reports were recorded using cash-based accounting principles.

For the 2004 Report, these changes mean that the reported expenditure by the Australian Government on both government schools and all schools will be lower than in 2000-01 and earlier years, and expenditure by State and Territory governments on government schools and all schools will be higher. Australian Government recurrent grants for capital contribute to the assets base on which the State and Territory depreciation and notional UCC charge are calculated.

Table 3.1 Government recurrent expenditure on school education, 2002-03 (\$ million)^{a, b, c}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Government schools									
Australian	620	419	363	190	141	51	30	49	1 863
States and territories	7 015	4 367	3 649	2 115	1 483	548	359	374	19 910
Total	7 634	4 786	4 012	2 304	1 624	600	389	423	21 773
Non-government schools									
Australian	1 240	994	677	366	285	74	78	45	3 759
States and territories	552	292	299	170	98	31	31	26	1 499
Total	1 792	1 286	976	535	382	105	109	71	5 257
All schools									
Australian	1 860	1 413	1 040	555	425	125	108	94	5 622
States and territories	7 567	4 659	3 948	2 284	1 581	579	389	399	21 408
Total	9 427	6 072	4 989	2 840	2 006	705	498	493	27 030

^a See notes to table 3A.9 for definitions and other data caveats. Data presented here are expenditure, including notional UCC and excluding capital grants (which equates to recurrent expenditure). ^b Based on accrual accounting. ^c Totals may not add due to rounding.

Source: MCEETYA (2004b, unpublished); Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished); Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.9.

Some data are presented on government funding of non-government schools. Caution needs to be taken when comparing data on the relative efficiency of government and non-government schools because governments provide only part of the funding for non-government schools. Governments provided 57.3 per cent of non-government school funding in 2002, with the remaining 42.7 per cent sourced from private fees and fundraising (MCEETYA 2004a, statistical annex, p. 31).

Size and scope

Descriptive information on the numbers of students, staff and schools can be found in tables 3A.1–3A.4.

Structure

The structure of school education varies across states and territories. These differences can influence the interpretation of data presented under common classifications. Formal schooling consists of six to seven years of primary school education followed by five to six years of secondary school education, depending on the State or Territory (figure 3.1). All states and territories divide school education into compulsory and non-compulsory components based on age, not grade. School education is compulsory in all states and territories for people between 6 and 15 years of age (16 years of age in SA and Tasmania).

Figure 3.1 Structure of primary and secondary schooling, 2002

<i>Level</i>	<i>NSW, Vic, Tas, ACT</i>	<i>WA, SA, NT^a</i>	<i>Qld^b</i>
Year 12	SECONDARY	SECONDARY	SECONDARY
Year 11			
Year 10			
Year 9			
Year 8			
Year 7			
Year 6	PRIMARY	PRIMARY	PRIMARY
Year 5			
Year 4			
Year 3			
Year 2			
Year 1			
Pre-year 1	Kindergarten (NSW, ACT) Preparatory (Vic, Tas)	Pre-primary (WA) Reception (SA) ^c Transition (NT) ^d	

^a In some places in the NT, secondary schooling begins at year 7. ^b Pre-year 1 is not included in the pattern of study in Queensland. In addition to preschool in 2003, Queensland conducted a trial of preparatory year of schooling for pre-year 1 at selected schools. ^c SA has an intake for each term. ^d The NT has an intake for terms 1–3.

Source: Adapted from MCEETYA (unpublished).

Schools

At the beginning of August 2003, there were 9607 schools in Australia. The majority of schools were government owned and managed (72.1 per cent) (table 3.2). Settlement patterns (population dispersion), the age distribution of the population, and educational policy influence the distribution of schools by size and level in different jurisdictions. For school education as a whole in 2003, the NT had

the highest proportion of very small primary schools (those with 20 or fewer students) (16.2 per cent) and the highest proportion of secondary schools with 300 or fewer students (36.8 per cent). Nationally, 62.3 per cent of all secondary schools enrolled over 600 students (table 3A.12). A breakdown of primary and secondary schools by size for government, non-government and all schools is reported in tables 3A.10, 3A.11 and 3A.12 respectively.

Table 3.2 Summary of school characteristics, August 2003

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Government schools (no.)									
Primary	1 650	1 222	970	517	437	142	66	88	5 092
Secondary	367	261	180	97	74	39	22	11	1 051
Combined ^a	65	54	86	94	78	25	3	46	451
Special schools ^b	104	78	47	70	20	8	4	5	336
Total	2 186	1 615	1 283	778	609	214	95	150	6 930
Non-government schools (no.)									
Primary	517	446	243	154	116	31	26	17	1 550
Secondary	148	103	80	39	22	7	6	8	413
Combined ^a	209	131	119	91	59	28	10	8	655
Special schools ^b	32	17	3	2	3	1	1	–	59
Total	906	697	445	286	200	67	43	33	2 677
All schools (no.)									
Primary	2 167	1 668	1 213	671	553	173	92	105	6 642
Secondary	515	364	260	136	96	46	28	19	1 464
Combined ^a	274	185	205	185	137	53	13	54	1 106
Special schools ^b	136	95	50	72	23	9	5	5	395
Total	3 092	2 312	1 728	1 064	809	281	138	183	9 607
Proportion of schools that are government schools (%)									
Primary	76.1	73.3	80.0	77.0	79.0	82.1	71.7	83.8	76.7
Secondary	71.3	71.7	69.2	71.3	77.1	84.8	78.6	57.9	71.8
Combined ^a	23.7	29.2	42.0	50.8	56.9	47.2	23.1	85.2	40.8
Special schools ^b	76.5	82.1	94.0	97.2	87.0	88.9	80.0	100.0	85.1
All schools	70.7	69.9	74.2	73.1	75.3	76.2	68.8	82.0	72.1
Proportion of primary schools (%)									
Government	75.5	75.7	75.6	66.5	71.8	66.4	69.5	58.7	73.5
Non-government	57.1	64.0	54.6	53.8	58.0	46.3	60.5	51.5	57.9
All schools	70.1	72.1	70.2	63.1	68.4	61.6	66.7	57.4	69.1

^a Combined primary and secondary schools. ^b Special schools provide special instruction for students with physical or intellectual disabilities and students with social problems.

Source: ABS (2004); tables 3A.1, 3A.2 and 3A.3.

Student body

There were 3.3 million FTE student enrolments in primary and secondary schools in August 2003. Nationally, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in all schools was

greater in primary schools (58.0 per cent) than in secondary schools (42.0 per cent). Across jurisdictions, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in all primary schools was highest in the NT (67.6 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (52.8 per cent) (table 3.3).

Table 3.3 FTE student enrolments, August 2003^{a, b}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Total FTE student enrolments at level of education ('000)									
Primary schools	626.5	455.9	381.8	205.0	158.0	46.3	31.8	25.3	1 930.6
Secondary schools	482.4	365.3	249.7	130.0	94.2	37.5	28.5	12.1	1 399.7
All schools	1 108.9	821.2	631.5	335.0	252.3	83.8	60.3	37.4	3 330.3
Proportion of FTE students who were enrolled in government schools (%)									
Primary schools	71.0	69.5	75.0	73.1	69.8	77.7	63.9	79.8	71.7
Secondary schools	63.5	60.4	64.3	62.4	64.5	70.9	57.3	71.6	62.9
All schools	67.7	65.4	70.7	68.9	67.8	74.7	60.8	77.1	68.0
Proportion of FTE students who were female (all schools) (%)									
Primary schools	48.7	48.5	48.8	48.3	48.6	48.7	48.7	48.6	48.6
Secondary schools	49.6	49.9	49.5	49.4	50.0	50.6	49.2	49.7	49.7
All schools	49.1	49.1	49.1	48.7	49.1	49.6	48.9	49.0	49.1
Proportion of FTE students who were enrolled in primary education (%)									
Government schools	59.2	59.0	64.1	64.9	64.5	57.5	55.5	69.9	61.1
Non-government schools	50.8	49.0	51.7	53.0	58.8	48.6	48.5	59.8	51.3
All schools	56.5	55.5	60.5	61.2	62.6	55.2	52.8	67.6	58.0

^a Students enrolled in special schools are included, with special school students of primary school age included in the primary figures and those of secondary school age included in the secondary figures. ^b Results of calculations may vary from the table due to rounding differences.

Source: ABS (2004, unpublished); tables 3A.1, 3A.2 and 3A.3.

Differences in schooling structures influence enrolment patterns. Primary school education in Queensland, WA, SA and the NT, for example, includes year 7 whereas all other jurisdictions include year 7 in secondary school. As a result, the proportion of students enrolled in primary school education would be expected to be higher in the above mentioned jurisdictions than in others (table 3.3).

Nationally, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in government schools was 68.0 per cent. Across jurisdictions, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in government schools was highest in the NT (77.1 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (60.8 per cent) (table 3.3).

The proportion of FTE students in all schools who were female was 49.1 per cent nationally. Across jurisdictions, Tasmania had the highest proportion of female enrolments in all schools (49.6 per cent) and WA the lowest (48.7 per cent).

Nationally, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in primary schools was greater in government schools (61.1 per cent) than in non-government schools (51.3 per

cent). Across jurisdictions, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in government primary schools was highest in the NT (69.9 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (55.5 per cent) (table 3.3).

Total full time student enrolments in schools in Australia were relatively stable over the five years to 2003, increasing by approximately 0.7 per cent each year between August 1999 and August 2003. Enrolments in individual jurisdictions grew at different rates, with total enrolments increasing by 1.5 per cent each year in Queensland and declining by 0.4 per cent each year in Tasmania (table 3A.14).

The proportion of full time students enrolled in non-government schools increased between 1999 and 2003 in all states and territories. Total non-government school enrolments expanded by an average of 2.2 per cent per year, while the expansion in full time government school enrolments was 0.1 per cent per year (table 3A.14). The expansion of full time enrolments in non-government schools, however, was from a lower base than that for government schools. In absolute terms, full time students in government schools increased from 2 247 674 in 1999 to 2 254 632 in 2003. Full time students in non-government schools increased from 978 976 in 1999 to 1 063 988 in 2003 (table 3A.13).

Part time secondary students form a significant proportion of enrolments in some jurisdictions. Part time courses are available to secondary students, including mature age students attending colleges and those studying years 11 or 12 or short courses (lasting five to 22 weeks). The proportion of secondary school students who were enrolled part time in 2003 varied considerably across jurisdictions, partly because jurisdictions' education authorities have different policy and organisational arrangements for part time study as well as different definitions of what constitutes part time study. The number of part time courses available also varied considerably across jurisdictions. In 2003, SA had the highest proportion of part time government secondary school students (10.3 per cent) and the ACT had the lowest (0.3 per cent) (table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Part time secondary school students in government schools

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Part time secondary school students in government schools (no.) ^a									
1999	3 323	2 495	4 063	4 199	6 545	3 203	6	1 032	24 866
2000	3 638	2 489	3 868	4 154	7 015	3 538	7	977	25 686
2001	2 809	2 827	3 930	4 948	6 932	2 853	3	1 006	25 308
2002	2 455	3 029	4 096	4 880	7 099	2 684	10	1 052	25 305
2003	2 647	3 093	3 786	2 583	6 623	2 578	48	888	22 246
Proportion of secondary school students in government schools who were part time students (%) ^b									
1999	1.1	1.1	2.6	4.8	9.9	10.7	–	11.6	2.8
2000	1.2	1.1	2.5	4.8	10.7	12.0	–	10.9	2.9
2001	0.9	1.3	2.5	5.7	10.6	10.0	–	11.3	2.8
2002	0.8	1.4	2.6	5.6	11.0	9.6	0.1	11.7	2.8
2003	0.9	1.4	2.3	3.1	10.3	9.3	0.3	9.6	2.5

^a Absolute number of part time secondary students (not FTE). ^b Absolute number of part time secondary students divided by absolute number of full time and part time secondary students (not FTE). – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.1.

Special needs groups

Certain groups of students in school education have been identified as having special needs. These special needs groups include:

- Indigenous students
- students from language backgrounds other than English (LBOTE)
- students with disabilities
- geographically remote students
- students from families of low socioeconomic status.

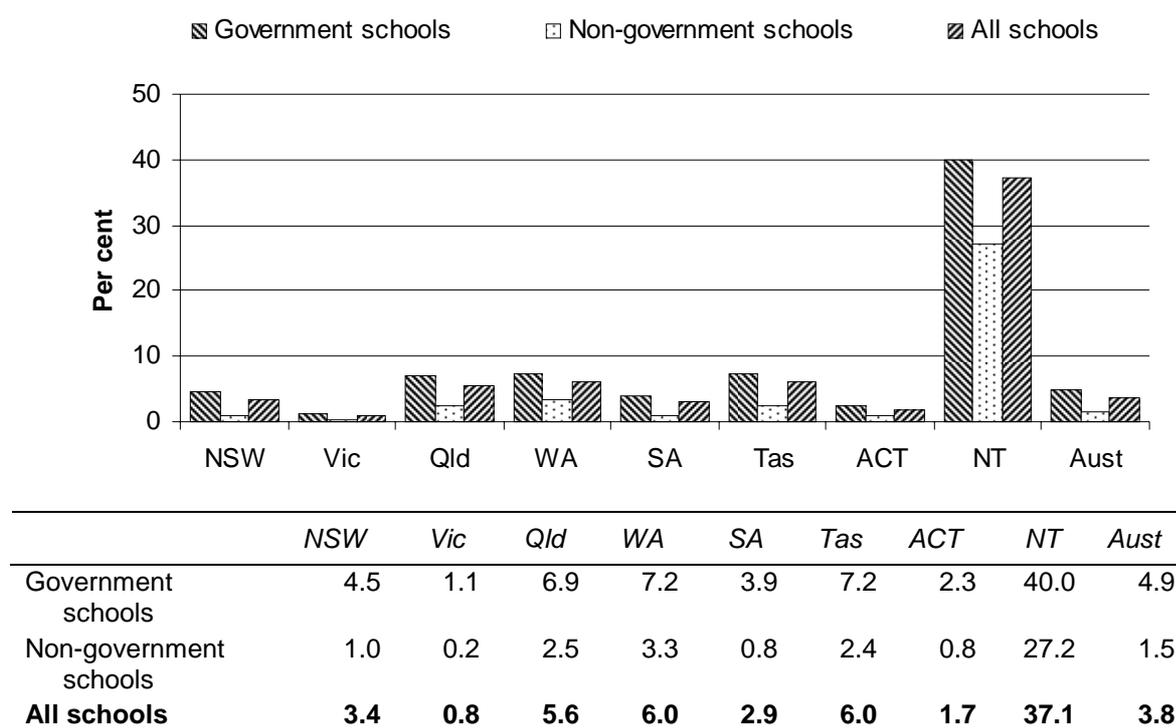
Government schools provide education for a high proportion of students from special needs groups. In 2003, 87.5 per cent of Indigenous students and 81.7 per cent of students with disabilities, for example, attended government schools (tables 3A.15 and 3A.17). This chapter reports on the proportions of Indigenous students, LBOTE students, students with disabilities and students who are geographically remote. Care needs to be taken in interpreting this information because some definitions of special needs students differ across states and territories.

Indigenous students

The proportion of full time Indigenous students in NT schools was 37.1 per cent in 2003, far higher than the proportion in any other jurisdiction. The jurisdictions with the next highest proportions of full time Indigenous students were WA and Tasmania (both 6.0 per cent), while Victoria had the lowest (0.8 per cent) (figure 3.2). In absolute terms, NSW (37 118) and Queensland (35 237) had the largest numbers of full time Indigenous students, together accounting for 57.5 per cent of all Indigenous students enrolled in Australian schools (table 3A.15). Table 3A.15 provides additional information on Indigenous enrolments.

In all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous students was higher in government schools than in non-government schools. Nationally, the proportion of Indigenous students was 4.9 per cent for government schools and 1.5 per cent for non-government schools (figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 Indigenous students as a proportion of all students, 2003^a



^a Full time students.

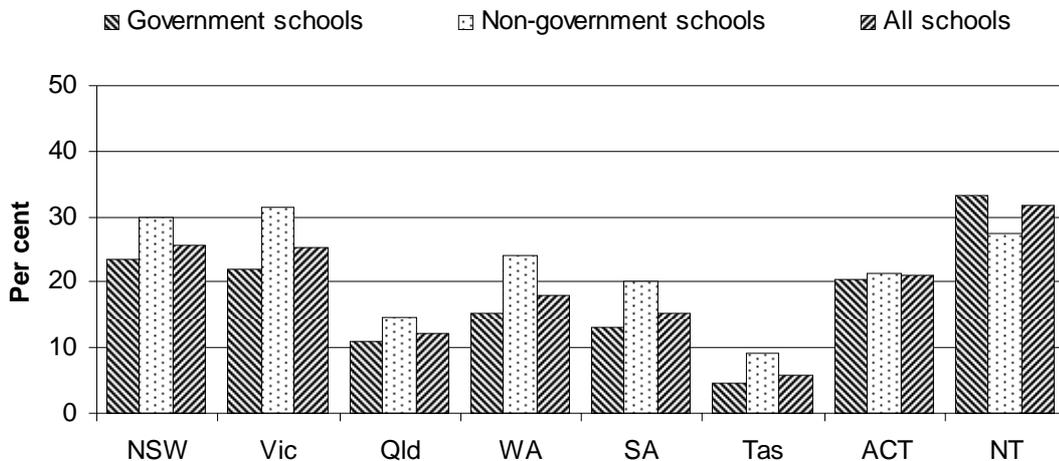
Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.15.

LBOTE students

The proportion of LBOTE students is based on data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2001 Census of Population and Housing (figure 3.3). Students are counted as having a language background other than English if their home language is not English or if they (or at least one parent) were born in a non-English speaking country.

Non-government schools had a higher proportion of LBOTE students than government schools in all jurisdictions except the NT in 2001. Across school education as a whole, the NT had the highest proportion of LBOTE students (31.8 per cent) (which is influenced by the inclusion of Indigenous students whose home language is not English). New South Wales and Victoria also had relatively high proportions of LBOTE students (25.6 per cent and 25.3 per cent respectively), while Tasmania had the lowest proportion (5.9 per cent) (figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3 Students from a language background other than English as a proportion of all students, 2001



Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished); table 3A.16.

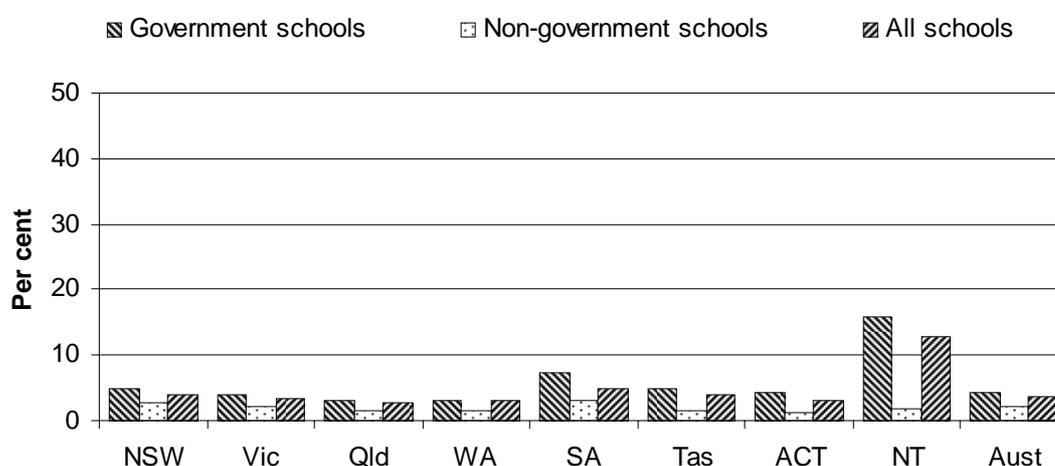
Students with disabilities

Students with disabilities are educated in both mainstream and special schools. Students with disabilities are those students who satisfy the criteria for enrolment in special education services provided in the State or Territory in which they are enrolled. These criteria vary across jurisdictions. Criteria relating to social or emotional impairment, for example, exist in some jurisdictions (such as NSW) but not others (such as the ACT). The NT had the highest proportion (12.8 per cent) of

students with disabilities in 2003, while Queensland had the lowest proportion (2.7 per cent) (figure 3.4).

Nationally, the proportion of students with disabilities was approximately twice as high in government schools (4.4 per cent) compared with non-government schools (2.1 per cent). The proportion of students with disabilities was approximately three times as high in government schools compared with non-government schools in Tasmania and the ACT, and around eight times as high in government schools compared with non-government schools in the NT.

Figure 3.4 Funded students with disabilities as a proportion of all students, 2003



Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished); table 3A.17.

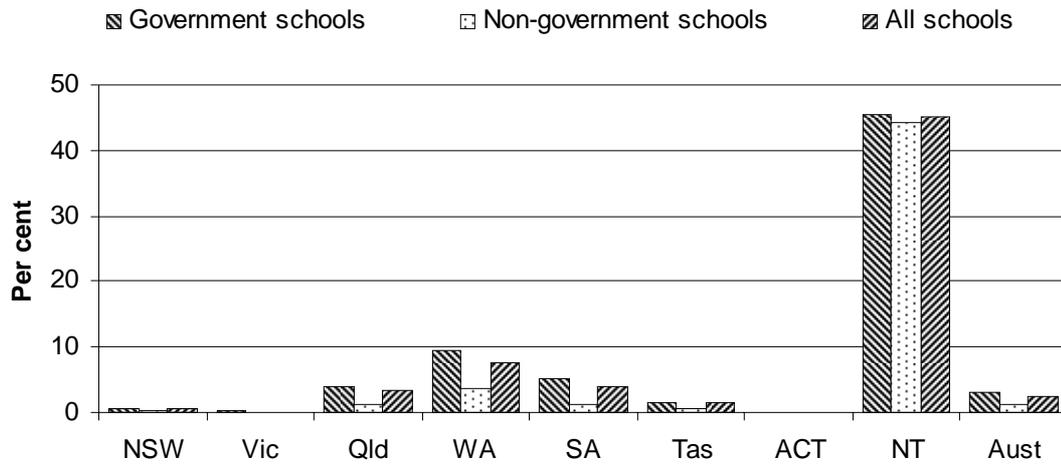
Geographically remote students¹

Identification of geographically remote students is based on the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones as stated in the MCEETYA agreed classification. The NT had by far the highest proportion (45.0 per cent) of students attending schools in remote areas in 2003, while WA had the next highest proportion (7.6 per cent) for all schools. Victoria had the lowest proportion (0.1 per cent) for all schools (figure 3.5). (The ACT has no remote areas.)

¹ To investigate the possibility that these data may understate the proportion of students in remote areas as a result of relying on school location rather than students' home location, the 2001 data were compared with data derived from the 2001 Census. The two data sets were found to be similar, except that Tasmania had about one third more remote area students in the Census data. This result may be indicative for the 2003 data.

Nationally, the proportion of students enrolled in schools in remote areas in 2003 was more than twice as high in government schools compared with non-government schools. Table 3A.18 includes data relating to metropolitan and provincial areas, as well as remote areas (see section 3.6 for definitions of remoteness and other geographic classifications).

Figure 3.5 Students attending schools in remote areas as a proportion of all students, 2003



	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Government schools	0.7	0.2	4.1	9.3	5.1	1.6	..	45.3	3.1
Non-government schools	0.3	–	1.3	3.7	1.3	0.6	..	44.2	1.2
All schools	0.6	0.1	3.3	7.6	3.9	1.4	..	45.0	2.5

.. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished); table 3A.18.

3.2 Framework of performance indicators

This chapter provides performance indicators on the equity, effectiveness and efficiency of government expenditure on all schools in Australia. It does not compare the efficiency of government and non-government schools. Governments own and operate government schools, and have a direct interest in the equity, efficiency and effectiveness of their operation. In addition, governments are committed to providing access to education for all students. Box 3.1 describes the national goals for schooling, as endorsed by the MCEETYA.

Box 3.1 **National goals for schooling in the 21st century**

The MCEETYA endorsed in April 1999 the following set of national goals for school education.

Preamble

Australia's future depends upon each citizen having the necessary knowledge, understanding, skills and values for a productive and rewarding life in an educated, just and open society. High quality schooling is central to achieving this vision.

This statement of national goals for schooling provides broad directions to guide schools and education authorities in securing these outcomes for students.

It acknowledges the capacity of all young people to learn, and the role of schooling in developing that capacity. It also acknowledges the role of parents as the first educators of their children and the central role of teachers in the learning process.

Schooling provides a foundation for young Australians' intellectual, physical, social, moral, spiritual and aesthetic development. By providing a supportive and nurturing environment, schooling contributes to the development of students' sense of self-worth, enthusiasm for learning and optimism for the future.

Governments set the public policies that foster the pursuit of excellence, enable a diverse range of educational choices and aspirations, safeguard the entitlement of all young people to high quality schooling, promote the economic use of public resources, and uphold the contribution of schooling to a socially cohesive and culturally rich society.

Common and agreed goals for schooling establish a foundation for action among State and Territory governments with their constitutional responsibility for schooling, the Australian Government, non-government school authorities and all those who seek the best possible educational outcomes for young Australians, to improve the quality of schooling nationally.

The achievement of these common and agreed national goals entails a commitment to collaboration for the purposes of:

- further strengthening schools as learning communities where teachers, students and their families work in partnership with business, industry and the wider community;
- enhancing the status and quality of the teaching profession;
- continuing to develop curriculum and related systems of assessment, accreditation and credentialling that promote quality and are nationally recognised and valued; and
- increasing public confidence in school education through explicit and defensible standards that guide improvement in students' levels of educational achievement and through which the effectiveness, efficiency and equity of schooling can be measured and evaluated.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

These national goals provide a basis for investment in schooling to enable all young people to engage effectively with an increasingly complex world. This world will be characterised by advances in information and communication technologies, population diversity arising from international mobility and migration, and complex environmental and social challenges.

The achievement of the national goals for schooling will assist young people to contribute to Australia's social, cultural and economic development in local and global contexts. Their achievement will also assist young people to develop a disposition towards learning throughout their lives so that they can exercise their rights and responsibilities as citizens of Australia.

Goals

1. Schooling should develop fully the talents and capacities of all students. In particular, when students leave schools they should:

- 1.1 have the capacity for, and skills in, analysis and problem solving and the ability to communicate ideas and information, to plan and organise activities and to collaborate with others;
- 1.2 have qualities of self-confidence, optimism, high self-esteem, and a commitment to personal excellence as a basis for their potential life roles as family, community and workforce members;
- 1.3 have the capacity to exercise judgment and responsibility in matters of morality, ethics and social justice, and the capacity to make sense of their world, to think about how things got to be the way they are, to make rational and informed decisions about their own lives and to accept responsibility for their own actions;
- 1.4 be active and informed citizens with an understanding and appreciation of Australia's system of government and civic life;
- 1.5 have employment related skills and an understanding of the work environment, career options and pathways as a foundation for, and positive attitudes towards, vocational education and training, further education, employment and life-long learning;
- 1.6 be confident, creative and productive users of new technologies, particularly information and communication technologies, and understand the impact of those technologies on society;
- 1.7 have an understanding of, and concern for, stewardship of the natural environment, and the knowledge and skills to contribute to ecologically sustainable development; and
- 1.8 have the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to establish and maintain a healthy lifestyle, and for the creative and satisfying use of leisure time.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

2. In terms of curriculum, students should have:

2.1 attained high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the compulsory years of schooling encompassing the agreed eight key learning areas:

- the arts
- English
- health and physical education
- languages other than English
- mathematics
- science
- studies of society and environment
- technology

and the interrelationships between them;

2.2 attained the skills of numeracy and English literacy, such that every student should be numerate, able to read, write, spell and communicate at an appropriate level;

2.3 participated in programs of vocational learning during the compulsory years and have had access to vocational education and training programs as part of their senior secondary studies; and

2.4 participated in programs and activities which foster and develop enterprise skills, including those skills which will allow them maximum flexibility and adaptability in the future.

3. Schooling should be socially just, so that:

3.1 students' outcomes from schooling are free from the effects of negative forms of discrimination based on sex, language, culture and ethnicity, religion or disability; and of differences arising from students' socioeconomic background or geographic location;

3.2 the learning outcomes of educationally disadvantaged students improve and, over time, match those of other students;

3.3 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students have equitable access to, and opportunities in, schooling so that their learning outcomes improve and, over time, match those of other students;

3.4 all students understand and acknowledge the value of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures to Australian society and possess the knowledge, skills and understanding to contribute to, and benefit from, reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians;

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

3.5 all students understand and acknowledge the value of cultural and linguistic diversity, and possess the knowledge, skills and understanding to contribute to, and benefit from, such diversity in the Australian community and internationally; and

3.6 all students have access to the high quality education necessary to enable the completion of school education to year 12 or its vocational equivalent and that provides clear and recognised pathways to employment and further education and training.

Source: Adapted from MCEETYA (1999).

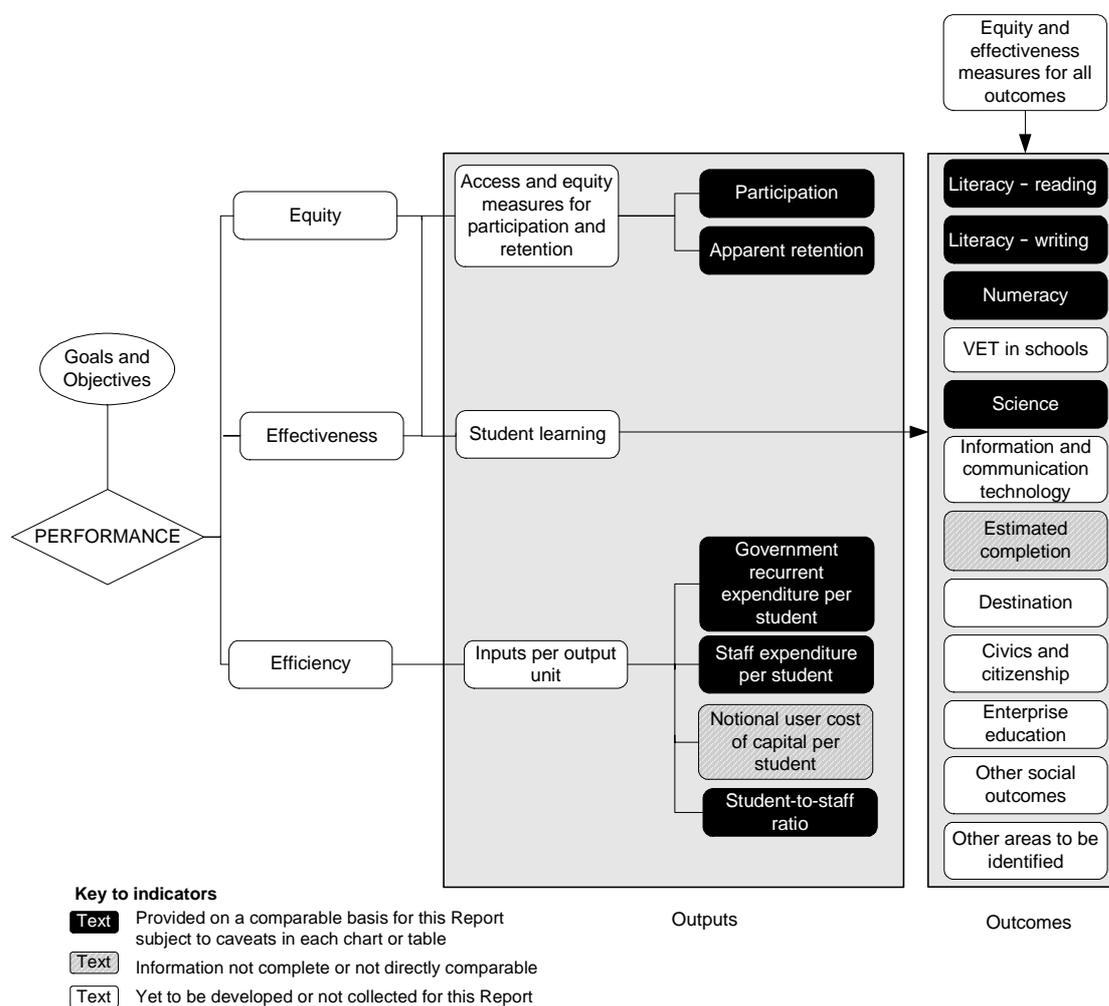
The performance of school education is reported against the indicator framework in figure 3.6. This framework is consistent with the national goals for schooling (box 3.1). The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report (figure 3.6). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

3.3 Key performance indicator results

Different delivery contexts and locations influence the equity, effectiveness and efficiency of school education services. Appendix A contains short statistical profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

The effectiveness indicators for school education in this chapter are based on the achievement against the national goals for schooling. Access and equity objectives of school education can be assessed by comparing outcomes for special needs groups, such as Indigenous and LBOTE students, with those for all students through indicators such as reading and writing literacy, numeracy, estimated completion rates, apparent retention rates and age participation rates. Outcomes are compared for special needs groups for available indicators where possible.

Figure 3.6 Performance indicators for all schools



Outputs

Equity and effectiveness

Access and equity measures for school education participation and retention are reported.

Participation

‘Participation’ has been included as an output indicator of equity-effectiveness (box 3.2).

Box 3.2 Participation

'Participation' (school participation rate) is included as an output — access indicator of governments' objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through participation in post-compulsory schooling.

The indicator is defined as the number of 15–19 year old full time school students, as a proportion of the estimated resident population of the same age.

Holding other factors constant, a higher or increasing participation rate suggests an improvement in educational outcomes through greater access to school education. Participation rates in school education need to be interpreted with care because rates are influenced by jurisdictional differences in, for example:

- compulsory school age, year and age/grade structures
- the extent of part time enrolment in schools (tables 3.4 and 3A.3).

This indicator does not provide information on young people who develop their talents and capacities through other options for delivering post-compulsory education and training — for example, work-based training and enrolment in technical and further education (TAFE) delivered programs. This indicator also does not provide information on the contribution of participation in schooling to the development of the students' talents and capacities.

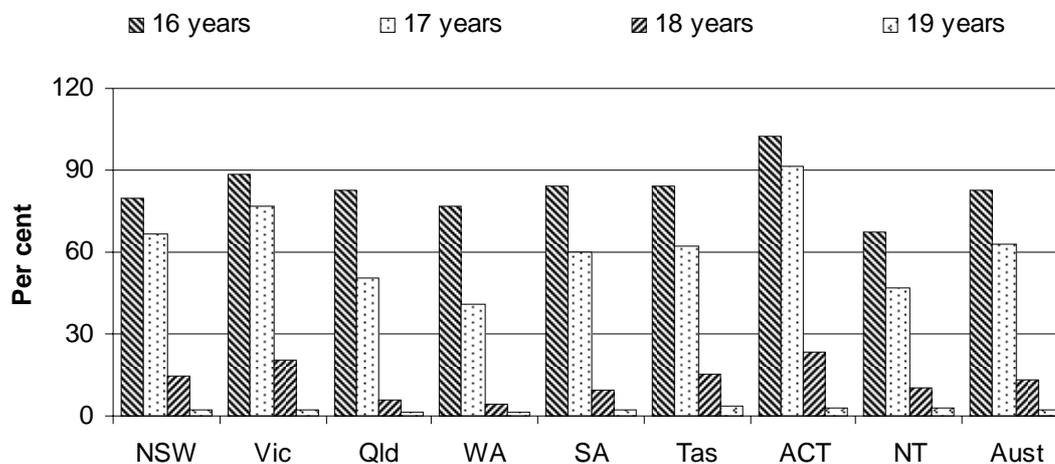
A broader participation indicator that accounts for some of these factors is reported in the 'Education preface'.

Nationally, 50.3 per cent of 15–19 year olds were enrolled in schools in 2003 (table 3A.37). Participation rates varied by jurisdiction, age and gender.

- The ACT had the highest overall participation rate of 15–19 year olds (61.5 per cent) and the NT had the lowest rate (41.8 per cent).
- Participation rates for females were 1.0–2.5 percentage points higher than those for males in all jurisdictions except the ACT, where male participation was 1.4 percentage points higher than female participation.
- Participation rates declined as students exceeded the maximum compulsory school age (16 years for SA and Tasmania, and 15 years for other jurisdictions) (figure 3.7).

Participation rates in the ACT in 2003, as in the past, were higher than those in other jurisdictions for all ages except 19 year olds, for whom Tasmania had the highest rate (3.3 per cent). The higher participation rates in the ACT are partly a result of the enrolment in the ACT of NSW residents from surrounding areas.

Figure 3.7 **School participation rates, by age of students, all schools, 2003^{a, b, c}**



^a Proportion of the population who were not of compulsory school age in some jurisdictions, but who were enrolled as full time students in August 2003. ^b School is compulsory for 16 year olds in SA and Tasmania. ^c The higher participation rates in the ACT are partly a result of the enrolment in the ACT of NSW residents from surrounding areas.

Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.37.

Apparent retention

‘Apparent retention’ has been included as an output indicator of equity-effectiveness (box 3.3).

Box 3.3 Apparent retention

‘Apparent retention’ — that is, progression to final years of schooling — is included as an output – access indicator of governments’ objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through longer participation to higher levels of schooling.

The indicator is defined as the number of full time school students in a designated level/year of education as a percentage of their respective cohort group (which is either at the commencement of their secondary schooling or at year 10). Data are reported for the proportion of:

- people commencing secondary school and continuing to year 10
- people commencing secondary school and continuing to year 12
- year 10 students continuing to year 12.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.3 (Continued)

Data are also reported for all students and Indigenous students, and for government and non-government schools. Holding other factors constant, a higher or increasing apparent retention rate suggests that students have greater exposure to schooling over their lives which is likely to result in improved educational outcomes. The term 'apparent' is used because the indicator is derived from total numbers of students in each of the relevant year levels, rather than by tracking the retention of students individually. Apparent retention to year 12 is a long standing measure that is presented as an indicator of the extent to which students progress to their final year of schooling.

Apparent retention rates are influenced by a wide range of factors, including student perceptions of the benefits of schooling, the availability of employment and further educational alternatives, socioeconomic status and population movements. Care needs to be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates in school education because rates are influenced by jurisdictional differences in:

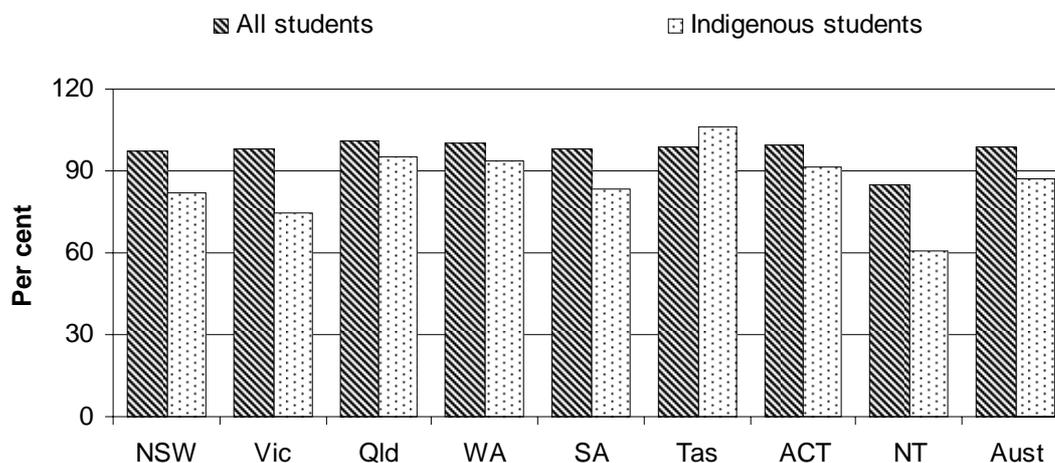
- enrolment policies across jurisdictions, which contribute to different age/grade structures
- the extent of part time year 12 enrolment in schools.

The indicator has been consistently reported over time, but does not reflect factors such as:

- students repeating a year of education or returning to education after a period of absence and thus being included in the year 10 cohort in 2001 but not in the year 12 cohort in 2003
- interstate movement of students
- movement between the government school sector and the non-government school sector
- the impacts of migration and full fee paying overseas students
- varying enrolment patterns in which students choose to complete their secondary schooling in TAFE institutes.

Apparent rates of retention from the commencement of secondary school to year 10 provide one measure of the equity of outcomes for Indigenous students. Apparent retention rates for all students were commonly 97–100 per cent in 2003, except in the NT (85.0 per cent) with a national proportion of 98.5 (figure 3.8). High rates are to be expected because normal year level progression means students in year 10 are generally of an age at which schooling is compulsory. Rates for Indigenous students, however, were considerably lower than those for all students in all jurisdictions except Tasmania. The national retention rate for Indigenous students was 87.2 per cent, or 11.3 percentage points lower than that for all students.

Figure 3.8 **Apparent rates of retention from year 7 or 8 to year 10, full time secondary students, all schools, by Indigenous status 2003^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b Retention rates can exceed 100 per cent for a variety of reasons, including student transfers between jurisdictions after the base year. ^c The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there is a high proportion of part time students (table 3A.3). ^d Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 43 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 7.5 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.38.

The apparent rate of retention from year 10 to year 12 has been derived by expressing the number of full time school students enrolled in year 12 in 2003 as a proportion of the number of full time school students enrolled in year 10 in 2001.

Factors affecting apparent retention can combine to result in a year 12 cohort that is substantially different in composition from the corresponding year 10 cohort — for example:

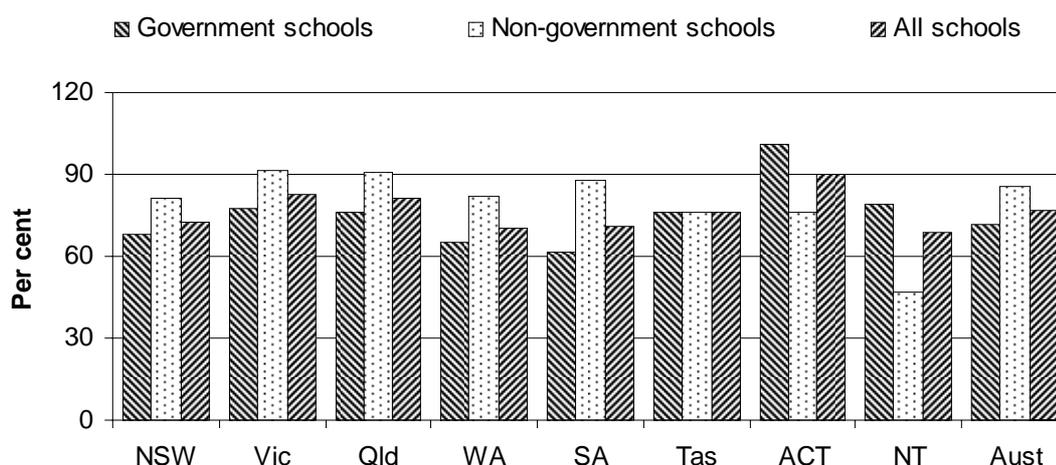
- in SA, if part time students are included in the 2003 year 12 total, then the apparent retention rate becomes 86.8 per cent, compared with 70.7 per cent for full time students only (ABS 2002, 2004; table 3A.39)
- in some jurisdictions, young people may choose to complete their post-compulsory education in the TAFE system rather than continue at school. In NSW, for example, 4525 students aged 15–19 years undertook their Higher School Certificate or other tertiary preparation studies through TAFE institutes in 2003 (NSW Government unpublished).

Work being undertaken to improve this measure is discussed in section 3.4.

Nationally, the apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12 for all schools was 76.9 per cent in 2003. Across jurisdictions, the apparent retention rates for all schools ranged from 90.3 per cent in the ACT to 68.7 per cent in the NT. Nationally, the apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12 for government schools was 71.9 per cent in 2003. Across jurisdictions, the apparent retention rates for government schools ranged from 101.0 per cent in the ACT to 61.8 per cent in SA (figure 3.9).

One reason for the ACT rate exceeding 100 per cent is that a number of students in non-government schools in the ACT change to government schools for years 11 and 12. This arrangement has the effect of reducing the retention rate for non-government schools and increasing the retention rate for government schools.

Figure 3.9 Apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12, full time secondary students, by school type, 2003^{a, b, c}



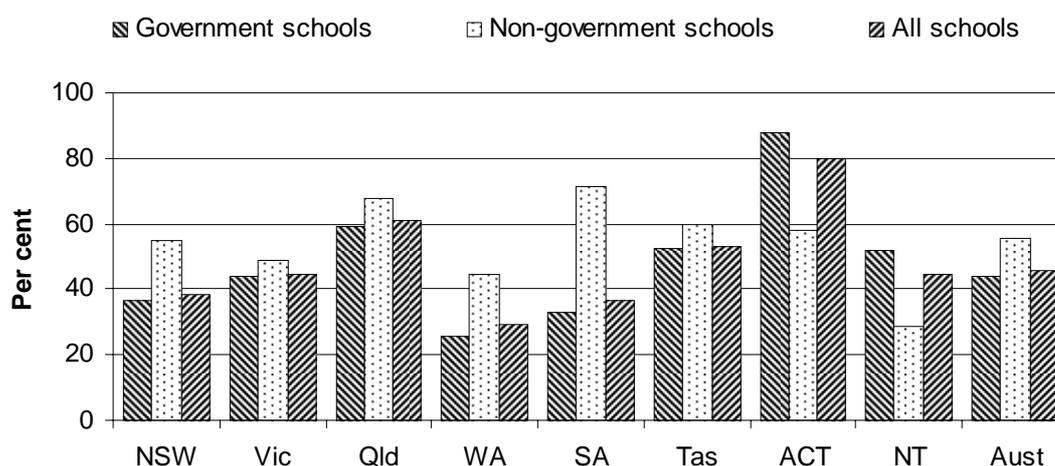
^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b Retention rates can exceed 100 per cent for a variety of reasons, including student transfers between government and non-government schools after the base year. ^c The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there is a high proportion of part time students (table 3A.3).

Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.39.

For all schools, apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12 for Indigenous students in 2003 ranged from 79.7 per cent in the ACT to 29.3 per cent in WA (figure 3.10). In interpreting this indicator, note that about 10–20 per cent of Indigenous students leave school before year 10 (figure 3.8) so are not included in the base year for retention from year 10 to year 12. Nationally, Indigenous retention

from year 10 to year 12 for all schools in 2003 was 45.7 per cent (figure 3.10), or 31.2 percentage points lower than the rate for all students.

Figure 3.10 Apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12, Indigenous full time secondary students, 2003^{a, b, c}



^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there is a high proportion of part time students (table 3.4). ^c Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 43 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 7.5 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

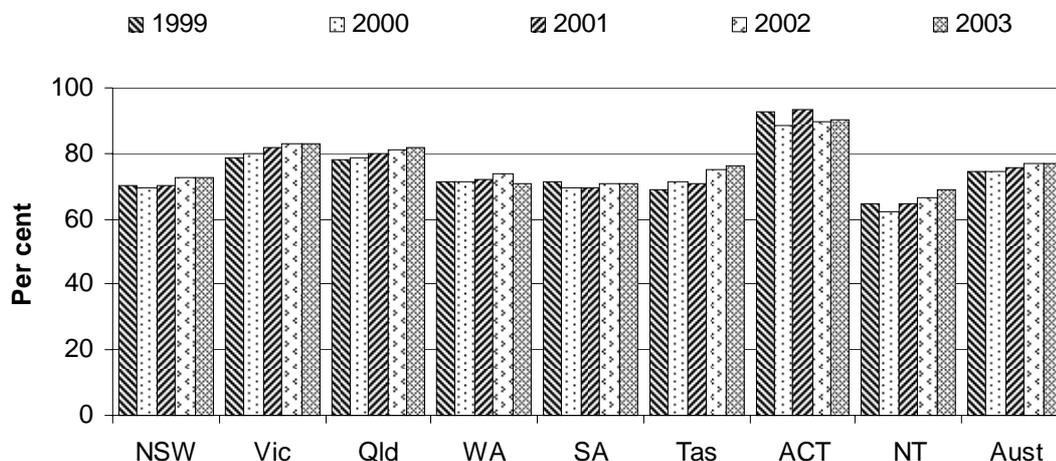
Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.39.

Between 1999 and 2003, the apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12 in all schools increased in all jurisdictions except WA, SA and the ACT where rates declined slightly (figure 3.11).

Efficiency

Governments have an interest in achieving the best results from their expenditure on schooling, both as owners and operators of government schools, and as the major providers of funds to the non-government school sector. An objective of the Review of Government Service Provision is to publish comparable estimates of costs. Ideally, such comparison includes the full range of costs to government. Where the full costs cannot be measured, cost estimated on a consistent basis is the best approach.

Figure 3.11 Apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12, full time secondary students, all schools^{a, b, c}



^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there is a high proportion of part time students (table 3.4). ^c Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 43 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 7.5 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2004); tables 3A.48, 3A.58, 3A.67, 3A.77, 3A.86, 3A.98, 3A.109 and 3A.120.

Two key adjustments were made this year to the data reported for the efficiency indicators included in this chapter, to improve comparability across jurisdictions. The first adjustment was to include estimates of payroll tax for WA and the ACT, together with actual amounts for other jurisdictions. The second was to include a consistent, notional UCC of 8 per cent for all jurisdictions. Table 3.5 shows information on the comparability of the source expenditure data used for this chapter.

Table 3.5 Comparability of expenditure — items included, 2002-03

	NSW	Vic	Qld ^a	WA ^b	SA	Tas	ACT ^b	NT
Salaries	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Superannuation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Cash
Workers compensation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Payroll tax ^c	✓	✓	✓	✓ Imputed	✓	✓	✓ Imputed	✓
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	..	Accrual	Accrual	..	Cash
Termination and long service leave	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Cash
Sick leave	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Depreciation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
Rent	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	na
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	na
Utilities	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Cash
Umbrella department costs	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Basis of apportionment^d</i>	Per FTE student	Formula	Formula	Formula	Per student	Per FTE student	Formula	Per student
Notional UCC ^c	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

^a Sick leave in Queensland is embedded in the salary structure and not separately recorded. ^b Education departments in WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^c Efficiency indicators in this chapter are adjusted for differences in payroll tax and notional UCC. ^d Umbrella department costs are apportioned according to: use (including enrolment) in Victoria; cost drivers (mainly student numbers) in Queensland; activity-based costing in the ACT; and pro rata costs based on expenditure in the NT. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable. **✓** Included. **✗** Excluded. FTE = full time equivalent.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Government recurrent expenditure per student

‘Government recurrent expenditure per student’ is included as an output — efficiency indicator (box 3.4).

A proxy indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). Nationally, in-school government expenditure per FTE student in government primary schools was \$8165 in 2002-03. In-school government expenditure per FTE student in government primary schools in 2002-03 ranged from \$11 510 in the NT to \$7347 in Victoria (figure 3.12).

Nationally, in-school government expenditure per FTE student in government secondary schools was \$10 561 in 2002-03. In-school government expenditure per FTE student in government secondary schools ranged from \$15 634 in the NT to \$9643 in SA (figure 3.12).

Nationally, out-of-school government expenditure per FTE student in government secondary schools was \$511 in 2002-03. Out-of-school departmental overheads per FTE student in government schools ranged from \$1973 in the NT to \$373 in NSW (figure 3.12).

Box 3.4 Government recurrent expenditure per student

‘Government recurrent expenditure per student’ is included as an output — efficiency indicator of governments’ objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

The indicator is defined as government recurrent expenditure per FTE student. It is reported for in-school primary, in-school secondary and out-of-school services, and for government and non-government schools.

Holding other factors constant, a low or decreasing government recurrent expenditure per FTE student represents better or improved efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high or increasing government recurrent expenditure per student may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in the aspects of the schooling (broader curricula, higher quality education or increased accessibility), or the characteristics of the education environment (such as population dispersion). Similarly, low or decreasing expenditure per student may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (less effective education) or more narrowly defined curricula. Efficiency data need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators to derive a holistic view of performance.

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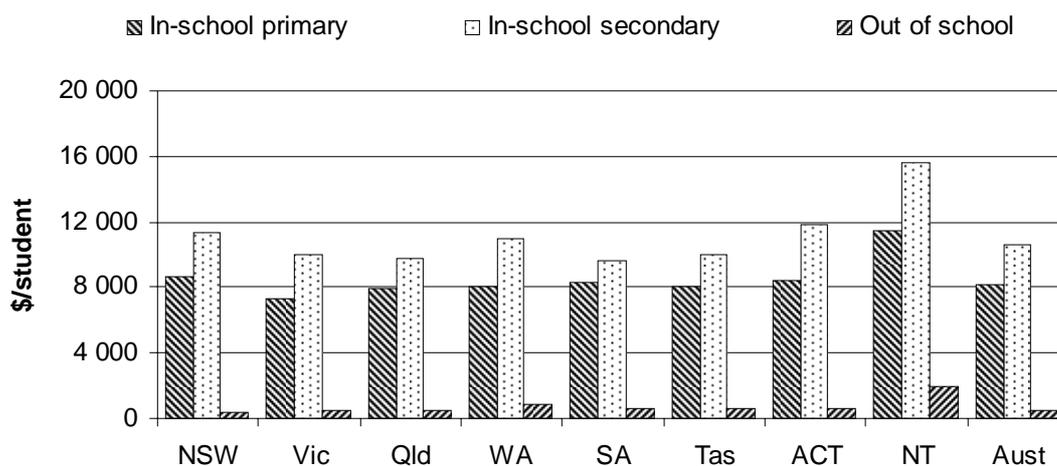
Box 3.4 (Continued)

A number of factors may influence government recurrent expenditure per student. Differences in the costs of educating students can be driven by:

- influences beyond the control of governments, such as a high proportion of geographically remote students and/or a dispersed population, as well as migration between states and territories
- policy changes in education
- various approaches that education departments and schools apply in managing resources
- economies of scale.

The Commonwealth Grants Commission, when calculating relativities between states and territories to distribute Australian Government general purpose grants, accounts for influences beyond a jurisdiction's control (called 'disabilities') that affect the jurisdiction's cost of providing services and capacity to raise revenue. In relation to education, the assessment includes a variety of disability factors that measure disabilities such as the size of the jurisdiction, the dispersed nature of the population and the sociodemographic distribution of the population. This Report does not, however, make any cost adjustments based on any of the above factors. These factors may need to be considered when examining each jurisdiction's expenditure per student.

Figure 3.12 Government recurrent expenditure per FTE student, government schools, 2002-03^{a, b}

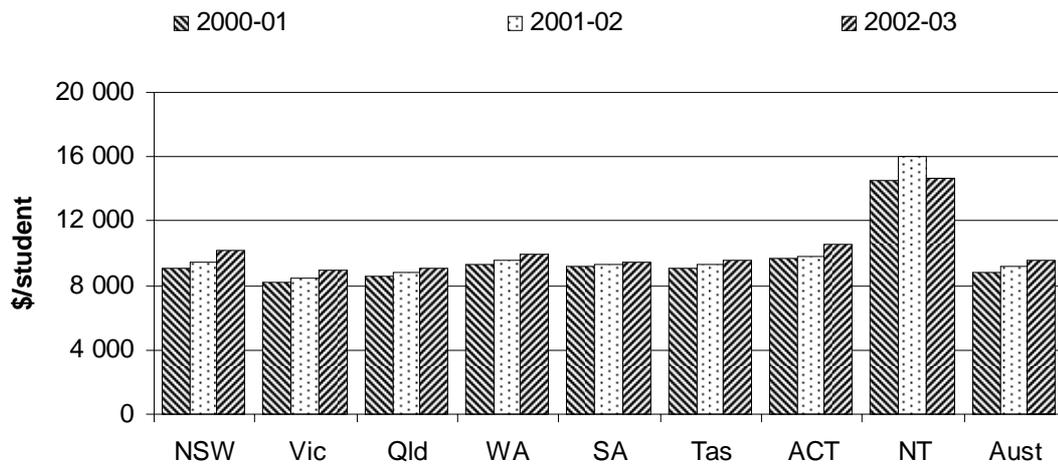


^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Payroll tax estimates have been included for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: ABS (2004); MCEETYA (2004b); table 3A.8.

Government expenditure per FTE student in government schools in 2002-03 ranged from \$14 709 in the NT to \$8927 in Victoria. It increased (in average real terms) between 2000-01 and 2002-03 in all jurisdictions (figure 3.13). Nationally, the average real increase between 2000-01 and 2002-03 was 4.1 per cent per year (table 3A.9).

Figure 3.13 **Government real recurrent expenditure per FTE student, government schools (2002-03 dollars)^{a, b, c}**

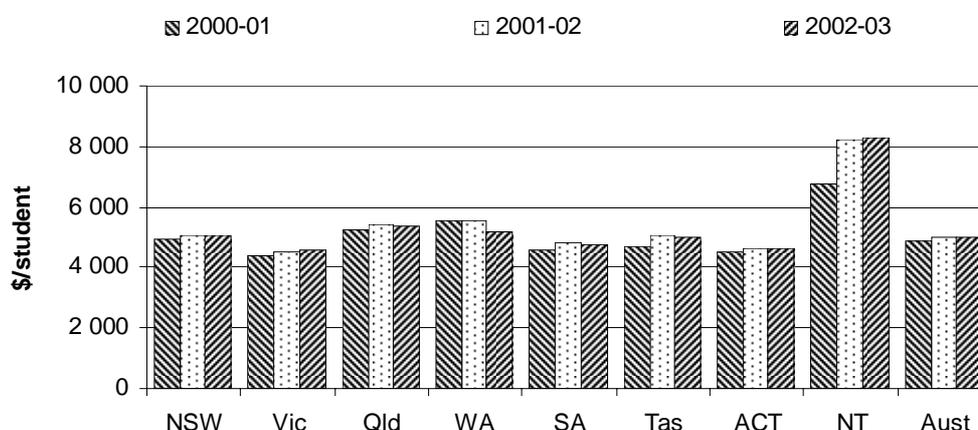


^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 have been adjusted to 2002-03 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator. ^c Payroll tax estimates have been included for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: ABS (2004); MCEETYA (2004b); table 3A.9.

In 2002-03, government expenditure per FTE student in non-government schools ranged from \$8270 in the NT to \$4549 in Victoria (figure 3.14). It increased (in average real terms) between 2000-01 and 2002-03 in all jurisdictions except WA (figure 3.14). Nationally, the average real increase between 2000-01 and 2002-03 was 1.0 per cent per year (table 3A.9).

Figure 3.14 Government real recurrent expenditure per FTE student, non-government schools (2002-03 dollars)^a



^a The sum of Australian Government specific purpose payments for non-government schools, and State and Territory government payments to non-government schools. Data on State and Territory government payments to non-government schools are not fully comparable across jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (2004); Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.9.

Staff expenditure per student

‘Staff expenditure per student’ is included as an output — efficiency indicator (box 3.5).

Box 3.5 Staff expenditure per student

‘Staff expenditure per student’ is included as an output — efficiency indicator of governments’ objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

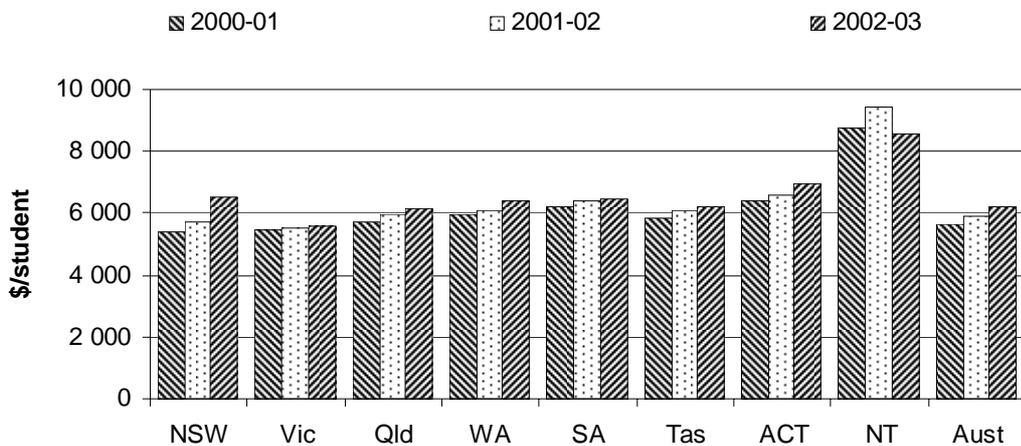
The indicator is defined as government expenditure on staff per FTE student. Expenditure on staff is the major component of spending on schools.

Holding other factors constant, a low or decreasing government expenditure on staff per FTE student represents better or improved efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret and this indicator in particular is partial in nature as it does not reflect the full cost per student. While high or increasing government expenditure on staff per student may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect improvements in schooling (through higher quality teachers), or the characteristics of the education environment (broader curricula such as information technology and the need for teachers with new skills). Similarly, a low or decreasing expenditure on staff per student may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (less effective education) or more narrowly defined curricula. Efficiency data need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators to derive a holistic view of performance.

Expenditure on staff is the major component of government recurrent expenditure on government schools (\$14.1 billion), accounting for 64.9 per cent of the total, in 2002-03. Of this expenditure, 80.0 per cent was on in-school teachers and 20.0 per cent was on other staff (table 3A.7).

Government expenditure on staff per FTE student ranged from \$8773 in the NT to \$5418 in NSW in 2000-01, and from \$8592 in the NT to \$5603 in Victoria in 2002-03. Nationally, the average real increase between 2000-01 and 2002-03 was 4.8 per cent (figure 3.15).

Figure 3.15 Real government recurrent expenditure on staff per FTE student, government schools (2002-03 dollars)



Source: ABS (2004); MCEETYA (2004b); table 3A.8.

Notional user cost of capital per student

‘Notional UCC per student’ has been included as an output — efficiency indicator (box 3.6).

The notional UCC per FTE government school student in 2002-03 averaged \$1179 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$1609) and lowest in SA (\$709) (table 3A.9).

The Steering Committee accepts that the asset valuation data, from which the notional UCC has been calculated, are not fully comparable across jurisdictions (table 3A.42). It also recognises that the treatment of costs in the past has not fully recognised the cost of public capital used by agencies to deliver services — that is, capital has generally been considered ‘free’. This can lead to significant underestimation of costs of those services for which government capital

is a major input. Using an imperfect costing of government capital, therefore, is preferable to not costing it at all and also provides an incentive to improve data over time. Changes have been made to the data definitions for asset reporting and valuation methods this year to improve the comparability of asset values data that are used to calculate the notional UCC.

Box 3.6 Notional user cost of capital per student

‘Notional UCC per student’ has been included as an output — efficiency indicator of governments’ objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

This indicator is defined as the dollars of UCC per FTE student.

The notional UCC for government services is the cost of funds tied up in capital used to produce services (for example, land and buildings owned by government schools). The notional UCC makes explicit the opportunity cost of using the funds to provide services rather than investing elsewhere or retiring debt. When comparing the costs of government services, it is important to account for the notional UCC because it is:

- often a significant component of the cost of services
- often treated inconsistently (that is, included in the costs of services delivered by most non-government service providers, but effectively costed at zero for many government service providers).

The UCC reflects the annual UCC per student, and is set at 8 per cent of the value of non current physical assets (for example, land, buildings, plant and equipment).

Holding other factors constant, a low or decreasing UCC per student represents better or improved efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret and this indicator in particular is only partial in nature as it does not reflect the full cost per student. While high or increasing UCC per student may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in the aspects of the schooling (broader curricula, enhanced facilities), or the characteristics of the education environment (such as population dispersion). Similarly, low or decreasing UCC per student may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (less effective education) or fewer facilities or reduced capital maintenance. Efficiency data need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators to derive a holistic view of performance.

Student-to-staff ratio

The ‘student-to-staff ratio’ has been identified as an output — efficiency indicator (box 3.7).

Box 3.7 **Student-to-staff ratio**

The 'student-to-staff ratio' has been identified as an output — efficiency indicator of governments' objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

The student-to-teacher ratio is defined as the number of FTE students per FTE teacher. Data are reported for primary schools, secondary schools and non-teaching staff. The student-to-teacher ratio presents the number of students per teacher where teachers are classified in a way that can be compared across jurisdictions. A low ratio means there are a small number of students per teacher. (The ratio is not a measure of class size.)

Holding other factors constant, a high or increasing student-to-teacher ratio represents better or improved efficiency. While higher or increasing student-to-teacher ratios may reflect improving efficiency, they may also reflect lower quality or less effective schooling (through more narrowly focused curricula or less teacher time per student). Specifically a higher ratio could indicate an efficient school system, because desired outputs are produced with a small number of inputs. This indicates efficiency, however, only when output quality and outcomes are the same as (or higher than) those in the other systems being compared.

Similarly, while lower or decreasing student-to-teacher ratios may reflect decreasing efficiency, they may also reflect more effective schooling (through broader curricula or more teacher student time), or the changing characteristics of school populations and teaching roles (such as increasing numbers of small rural schools, more students with special needs or more administrative commitments for teachers). Specifically a lower ratio could indicate a higher quality education system, if it is assumed that teachers have more time for each student and that this results in better student outcomes. There is, however, no clear agreement in international literature that smaller class sizes necessarily improve outcomes.

Interpretation can be enhanced by more comprehensive student outcome data, as well as by information on teacher quality, experience and qualifications. The ratios presented in this Report are aggregated across all subjects and year levels, so they do not reflect the fact that a lower ratio may be more important for certain subjects and/or year levels.

The ratio needs to be interpreted with care because it can be affected by a number of factors, including:

- the proportion of small rural schools — for example, a large proportion of small rural schools can significantly lower the overall average student-to-teacher ratio, while a large proportion of students in metropolitan schools can raise the ratio
- the proportion of special needs students — for example, special schools catering for students with disabilities generally have significantly lower student to teacher ratios than those of mainstream schools because additional resources are required in mainstream schools for these students

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Box 3.7 (Continued)

- the degree to which administrative work is undertaken by people classified as teachers (such as principals, deputy principals and senior teachers)
- other inputs to school education (for example, non-teaching staff, computers, books and laboratory equipment).

The ratio of 'FTE students to FTE non-teaching in-school staff' (table 3A.43) needs to be interpreted with care because it can be affected by:

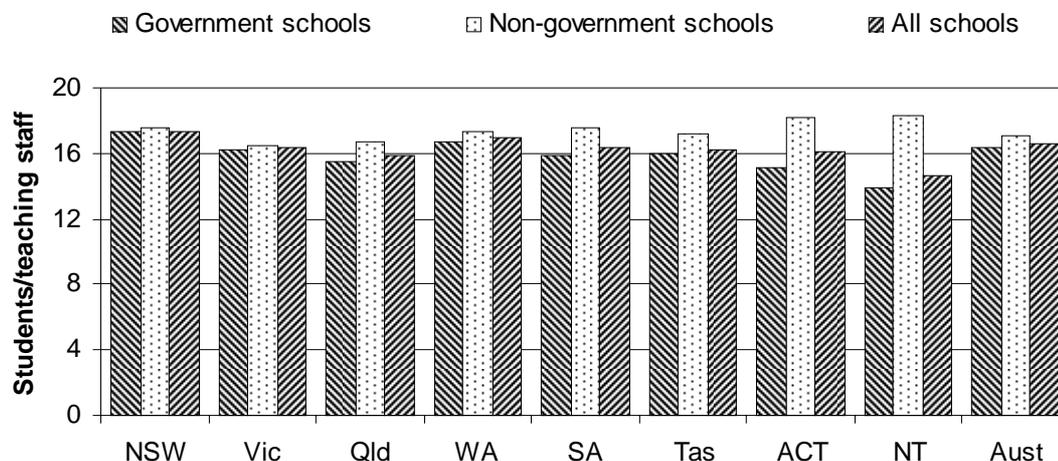
- the amount of administrative work undertaken by staff nominally classified as teachers (such as principals, assistant principals and senior teachers)
- the proportion of administrative work undertaken outside the school (because administrative tasks such as personnel management are centralised in some jurisdictions but undertaken at the school level in others)
- the extent to which technology is applied to teaching, learning and school administration
- the extent to which there are support staff in the classroom setting and whether these staff are classified as teaching or non-teaching
- the degree to which schools contract out services.

Efficiency data need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators to derive a holistic view of performance.

Nationally, for government primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 16.4 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 17.3 in NSW to 13.9 in the NT. Nationally, for non-government primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 17.1 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 18.3 in the NT to 16.5 in Victoria. Nationally, for all primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 16.6 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 17.3 in NSW to 14.6 in the NT (figure 3.16).

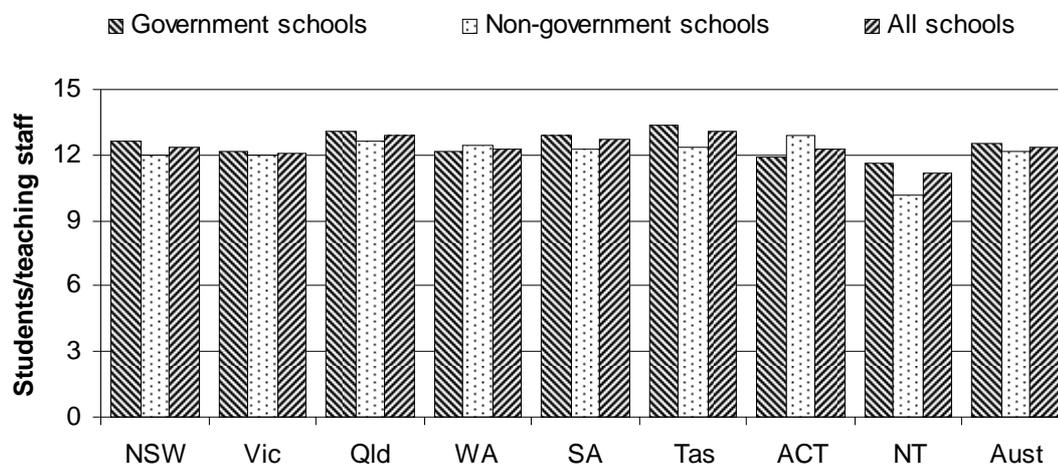
Nationally, for government secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.5 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 13.4 in Tasmania to 11.6 in the NT. Nationally, for non-government secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.1 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 12.9 in the ACT to 10.2 in the NT. Nationally, for all secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.4 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 13.1 in Tasmania to 11.1 in the NT (figure 3.17).

Figure 3.16 Ratio of FTE students to FTE teaching staff, primary schools, 2003



Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.43.

Figure 3.17 Ratio of FTE students to FTE teaching staff, secondary schools, 2003



Source: ABS (2004); table 3A.43.

Nationally, for all government schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.6 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 15.0 in NSW to 13.1 in the NT. Nationally, for all non-government schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.3 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 15.0 in the ACT to 13.8 in Victoria. Nationally, for all schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.5 in 2003. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from 14.8 for WA and SA, to 13.3 in the NT (table 3A.43). Refer to table 3A.43 for further detail on student-to-staff ratios.

Outcomes

Nationally comparable learning outcomes

The Steering Committee has identified ‘literacy’ and ‘numeracy’ as outcome indicators of school education (boxes 3.8–3.10). Nationally comparable learning outcomes data for 2001 for reading and writing literacy, and numeracy are reported in tables 3A.19–33. Data for 2002 and 2003 were not available for the 2005 Report.

Literacy — reading

‘Literacy — reading’ has been identified as an outcome indicator (box 3.8).

Box 3.8 Literacy — reading

‘Literacy — reading’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of assessed year 3 and 5 students who achieved the national reading benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for reading literacy at years 3 and 5. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by State-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

Holding other factors equal, a high or increasing proportion of students achieving the reading benchmark is desirable. This indicator is affected by socioeconomic circumstances, age, length of time spent in schooling, and LBOTE and Indigenous status.

Literacy — writing

‘Literacy — writing’ has been identified as an outcome indicator (box 3.9).

Box 3.9 Literacy — writing

‘Literacy — writing’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.9 (Continued)

The indicator is defined as the proportion of assessed year 3 and 5 students who achieved the national writing benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for writing literacy at years 3 and 5. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by State-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

Holding other factors equal, a high or increasing proportion of students achieving the writing benchmark is desirable. This indicator is affected by socioeconomic circumstances, age, length of time spent in schooling, and LBOTE and Indigenous status.

Numeracy

‘Numeracy’ has been identified as an outcome indicator (box 3.10).

Box 3.10 Numeracy

‘Numeracy’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of assessed year 3 and 5 students who achieved the national numeracy benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for numeracy at years 3 and 5. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by state-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

Holding other factors equal, a high or increasing proportion of students achieving the numeracy benchmark is desirable. This indicator is affected by socioeconomic circumstances, age, length of time spent in schooling, and LBOTE and Indigenous status.

Mathematical literacy was the major focus for the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2003 survey and results are expected to be available in late 2004.

Other outcomes

Vocational education and training (VET) in schools

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET in schools’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.11). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 3.11 VET in schools

‘VET in schools’ participation and attainment have been identified as outcome indicators of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain employment related skills.

Participation is defined as the number of school students undertaking VET (with new apprenticeships and traineeships disaggregated) as part of their senior secondary school certificate in a calendar year, as a proportion of all school students undertaking a senior secondary school certificate in that year.

Attainment is defined as the number of school students enrolled in a senior secondary school certificate in a calendar year who have completed at least one VET unit of competency/module, as a proportion of all school students undertaking a senior secondary school certificate in that year.

Data collections for ‘VET in schools’ indicators are being developed (see section 3.4 for details).

Science

The Steering Committee has identified ‘science’ literacy as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.12). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Science learning outcomes data for 15 year olds were presented for the year 2000 in the 2003 Report. These data which were collected by the PISA are included in tables 3A.34–3A.36.

Box 3.12 Science

‘Science’ — that is, scientific literacy — has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.12 (Continued)

The indicator is defined as the proportion of assessed year 6 primary students who achieve the science literacy benchmark. The benchmark cut score is set through an expert, informed process, but is necessarily subjective.

Holding other factors equal, a high or increasing proportion of students achieving the science literacy benchmark is desirable.

Information and communication technology

The Steering Committee has identified ‘information and communication technology’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.13). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 3.13 Information and communication technology

‘Information and communication technology’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should be confident, creative and productive users of new technologies.

Information and communication technology is a measure of the percentage of students achieving a particular standard. Data collections for information and communication technology indicators are being developed (see section 3.5 for details).

Estimated completion

‘Estimated completion’ is included as an outcome indicator (box 3.14).

Box 3.14 Estimated completion

‘Estimated completion’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objectives to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through participation in schooling and for students to attain high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the higher years of schooling.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.14 (Continued)

This indicator is defined as the number of students who obtain a year 12 (or equivalent) certificate as a percentage of the potential year 12 population. It is reported by socioeconomic status decile and location. Geographic isolation is determined using the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification. Socioeconomic status is determined according to the ABS Index of Disadvantage on the basis of postcode of students' home addresses. Low socioeconomic status is the average of the three lowest deciles, medium socioeconomic status is the average of the four medium deciles and high socioeconomic status is the average of the three highest deciles.

Holding other factors constant, a higher or increasing estimated completion rate suggests an improvement in educational outcomes for young people from particular socioeconomic or geographic backgrounds. The aggregation of all postcode locations into three categories — high, medium and low — means there may be significant variation within the categories. Low deciles, for example, will include locations ranging from those of extreme disadvantage to those of moderate disadvantage.

The Australian Government developed a method of estimating the proportion of young Australians who complete year 12, disaggregated by locality, socioeconomic background and gender. Under this method, completion rates of secondary schooling are estimated by expressing the number of students who obtain a year 12 (or equivalent) certificate as a percentage of the potential year 12 population. (For the definition of the potential year 12 population, see section 3.6.) The Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce of MCEETYA is reviewing this method, with the aim of improving the national comparability of data.

The Australian Government uses the estimate of completion rates because information on participation and retention rates is generally not available by socioeconomic background or geographic location. Completion rate estimates are primarily used as indicators of trends. Comparisons across jurisdictions are not recommended and need to be made with care, for the following reasons:

- assessment, reporting and requirements for obtaining year 12 certificates vary across states and territories — for example, from moderated school-based assessment to a mix including external and internal assessment, and from completion of a pattern of study to a prescribed level of attainment
- inaccuracies arise from using both home postal address and school location address in compiling completion rates data. Small changes in population or completions can affect the estimates of completion rates, particularly for smaller states and territories

- students completing their secondary education in TAFE institutes are included in reporting for some jurisdictions and not in others, and the proportion of these students also varies across jurisdictions. In Victoria, for example, over 2715 people aged 15–19 years have undertaken studies toward their Higher School Certificate or university entrance in TAFE institutes in 2003.

Estimates of year 12 completion rates in 2003 by socioeconomic background, location and gender are provided in tables 3.6 and 3.7. Estimated completion rates for students from low and medium socioeconomic backgrounds were 16 percentage points and 12 percentage points respectively below those for students from a high socioeconomic background in 2003 (table 3.6). Estimated completion rates in all socioeconomic categories were higher for female students than for male students, (except in the ACT for the medium socioeconomic category).

Table 3.6 Estimated year 12 completion rates, by socioeconomic status and gender, 2003 (per cent)^{a, b, c}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^d</i>	<i>NT^d</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Low socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	58	58	63	49	46	54	np	11	56
Female	71	71	74	60	69	67	np	13	69
All students	64	64	69	54	58	60	np	12	63
Medium socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	59	59	70	62	57	62	78	36	62
Female	69	75	77	68	79	72	71	43	72
All students	64	67	73	65	68	67	75	39	67
High socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	73	77	74	73	73	78	78	np	75
Female	78	87	76	80	91	92	82	np	83
All students	75	82	75	76	82	85	80	np	79
Total									
Male	62	65	69	62	59	61	78	26	64
Female	72	79	76	70	80	73	82	32	75
All students	67	72	72	66	69	67	80	29	69

^a Data are estimates only. They express the number of year 12 completions (year 12 certificates issued by State and Territory education authorities) as a proportion of the estimated population that could attend year 12 in that calendar year. There are variations in assessment, reporting and certification methods for year 12 across states and territories. ^b The ABS Index of Disadvantage has been used to calculate socioeconomic status on the basis of postcode of students' home addresses. ^c Low socioeconomic status is the average of the three lowest deciles, medium socioeconomic status is the average of the four middle deciles and high socioeconomic status is the average of the three highest deciles. ^d The populations in the high socioeconomic deciles of the NT and the low socioeconomic deciles of the ACT are too small to produce meaningful results. **np** Not published.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished).

Estimated completion rates varied across jurisdictions in 2003. Nationally, the rate for the low socioeconomic status deciles was 63 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates

for the low socioeconomic status deciles ranged from 69 per cent in Queensland to 12 per cent in the NT. Nationally, the rate for all students in the medium socioeconomic status deciles was 67 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates ranged from 75 per cent in the ACT to 39 per cent in the NT. Nationally, the rate for all students in the high socioeconomic status deciles was 79 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates ranged from 85 per cent in Tasmania to 75 per cent in NSW and Queensland respectively. Nationally, the rate for all students in all socioeconomic status deciles was 69 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates ranged from 80 per cent in the ACT to 29 per cent in the NT (table 3.6).

Nationally, the estimated completion rate was higher in the metropolitan zone (72 per cent) than any other area. Across jurisdictions, rates for the metropolitan zone ranged from 80 per cent in the ACT to 66 per cent in WA. Nationally, the estimated completion rate in provincial cities was 62 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates for provincial cities ranged from 68 per cent in Queensland to 39 per cent in the NT. Nationally, the estimated completion rate for other provincial and remote areas was 69 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates for other provincial and remote areas ranged from 76 per cent in Queensland to 36 per cent in the NT. Nationally, the estimated completion rate for very remote areas was 34 per cent. Across jurisdictions, rates for very remote areas ranged from 65 per cent in Queensland to 6 per cent in the NT (table 3.7).

Gender differences are also evident with completion rates higher for females for all localities in all jurisdictions. Nationally, in the metropolitan zone, the female completion rate was 76 per cent compared with 67 per cent for males. Across jurisdictions, rates for females in the metropolitan zone ranged from 85 per cent in Tasmania to 70 per cent in WA compared with males, which ranged from 78 per cent in the ACT to 62 per cent in SA.

Nationally, in other provincial and remote areas, the female completion rate was 78 per cent compared with 60 per cent for males. Across jurisdictions, rates for females in other provincial and remote areas ranged from 85 per cent in Queensland to 41 per cent in the NT, compared with males which ranged from 69 per cent in Queensland to 32 per cent in the NT (table 3.7). Time series data on completion rates are shown in tables 3A.40 and 3A.41.

Table 3.7 Estimated year 12 completion rates, by locality and gender, 2003 (per cent)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas ^c	ACT	NT ^d	Aust
Metropolitan zone^c									
Male	67	68	71	63	62	73	78	..	67
Female	75	79	76	70	80	85	82	..	76
All students	70	74	73	66	71	79	80	..	72
Provincial cities^d									
Male	54	58	67	57	..	52	..	34	58
Female	63	72	70	63	..	61	..	43	66
All students	59	65	68	60	..	56	..	39	62
Other provincial and remote^e									
Male	58	58	69	65	52	47	..	32	60
Female	74	82	85	78	81	70	..	41	78
All students	66	70	76	71	66	58	..	36	69
Very remote^f									
Male	44	..	56	28	35	6	30
Female	60	..	76	34	48	6	38
All students	51	..	65	31	41	6	34
All areas									
Male	62	65	69	62	59	61	78	26	64
Female	72	79	76	70	80	73	82	32	75
All students	67	72	72	66	69	67	80	29	69

^a Data are estimates only. They express the number of year 12 completions (year 12 certificates issued by State and Territory education authorities) as a proportion of the estimated population that could attend year 12 in that calendar year. There are variations in assessment, reporting and certification methods for year 12 across states and territories. ^b Definitions are based on the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification. ^c Major urban statistical districts (including Hobart) with populations over 100 000. ^d Provincial city statistical districts (including Darwin) with populations between 25 000 and 99 999. ^e Encompasses other provincial areas and remote areas of the MCEETYA classification. ^f This is the very remote area of the MCEETYA classification. .. Not applicable.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (unpublished).

Destination

The Steering Committee has identified 'destination' as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.15). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

The Education preface of this Report discusses the destinations of year 12 leavers and early school leavers in 2003 at the national level, and examines the proportions of male and female students attending other educational institutions in 2003 after leaving school in the previous year (table B.4).

Box 3.15 Destination

'Destination' has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through schooling. The aim is to provide information about what happens to students after they leave school.

The Steering Committee has identified this indicator for development and reporting in future.

Civics and citizenship

The Steering Committee has identified 'civics and citizenship' as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.16). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 3.16 Civics and citizenship

'Civics and citizenship' has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments' objective that students be active and informed citizens with an understanding and appreciation of Australia's system of government and civic life through broader curricula.

Civics and citizenship is a measure from year 6 and year 10 of:

- percentage of students achieving a particular standard in civic knowledge
- percentage of students achieving a particular standard in citizenship participation, skills and civic values.

Data collections for civics and citizenship indicators are being developed (see section 3.4 for details).

Enterprise education

The Steering Committee has identified 'enterprise education' as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.17). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 3.17 Enterprise education

'Enterprise education' has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through broader curricula.

The Steering Committee has identified this indicator for development and reporting in future.

Other social outcomes

The Steering Committee has identified 'other social outcomes' as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.18). Data, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 3.18 Other social outcomes

'Other social outcomes' has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through broader curricula.

The Steering Committee has identified this indicator for development and reporting in future.

3.4 Future directions in performance reporting

Participation, retention and completion rates

The participation, apparent retention and completion rates included in this Report may not reflect the increasing number of students who are enrolling in school part time or choosing to pursue their senior secondary studies or an equivalent VET qualification at TAFE. These measures are under examination, and supplementary participation measures are reported in the 'Education preface'.

Nationally comparable reporting of learning outcomes

The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is developing performance measures to assess outcomes in a range of learning areas. This work

will provide additional nationally comparable data that will be incorporated into the Review's performance indicator framework.

Year 7 literacy and numeracy

Education ministers directed the MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce in July 2003 to undertake a review of the year 7 reading and numeracy benchmarks. A report on the review outcomes and associated advice on implementation of the revised benchmark descriptions were provided to ministers in December 2003. Year 7 literacy and numeracy data previously collected (and those to be collected annually in the future) are expected to be reported annually from 2005.

Enhanced literacy and numeracy measures

Education ministers have agreed to pursue a broadening of the national reporting framework to enhance reporting of literacy and numeracy outcomes at the years 3, 5 and 7 levels. Three areas for potential enhancements to the reporting of literacy and numeracy outcomes were identified: reporting an extended range of student achievement so as to be consistent with information from the national sample assessments; reporting against a common scale in order to improve understanding of student development; and development of a more nationally consistent approach to improve national comparability of test results. A report was provided to ministers in December 2003, and the MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is continuing its work in this area.

VET in schools

Education ministers have endorsed two new indicators for VET in schools, replacing five measures previously approved or noted. Participation and attainment data for VET in schools are expected to be collected and reported annually from 2005. These new indicators are detailed below.

- Participation is a measure of school students undertaking VET (with new apprenticeships and traineeships disaggregated) as part of their senior secondary school certificate in a calendar year, as a proportion of all school students undertaking a senior secondary school certificate in that year.
- Attainment is a measure of school students enrolled in a senior secondary school certificate in a calendar year who have completed at least one VET unit of competency/module, as a proportion of all school students undertaking a senior secondary school certificate in that year.

Science

Education ministers have agreed to an approach to measuring students' scientific literacy at year 6. The first assessment was undertaken in October 2003, with further assessments to be undertaken at three year intervals. Year 6 science literacy data are expected to be available in 2005 and reported triennially.

Civics and citizenship

Education ministers have agreed to a national civics and citizenship assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. The first national sample assessment was undertaken in October 2004. Years 6 and 10 civics and citizenship assessment data are expected to be available in early 2005 and reported triennially.

Information and communication technology

Education ministers have agreed to a national information and communication technology assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce has developed a definition of information and communication technology literacy, and the first assessment is scheduled to be undertaken in 2005, with further assessments to be undertaken at three year intervals. Years 6 and 10 information and communication technology literacy data are expected to be available in 2006 and reported triennially.

Enterprise education

The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is working on developing key performance measures for enterprise education.

Attendance measures

The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is working on developing key performance measures for attendance.

Nationally consistent definitions

The collection of nationally comparable data depends on, among other factors, nationally consistent definitions of groups against which educational achievement and outcomes can be reported. National definitions have been developed for gender,

Indigenous status, LBOTE students, geographic location and socioeconomic status and have been nationally agreed. National definitions for all items (except students with disabilities) will be applied to data collection instruments in 2005 for literacy and numeracy testing and the year 6 national sample assessment. The nationally agreed definitions will be applied to all new student enrolments from 2006 for all national reporting requirements on student outcomes.

The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is working on a definition for students with disabilities.

3.5 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status).

Australian Government comments

“ The Australian Government introduced the Schools Assistance (Learning Together — Achievement Through Choice and Opportunity) Bill 2004 into the Parliament in 2004 with the legislation taking effect from 1 January 2005.

The purpose of the legislation is to provide the Australian Government’s specific purpose funding for government and non-government schools for the 2005 to 2008 quadrennium. As well as general recurrent funding it provides funding for special purpose grants in relation to, for example, assistance for students with disabilities, geographically isolated students, newly arrived students from non-English speaking backgrounds, the learning of languages other than English and school buildings. In addition the legislation also includes provisions for implementing the Australian Government’s national priorities in schooling. These priorities include measures to promote greater national consistency in schooling, better reporting to parents, transparency of school performance, and improved Indigenous education outcomes.

Following on from its Review of Teaching and Teacher Education the Government has established a National Institute for Quality Teaching and School Leadership. Run for and by the profession, the Institute is based in Canberra. The Institute’s key functions are: professional standards development and ensuring accreditation of leaders and teachers; professional learning courses linked to professional standards including quality assured teacher preparation courses; research and communication and promotion of the profession.

The Government is establishing 24 Australian Technical Colleges throughout Australia for students in Years 11 and 12. The colleges will be linked to and endorsed by industry and run autonomously by principals who will be able to engage teaching staff on a performance pay basis.

Over the last two years there has been significant progress in the development of nationally consistent reporting on student outcomes. The first national sample assessment of Year 6 students’ scientific literacy took place in October 2003, and the first national sample assessment of Year 6 and year 10 students’ civics and citizenship education knowledge and skills was undertaken in October 2004. The first national sample assessment of Year 6 and year 10 students’ ICT skills and understanding is currently being developed, with the main survey to take place in October 2005.

In addition, Ministers agreed during 2004 to implement common definitions in the school sector of students’ sex, Indigenous status, language background and socioeconomic background (as measured by parents’ occupation and educational attainment). By 2006 all reporting of student outcomes for these student groups will be on a consistent basis across the country.

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New South Wales Government comments

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The NSW Government has allocated record funding to education and training over recent years. The 2004-05 budget of \$9.2 billion represented an increase of \$717 million over the previous year's budget. NSW spent an average of \$10 139 per student in 2002-03, which is above the Australian average of \$9605.

NSW has Australia's most comprehensive state-wide testing program, with years 3 and 5 Basic Skills Literacy and Numeracy tests, the years 7 and 8 English Language and Literacy Assessment, the School Certificate in Year 10 and the Higher School Certificate in Year 12. Over the next four years over \$500 million will be allocated to the Department's Literacy and Numeracy Strategy. Since 1995, over \$1.3 billion has been allocated to improve literacy and numeracy outcomes. A priority for NSW is improving literacy and numeracy amongst the lowest achieving students.

In 2004, under the Government's class size reduction program, Kindergarten class sizes were reduced to a state-wide average of less than 20 in Priority Schools Funding Program schools which serve lower socio-economic communities. The program will be expanded to all Kindergarten classes in 2005. By 2007, class sizes will be reduced to a state-wide average of 20 students in Kindergarten; 22 students in Year 1; and 24 students in Year 2. The state's investment in the class size reduction program will be \$462.5 million over the next four years including \$88.35 million in capital funding. Already, more than 420 NSW primary schools have benefited from the allocation of 181 new teaching positions.

NSW is providing \$144 million over four years to significantly enhance professional development for teachers in Government schools. Over \$16.5 million was provided to Government schools in Term 1, 2004 under the Professional Learning Policy for Schools.

NSW continues to make significant investments in technology for teaching and learning. Over \$795 million is being invested over four years for technology initiatives, including over \$540 million for the continuing Computers in Schools program. This includes a strong commitment to school based technical support and training involving identifying standard solutions and support mechanisms to improve the functionality and reliability of school computer systems.

New suspension centres are being created in NSW to expand support options for students with disruptive behaviour. Over \$58 million will be allocated to improve the range of support options for disruptive students. Eight new behaviour schools and seven new tutorial centres will be established by 2007. This will bring the total number of behaviour schools to 35 and tutorial schools to 40 in NSW.

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Victorian Government comments

“ The Victorian Government believes that education is the key to our children's future and Victoria's prosperity. Education opens the door to high quality jobs, to a full and creative life and a sense of common citizenship.

The Government has set a number of goals and targets for the education and training system and considerable progress has been made towards achieving these. The targets include improving the standard of literacy and numeracy in primary schooling with 2001 data showing that the percentage of Victorian primary students achieving the national reading and numeracy benchmarks was at or above the Australian average. In 2003, 77.5 per cent of young people aged 19 completed year 12 or its equivalent, an improvement over 2001 data. Participation in education and training by young people aged 15 to 19 in rural and regional Victoria is at very high levels, at 92.3 per cent for 2003.

As a result of the Government's investment in school education, class sizes in prep to year 2 have been reduced from an average of 24.3 students in 1999 to 20.9 students in 2003, the lowest level on record since 1973. Reduced class sizes have increased the effectiveness of key strategies designed to improve the acquisition of foundation skills in literacy and numeracy. \$49.5m is being phased in over four years to fund the equivalent of 256 full-time primary school welfare officer positions to provide support to students who are at risk of disconnecting from school.

In November 2003, the Blueprint for Government Schools was released. The Blueprint outlines the Government's reform agenda for a highly effective government school system for Victoria. With a common preferred vision of the future, this system places students at the centre, is values driven and develops effective teachers, leaders and schools. Initiatives under the Blueprint are being implemented from 2004 and include leadership and teacher professional development, creating and supporting a performance and development culture, a new funding model for schools and other strategies to drive school improvement.

The Victorian Certificate of Applied Learning (VCAL) provides an alternative pathway to the Victorian Certificate of Education for students in years 11 and 12. In 2003 the VCAL was implemented on a statewide basis following a successful trial in 2002. In 2004, 316 providers delivered the VCAL to 8066 students.

Over 34 000 students who were enrolled in Year 12 in 2003 participated in the second On Track survey. On Track follows up on the Managed Individual Pathways program that assists 15 to 19 year-old students with individual career and education plans and support to implement those plans. Data collected for On Track provides a picture of the destinations of students after they leave school and highlights the diversity of options young people pursue, including university, TAFE or other vocational education and training programs, apprenticeships or traineeships, and employment.

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Queensland Government comments

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The Queensland Government's ongoing commitment to educational reform is reflected through the review of the *Education General Provisions Act 1989* (EGPA) and Regulation. This Act provides the legislative foundation for education in Queensland. It sets out fundamental requirements for all schools such as the compulsory schooling requirements and specific requirements for state schools including the establishment and management of schools.

The aim of the review is to develop a sound legislative regime that facilitates innovative educational practice in Queensland schools and reflects modern legislative principles. The Government released a consultation paper *Education Laws for the Future* in October 2004. The new legislation will implement the next stage of the Education and Training Reforms for the Future (ETRF) by providing the foundation for the introduction of the universally available, non-compulsory, full time preparatory year from 2007, followed by an increase in the compulsory school starting age by 6 months in 2008. The review is supported by an extensive policy development process drawing on international best practice and is being informed by the views of major stakeholders and the community.

In October 2004, following extensive public consultation, the Queensland Government announced changes to the way that schools report on student and school performance. By mid-2005, every school will be required to publish information about the school and its outcomes. From 2006, written student reports and parent-teacher interviews will be provided at least twice a year by all schools, both state and non-state. In 2006, the Queensland Studies Authority will release summary information on each school that had students in Year 12 the previous year. Every child at every school in the state will be assigned a unique student identifier. The Year 3, 5 and 7 literacy and numeracy test reports to parents have been redesigned to be easier for parents to read and understand. These initiatives will assist parental involvement in education and school improvement.

In November 2004, the Queensland Government announced that it will implement all 84 recommendations of a landmark independent review of the Board of Teacher Registration. There will be new requirements for teachers to renew their registration every five years. Teachers wishing to continue in the profession will need to undertake continuing professional learning and maintain their skills through teaching experience. The reforms will also make it easier for non-school teachers with valuable skills and qualifications — such as scientists and TAFE teachers — to become school teachers in Queensland. The implementation of these recommendations will strengthen the professional standards of Queensland teachers.”

Western Australian Government comments



The Department of Education and Training is committed to students achieving the highest standards of learning possible.

Achievement targets have been developed for years 3, 5, 7 and 9 to define the standards expected of students at these year levels. These form part of the Outcomes and Standards Framework and will assist schools to focus on improvement and to clearly describe to parents where their child's performance sits in relation to the standards.

The very successful Monitoring Standards in Education sample testing program at years 3, 7 and 10 and Western Australian Literacy and Numeracy Assessment full-cohort testing program at years 3, 5 and 7 have been augmented by the introduction of MSE9. In 2004, MSE9 tested the reading, viewing and mathematics performance of all year 9 government school students.

A strategy operating across the education and vocational education and training sectors is intended to increase the effective participation of young people in education and training. It seeks to ensure that all 15 to 19 year olds have access to suitable learning programs, appropriate learning environments, and career development services to enable them to make successful transitions between school and adult life.

The strong emphasis on improving literacy and numeracy standards continued with 120 FTE specialist teachers supporting schools in addressing the needs of students through the Getting it Right strategy.

The Department's operational plan for Aboriginal education has established long term plans in key priority areas to improve the educational outcomes of Aboriginal students. The plan has a particular focus on literacy, numeracy and retention rates of Aboriginal students.

The Behaviour Management and Discipline strategy was extended in 2004 to include 100 primary schools. The strategy has had a focus on the management of student behaviour in lower secondary schools, with an extra 60 FTE teachers appointed to 35 schools to reduce class sizes in years 8 and 9; and 30 schools funded to implement programs, services and strategies to meet the needs of years 8 and 9 students with challenging behaviours.

A major strategy, Building Inclusive Schools, is being implemented to ensure that the culture and pedagogy of schools are genuinely inclusive.



South Australian Government comments

“ During 2003, the activities for the year have been driven by the belief that the achievement and well being of learners is the single most important consideration for the department and its activities.

Student retention continued as one of the department's key priorities in 2003. From the commencement of 2003, the minimum school leaving age for South Australian students was raised from 15 to 16. The Futures Connect initiative was launched concurrently to assist students to engage with more meaningful education and training programs for their individual circumstance, as well as assisting their transition into employment, training or further education. The Student Mentoring Program also commenced to support students returning or remaining at school to re-engage with the curriculum. Forty-five priority schools were involved in the program, with eighty teacher mentors supporting approximately 800 students throughout the year.

In addition to retention, student attendance received significant attention as a critical area in 2003. The Ministerial Taskforce on Absenteeism continued their work with Department of Education and Children's Services working in partnership with the South Australian Police to develop a Memorandum of Understanding on truancy issues and to develop a training and development package to support schools in addressing such issues.

Partnerships were fostered through Working Together for Indigenous Youth (WTIY) initiative, to support Indigenous people to negotiate regional and local agreements related to education of their children and local priorities.

The importance of literacy and numeracy was acknowledged throughout 2003. The South Australian Literacy and Numeracy Network was launched as an online resource and provides parents, students, educators and community members with a coordinated and streamlined source of information, advice, services and programs related to literacy and numeracy learning. There have been a number of other initiatives focussing on literacy and numeracy development, among them, the site based Literacy, Numeracy and ICT Learning Project in 2003 which enabled nine sites involved in the project to perform their own research that explores the interface between literacy, numeracy, ICT and learning.

Student well being issues were progressed throughout 2003, through such initiatives as the Drug Strategy, beyondblue national research initiative into depression in youth and the department's Active for Life initiative which is promoting healthy life practices in children and young people.

By the end of 2003, progress had been made towards a unified model of local management through the development of guidelines for site learning plans and District Support Plans to assist sites and districts in achieving their strategic goals.”

Tasmanian Government comments

“ The development and implementation of a new curriculum, the Essential Learnings Framework covering the years from birth to year 10 continued to be a major priority for Tasmanian Government schools with an increased number of schools being involved in the project. Some schools from the Catholic sector also began to participate in the project.

Additional funding was provided to implement the Government’s policy to reduce class sizes in early childhood years to 25 students and early intervention and Strong Start pilot programs to support parents of young children began in some areas of the State. These programs support young parents, child and health carers and the education community to work together.

The recommendations of the Inclusion Review were implemented which included new guidelines for enrolment in special schools and the development of Individual Education Plans for students with disabilities within the curriculum reform process. The model for allocating special education funding was revised and additional funds were provided by the Tasmanian Government to meet the educational needs of an increased number of students with disabilities.

Other key educational initiatives included the development of a literacy and numeracy plan was developed to ensure continuing improvement in the literacy and numeracy performance of students in Tasmanian schools (including the appointment of literacy and numeracy support staff); the Managing and Retaining Secondary Students at school program was extended with the provision of additional teachers in secondary schools; on-line facilities were provided for both students “at risk” of continuing their education and also for gifted students in primary schools; and a new drug policy was implemented and implementation workshops were conducted around the State.

The requirements of the Teachers Registration Act 2000 were met with teachers registered by the Teachers Registration Board by 31 December 2002. The School Improvement Review process was enhanced with approximately eighty schools commencing the review process with their communities in early 2003 which lead to the development of a School Improvement Plan for each participating school.

A new school levy policy was developed to ensure that all students in Government schools have access to the full curriculum and the range of learning opportunities necessary for their education, regardless of the financial circumstances of their family. This new policy was accompanied with increased financial support for the children of low income families.

Following its destruction by fire, a new Reece High School was built and opened at the commencement of the 2003 school year. This school provides purpose built first class facilities to suit the new curriculum framework within Tasmania with a key feature being the incorporation of new and emerging ICT infrastructure within the buildings. The innovative educational design continues to be widely recognised and the project has won both National and International design awards.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The ACT Government believes that education is of strategic importance and a key investment in the future of the Territory. Education provides a foundation for the intellectual, physical and social development of young Canberrans leading to a productive and rewarding life.

The Department of Education and Training delivers quality education services through government preschools and schools; registers non government schools; and administers vocational education and training in the ACT.

In 2004 the new Education Act was passed by the ACT Legislative Assembly replacing and bringing together a number of previous Acts. This will take effect from 1 January 2005.

The School Excellence Initiative was launched in 2004. The initiative aims to lift the high standards in student learning, innovation and best practice in ACT government schools, focusing on the key areas that enhance student achievement and learning. The initiative is supported by an improvement framework which provides areas of focus and self assessment tools for schools. It is being complemented by the development of a new ACT curriculum framework, following extensive consultation based on the discussion paper entitled *Every Chance to Learn*.

In 2004 Student Pathways plans have been in place for all students in year 10 in government schools and will be expanded into years 9, 11 and 12 in 2005. Pathways Planning provides an opportunity for students to collaboratively plan their learning pathways through identifying their needs, capacities, personal strengths, interests and goals. Youth workers supporting students will be in all government high schools by 2005.

The student centred approach to appraising the educational needs of students with disabilities has been refined in 2004 and has been extended to the non government school sector. The government has committed increased funding to both sectors for students with a disability in 2004-05.

The Centre for Teaching and Learning commenced operations in new premises in 2004. This purpose-designed facility reflects the government's commitment to the best possible professional learning opportunities for teachers and to providing information communication technology (ICT). Improvements in ICT infrastructure including 'Student Digital Passkey', school website enhancements and improved technical support for student computing will be implemented in government schools in 2005.

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Northern Territory Government comments

“ In 2003 the Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) has seen the introduction of several new initiatives building on the successes of programs already in place. Some highlights in 2003:

DEET's commitment to improving the capture and management of student level information continued through the implementation of the Student Administration and Management System in all government schools. As part of the initial roll-out process, all students were assigned a unique identifier, allowing for the electronic transfer of student information between schools and giving schools and the system the capacity to track student activity and performance.

An attendance program commenced in March 2003. This program employed attendance officers to identify students at-risk and not attending school. Appropriate strategies to re-engage the students with schooling have been developed.

A national tender was awarded to Charles Darwin University to review secondary education in the NT. An extensive and comprehensive program of consultations was undertaken, to allow members of the NT community to contribute to the review.

Kalkaringi Community Education Center had three Indigenous students successfully complete their Northern Territory Certificate of Education (NTCE). These are the first Indigenous students to attain an NTCE through schooling in their home community in the history of the Northern Territory. The school received two awards in the National Awards for Quality Schooling and was a finalist in the prestigious Best Schools awards run by *The Australian* Newspaper.

The Interactive Distance Learning project continued to help meet the challenges of remoteness through the application of education activities to over a 100 remote school of the air locations, as well as providing teacher professional development opportunities to 90 remote schools. The ongoing challenge of this technology is the expansion of delivered activities and the provision of educational activities for remote indigenous students and communities.

Accelerated Literacy, a specific English literacy teaching approach, has been trialled in six NT schools with some encouraging results for both Indigenous and non indigenous students in urban and remote settings. The program aims to improve literacy levels for students who are not currently meeting national benchmarks. During the pilot, student progress in reading and comprehension was regularly and comprehensively monitored and outcomes for the majority of students have been outstanding.

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3.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Apparent retention rates	The number of full time students in a designated year of schooling, expressed as a percentage of their respective cohort group at an earlier base year — for example, the percentage of full time students who continued to year 12 in 2001 from respective cohort groups at year 10. In this example, the rate is calculated by dividing the total number of full time students in year 12 in 2001 by the total number of full time students in year 10 in 1999.
Full time equivalent student	The FTE of a full time student is 1.0. The method of converting part time student numbers into FTEs should be based on the student's workload compared with the workload usually undertaken by a full time student. The FTE of part time primary students was included for the first time for 2001.
Full time student	A person who satisfies the definition of a student and undertakes a workload equivalent to, or greater than, that usually undertaken by a student of that year level. The definition of full time student varies across jurisdictions.
Geographic classification	<p>Geographic categorisation is based on the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification which, at the highest level, divides Australia into three zones (the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones). A further disaggregation comprises five categories: metropolitan and provincial zones each subdivided into two categories, and the remote zone. Further subdivisions of the two provincial zone categories and the remote zone category provide additional more detailed classification options. When data permit, a separate very remote zone can be reported along with the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones, as follows.</p> <p><i>A. Metropolitan zone</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Mainland State capital city regions statistical divisions: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth statistical divisions.2. Major urban statistical districts (100 000 or more population): ACT–Queanbeyan, Cairns, Gold Coast–Tweed, Geelong, Hobart, Newcastle, Sunshine Coast, Townsville, Wollongong. <p><i>B. Provincial zone (non-remote)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">3. Provincial city statistical districts plus Darwin statistical division. Provincial city statistical districts and Darwin statistical division (50 000–99 999 population): Albury–Wodonga, Ballarat, Bathurst–Orange, Burnie–Devonport, Bundaberg, Bendigo, Darwin, Launceston, La Trobe Valley, Mackay, Rockhampton, Toowoomba, Wagga Wagga. Provincial City Statistical Districts (25 000–49 999 population): Bunbury, Coffs Harbour, Dubbo, Geraldton, Gladstone, Shepparton, Hervey Bay, Kalgoorlie–Boulder, Lismore, Mandurah, Mildura, Nowra–Bomaderry, Port Macquarie, Tamworth, Warrnambool.

	<p>4. Other provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score \leq 5.92)</p> <p> Inner provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score $<$ 2.4)</p> <p> Outer provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 2.4 and $<$ 5.92)</p> <p>C. <i>Remote zone</i></p> <p>5. Remote zone (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 5.92)</p> <p> Remote areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 5.92 and \leq 10.53)</p> <p> Very remote areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 10.53)</p>
Government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student	Total government recurrent expenditure divided by the total number of FTE students. Expenditure is based on the National School Statistics Collection (MCEETYA 2004b), with adjustments for notional UCC charges and payroll tax. Notional UCC is included for all jurisdictions and payroll tax estimates are included for those jurisdictions not subject to it (WA and the ACT). Expenditure figures are in financial years and student numbers are in calendar years, so the total number of students is taken as the average of two years. When calculating the 2000-01 average expenditure per student, for example, the total expenditure figure is at 2000-01 but the total student number figure is the average of student numbers from 2000 and 2001.
Indigenous student	A student of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin who identifies as being an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander or from an Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander background. Administrative processes for determining Indigenous status vary across jurisdictions.
In-school costs	Costs relating directly to schools. Staff, for example, are categorised as being either in-school or out-of-school. They are categorised as in-school if they usually spend more than half of their time actively engaged in duties at one or more schools or ancillary education establishments. In-school employee related expenses, for example, represent all salaries, wages awards, allowances and related oncosts paid to in-school staff.
Language background other than English (LBOTE) student	A status that is determined by administrative processes that vary across jurisdictions.
Out-of-school costs	Costs relating indirectly to schools. Staff, for example, are categorised as being either in-school or out-of-school. They are categorised as out-of-school if they do not usually spend more than half of their time actively engaged in duties at one or more schools or ancillary education establishments. Out-of-school employee related expenses, for example, represent all salaries, wages awards, allowances and related oncosts paid to out-of-school staff.
Part time student	A student undertaking a workload that is less than that specified as being full time in the jurisdiction.
Participation rate	The number of full time school students of a particular age, expressed as a proportion of the estimated resident population of the same age at June.
Potential year 12 population	An estimate of a single-year age group that could have participated in year 12 that year, defined as the estimated resident population aged 15–19 years, divided by 5.
Real expenditure	Nominal expenditure adjusted for changes in prices, using the GDP price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.

Socioeconomic status	As per footnotes to table 3A.40, which provides definitions specific to each table. Elsewhere in the Report, socioeconomic status data are presented that are not fully comparable across jurisdictions because administrative processes for determining socioeconomic status vary across jurisdictions.
Source of income	In this chapter, income from either the Australian Government or State and Territory governments. Australian Government expenditure is derived from specific purpose payments (current and capital) for schools. This funding indicates the level of monies allocated, not necessarily the level of expenditure incurred in any given financial year. The data provide, therefore, only a broad indication of the level of Australian Government funding.
Student-to-staff ratios	The number of FTE students per FTE teaching and non-teaching staff. Students at special schools are allocated to primary and secondary. The FTE of staff includes those who are generally active in schools and ancillary education establishments.
Student	A person who is formally (officially) enrolled or registered at a school, and is also active in a primary, secondary or special education program at that school. Students at special schools are allocated to primary and secondary on the basis of their actual grade (if assigned); whether or not they are receiving primary or secondary curriculum instruction; or, as a last resort, whether they are of primary or secondary school age.
Student, primary	A student in primary education, which covers pre-year 1 to year 6 in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT, pre-year 1 to year 7 in WA, SA and the NT, and year 1 to year 7 in Queensland.
Student, secondary	A student in secondary education, which commences at year 7 in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT, and at year 8 in Queensland, SA, WA and the NT.
Students with disabilities	Students included in the annual system reports to Department of Education, Science and Training. The definitions of students with disabilities are based on individual State and Territory criteria, so data are not comparable across jurisdictions.
Teacher	Teaching staff have teaching duties (that is, they are engaged to impart the school curriculum) and spend the majority of their time in contact with students. They support students, either by direct class contact or on an individual basis. Teaching staff include principals, deputy principals and senior teachers mainly involved in administrative duties, but not specialist support staff (who may spend the majority of their time in contact with students but are not engaged to impart the school curriculum) (MCEETYA 2002b).
Ungraded student	A student in ungraded classes who cannot readily be allocated to a year of education. These students are included as either ungraded primary or ungraded secondary, according to the typical age level in each jurisdiction.

3.7 References

- ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2001, *Schools Australia, 2000*, Cat. no. 4221.0, Canberra.
- 2002, *Schools Australia, 2001*, Cat. no. 4221.0, Canberra.
- 2003, *Schools Australia, 2002*, Cat. no. 4221.0, Canberra.
- 2004, *Schools Australia, 2003*, Cat. no. 4221.0, Canberra.
- MCEETYA (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs) 1999, *The Adelaide Declaration: National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century*, Melbourne.
- 2002a, *National Schools Statistics Collection, 2001*, Melbourne, unpublished.
- 2002b, *National Schools Statistics Collection: Notes, Instructions and Tabulations, 2002*, compiled by the ABS on behalf of the MCEETYA, Melbourne.
- 2003a, *National Report on Schooling in Australia, 2001*, Melbourne.
- 2003b, *National Schools Statistics Collection, 2002*, Melbourne, unpublished.
- 2004a, *National Report on Schooling in Australia, 2002*, Melbourne.
- 2004b, *National Schools Statistics Collection, 2003*, Melbourne, unpublished.
- SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2004, *Report on Government Services 2004*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

4 Vocational education and training

Vocational education and training (VET) delivers employment related skills across a huge range of vocations. It provides Australians with the skills to enter or re-enter the labour force, retrain for a new job or upgrade skills for an existing job. The VET system includes government and privately funded VET delivered by a number of methods by a wide range of training institutions and enterprises.

This chapter reports on the VET services delivered by providers receiving government funding allocations. These VET services include the provision of vocational programs of study in government owned technical and further education (TAFE) institutes and universities with TAFE divisions, other government and community institutions, and government funded activity by private registered training organisations. The scope of this chapter does not extend to university education or VET services provided in schools (which fall within the scope of chapter 3).

A profile of the VET sector is presented in section 4.1. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 4.2, and the data for these indicators are discussed in section 4.3. Most of the data presented against these performance indicators are derived from data provided by the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) and the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER). Future directions in VET performance reporting are discussed in section 4.4. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions' comments about VET performance in section 4.5 and a list of definitions in section 4.6.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 4 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications \Reports \2005\Attach4A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications \Reports \2005\Attach4A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 4A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page also (www.pc.gov.au/gsp/2005/index.html). Users

without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

4.1 Profile of vocational education and training

Service overview

The VET system involves the interaction of employers, the Australian, State, Territory and local governments (as both purchasers and providers), and an increasing number of private and community registered training organisations. The system provides a diverse range of programs and qualification levels, with course durations varying from a module (a stand-alone course component or subject) of a few hours to full courses of up to four years (box 4.1).

Box 4.1 Diversity of the VET system

The levels of training range from a single module or unit of competency (which can involve fewer than 10 contact hours) to advanced diplomas (which can involve up to four years of study). All training levels in the VET system need to be assessed because many students complete modules or units of competency (which do not lead directly to a qualification) without intending to complete a course.

The types of training range from formal classroom learning to workplace-based learning and may include flexible, self-paced learning and/or online training. The availability of distance education has increased with off-campus options, such as correspondence, Internet study and interactive teleconferencing.

The types of training institution range from institutions specialising in VET delivery (such as government owned TAFE institutes and agricultural colleges, private registered training organisations, and adult community education providers) to secondary schools and universities. Schools and universities provide dual award courses that combine traditional studies with VET, with an award from both the VET provider and the secondary school or university. In addition to specialist institutions, secondary schools and universities, many employers provide informal on-the-job training in the workplace that does not lead to a recognised qualification, and do not register as training organisations to deliver formal, structured and recognised training.

The general roles of the system, and the main reasons that students participate in VET programs, are to:

- develop skills, including general education skills such as literacy and numeracy, that enhance the student's ability to enter the labour force
- retrain or update labour force skills

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- provide a pathway to further tertiary education, including entrance to higher education.

Government funding

Recurrent expenditure on VET by Australian, State and Territory governments totalled \$3.8 billion in 2003 — a real increase of 0.9 per cent from the 2002 level (table 4A.1). Government recurrent expenditure was equal to \$286.80 per person aged 15–64 years across Australia in 2003. It ranged from \$563.40 in the NT to \$245.90 in Queensland (table 4A.2).

Size and scope

The VET sector is large and varied. In 2003, 30.2 per cent of Australians aged 15–64 years held a VET qualification — up from 28.3 per cent in 1999 (ANTA 2004a). VET qualifications can vary significantly by length, level and field.

Students

Approximately 1.7 million people participated in VET programs across Australia in 2003. The total number of VET students increased by 2.1 per cent between 2002 and 2003, and by 6.4 per cent between 1999 and 2003. Of the VET students in 2003, 1.2 million (69.8 per cent of all VET students) participated in VET programs that were funded by government recurrent expenditure on VET through State and Territory agencies. The number of government recurrent funded VET students declined by 3.4 per cent between 1999 and 2003, although the number of government recurrent funded curriculum hours increased (see below). In addition, a small number of VET students (57 400, or 3.3 per cent of all VET students in 2003) were funded through specific purpose government programs (ANTA 2004a).

The remaining 439 700 VET students in 2003 participated on a fee-for-service basis as domestic students (25.6 per cent of all VET students) or international students (1.3 per cent of all VET students). The proportion of domestic fee-for-service students increased from 19.0 per cent of all VET students in 1999 to 25.6 per cent in 2003 (ANTA 2004a).

All VET student data presented in this year's Report refer only to VET students who were funded by government recurrent expenditure and attended government institutions (primarily TAFE institutions and universities), community education providers and private registered VET providers. They do not include students who

participated in VET programs in schools or undertook 'recreation, leisure or personal enrichment' education programs (ANTA 2004a).

To maintain consistency with the *Annual National Report of the Australian VET System 2003* (ANTA 2004a), the 2003 VET student participation data in this year's Report were not adjusted for recognition of prior learning or for students who enrolled but did not participate.¹ The 2003 VET student participation data in this Report are therefore not directly comparable to VET student participation data presented in previous reports, which were adjusted for these factors.

Hours

Government funded VET students participated in 278.1 million government funded adjusted curriculum hours² in 2003. Across jurisdictions, the number of government funded adjusted curriculum hours delivered ranged from 98.3 million hours in NSW to 3.6 million hours in the NT. The number of adjusted annual hours delivered per government funded VET student in 2003 ranged from 288.9 in the ACT to 206.2 in the NT, with a national average of 231.9 hours per student (table 4A.3).

Courses

VET qualifications range from non-award courses to certificates (levels I–IV), diplomas and advanced diplomas. In 2003, 13.5 per cent of government funded VET students were undertaking a diploma or advanced diploma; 41.8 per cent were enrolled in a certificate level III or IV; 22.8 per cent were enrolled in a certificate level I or II or lower; and 21.8 per cent were enrolled in a course that did not lead directly to a qualification (ANTA 2004a).

Fields of study also varied greatly. In 2003, 28.3 per cent of units of competency or modules undertaken by government funded VET students were in management and commerce, 16.4 per cent were in engineering and related technologies, 8.8 per cent were in society and culture and 5.5 per cent were in food, hospitality and personal services. Other fields studied by government funded VET students included:

¹ The scope of the *Annual National Report of the Australian VET System 2003* is VET training that is recurrently funded by Australian, State and Territory governments or delivered by government providers, excluding recreation, leisure and personal enrichment programs, VET delivered in schools, and students who were granted credit transfers for all of their 2003 enrolment activity (ANTA 2004a). The same scope has been applied to this Report.

² Curriculum hours were adjusted for invalid enrolment and recognition of prior learning. ANTA made adjustments on the advice of NCVER auditors (table 4A.3).

information technology, architecture and building, health, education, and creative arts. (ANTA 2004a).

Institutions

Government funded VET programs were delivered at 1250 TAFE and other government provider locations, and at 7080 community education and other registered training provider locations (that is, the locations of all other registered training providers, including private providers, that receive government recurrent funding for VET delivery) across Australia in 2003 (table 4A.3). The infrastructure (noncurrent physical assets) of government owned TAFE institutions and TAFE divisions of universities was valued at \$6.7 billion in 2003, of which 93.9 per cent comprised the value of land and buildings (table 4A.19). The value of net assets of government VET providers was \$507 per person aged 15–64 years across Australia in 2003. This value varied from \$916 per person in the NT to \$352 per person in Queensland (table 4A.4).

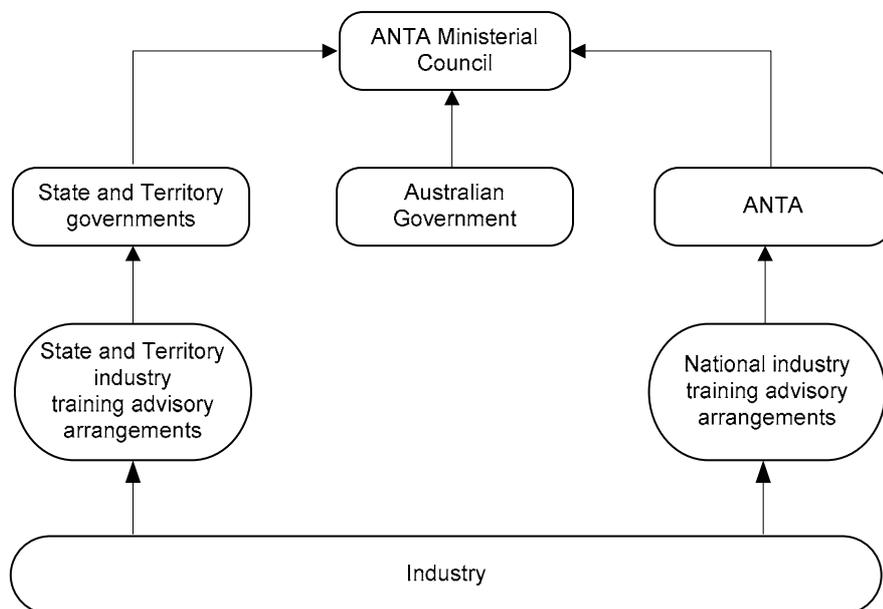
Roles and responsibilities

The national VET system is a cooperative arrangement between the Australian, State and Territory governments, industry and service providers (figure 4.1). The ANTA Ministerial Council of Australian, State and Territory government ministers leads the system, providing direction on national policy, strategy, priorities, goals and objectives. ANTA has an industry-based board that advises the ANTA Ministerial Council. Industry provides advice about skill needs, training requirements and other training issues through ANTA and in consultation with the Australian, State and Territory governments (figure 4.1).

National industry training advisory arrangements

In 2003, the ANTA board created 10 new industry skills councils to replace the 23 existing national Industry Training Advisory Bodies (ITABs) and six other recognised advisory bodies. The councils provide industry information to the VET sector about current and future skills needs and training requirements. They support the development, implementation and continual quality improvement of nationally recognised training products and services (including training packages). A national industry skills forum for key industry stakeholders is also held twice a year.

Figure 4.1 Policy advice and decision making within the VET system 2003



State industry training advisory arrangements

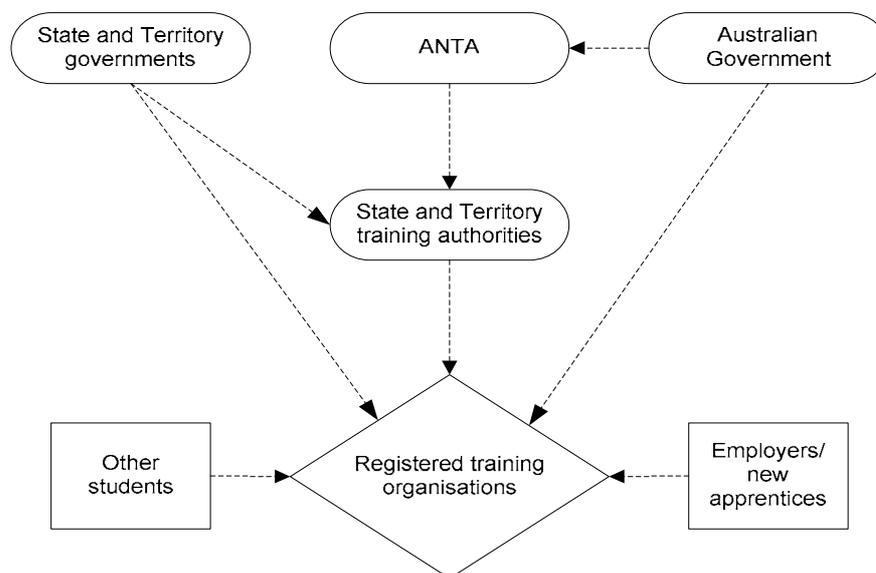
Prior to 2003, ITABs were the key conduits for advice and information between the VET system and industry in each jurisdiction. In 2002, the Australian Government ceased contributing to State and Territory ITABs, and State and Territory governments reviewed their industry advisory arrangements. Most jurisdictions maintained their respective ITABs either on an interim basis or with a changed role. Tasmania replaced its ITABs with new arrangements overseen by a high level strategic advisory group. The ACT established the ACT Industry Training Advisory Association Inc. to provide industry training advisory services.

VET funding flows

State and Territory governments provide funding for VET services through the State and Territory training authorities. They provided \$2.4 billion in 2003 — 72.5 per cent of government recurrent funding, compared to 73.3 per cent in 2002. The Australian Government provided the remainder of government recurrent funding (NCVER 2004a). Australian Government funding of VET services is administered and allocated to the State and Territory training authorities by ANTA.

Registered training organisations also receive revenue from individuals and organisations for fee-for-service programs, ancillary trading revenue, other operating revenue and revenue from Australian, State and Territory government specific purpose funds (figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Funding flows within the VET system 2003



Allocation of VET funding

The bulk of government VET funds are allocated to government VET providers based on the planned activity set by State and Territory training authorities. Funding of non-government providers for VET delivery was \$316 million in 2003 — a 0.9 per cent decrease in real terms from the 2002 level. The proportion of government funding allocated to non-government providers for VET delivery in 2003 ranged from 11.0 per cent in the ACT to 3.7 per cent in NSW (table 4A.5).

The disbursement of VET funding on a competitive basis was introduced in the early 1990s to allocate additional Australian Government funds to government providers and private registered training organisations (HRSCEET 1998). Processes used to allocate funds on a competitive basis include:

- *competitive tendering*, whereby government and private registered training organisations compete for funding contracts from State and Territory training authorities in response to government offers (tenders)
- *user choice*, whereby the employer and apprentice/trainee choose a registered training provider and negotiate key aspects of their training, and then government funds flow to that provider
- *preferred supplier arrangements* (an extension of competitive tendering) whereby a contract is awarded to providers (chosen by the tender process) to provide training on a longer term basis.

Competitive tendering mechanisms for allocating funds to VET providers are designed to expose the sector to greater competition by facilitating the entry of new providers and the expansion of existing providers. Competitive tendering may also affect other dimensions of VET service provision, including quality and access by equity target groups.

An estimated \$700.3 million of government VET funding was allocated on a competitive basis in 2003 (including user choice arrangements) — 4.4 per cent less in real terms than in 2002 (table 4A.6). The degree of competition in the tendering process varies across jurisdictions. Some tenders can be contested by both government providers and private registered training organisations (open competitive tendering), while some tenders are restricted to either government providers or private registered training organisations (limited competitive tendering).

Similarly, the potential for competition, in terms of the size of the market of potential providers, varies across jurisdictions. TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions may be subject to factors that affect their ability to compete effectively for funding allocated by competitive tendering (box 4.2). Course costs for example, can vary considerably between providers as a result of differences in their coursemixes, asset bases and student requirements.

Box 4.2 TAFE institutes and competitive tendering

The House of Representatives Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training (HRSCEET) found that the following factors impede the competitive position of TAFE institutes:

- many government owned TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions cannot retain revenue earned from fee-for-service activity
- governments set concessional fees but do not necessarily compensate TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions for the revenue lost in meeting this community service obligation
- governments set mainstream course fees that may not reflect course costs
- governments require government owned TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions to operate in higher cost regional and remote areas.

Nevertheless, TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions have some competitive advantages over other VET providers. HRSCEET noted that a main advantage is the size and value of the public infrastructure to which they have access.

Source: HRSCEET (1998).

4.2 Framework of performance indicators

For the 2004 Report, the performance indicator framework was revised to provide information on equity, efficiency and effectiveness, and to distinguish the outputs and outcomes of government funded or provided VET services. This approach is consistent with the general performance indicator framework for all government services, as agreed by the Steering Committee (see chapter 1).

The current framework of performance indicators for VET is built around the VET objectives established under the national strategy for 1998–2003 (box 4.3). The performance indicators reflect the national VET objectives for this period — for example, ‘VET participation by target groups’ is a measure of equitable access to VET; ‘vocational outcomes’ are a measure of the effect of VET on equipping Australians for participation in the workforce; and ‘recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour’ is an indicator of the extent to which the value of government VET expenditure is maximised. These national VET objectives were revised for the national strategy for 2004–2010, so the performance framework for future reports will be reviewed accordingly (section 4.4).

Box 4.3 Objectives for VET, 1998–2003

The ANTA Ministerial Council agreed in 1997 on four objectives for the VET system for the period 1998–2003:

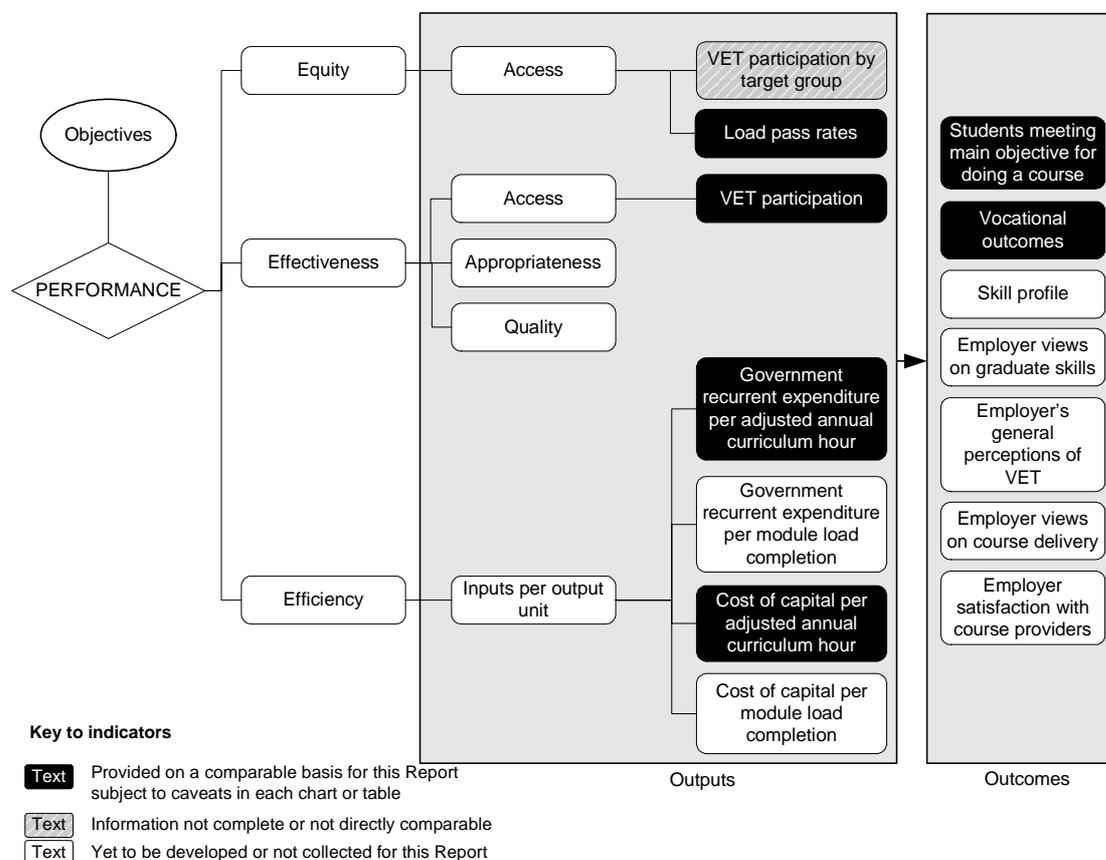
- to achieve equitable outcomes in VET
- to enhance mobility in the labour market
- to equip Australians for the world of work
- to maximise the value of public VET expenditure.

A fifth objective — to increase investment in training — was added in early 1998.

Source: ANTA (1998).

The performance indicator framework (figure 4.3) shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report. For data that are not directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective.

Figure 4.3 Performance indicators for VET services



4.3 Key performance indicator results

The equity, effectiveness and efficiency of VET services may be affected by different delivery environments, locations and types of client. Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may help in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

Outputs

Equity

A key national goal of the VET system is to increase opportunities and outcomes for disadvantaged groups. The ANTA designated equity target groups are women, residents of rural and remote areas, Indigenous people, people with a disability and people from non-English speaking backgrounds. This section includes indicators of access to VET by these equity groups in 2003.

VET participation by target equity groups

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET participation by target equity groups’ as an indicator of the equity of access to VET services (box 4.4). The student data for all target equity groups in this Report are for government funded students only and not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and students who enrolled but did not participate. They are comparable to student data in the *Annual National Report on VET services 2003* (ANTA 2004a) but are not directly comparable to student data presented in previous editions of this Report.

Box 4.4 VET participation by target equity groups

The extent of ‘VET participation by target equity groups’ (women, residents of rural and remote areas, Indigenous Australians, people with a disability, and people of non-English speaking background) provides an indicator of the target group’s access to the VET system, compared with that of the general population, and reflects performance against the objective of achieving equitable outcomes in VET.

In this Report, the ‘VET participation by target equity groups’ is the number of government funded participants in the VET system who self-identified that they are from a target group, as a proportion of the total number of people in the population in that group aged 15–64 years.

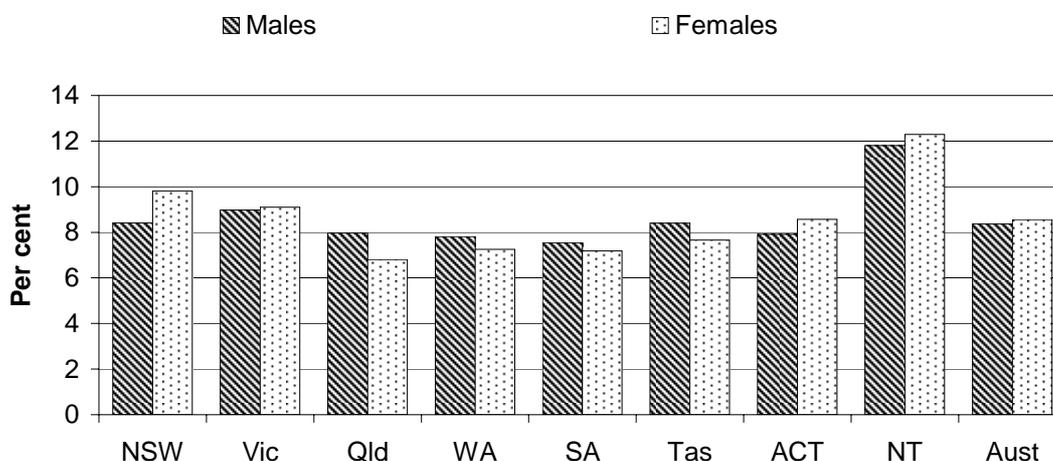
It is desirable that the ‘VET participation by target equity groups’ is comparable to that for all students. A lower participation rate means the target equity group is under-represented in VET; a higher participation rate means the group is over-represented in VET.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting the participation rates presented for Indigenous people, people with a disability and people from a non-English speaking background because (1) the data depend on self-identification at the time of enrolment and (2) the number of non-responses (that is, students who did not indicate whether they belong to these groups) varies across jurisdictions.

VET participation by target equity groups — women

Traditionally, men have had a higher VET participation rate than women. In 2003, however, the national VET participation rate was slightly higher for females (8.6 per cent) than for males (8.4 per cent). Across jurisdictions, both the female and male VET participation rates were highest in the NT (12.3 per cent and 11.8 per cent respectively); the female participation rate was lowest in Queensland (6.8 per cent) and the male rate was lowest in SA (7.5 per cent) (figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years, by sex, 2003^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

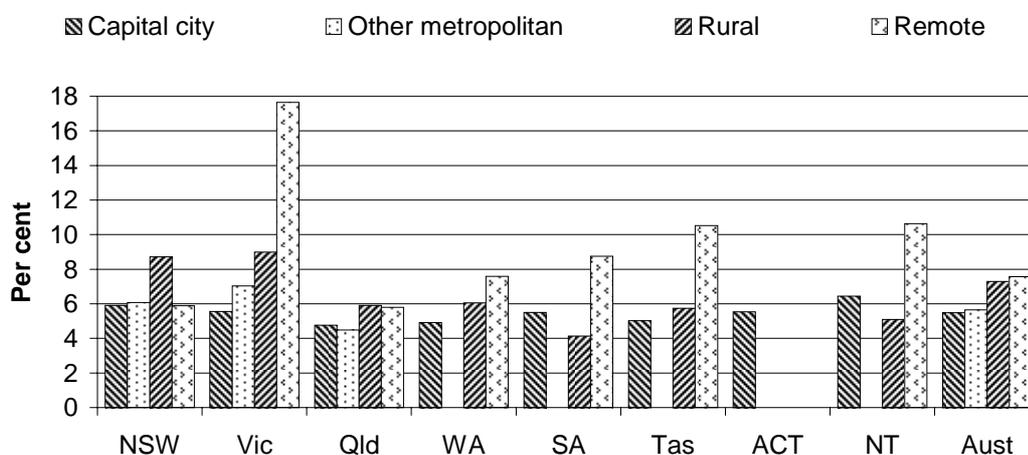
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.8.

VET participation by target equity groups — people from rural and remote areas

Nationally, the VET participation rate in 2003 was higher for people from rural (7.3 per cent) and remote (7.6 per cent) areas than for people from other geographic regions (5.5 per cent for capital cities and 5.7 per cent for other metropolitan areas).³ The participation rate for rural areas was highest in Victoria (9.0 per cent) and lowest in SA (4.1 per cent). The participation rate for remote areas was highest in Victoria (17.6 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (5.8 per cent) (figure 4.5). Employment opportunities and the availability of alternative education services in rural and remote areas may affect the level of VET participation in these areas.

³ VET student participation data by region are based on students' home postcode using the Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Area Classifications system (RRMA) classification of regions (which includes the classifications: capital city; other metropolitan; rural; remote; interstate and overseas), rather than the Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia (ARIA) classifications currently used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (see, table A.6).

Figure 4.5 VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years, by region, 2003^{a, b, c, d}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Capital city areas are defined as State and Territory capital city statistical divisions. Other metropolitan areas are defined as other statistical subdivisions that include urban centres of population of 100 000 or more. Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. Rural areas include the remainder of non-metropolitan statistical local areas. ^c In WA, SA, Tasmania and the NT the number of students from other metropolitan areas is too small to calculate meaningful participation rates. ^d In the ACT, the number of students from other metropolitan and rural areas is too small to calculate meaningful participation rates. There are no remote areas in the ACT.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.9.

VET participation by target equity groups — Indigenous people

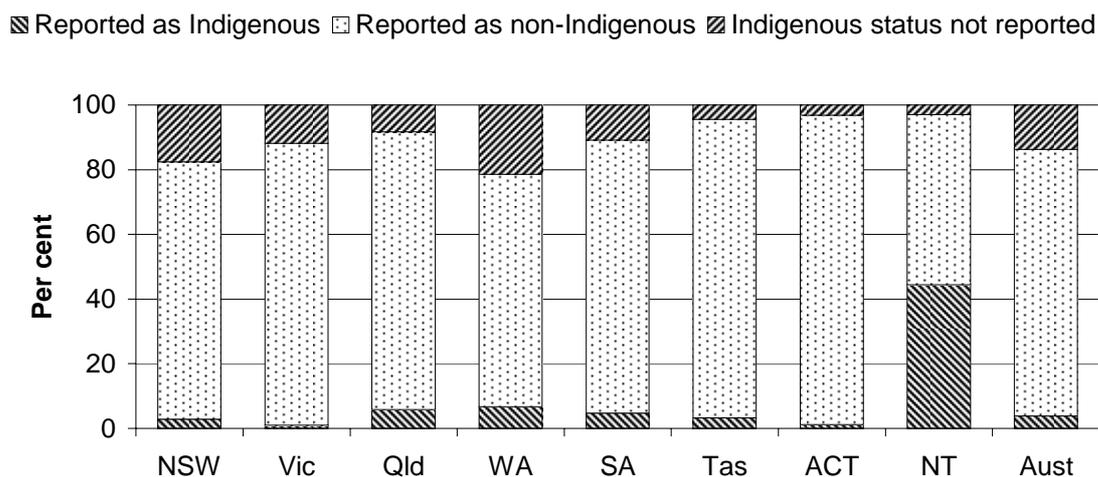
In 2003, 3.9 per cent of government funded VET students in Australia identified themselves as Indigenous, while 13.8 per cent of students did not report their Indigenous status. The proportion of VET students who identified as Indigenous ranged from 44.4 per cent in the NT to 1.0 per cent in Victoria. The proportion who did not report their Indigenous status varied from 21.4 per cent in WA to 3.0 per cent in the NT (figure 4.6).

As a measure of equity in VET participation, the proportion of VET students who identified as Indigenous can be compared to the proportion of Indigenous people in the total population. In 2003, the proportion of government funded VET students who identified as Indigenous was equal to or higher than the proportion of Indigenous people in the total population nationally and in all jurisdictions except Tasmania and the ACT (table 4A.10).

The VET participation rate for Indigenous people was higher than the participation rate for all people, in all jurisdictions except Tasmania and the ACT in 2003.

Nationally, the VET participation rate for Indigenous people was 9.8 per cent, compared with 6.0 per cent for all people (figure 4.7). These student participation data are not age standardised, so the younger age profile of the Indigenous population relative to all Australians is likely to affect the data.

Figure 4.6 **VET students, by Indigenous status, 2003^a**



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

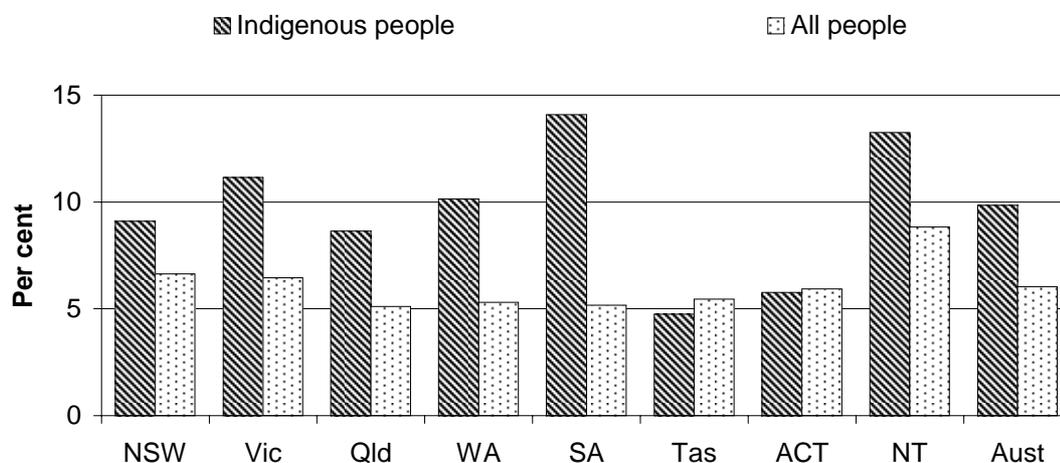
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.10.

VET participation by target equity groups — people with a disability

Nationally, 6.4 per cent of government funded VET students in 2003 reported having a permanent or significant disability. Tasmania and NSW had the highest proportion of government funded VET students reporting a disability (7.8 per cent) and the NT had the lowest (4.6 per cent) (figure 4.8).

In 2003, 5.3 per cent of all VET students (that is, government funded and other VET students) reported a disability. Based on the data for all VET students, an estimated 2.3 per cent of Australian people aged 15–64 years who had a disability undertook VET in 2003 (derived by NCVET from ABS 2004 and NCVET unpublished).

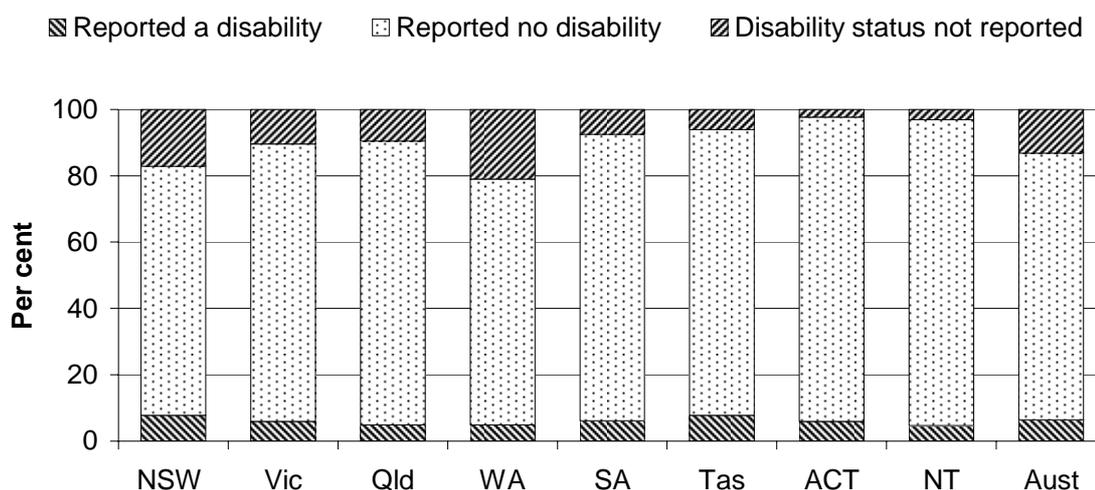
Figure 4.7 VET participation rate, by Indigenous status, 2003^{a, b, c}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b The Indigenous participation rate is the number of students who reported being Indigenous as a percentage of the ABS experimental projection of the Indigenous population for 30 June 2003. ^c Care needs to be taken in interpreting these data because the Indigenous population's age profile is younger than that of the non-Indigenous population. Participation rates for all ages are likely to differ from participation rates for working age populations.

Source: ABS (unpublished); NCVET (unpublished); tables A.2, A.7 and 4A.10.

Figure 4.8 VET students, by disability status, 2003^{a, b}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Disabilities include visual/sight/seeing, hearing, physical, intellectual, chronic illness, and other disabilities.

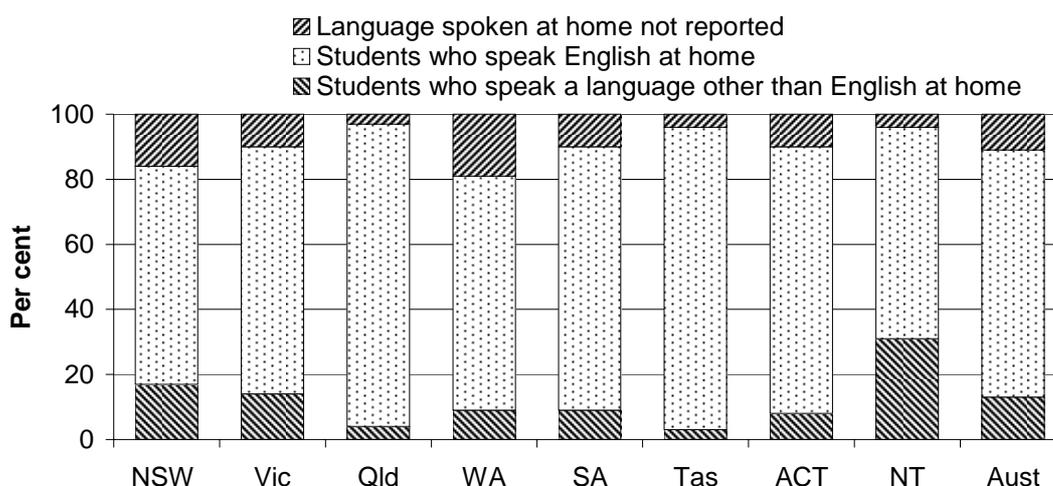
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.11.

VET participation by target equity groups — people from non-English speaking backgrounds

People from non-English speaking backgrounds are defined in this Report (and in ANTA 2004a) as people who speak a language other than English at home. In 2003, 12.5 per cent of government funded VET students reported speaking a language other than English at home. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 31.0 per cent of VET students in the NT to 3.0 per cent in Tasmania (figure 4.9).

By comparison, 15.2 per cent of the total population of Australia spoke a language other than English at home in 2001. This proportion ranged from 22.8 per cent of all people in the NT to 3.1 per cent of all people in Tasmania. The proportion of VET students who reported speaking a language other than English at home in 2003 was lower than the equivalent proportion in the total population in 2001, both nationally and in all states and territories (except the NT) (tables A.5 and 4A. 12).

Figure 4.9 VET students, by language spoken at home, 2003^{a, b}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b The proportion of the population reported as speaking a language other than English at home is calculated from ABS 2001 Census data.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables A.5 and 4A.12.

Load pass rates

The Steering Committee has identified ‘load pass rates’ by the five VET target equity groups — women, residents of rural and remote areas, Indigenous people, people with a disability and people from a non-English speaking background — as an indicator of the equity of access to VET services (box 4.5).

Nationally in 2003, the ‘load pass rates’ for government funded target equity students — students from remote areas, Indigenous students (63.7 per cent), students reporting a disability and students from a non-English speaking background (70.6 per cent) — were below the ‘load pass rate’ for all government funded students (77.1 per cent). The ‘load pass rates’ achieved by female students and students from rural areas were slightly higher than the national ‘load pass rate’ (table 4.1).

Box 4.5 Load pass rates

‘Load pass rates’ are an indicator of students’ success, which has an impact on a student’s attainment of skills. The rates for targeted equity groups, relative to those for the general student population, indicate whether equity groups are as successful as other students.

‘Load pass rates’ are defined as the ratio of hours attributed to students who passed assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency, to all students who were assessed and either passed, failed or withdrew. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or unit of competency. High ‘load pass rates’ indicate that student achievement is high.

Care needs to be taken in comparing data across jurisdictions because average module durations vary across jurisdictions. Care also needs to be taken in comparing ‘load pass rates’ for Indigenous students, students reporting a disability and students from non-English speaking backgrounds because the non-identification rates for these groups are high.

In 2003, ‘load pass rates’ were higher for female students than for all students in all states and territories, although the differences were relatively small (table 4A.13). In NSW, Victoria, Queensland and SA, the ‘load pass rates’ for rural and remote students were higher than the rate for all students. In WA, Tasmania and the NT, the ‘load pass rate’ for remote students was below that for all students (table 4A.14)

Care needs to be taken in making jurisdictional comparisons of ‘load pass rates’ for Indigenous students, students with a disability and students from a non-English speaking background, because the non-identification rates for these groups are high. ‘Load pass rates’ for Indigenous students in 2003 were highest in Tasmania (75.0 per cent) and lowest in WA (56.8 per cent), but were well below the rate for all students in all states and territories (table 4A.15). ‘Load pass rates’ for students with a disability and students from a non-English speaking background were lower than the rate for all students in all states and territories in 2003 (table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Load pass rates by VET target equity groups, 2003 (per cent) ^{a, b, c}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Women	76.9	77.9	78.1	73.2	87.2	82.1	82.5	72.9	77.8
Rural	76.8	78.1	79.5	73.0	90.7	80.0	na	75.9	78.5
Remote	79.7	85.4	82.5	72.6	93.1	76.7	..	67.9	76.5
Indigenous	61.0	61.0	69.6	56.8	74.3	75.0	63.3	60.7	63.7
Disability	69.9	65.9	67.1	64.2	81.4	69.0	72.6	70.3	68.9
Non-English speaking background	73.5	67.7	64.5	64.5	80.3	73.8	73.4	56.6	70.6
All students	76.7	76.7	77.1	72.9	86.7	80.3	79.7	71.7	77.1

^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

^b Disabilities include visual/sight/seeing, hearing, physical, intellectual, chronic illness and other disabilities.

^c Capital city areas are defined as State and Territory capital city statistical divisions. Other metropolitan areas are defined as other statistical subdivisions that included urban centres of population of 100 000 or more. Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. Rural areas include the remainder of non-metropolitan statistical local areas. For the ACT, the number of students from rural areas is too small to calculate meaningful participation rates. There are no remote areas in the ACT. **na** not available. **..** not applicable.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.13–4A.17.

Effectiveness

VET participation

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET participation’ by target group (people aged 15–64 years) as an indicator of the effectiveness of VET services (box 4.6). In 2003, approximately 1.1 million people aged 15–64 years participated in government funded VET programs. This total included approximately 273 100 people aged 15–19 years and 215 900 people aged 20–24 years. These student numbers were equivalent to national participation rates of 8.5 per cent for people aged 15–64 years, 19.8 per cent for people aged 15–19 years and 15.7 per cent for people aged 20–24 years (figure 4.10).

‘VET participation’ in 2003 for people aged 15–64 years was highest in the NT (12.0 per cent) and lowest in Queensland and SA (7.4 per cent). Among people aged 15–19 years, participation rates were highest in the NT (24.1 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (17.0 per cent). Among people aged 20–24 years, participation rates were highest in Victoria (17.4 per cent) and lowest in WA (13.0 per cent) (figure 4.10).

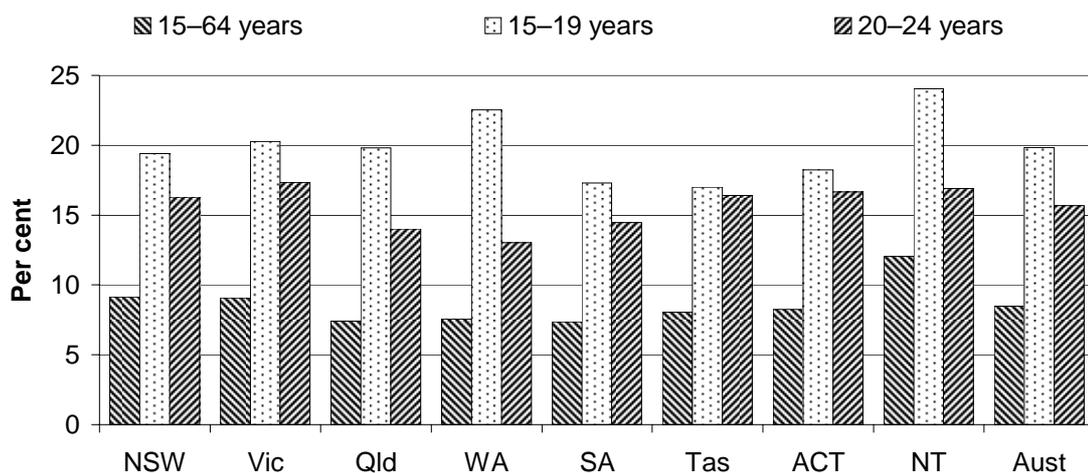
Box 4.6 VET participation

'VET participation' is an indicator of the level of the general population's access to the VET system. It reflects the performance of the VET system against the objective of enhancing mobility in the labour market.

The 'VET participation' rate is the number of people participating in VET nationally as a proportion of the general population aged 15–64 years. High VET participation rates indicate high levels of access to the VET system by the general population.

The 2003 student participation data presented in this Report are for government funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. It is not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and 'student enrolment no participation' (that is, students who enrolled but did not participate in VET programs).

Figure 4.10 VET participation rates, by target age groups, 2003^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.7.

Efficiency

In the last national VET strategy (1998–2003), one of the stated objectives for VET was to maximise the value of government VET expenditure (box 4.3). During the ANTA agreement for the period 2001–2003, states and territories re-affirmed their commitment to this objective and agreed to strive for improved efficiency levels (ANTA 2003). An indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). The indication of unit cost reported here is 'recurrent expenditure per annual curriculum hour'.

The Steering Committee has identified issues that may reduce the comparability of cost estimates across jurisdictions in VET (box 4.7). To address some of these comparability issues, the Steering Committee has included estimates of a payroll tax for the ACT (SCRCSSP 1999) and a user cost of capital for all jurisdictions (box 4.8) in the efficiency indicators presented.

Box 4.7 Comparability of cost estimates

It is an objective of the Review to report comparable estimates of costs. Ideally, the full range of costs to government is counted on a comparable basis. The Steering Committee has identified four areas that could affect the comparability of costs across government and private providers.

- Superannuation costs are included in cost estimates for VET. Preferably, superannuation would be costed on an accrued actuarial basis (SCRCSSP 1998).
- Depreciation costs are included in cost estimates for all VET services.
- The user cost of capital is not included in estimates of recurrent expenditure, although it is reported separately as the 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' (box 4.8). The user cost of capital represents the opportunity cost to government of the funds tied up in VET assets. Including the user cost of capital from accrued costs in VET increases the costs per annual curriculum hour. Comparability can be improved by adding the reported user cost of capital to accrued costs if debt servicing costs and State- and Territory-based capital asset charges are deducted from accrual costs.
- Payroll tax is payable by all jurisdictions (except the ACT) for VET. A payroll tax estimate has been included in cost estimates for the ACT (SCRCSSP 1999).

Source: SCRCSSP (1998, 1999).

Box 4.8 Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour

The 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' allows the full cost of VET services to be considered in a single measure. The cost of capital is included in estimates of the cost of government services because it reflects the opportunity cost of government assets that could otherwise be used to provide other services or to retire debt. Not reporting the user cost of capital underestimates the cost to government of service provision.

The user cost of capital is calculated by applying a jurisdiction cost of capital rate to the value of government assets. The Steering Committee has adopted a nominal user cost of capital rate of 8 per cent, although the actual rate may vary across jurisdictions. The basis for the 8 per cent capital charge is discussed in chapter 2.

(Continued on next page)

Box 4.8 (Continued)

The full cost of VET service delivery includes both the cost of capital and recurrent costs. Lower total costs per adjusted annual curriculum hour may reflect higher efficiency improvements in the delivery of VET services, but efficiency indicators need to be interpreted carefully because low unit costs may also reflect lesser quality, so are not necessarily synonymous with better outcomes.

The 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' needs to be interpreted carefully because differences in some input costs (for example, land values) could affect reported costs across jurisdictions without necessarily reflecting the efficiency of service delivery. The cost of capital for land is presented separately from the cost of other assets, to allow users assessing the results to consider any differences in land values across jurisdictions (tables 4.1 and 4A.19).

Unit cost — government expenditure per hour of delivery

The Steering Committee has identified government 'recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour' as an indicator of the efficiency of VET services (box 4.9). Financial and activity data from states and territories are reported here within an agreed scope to ensure unit costs accurately reflect the relative efficiency of government service provision across jurisdictions. Data used to calculate unit cost are derived from data that comply with the Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard (AVETMISS).

'Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour' of government funded VET programs in 2003 ranged from \$22.20 in the NT to \$11.80 in Victoria. Real government recurrent expenditure (in 2003 dollars) per adjusted annual curriculum hour slightly increased nationally between 2002 and 2003, but WA, Tasmania and the ACT reported real decreases over this period (figure 4.11).

Box 4.9 Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour

Recurrent cost per nominal hour of training measures the average cost of producing a training output of the VET system (a unit cost) and is an indicator of efficiency. 'Government recurrent expenditure per nominal hour' of delivery is defined as total government recurrent expenditure (excluding capital costs) per total adjusted nominal hour. Expenditure is adjusted for course mix differences across jurisdictions.

Low unit costs may indicate efficient delivery of VET services, but care needs to be taken in interpreting efficiency indicators because low unit costs may also reflect lesser quality, so are not necessarily synonymous with better outcomes.

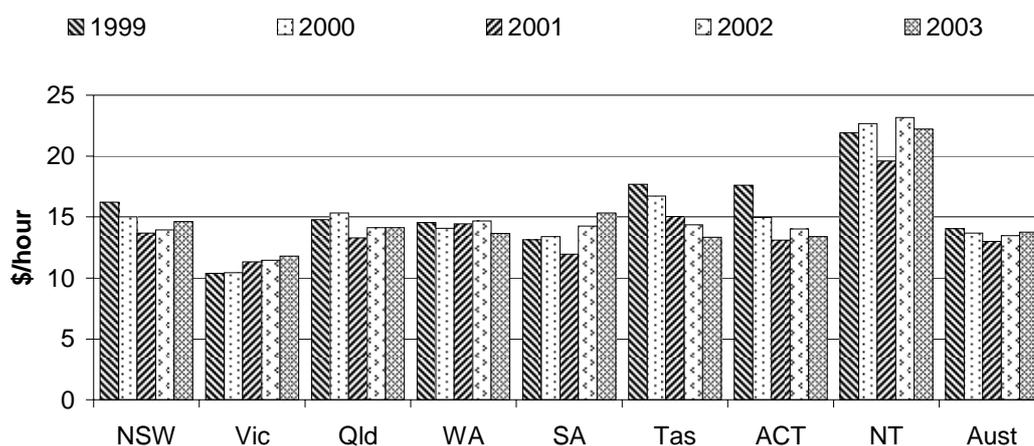
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Box 4.9 (Continued)

The factors that have the greatest impact on efficiency include:

- training related factors, such as class sizes, teaching salaries, teaching hours per full time equivalent staff member, and differences in the length of training programs
 - differences among States and Territories, including socio-demographic composition, administrative scale, coursemix and dispersion, and scale of service delivery
 - the industry mix in a jurisdiction and its effect on the nature of training required
- VET policies and practices, including the level of fees and charges paid by students.

Figure 4.11 Government real recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour (2003 dollars)^{a, b}

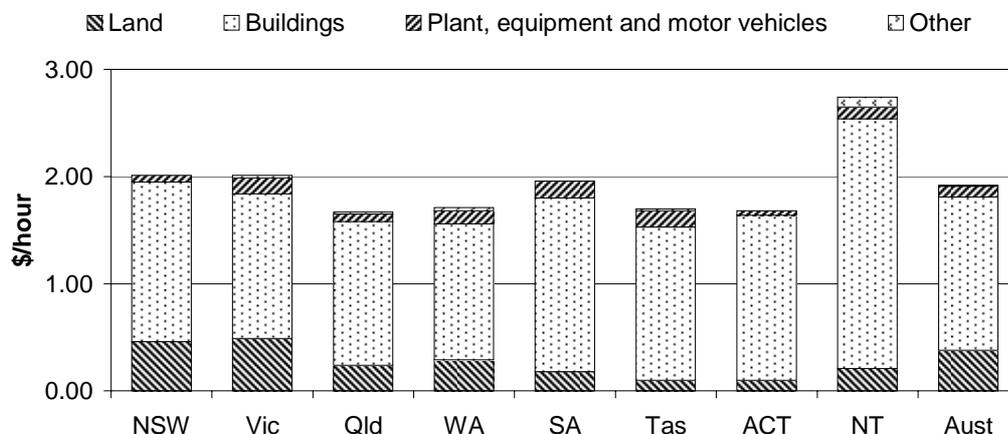


^a The ACT is the only jurisdiction not to levy payroll tax on its VET employees. A payroll tax estimate based on the ACT payroll tax rate has been included in the expenditure data for the ACT. ^b Annual curriculum hours were adjusted by ANTA for invalid enrolment, recognition of prior learning and coursemix weight.

Source: ANTA (2004a); ANTA (unpublished); table 4A.18.

The 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' varied across jurisdictions in 2003, ranging from \$2.74 in the NT to \$1.68 in Queensland and the ACT. Building costs were the largest component of 'cost of capital per adjusted hour' ranging from \$2.33 per adjusted annual curriculum hour in the NT to \$1.27 in WA (figure 4.12). The nominal value of these buildings ranged from \$1.8 billion in NSW to \$103 million in the NT (table 4A.19).

Figure 4.12 Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2003^a

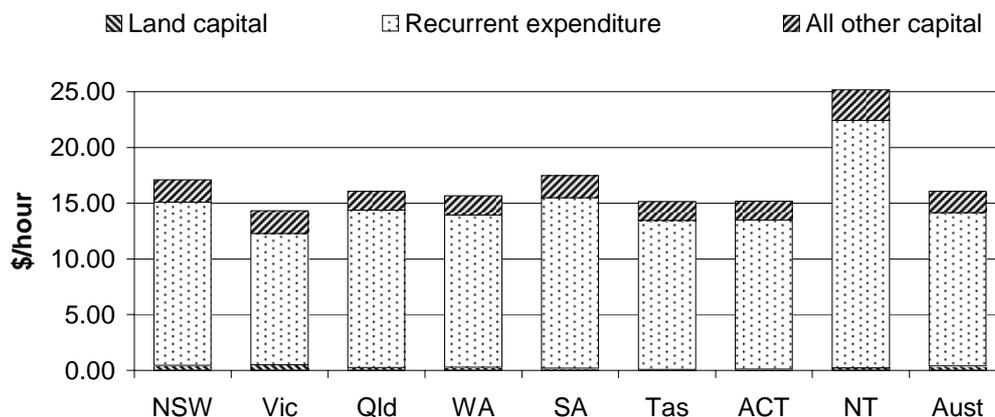


^a Annual of curriculum hours adjusted by ANTA for invalid enrolments, recognition of prior learning and course mix weight. Cost of capital includes an imputed user cost of capital of 8 per cent.

Source: ANTA (unpublished); NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.19.

Nationally, the total cost to government of funding VET per adjusted annual curriculum hour in 2003 was \$15.69, comprising \$13.76 in recurrent costs and \$1.92 in capital costs. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$24.96 in the NT to \$13.81 in Victoria (figure 4.13). These results need to be interpreted carefully, however, because the asset data used to calculate the cost of capital are not as reliable as the recurrent cost data.

Figure 4.13 Total government VET costs per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2003^{a, b}



^a The ACT is the only jurisdiction not to levy payroll tax on its VET employees. A payroll tax estimate based on the ACT payroll tax rate has been added to the recurrent expenditure data presented for the ACT. ^b 'Other' capital includes buildings, plant, equipment, motor vehicles and other capital. The cost of capital includes a user cost of capital rate of 8 per cent for all jurisdictions.

Source: ANTA (unpublished); table 4A.20.

Outcomes

The objectives for VET services are to achieve a range of outcomes for students and employers (box 4.3). A range of indicators relating to student and employer outcomes are reported below.

Student outcomes

The 2003 NCVER Student Outcomes Survey identified training outcomes for students who had graduated from (or completed at least one module of) a VET course at a TAFE institute or university with a TAFE division in Australia in 2002 (box 4.10).

Box 4.10 Student Outcomes Survey

The annual Student Outcomes Survey by NCVER includes students who graduated with a qualification from a course (graduates) and students who successfully completed some training below the level of full qualification and who were no longer engaged in training when the survey was undertaken (module completers) in the previous year. The data collected about TAFE graduates and module completers describes their general characteristics, fields of study, employment outcomes, occupations, industries of employment, satisfaction with their course of study, and further study outcomes.

The survey collects the opinions of a sample of VET students, so the results are only estimates of the opinions of the total VET student population. The sample is randomly selected and stratified by TAFE institute, field of study, gender and age. Responses are weighted to population benchmarks to minimise non-response bias.

The precision of survey estimates depends on the sample size and the distribution of sample responses. Consequently, jurisdictional comparisons need to be made with care. The 95 per cent confidence intervals for the estimates are provided in the tables presenting the survey data. These confidence intervals can be used to test whether the estimates are statistically different across jurisdictions. When comparing the estimates, if the confidence intervals for the jurisdictions overlap, then no statistical difference is detected between the estimates (at the 95 per cent confidence level). Confidence intervals are included in the relevant tables of the attachment (tables 4A.21–4A.27).

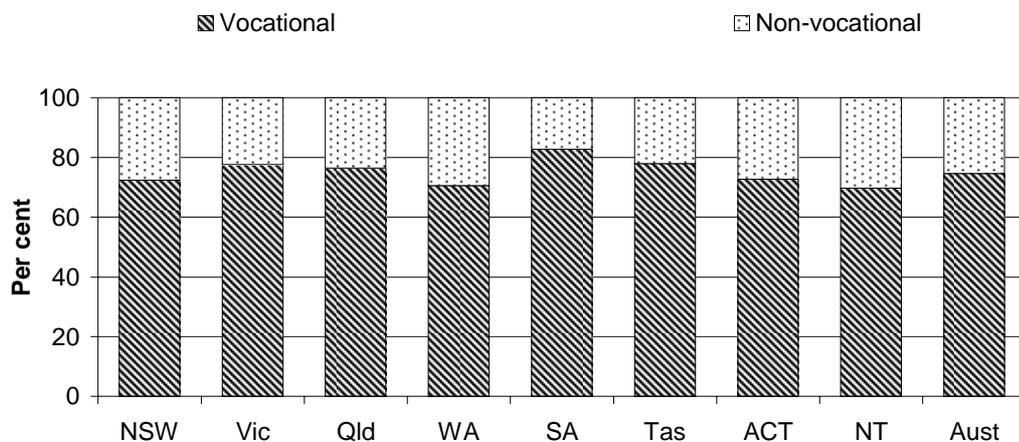
Care needs to be taken when comparing student outcomes across states and territories, because each jurisdiction has different economic, demographic and social profiles that are likely to have an effect on a range of training related outcomes. In particular, economic parameters beyond the control of the TAFE system may affect employment outcomes for VET graduates.

Source: NCVER (2002, 2003).

Main reason for undertaking VET course

The 2003 Survey (NCVER 2003) asked TAFE students who had completed their course in 2002 to nominate their main reason for undertaking a VET course. Nationally, 74.7 per cent of surveyed graduates indicated that they had enrolled for vocational reasons (for example, to obtain a job or promotion). This proportion ranged from 82.8 per cent in SA to 69.7 per cent in the NT (figure 4.14).

Figure 4.14 TAFE graduates' main reason for undertaking course, 2003^a



^a The 95 per cent confidence intervals for these estimates can be found at table 4A.21.

Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.21.

Proportion of students who achieve their main reason for doing a VET course

The Steering Committee has identified that the proportion of 'students who achieve their main reason for doing a VET course' is an indicator of the outcomes of VET services (box 4.11). For the majority of VET students surveyed in 2003, their main reason for doing the course was vocational (figure 4.14).

Box 4.11 Whether students achieve their main reason for doing a VET course

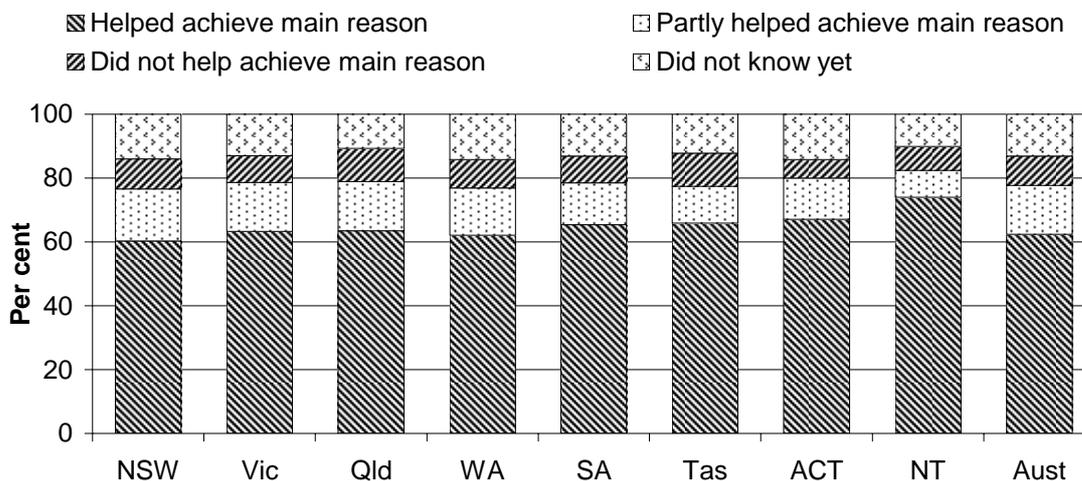
The proportion of ‘students who achieve their main reason for doing a VET course’ is an indicator of whether the VET system is delivering the outcomes that students seek. Most students have vocational objectives, so this indicator is linked to the national VET objective of equipping Australians for the world of work (box 4.3).

This indicator is defined as the proportion of VET graduates in the annual NCVET Student Outcomes Survey who indicate that they achieved or partly achieved their main reason for doing the course.

A higher percentage indicates that a higher proportion of students have achieved their training objectives. The proportion of graduates who achieve their training objectives varies according to their objectives — employment-related or developmental — so it is useful to distinguish between the two types of student objective.

Nationally, 77.8 per cent of TAFE graduates in the 2003 survey indicated that their VET course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 82.4 per cent in the NT to 76.6 per cent in NSW (figure 4.15).

Figure 4.15 Proportion of TAFE graduates who achieved their main reason for doing the VET course, 2003^a



^a The 95 per cent confidence intervals for these estimates can be found at table 4A.23.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.23.

Of TAFE graduates from the four VET equity target groups (women, rural and remote area residents, people from non-English speaking backgrounds and Indigenous people), those from remote areas were the most likely to indicate that

the course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course (84.2 per cent), while graduates reporting a disability were the least likely to do so (67.8 per cent) (table 4A.22).

Vocational outcomes of VET graduates

The Steering Committee has identified the ‘vocational and employment outcomes’ of graduates as an indicator of the outcomes of VET services (box 4.12).

Box 4.12 Vocational Outcomes

The ‘vocational or employment outcomes’ for students after participating in VET is an indication of the VET system’s ability to equip Australians for the world of work.

This indicator is defined in this Report using four components:

- the employment rate after participating in VET for students who were specifically seeking vocational or immediate employment-related outcomes and who were unemployed before their course
- the employment rate after participating in VET for students who were specifically seeking vocational or immediate employment-related outcomes and who were employed before their course
- the proportion of graduates who were employed before their course, who undertook the course for vocational reasons and who reported that their course was highly relevant or of some relevance to their main job
- the proportion of graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons and who reported at least one work-related benefit from completing their course.

High percentages indicate strong employment outcomes following training, a high level of relevance of the training to an employed student’s main job, and a high proportion of students who received at least one work-related benefit from completing the course.

Jurisdictional comparisons of employment outcomes need to be made with care because high standard errors may be associated with the survey estimates (tables 4A.24–4A.27). Comparisons of labour market outcomes must also account for the general economic conditions in each jurisdiction (appendix A).

Of the graduates surveyed in 2003 who were unemployed before their course and who took the course for vocational reasons, 44.8 per cent nationally said they were employed after the course. This proportion ranged from 55.1 per cent in SA to 40.5 per cent in NSW (figure 4.16). Of the graduates surveyed in 2003 who were employed before their course and who took the course for vocational reasons, 88.7 per cent nationally were employed after the course. This proportion ranged from 91.6 per cent in SA to 87.4 per cent in Queensland (figure 4.17).

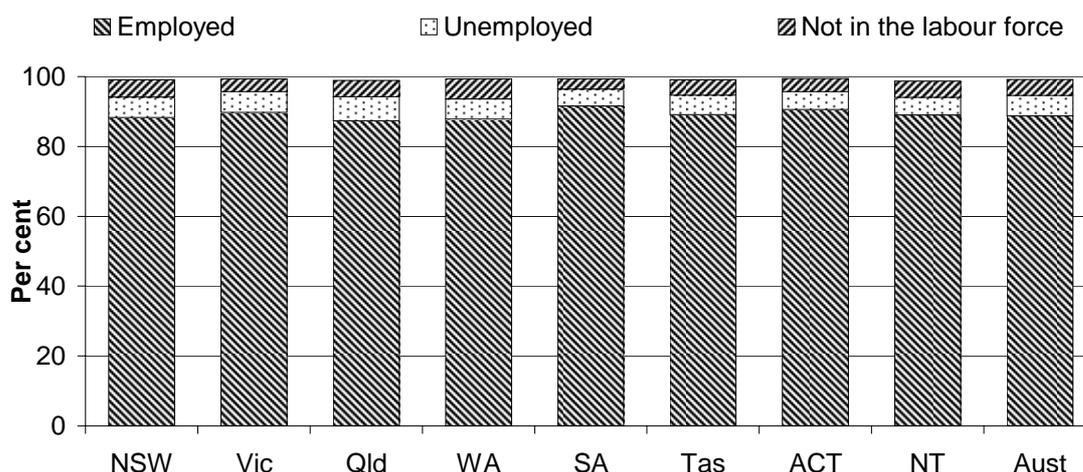
Figure 4.16 Labour force status after the course of graduates who were unemployed before the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2003^{a, b}



^a The relative standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.24. ^b Numbers may not add to 100 due to unknown responses and to rounding.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.24.

Figure 4.17 Labour force status after the course of graduates who were employed before the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2003^{a, b}



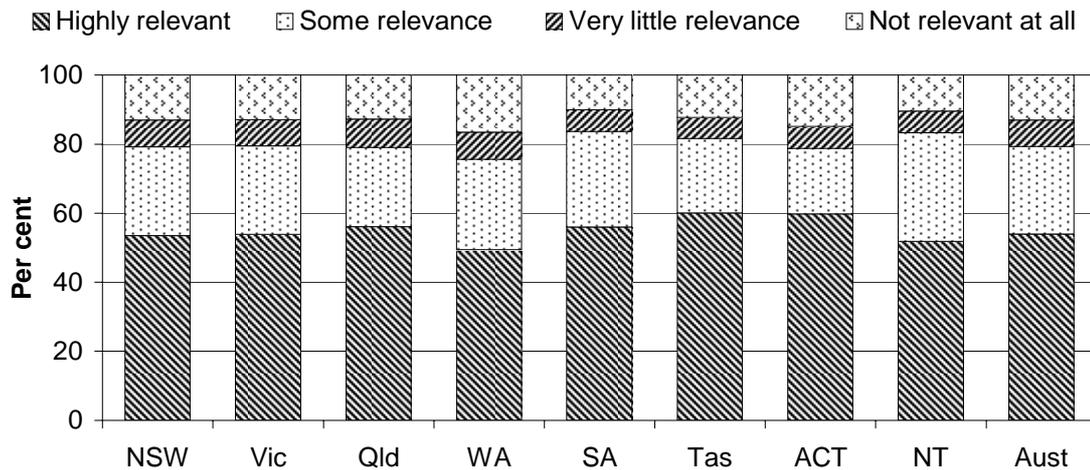
^a The relative standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.25. ^b Numbers may not add to 100 due to unknown responses and to rounding.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.25.

Of the graduates surveyed in 2003 who were employed before their course and who undertook their course for vocational reasons, 79.3 per cent said their course was

highly relevant or of some relevance to their main job. This proportion ranged from 83.6 per cent in SA to 75.6 per cent in WA (figure 4.18).

Figure 4.18 Employed graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons, by relevance of course to main job, 2003^a

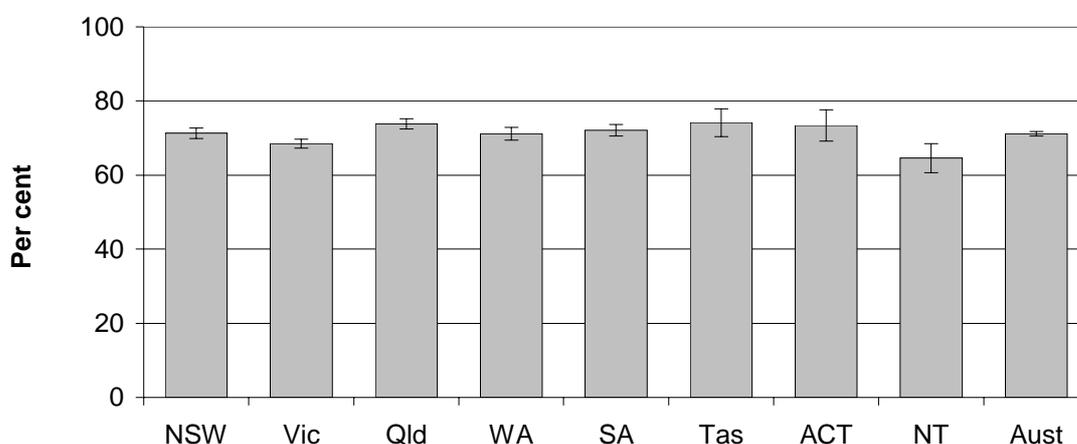


^a The relative standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.26.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.26.

Of the graduates surveyed in 2003 who undertook their course for vocational reasons, 71.1 per cent said they had gained at least one work-related benefit from completing the course. The benefits reported by graduates included ‘obtained a job’ (29.4 per cent), ‘increase in earnings’ (27.6 per cent), ‘promotion’ (22.1 per cent), ‘change of job or new job’ (18.0 per cent) and ‘ability to start own business’ (4.4 per cent) (table 4A.27). Across jurisdictions, the proportion of graduates citing at least one benefit ranged from 74.1 per cent in Tasmania to 64.6 per cent in the NT (figure 4.19).

Figure 4.19 **Graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons who received at least one work-related benefit from completing the course, 2003^a**



^a The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. The relative standard errors corresponding to the 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.27.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.27.

Skill profile

The Steering Committee has identified Australia's 'skill profile' as an indicator of the outcomes of VET services (box 4.13). Agreed measures have not yet been developed for this indicator.

Employer outcomes

The NCVET Survey of Employer Views on Vocational Education and Training obtained views on the VET system from 6821 employers in 17 different industries across Australia in 2001. It asked employers of recent VET graduates about their overall satisfaction with the VET sector, their views on the skills of graduates, and their views on course delivery (see the 2003 Report for a summary of these data).

The next employer survey is planned for early 2005. If available, data from the 2005 employer survey will be included in the 2006 Report.

Box 4.13 Skill profile

The 'skill profile' of Australia is a measure of the stock of VET skills held by Australians, relative to the level of these skills required by Australian industry. Australia's VET system aspires to create and maintain a national pool of skilled Australian workers that is sufficient to support internationally competitive commerce and industry.

There is, however, no single definitive measure that provides a simple assessment of the stocks of VET skills relative to the needs for such skills. Proxy measures for the stock of skills held by Australians include the highest non-school educational qualification (from the annual ABS Survey of Education and Work), and the proportion of Australians who have a VET qualification as their highest qualification.

The ABS survey provides an approximate measure of the total skills of the workforce. It considers the highest qualification held by Australians, but does not identify the number of people who may hold a VET qualification as well as a higher education qualification. It also does not consider skills acquired by people in the course of their work or by people who do formal training but do not complete a full course or qualification. Many people participate in the VET system because it offers them the flexibility to acquire skills without completing a full qualification. It is also important to recognise that the VET system does not meet, and is not expected to meet, all skill development needs in Australia.

Source: ABS (2000).

4.4 Future directions in performance reporting

In November 2003, Australian, State, and Territory ministers responsible for VET agreed to a new national VET strategy for 2004–2010, to succeed the 1998–2003 strategy (box 4.3). The new strategy outlines four new objectives for the VET sector over this period (box 4.14). It aims to have a longer timeframe and to be broader and more clearly focused on clients than its predecessor (ANTA 2004b). To complement the new national strategy, ANTA is developing a new performance measurement framework in consultation with jurisdictions, VET providers and major stakeholders.

Box 4.14 Objectives for VET, 2004–2010

The ANTA Ministerial Council agreed in 2003 on four objectives for the VET system for the period 2004–2010:

- to give industry a highly skilled workforce to support strong performance in the global economy
- to place employers and individuals at the centre of VET
- to strengthen communities and regions economically and socially through learning and employment
- to give Indigenous Australians skills for viable jobs and to ensure their learning culture will be shared.

Source: ANTA (2004b).

From July 2005, ANTA will be abolished and its responsibilities will be taken into the Australian Government Department of Education, Science and Training. A Ministerial Council on Vocational Education will be established to ensure continued harmonisation of a national system of standards, assessment and accreditation with goals agreed in a Commonwealth–State Funding Agreement. In the light of these changes in the VET sector, the key performance measures for VET services in this Report will be reviewed to ensure their continuing relevance and appropriateness for the VET sector. Data collection arrangements may also need to be revisited.

4.5 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status).

New South Wales Government comments

“ NSW has an on-going commitment to ensure that vocational education and training (VET) programs and services respond to industry and community needs. In 2003, 128.3 million hours of training were delivered throughout the state.

The NSW Government is working to ensure that the national shortage of skills in technical and trade occupations does not affect the State's economic growth. In the first half of 2004, NSW saw a 33.5 percent increase in apprenticeship numbers compared to the same period in 2003, with particularly strong growth in building and construction, utilities, electro technology and retail and wholesale. The Government is also investing in pre-apprenticeship training, allocating over \$3.2m for places in critical skill shortage areas between October 2003 and June 2004.

Between 1999 and 2003 NSW achieved real efficiency gains with VET unit costs decreasing by 10 percent. The average cost of VET delivery in NSW was \$14.63 in 2003.

NSW is committed to improving access to VET through the provision of more flexible delivery options, including workplace learning and online learning. NSW continues to develop successful programs to increase the participation rates of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders and other disadvantaged people seeking to access VET. A high priority for NSW is the improvement of literacy rates among groups from disadvantaged backgrounds through access programs that are responsive to their needs.

From 2003, NSW undertook a revision of existing VET frameworks and the development of new frameworks as part of the New HSC. A new framework for Primary Industries was developed for release in 2003. Developmental work is also being undertaken on the Construction and Engineering, Entertainment, Information Technology and the Metal and Engineering frameworks for release in 2004-05.

NSW leads Australia in investment in information and communications technology for education and training. NSW is progressively upgrading the bandwidth for schools and TAFE NSW Institutes, using available technology including Government owned infrastructure and a range of telecommunication carriers. NSW is improving the provision of information technology to students by the provision of e-mail accounts to teachers and students, filtered access to the internet, discussion forums and web hosting facilities.

NSW continues to work on enhancing the opportunities for school students to undertake part of their studies in TAFE NSW campuses providing a wider and enriched curriculum for these students and advanced standing in nationally recognised training.”

Victorian Government comments

“ In 2003, Victorian registered training organisations provided approximately 531 000 students with over 112 million student contact hours of vocational education and training. This was an increase of 3.7 per cent on 2002 delivery.

Of this total delivery, government funded delivery accounted for over 80.8 million student contact hours, a decrease of 2.4 per cent on 2002. This can be attributed to better targeting of training needs and the diversion of resources to areas of innovation and specialisation. TAFE institutions delivered nearly 63.7 million government funded hours with the remaining 17.1 million government funded hours delivered by ACE and private registered training organisations.

There was further growth in apprenticeships and traineeships in Victoria in 2003. The number of apprentices or trainees in training increased by over 2 per cent to 145 700 at 31 December 2003.

Significant progress was made towards implementing initiatives contained in the VET and higher education Ministerial statements in 2003. This included:

- Funding 15 Specialist Centres and investing in two additional feasibility projects
- Establishing the TAFE Development Centre to improve professional development of the TAFE workforce
- Managing approvals for the delivery of degree programs at TAFE institutions
- The introduction of the Completion Bonus scheme, an incentive for employers to support apprentices and trainees to complete their training
- Pursuing fairer arrangements including a greater share of higher education places in Victoria following the release of the Australian Government statement on Higher Education.

VET in Schools provides a vocationally oriented program of studies that are integrated within the general education framework of the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE) and Victorian Certificate of Applied Learning (VCAL), broadening senior secondary students' education and labour market options on completing school. The number of students doing VET in Schools continues to expand. Enrolments have grown from 432 in 1994 to 37 685 in 2003.

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Queensland Government comments



Almost 300 000 people¹ participated in vocational education and training (VET) programs in Queensland in 2003, an increase of 54 per cent over the last nine years, although the number declined marginally by 0.3 per cent from 2002 to 2003.

Of these students, 65 per cent or almost 200 000 people were funded from government recurrent expenditure for VET delivered by TAFE institutes, other government providers (excluding schools), community providers and private registered training organisations. Queensland maintains a strong commitment to User Choice principles. In 2003, 9.9 per cent of total government recurrent expenditure on VET in Queensland was paid to non-TAFE providers² for the delivery of services, the second highest proportion in any jurisdiction.

In 2003 Queensland introduced a unique student identifier for all students in the VET system in Queensland to better enable a focus on student outcomes. This may partly explain the reduction in student numbers from 2002.

VET participation by Indigenous people is an important priority in Queensland. The participation rate of Indigenous Queenslanders in 2003 was 9 per cent compared with the national average of 10 per cent. The lower than average participation rate may in part reflect the dispersion of Indigenous communities in Queensland. However, the load pass rate for Indigenous clients was 70 per cent in Queensland, compared with 64 per cent nationally, indicating that Queensland has above average success in delivering training for Indigenous clients.

The proportion of TAFE graduates in Queensland who consider their study helped achieve their main reason for doing the course was higher than the national average in 2003. The proportion of TAFE graduates whose main reason for undertaking a VET course was vocational was also higher than the national average. When the focus is on employed graduates only, 56 per cent of Queensland graduates found the course highly relevant to their job compared with 54 per cent nationally.

It is relatively expensive to deliver services in Queensland, reflecting the State's large geographical area and dispersed population centres. Nonetheless, Queensland has achieved a reduction in the recurrent cost of delivering training from 5.2 per cent above the national average expenditure per adjusted training hour in 1999 to 2.7 per cent above the national average in 2003.

The Queensland Government has established skilling as a key platform of its Smart State strategy. Queensland is continuing to align its programs and funding, including User Choice funding, with the needs of priority industries that will sustain future jobs.

1. Not including privately funded training delivered by private training providers.

2. Includes Agricultural Colleges.



Western Australian Government comments

“ The vocational education and training (VET) sector plays a critical role in supporting Western Australia’s growing economy, and is essential for ensuring a supply of skilled workers, particularly in the State’s booming resources sector. This report supports the role that VET plays in the WA economy, with over 92 per cent of graduates employed or in further study after their training.

The State Government’s priorities for vocational education and training (VET) for 2003-04 focus on developing a high quality system of lifelong learning which encourages and facilitates the ongoing engagement of individuals, communities and industry. The key priorities are:

- Increasing retention rates.
- Improving and making easier transfer between VET and universities.
- Increasing the number of apprenticeships and traineeships.
- Strengthening the TAFEWA network.
- Supporting jobs growth.
- Providing better career guidance and preparation for employment.

WA is committed to keeping 15–19 year olds engaged in learning, and the Department of Education and Training is working to strengthen the alignment between industry, education and the training system to create new employment solutions and opportunities for young people. VET participation rates for people aged 15–19 years were 22.5 per cent in WA, higher than the national average of 19.8 per cent.

In 2003, over 100,000 students participated in VET in WA and record numbers continue to apply for full time study at TAFEWA colleges. Results of the 2003 State Student Satisfaction Survey, not covered in this report, show that 85 per cent of VET students in WA were very satisfied or satisfied with their VET course.

In WA, apprentices and trainees in training increased 13 per cent in 2003 from the previous year, compared to eight per cent nationally. Of those apprentices and trainees in training in WA in 2003, 43.5 per cent were aged 19 years and under, compared to the national average of 29.3 per cent.

The Department of Education and Training will be trialling a new School Apprenticeship Link program in 2005. The pilot program offers Year 11 students access to real apprenticeships while they are still at school, and real jobs at the end of the apprenticeships.

The School Apprenticeship Link program is just one example of how the WA VET system continues to meet the needs of industry, the community and students.”

South Australian Government comments

“

The Vocational Education and Training (VET) system in South Australia continues to provide high quality training with excellent employment outcomes for students. The report highlights the following achievements during 2003:

- Maintaining the highest load pass rate in the country (86.7 per cent), 9.6 percentage points higher than the national average (77.1 per cent)
- Reporting 96.1 per cent of recent TAFE graduates were employed or in further study after their training compared to 92.3 per cent nationally
- The best employment outcomes for recent TAFE graduates who were unemployed prior to the course and took the course for vocational reasons (55.5 per cent in SA compared to 44.8 per cent nationally)
- Reporting 78.6 per cent of recent TAFE graduates indicated that their VET course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course (77.7 per cent nationally).

In July 2003, a plan for action to facilitate skills formation in the State was outlined in a Ministerial statement — *New Times, New Ways and New Skills*. The key strategies of the Government's point plan, included:

- Development of a Workforce Development Strategy which will identify likely future skills shortages, promote life long learning, encourage shared responsibility for skill formation between Government, industry and individuals and provide access to training for specific groups who have been disadvantaged or under-represented in the labour market
- A comprehensive review of all TAFE SA programs to ensure the changing needs of learners, enterprises and industries are met
- Creating stronger pathways between employment, TAFE, ACE and the VET sector for young people.

The Training and Skills Development Act was passed in 2003. It provides the legal framework for the VET sector and underpins the apprenticeship and traineeship system, while supporting life long learning through community education. A Training Advocate was appointed in 2003 to assist students and employers in navigating the VET system and to resolve problems and improve the quality and responsiveness of the training system. After reaching their lowest point in 2001 for South Australia, the need to maintain the quality of the system has led to an increase in unit cost.

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Tasmanian Government comments



This Report demonstrates the Tasmanian VET system's response to the growing industry need for skills as Tasmania's economy continues to grow strongly.

For 2003, Government funded training increased by 12.5 per cent from the previous year, with continued strong growth of 28 per cent reported since 2000.

The major initiative in 2003 was the release of *Tasmania: A State of Learning*, the State's post-compulsory education and training strategy. This is now implemented and will:

- improve young Tasmanians' participation in education and training beyond compulsory schooling
- help build a skilled workforce with the capacity to support Tasmanian business and industry in a growing economy
- enable second chance learning opportunities for people of all ages
- create communities that value life-long learning.

The strong economy and tight labour market combined with new technology, highly competitive international markets and an ageing workforce present significant challenges for the VET system. Measures to alleviate skill shortages are a major focus for the Tasmanian Government, and the Tasmanian public VET system as a primary tool in this task is demanding increasing resources.

While the unit cost of delivery of VET in Tasmania has consistently decreased; demands on the VET system in meeting the needs associated with economic growth, particularly the needs of growing industry sectors such as tourism and agriculture, which are decentralized across Tasmania, mean that this trend is unlikely to continue.



Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ The ACT Government remains committed to enhancing social and economic opportunities for its residents. New policy directions by the ACT Government in 2003 emphasise the importance of vocational education and training. The Economic White Paper, and the Social Plan outline a number of initiatives that rely heavily on increased effort and participation in vocational education and training.

The ACT vocational education and training participant profile differs significantly from other jurisdictions. For example, the major employers in the territory are the military and government, having 25 per cent of industry share compared with 4.7 per cent nationally. In this environment the qualifications sought by participants in the ACT are generally biased towards higher qualifications.

There is one major TAFE provider (the Canberra Institute of Technology) and 101 Registered Training Organisations (RTOs) in the ACT. During 2003, the ACT Accreditation and Registration Council conducted 42 Australian Quality Training Framework (AQTF) on-site compliance audits. Six new RTOs were audited against the AQTF Standards. Three Group Training Organisations were audited against the National Standards for Group Training Organisations and 58 courses were accredited under the Australian Qualifications Framework.

A major incident during 2003 was the January 18 bushfires that destroyed around 500 homes. Consequently there was additional demand for training in qualifications related principally to the building and construction industry, as well as emergency services, and health and community services. In addition, there was an increase in demand for recognition of current competencies for unqualified tradespersons.

There has been considerable growth in the uptake of New Apprenticeships compared to 2002. The overall growth of 37 per cent in commencements includes:

- 23 per cent increase in apprentices and trainees
- 400 per cent increase in number of existing workers undertaking training
- 64 per cent increase in New Apprenticeships commencing in the government sector.

Improvements in User Choice arrangements included a streamlined nomination and a change in the bias of funding for completions as a strategy to improve retention and successful completion.

The ACT delivered the highest number of hours per student in 2003, which ranged from 274.0 to 198.1 at the lower end, with a national average of 237.7 hours per student. ”

Northern Territory Government comments

“

With one per cent of Australia's population spread over the third largest state/territory in area after Western Australia and Queensland, the NT faces unique challenges in the provision of vocational education and training (VET) to Territorians. Out of all States and Territories in Australia, the NT recorded the highest participation rate for females and males aged 15–64 year olds in VET activities (12.3 and 11.8 per cent respectively compared to the national rate of 8.6 and 8.4 per cent).

Indigenous people represent over 29 per cent of the NT's population, which accounts for the NT having the highest incidence of VET students (approximately one in three) who speak a language other than English at home. Due to its size and remoteness, the cost of delivering VET in the NT (\$22.12 per hour of training) is higher than the Australian average (\$13.43 per hour of training). Over half (55 per cent) of the VET students in the NT live in remote areas. Access to VET for all Territorians, whether they live in an urban, regional or remote area of the NT, is a major objective of the department. The NT is striving to achieve this objective by:

- The Jobs Plan: Building the Northern Territory Workforce was launched on 24 November 2003. The Jobs Plan is a comprehensive and coordinated approach to planning for jobs and mapping the future to a skilled, flexible and responsive workforce. It is an integrated three-way planning structure, comprising the Workforce Employment and Training Strategy 2003-2005, Jobs NT and Workforce NT.
- As part of the Jobs Plan, DEET committed to developing an annual report on employment in the Northern Territory. The report is called Workforce NT. It incorporates labour market research and forecasting and will look at issues such as Indigenous employment, industry employment by region and skill shortages across the Territory. Draft chapters of the report have been distributed to stakeholders for validation. The final version will be released in November 2004.
- Individuals and small business were targeted through the GET VET campaign launched in the Northern Territory in November 2003. An evaluation of the campaign showed that awareness of the VET brand increased significantly. Further phases of the campaign will be designed in 2004-05 as part of the Territory's marketing strategy to increase the uptake of VET as an attractive career option.

The Training Remote Youth (TRY) program provides funding to extend VET options to 14 to 19 year old (primarily Indigenous) Territorians in remote localities for those not engaged in school. TRY aims to improve the employability skills of remote youth and assist remote youth to re-engage with school and learning. It is designed to develop partnerships through a tripartite model to increase cooperation and collaboration between schools, registered training organisations and community organizations. In 2003, 27 remote indigenous communities accessed the program. In 2004, DEET has committed funding for 58 programs in 28 communities.

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4.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Adjusted annual curriculum hours	Annual curriculum hours that are adjusted to account for (1) module enrolments reported with an outcome of recognition of prior learning and (2) invalid module enrolments.
Annual curriculum hours	The anticipated hours of supervised learning or training deemed necessary to adequately present the education material. These hours are generally specified in the curriculum documentation and exclude hours associated with field work or work experience. Indicator changed in 1999 to nominal hours — supervised.
AVETMISS	Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard. This is a specification of information standards for recording and reporting VET inputs (resource module) and activity and outputs (business module). This standard was observed in the collection and preparation of data for this Report.
Community education providers	Community education training organisations that provide information to the NCVET data collection.
Completions	Fulfilment of all of the requirements of a course enrolment or module enrolment.
Contract of training	A contractual agreement between an employer and employee (apprentice or trainee), specifying the competencies to be developed over the period of the contract, and the rights and obligations of each party.
Cost per curriculum hour (average)	Total government recurrent expenditure per total adjusted annual curriculum hour.
Course	A structured sequence of vocational education and training that leads to the acquisition of identified competencies and includes assessment leading to a qualification or statement of attainment.
Enrolment	The registration of a student with a training provider for the purpose of doing a course or module. The enrolment is considered valid only if all fee obligations have been met and the student has attended at least one lesson or submitted at least one piece of work.
Fee-for-service activity	Activity that is funded by fees received from individuals and organisations (other than regulatory student fees), including specifically funded Australian and State government programs (such as labour market programs and Adult Migrant English Services).
Government cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour	Cost to the government of using capital (physical noncurrent assets) to deliver VET services.
Government cost of capital per hour of successful government funded module load completions	Cost to the government of using capital (physical noncurrent assets) per adjusted government funded successful module load completions.

Government funding to private and adult and community providers	Government recurrent expenditure to private and adult and community education (ACE) providers for the delivery of VET services. Expenditure includes payments to secondary schools, other government providers, enterprises, private registered training organisations, ACE providers, industry and local government providers.
Government recurrent VET expenditure per person aged 15–64 years	Total Australian, State and Territory governments' recurrent expenditure, based on 'maintenance of effort' cash expenditure per person aged 15–64 years.
Graduate	A person who has completed a vocational program.
Hours delivered per campus	The ratio of unadjusted VET hours delivered to the number of campuses in each jurisdiction.
Load pass rate	The ratio of students who pass assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency to all students who are assessed and pass, fail or withdraw. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or unit of competency.
Module	A unit of training in which a student can enrol and be assessed.
Net assets of government VET providers per person aged 15–64 years	Net assets (total assets less liabilities) of government owned VET providers per person aged 15–64 years.
Nominal hours — supervised	The anticipated hours of learning or training deemed necessary to adequately present the educational material associated with the delivery of a training program in standard classroom delivery mode. These hours are generally specified in the curriculum documentation and exclude hours associated with work experience, industry placement or field placement. See ' <i>annual curriculum hours</i> '.
Non-English speaking background (NESB) (language spoken at home)	Language other than English spoken at home.
Non-response rate	Proportion of VET students who did not respond to the relevant question.
Non-vocational program of study	Recreation, leisure and personal enrichment courses directed towards the encouragement and development of creative, social and personal pursuits and skills that enable people to make more effective use of leisure time.
Number of campuses	The number of locations at which VET providers delivered VET programs or modules.
Overall employer satisfaction with VET providers	Employer satisfaction with VET training providers (including both TAFE and non-TAFE). It is rated on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 being 'very dissatisfied' and 10 being 'very satisfied'.
Private provider	A commercial organisation that provides training to individuals and industry.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices. Adjustments are made using the non-farm GDP price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Recurrent funding	Funding provided by the Australian, State and Territory governments to cover operating costs, salaries and rent.

State VET plan	An annual publication by the State training authorities, which outlines the planned training in terms of annual hours, by occupational groupings, for the year ahead (with indicative estimates for the next two years). It also outlines initiatives to meet State and national strategies.
Students per campus	The ratio of the number of students who undertook vocational programs to the number of campuses in each jurisdiction.
Students studying in remote areas	The ratio of the number of students who studied in campuses located in remote areas to the total number of VET students.
Students studying in rural areas	The ratio of the number of students who studied in campuses located in rural areas to the total number of VET students.
TAFE	Technical and further education colleges and institutes, which are the primary providers of government funded VET.
TAFE institute graduates' main reason for undertaking a VET course	Either vocational reasons (to get a job, to try for a different career, to meet job requirements, to get extra job skills) or nonvocational reasons (to get into another course, for personal interest, for other reasons).
Training packages	The basic building blocks for VET programs under the National Training Framework. They are developed by industry and create national standards, programs, qualifications and learning resources.
VET cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour	Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted government funded annual curriculum hours.
VET participation by Indigenous people	The proportion of VET students reported as indigenous compared to the proportion of Indigenous people in the Australian population.
VET participation by NESB people	The proportion of NESB VET students compared with the proportion of people in the Australian population who do not speak English at home.
VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years	The ratio of the number of people who undertake a VET program or module to the number of people in Australia (or each jurisdiction) aged 15–64 years.
VET participation rate for people of all ages by region	The ratio of the number of people who undertake VET programs or modules in specified geographic areas (that is, capital cities, rural areas, remote areas and other metropolitan areas) to the total population of people in those geographic areas.
VET program	A course or module offered by a training organisation in which clients may enrol.
Vocational program of study	A program of study that is intended to develop competency in skills relevant to the workplace or entry to further education. Includes initial vocational courses and courses subsequent to initial vocational courses. These courses are typically associated with preparatory, operative, trades/skilled and para-professional education and training.
Whether the VET course helped graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course	Whether 'the course helped', 'the course partly helped', 'the course did not help' or the graduates 'cannot say'.

4.7 References

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C Justice preface

Governments provide justice services to ensure a safe society by enhancing public order and security, and upholding the rule of law. This provision involves crime prevention, detection and investigation, judicial processes and dispute resolution, prisoner and offender management, and rehabilitation services. The focus of the following chapters is on the justice services provided by police (see chapter 5), court administration (see chapter 6) and adult corrective services (see chapter 7). These chapters cover:

- the operations of the police agencies of each State and Territory government and the ACT community policing function performed by the Australian Federal Police (AFP)
- the court administration of the State and Territory supreme courts, district/county courts, magistrates (including electronic and children's) courts, coroners' courts and probate registries, as well as the court administration of the Federal Court of Australia, the Federal Magistrates Court, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA
- the operations of the corrective services agencies within each State and Territory, including prisons (both public and private), periodic detention centres and a range of supervised community corrections orders for adult offenders.

Some government services that are not included, but which also contribute to civil and criminal justice outcomes, are:

- crime prevention, diversion and early intervention activities within policing (although chapter 5 contains some information relevant to these activities)
- legal aid services, which provide access to both criminal and civil aspects of the justice system
- alternative dispute resolution services, such as conciliation and mediation
- offices of fair trading or consumer affairs, which operate to minimise incidences of unlawful trade practices
- crimes compensation services and victim support services, which assist victims' recovery from crime

-
- prosecution services, which bring actions on behalf of the community in criminal actions
 - various social services and community organisations that help prisoners released from prison to re-integrate into society, support families of prisoners during their incarceration, and assist people who have contact with the criminal justice system
 - the Australian Crime Commission and the federal functions of the AFP
 - the operations of tribunals and registries (except for probate and court registries), and judicial outcomes
 - juvenile justice agencies and services (except children's courts). (Some descriptive information on juvenile justice is included in the 'Community services preface'.)

Profile of the justice system

Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources)

Total recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) by the parts of the justice system covered in this Report was \$7.6 billion in 2003-04 (table C.1). (Expenditure data reported in this preface exclude payroll tax.) Total reported recurrent expenditure on justice represented 9.0 per cent of all recurrent expenditure on services covered in the 2005 Report.

Expenditure in 2003-04 included \$5.2 billion on police services, about \$1.6 billion on corrective services and \$423.5 million on criminal courts administration. Expenditure on civil justice (including the Federal Court, the Federal Magistrates Court and the family courts) was \$429.1 million (table C.1).

Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) between 1999-2000 and 2003-04 grew fastest for corrective services (at an annual average rate of 4.6 per cent). It decreased for civil courts administration (at an annual average rate of 4.9 per cent) (table C.1), although this decrease needs to be interpreted with caution because it may reflect changes in expenditure reporting for court administration from 2000-01 and further changes in 2002-03. Changes in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period mean that care also needs to be taken in interpreting the rate of change of expenditure.

Table C.1 Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) on justice services by all Australian governments (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}

	1999-2000 ^c	2000-01	2001-02 ^d	2002-03 ^d	2003-04 ^d	Annual average growth ^{c, d}
	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	%
Police services ^e	4 633.7	4 588.9	4 731.0	5 043.8	5 163.5	2.7
Court admin. — criminal ^{f, g}	469.6	427.4	427.1	424.9	423.5	-2.6
Court admin. — civil ^{h, g}	524.2	368.9	336.7	419.5	429.1	-4.9
Corrective services ⁱ	1314.9	1340.8	1449.6	1545.5	1571.4	4.6
Total justice system	6942.5	6726.0	6944.5	7433.7	7587.6	2.2
	%	%	%	%	%	
Police services ^e	66.7	68.2	68.1	67.9	68.1	..
Court admin. — criminal ^{f, g}	6.8	6.4	6.1	5.7	5.6	..
Court admin. — civil ^{h, g}	7.6	5.5	4.8	5.6	5.7	..
Corrective services ⁱ	18.9	19.9	20.9	20.8	20.7	..
Total justice system	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	..

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing court expenditure in 1999-2000 with that in future years. In 1999-2000, court administration net recurrent expenditure included only a small portion of total revenue collected by courts. This has been rectified from 2000-01 and accounts for the large drop experienced in net recurrent expenditure in the following years (particularly in the civil courts). ^d The data for court administration (criminal) include a large amount of income from electronic courts not previously reported. ^e Real recurrent expenditure on police services includes depreciation and capital expenditure. ^f Includes the cost of magistrates (including electronic and children's), district/county, supreme and coroners' courts. ^g Expenditure data include depreciation on existing assets, but exclude expenditure on purchase of new capital items. ^h Includes magistrates (including children's), district/county and supreme courts, the Family Court of Australia, the Federal Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA. The Federal Magistrates Court was included for the first time in 2001-02. The data exclude the cost of probate hearings for all years. ⁱ Data differ from those in table 7A.11. Expenditure on corrective services in table 7A.11 is the total of prison and community corrections recurrent expenditure (excluding payroll tax and net of recurrent receipts), the cost of transport and escort services, and reported capital expenditure for prisons and community corrections. Capital expenditure in table 7A.11 comprises depreciation on government owned assets, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges, and other associated capital expenses, but excludes user cost of capital. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); SCRGSP (2004); tables 5A.11, 6A.12, 6A.13, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person

A number of factors contribute to the marked differences in expenditure across jurisdictions. These include factors beyond the control of jurisdictions (such as geographic dispersion, economies of scale and socioeconomic factors), as well as differences in justice policies and/or the scope of services that justice agencies deliver. Police agencies in some jurisdictions provide event management and emergency response services, for example, while others do not.

Expenditure per person on justice in 2003-04 was highest in the NT (\$969) and lowest in Victoria (\$316) (table C.2). Expenditure per person on police services was highest in the NT (\$637) and lowest in SA (\$230). In criminal courts administration, the highest expenditure per person was in the NT (\$49) and the lowest was in Victoria (\$14). In civil courts administration, the highest expenditure per person was in the NT (\$48) and the lowest was in Tasmania (\$6). The NT also had the highest expenditure per person on corrective services (\$235), while Victoria had the lowest (\$50) (table C.2).

Table C.2 Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on justice services, 2003-04^{a, b, c}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Police services ^d	\$	264	243	248	294	230	240	270	637	259
Court admin.— criminal ^e	\$	24	14	18	27	24	24	28	49	21
Court admin.— civil ^{e, f, g, h}	\$	11	9	8	24	15	6	19	48	21
Corrective services ⁱ	\$	90	50	77	105	72	65	81	235	78
Total justice system	\$	389	316	352	450	342	334	398	969	380
Police services ^d	%	67.9	76.8	70.7	65.4	67.3	71.7	67.9	65.7	68.2
Court admin.— criminal ^e	%	6.2	4.4	5.2	6.1	7.1	7.1	7.0	5.1	5.6
Court admin.— civil ^{e, f, g, h}	%	2.9	2.9	2.1	5.3	4.4	1.9	4.7	4.9	5.6
Corrective services ⁱ	%	23.0	15.9	22.0	23.3	21.2	19.4	20.4	24.2	20.6
Total justice system	%	100.0								

^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^c Population is estimated by financial year. ^d Real recurrent expenditure on police services includes depreciation and capital expenditure. ^e Expenditure data include depreciation on existing assets, but exclude expenditure on purchase of new capital items. ^f Australian total includes Australian Government expenditure on the Family Court of Australia, the Federal Court, and the Federal Magistrates Court, which are not attributed to jurisdiction expenditure. The civil expenditure on these Australian Government courts was \$10 per person (based on the Australian population). ^g WA civil court administration data include the cost of the Family Court of WA, so are not comparable with data for other jurisdictions. ^h Excludes the cost of probate hearings. ⁱ Data differ from those in table 7A.11. Expenditure on corrective services in table 7A.11 is the total of prison and community corrections recurrent expenditure (excluding payroll tax and net of recurrent receipts), the cost of transport and escort services, and reported capital expenditure for prisons and community corrections. Capital expenditure in table 7A.11 comprises depreciation on government owned assets, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges, and other associated capital expenses, but excludes user cost of capital.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables A2, 5A.11, 6A.12, 6A.13, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

Framework of the justice system

The criminal justice system is broad and complex, and has many interrelated objectives. An overarching aim is to ensure that the community has access to a fair system of justice that protects the rights of individuals and contributes to community safety (box C.1).

Box C.1 Objectives of the criminal justice system

The objectives of the criminal justice system are to provide protection for the rights and freedoms of all people through:

- the operation of police services that enhance community safety by preventing, detecting and investigating crime
- the administration of criminal justice that determines guilt and applies appropriate, consistent and fair sanctions to offenders
- the provision of a safe, secure and humane correctional system that incorporates the elements of safe custody, rehabilitation and restorative justice to the community.

These objectives are pursued in a manner that is accessible, equitable, timely and efficient.

A model of the criminal justice system

The performance of the criminal justice system is broadly measured in this Report against the objectives of effectiveness (how well agencies meet the outcomes of access and timeliness), equity (how well agencies treat special needs groups) and efficiency (how well inputs are used to deliver a range of outputs). Within the criminal justice system, the ability of one agency to meet these objectives depends on the effectiveness of the complex interactions between the police, courts and corrective services. Examples of this are:

- the police service's effect on the judicial system through policing strategies such as police cautions and other diversionary strategies
- the judicial system's effect on the police and correctional systems through sentencing practices
- the correctional system's effect on the judicial system through advisory services provided to courts
- the impact on the justice system of the degree of recidivism experienced.

Unlike other government sectors where the public has direct access to agencies, the criminal justice system is a sequentially structured process whereby people entering the system tend to progress through the system from one agency to another

(figure C.1) until their matter is resolved. This sequential process of the criminal justice system means there is a strong interdependence between the agencies. Each agency's activities may affect and impact on the activities and priorities of the other areas of the system. The resource demands on police, corrective services and, to a lesser degree, courts, along with their responsiveness and capacity to provide services and programs to their client bases, need to be considered in this context. In this report, service areas are represented in separate chapters, and performance results are interdependent.

Figure C.1 illustrates the typical stages involved in the processing of cases as they move through the criminal justice system, showing some of the links among police, courts and corrective services. This depiction is broadly indicative and, for brevity and clarity, does not seek to capture all the complexities of the criminal justice system or variations across jurisdictions.

Key indicators of the criminal justice system

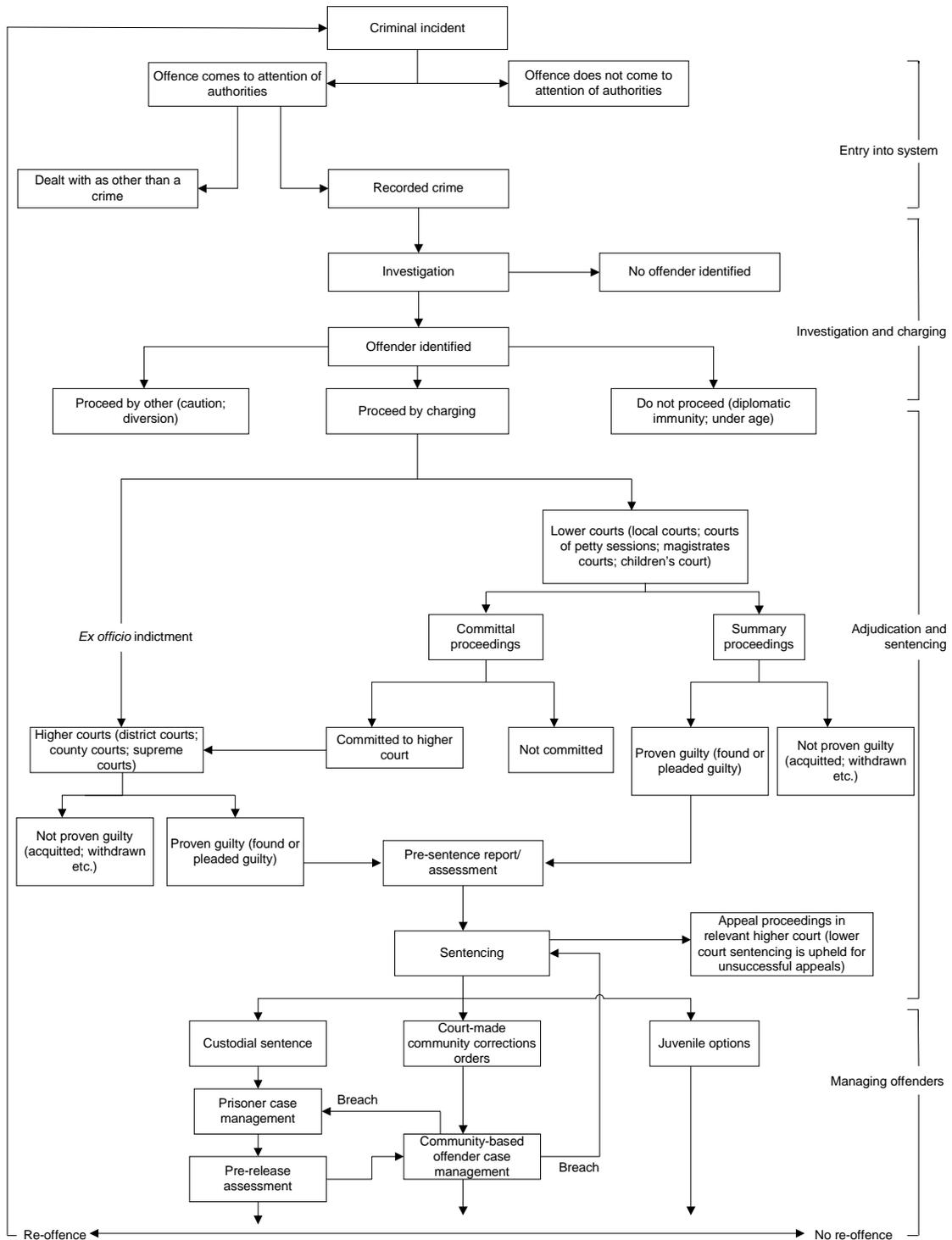
The following discussion describes the policy objectives of the criminal justice system (box C.1), follows the process by which the criminal justice system operates (figure C.1) and draws on several performance indicators used in the Report. Equity indicators are yet to be developed. It also identifies areas that are not covered in the Report, but which may also be relevant in providing a more complete picture of the operations of, and service delivery options available to, police, courts and corrective services agencies.

Crime prevention and detection

Effectiveness

The Report includes measures of community perceptions of safety, and rates of reported crime and victimisation. Measures of public perceptions of safety indicate the success of the system in ensuring the public feel safe both personally and in regard to their property. Public perceptions of safety are reported in detail in chapter 5 and include measures of perceived safety in the home, in public places and on public transport.

Figure C.1 Flows through the criminal justice system^{a, b, c}



^a Does not account for all variations across jurisdictions. ^b The flow diagram is indicative and does not seek to include all the complexities of the criminal justice system. ^c Juvenile justice is covered in the 'Community services preface'.

Source: Adapted from ABS (unpublished).

The recorded rate of crime is an indicator of the success of crime prevention and law enforcement. Given that several factors can influence recorded rates of crime, including the general willingness of the public to report crimes to police, additional information is also provided. A survey of the community's experience with crime, such as the Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) Crime and Safety Survey, helps to clarify the relationship between reported and unreported crimes. Recorded rates of crime and information from crime victimisation surveys are reported in chapter 5.

Efficiency

The cost per person of the service delivery area 'community safety and support' is used for measuring the efficiency of agencies in delivering these services. These data are contained in chapter 5.

Crime investigation

Effectiveness

Information on the outcomes of criminal investigations provides a measure of the success of the police in responding to criminal incidents. Chapter 5 reports on outcomes of investigations. The data include the total number of investigations for a range of crimes, the number of investigations finalised as a proportion of total investigations, and the number of investigations that resulted in proceedings against the offending person as a proportion of investigations that were finalised. Chapter 5 also identifies the proportion of investigations that resulted in the offending person being cautioned or diverted from the criminal justice system, as well as the proportion of investigations that were not resolved.

Efficiency

The efficiency measure for crime investigation is the cost per person of delivering the service to the community. These data are contained in chapter 5.

Presentation and pre-trial

Effectiveness

Measures relating to the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea indicate the effectiveness of work undertaken by police and prosecuting services. Chapter 5 provides data for police in this area. Data on the timeliness of hearings

provide important information on the ability of the criminal justice system to meet community demands for accused persons to be dealt with in a timely manner, and also on the courts' ability to manage caseloads effectively. The timeliness with which criminal committal matters were finalised is reported in chapter 6.

Efficiency

The cost per person of the service delivery area 'services to the judicial process' is used to measure the efficiency of the delivery of police prosecution services and is reported in chapter 5. The cost per case in lower criminal courts is used as a measure of the efficiency of case management by court administrators and is reported in chapter 6.

Adjudication and sentencing

Effectiveness

Data on the timeliness of hearings provide further important information on the ability of the criminal justice system to meet community demands for accused persons to be dealt within a timely manner, and on the courts' ability to manage their caseload effectively. Measures relating to the proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty finding are contained in chapter 5. Case completion times are reported in chapter 6.

Custodial corrections

Effectiveness

Key effectiveness measures of custodial care — prisoner assault, death and escape rates — are reported in chapter 7. These measures are supported by descriptive indicators, such as imprisonment rates (disaggregated by gender and Indigenous status).

Efficiency

Recurrent and capital costs per prisoner per day are key indicators of efficiency and are reported in chapter 7. These data include the costs associated with offender programs, reparation and prisoner custody.

Community corrections

Effectiveness

In community corrections, a key effectiveness measure is the proportion of orders successfully completed. This measure is supported by descriptive indicators, such as offender rates (disaggregated by gender and Indigenous status). Chapter 7 contains these data.

Efficiency

The cost per offender per day is used to measure the efficiency of providing community corrections. These data are included in chapter 7.

Offender programs and reparation

Effectiveness

Information on the number of prisoners and offenders undertaking approved education, training and personal development courses provides a measure of the effectiveness of corrective services in providing programs that increase the chances of successful re-integration into the community. The programs offered are reported in chapter 7.

Reparation may include prisoners undertaking work in the community on environmental and other work projects. Offenders serving community corrections orders provide reparation by undertaking unpaid community work. The level and distribution of this reparation are detailed in chapter 7.

Not covered in this Report, but under development, is the delivery of structured, targeted, offence focused programs to prisoners and offenders, such as sex offence treatment programs and violent offence treatment programs.

Efficiency

The costs associated with offender programs and reparation are not separately identified. These data are incorporated into the cost per prisoner/offender results in chapter 7.

Overall performance

Effectiveness

Recidivism — the extent to which persons convicted by the criminal justice system re-offend — is a partial measure of the performance of the system in improving public safety by reducing the incidence of crime. Rate of prisoner/offender return is reported by corrective services. No recidivism indicators are reported by other criminal justice services. This measure does not include:

- arrests
- convictions for re-offending that lead to outcomes that are not administered by corrective services (for example, fines)
- a corrections sanction for a repeat offender who has previously been sentenced to only non-corrections sanctions (such as fines).

Further, it is not weighted in any way to account for the nature of the re-offence — for example, a return to prison for a traffic offence is counted in the same manner as a return for a more serious offence such as armed robbery.

Two indicators of recidivism are reported for prisoners. The first is the percentage of prisoners returning to prison within two years of release and the second is the percentage of prisoners returning to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections). Both are based on the outcomes for prisoners released from custody during the two years before the reporting year. Data for this Report, therefore, relate to prisoners released during 2001-02. These data exclude prisoners subject to supervision on release to the community.

Recidivism among offenders under community correction orders (including prisoners released to the community on parole/licence orders) is also assessed by two indicators: the percentage of offenders returning to community corrections and the percentage returning to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections). Return to corrective services is the preferred indicator in both cases, but, not all jurisdictions can report this measure.

Victoria did not report on either indicator in 2003-04 (table C.3). The ACT also did not report on either indicator, because the majority of full time prisoners sentenced in the ACT are held in NSW prisons. In 2003-04, WA (44.9 per cent) reported the highest rate of return to prison by prisoners, and Queensland reported the lowest (27.7 per cent). Western Australia (51.8 per cent) reported the highest rate of prisoner return to corrections as a whole, and the NT reported the lowest (38.9 per cent).

New South Wales, Victoria and the ACT did not report on offenders returning to community corrections or corrective services in 2003-04 (table C.3). Of those jurisdictions that did provide data, WA reported the highest rate of return to community corrections by offenders following their completion of community orders in 2003-04 (19.7 per cent), and Queensland reported the lowest (11.2 per cent). Western Australia also reported the highest rate of return by offenders to corrections as a whole (35.3 per cent) and Queensland reported the lowest (18.0 per cent).

Table C.3 Prisoners and offenders who were released or completed an order in 2001-02 who returned with a correctional sanction within two years (per cent)

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Prisoners returning:									
– to prison	44.7	na	27.7	44.9	29.7	33.7	na	36.0	na
– to corrective services	49.2	na	40.2	51.8	51.2	43.8	na	38.9	na
Offenders returning:									
– to community corrections	na	na	11.2	19.7	14.7	13.3	na	16.7	na
– to corrective services	na	na	18.0	35.3	21.1	32.6	na	31.3	na

na Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Efficiency

The efficiency of the criminal justice system is reflected in the level of resources used to deliver justice services. Unit cost indicators for individual justice services are presented in the related chapters, but some outcomes result from interactions among the individual services. One indicator of efficiency is annual government recurrent expenditure per person on the criminal justice system (table C.4). Comparisons of unit costs, however, need to account for conflicting objectives and tradeoffs among cost, quality and timeliness, so these need to be interpreted in the context of the effectiveness indicators in each chapter.

In 2003-04, expenditure on the criminal justice system was \$359 per person nationally; across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$921) and lowest in Victoria (\$307). Over the period 1999-2000 to 2003-04, the highest annual rate of growth in real expenditure per person on criminal justice was experienced in the ACT (3.5 per cent). The lowest annual rate of growth over this period was in Victoria (0.3 per cent) (table C.4). Given improvements in the counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period, however, the annual growth rate of expenditure needs to be viewed with caution.

Table C.4 Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on the criminal justice system (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}

	1999-2000	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	Real annual growth rate
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	%
NSW	342	348	345	372	377	2.5
Victoria	304	277	291	302	307	0.3
Queensland	319	313	334	344	344	1.9
WA	418	405	413	420	426	0.5
SA	323	321	333	354	327	0.4
Tasmania	295	292	314	318	328	2.7
ACT	331	355	338	367	380	3.5
NT	829	795	838	844	921	2.7
Australia	338	331	339	356	359	1.5

^a Improvements in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period mean that the annual growth rate of expenditure needs to be viewed with caution. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Population is estimated by financial year. ^d Excludes costs of civil court administration, probate hearings and electronic courts.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); SCRGSP (2004); tables A2, 5A.11, 6A.12, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

Future directions in performance reporting

Each chapter (police, courts and corrective services) contains its own service-specific section on future directions. The aim of this section is to provide an insight into directions in performance reporting for the whole justice sector.

Juvenile justice

The 'Community services preface' contains information on juvenile justice. It contains descriptive data on the number and detention rates of juveniles (including Indigenous juveniles) in correctional facilities. In future years, it is anticipated that the Report will expand to include performance reporting on juvenile justice.

Crime and justice statistical framework

The National Criminal Justice Statistical Framework (ABS unpublished) was developed to provide a structure for organising, collecting and reporting data on crime and the criminal justice system. (For more information, see SCRGSP 2004, p. C.17.) The primary purpose of the framework is to identify the key counting units and data variables in the criminal justice system that would allow stakeholders to characterise the main aspects of that system. The framework intends to facilitate the

compatibility and integration of aggregated data on populations across the criminal justice system and across geographic areas.

The National Criminal Justice Statistical Framework is an evolving document that will be developed over time. The next phase of the development of a comprehensive statistical framework for criminal justice will follow the release of the National Information Development Plan (NIDP) for crime and justice.

National Information Development Plan

The NIDP identifies national needs for data in crime and justice, current key data sources (both ABS and other agencies) and information gaps with reference to national data requirements. It is a strategic document that has been developed in consultation with the Australian Government, State and Territory justice services, their associated research bodies, and a range of other portfolio agencies and non-government bodies that use this statistical information. The aim of this consultation was to draw information needs from those responsible for identifying policy issues, asking research questions and making decisions in the area of crime and justice. The NIDP presents recommendations and strategies for information development that will address the priority data needs of users of crime and justice information over the next five years.

Key themes identified for development include:

- improving the comparability of crime and justice data within and across jurisdictions, both in the criminal justice system and across portfolios
- expanding the range of characteristics about persons and events in the justice system, with specific emphasis on safety, Indigenous people, youth at risk, recidivism, substance use, mental health, family violence, cultural diversity and location.

The production of the NIDP for crime and justice statistics is central to the ABS coordination role. The NIDP will enhance the National Statistical Service, which seeks to maximise the use and value of existing data, maximise data quality and improve data access and availability. (For more information on the NIDP, see SCRGSP 2004, p. C.17.)

Indigenous issues

In April 2002, the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) asked the Steering Committee to prepare a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage as part of the COAG reconciliation commitment. The Steering Committee in

November 2003 released the first edition of this report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003*.

The Report on Government Services focuses on the delivery of government services, whereas the report on Indigenous disadvantage concentrates on high level outcomes and strategic areas for action (which includes criminal justice indicators). The two reports are thus different yet complementary.

The available information on the interaction of Indigenous people with specific parts of the criminal justice system is of varying quality. The most important reason for the poor quality of Indigenous data is that some justice agencies do not ask explicitly for a person's Indigenous status. A number of agencies, however, have recently moved to rectify this situation.

Police and corrective services collecting Indigenous status data based on the ABS standard Indigenous questions include NSW, Queensland, WA and the NT. An ABS outposted officer is working with police in Tasmania to develop the capacity there to collect this type of data. Corrective services in SA collect data on Indigenous people and are working towards collecting these data using the ABS standard Indigenous question in 2005–06. The standard Indigenous question is the ABS's preferred method of identifying Indigenous clients and aims to facilitate self-identification of Indigenous status.

Work is being undertaken to enable Victoria's Magistrates and Children's courts to receive Indigenous identification data electronically from Victoria Police, who have been instructed to ask the ABS standard question. It is planned that these data will then flow to other judicial jurisdictions as part of the committal and appeal process. Data are expected to be available for the full 2004-05 financial year.

Data on the deaths of Indigenous people in police custody and custody-related operations (for example, most sieges and most cases in which officers were attempting to detain a person, such as pursuits) (see chapter 5), the representation of Indigenous people in prisons and community corrections (see chapter 7), and Indigenous deaths in prison custody (see chapter 7) are of a high quality and are published in this Report.

The Australian Institute of Criminology also publishes data on the involvement of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system, particularly in relation to deaths in police and corrective services custody.

Reference

SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2004, *Report on Government Services 2004*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

5 Police services

This chapter reports on the performance of police services. These services comprise the operations of the police agencies of each State and Territory government and the ACT community policing function performed by the Australian Federal Police (AFP) under the *Arrangement between the Minister for Justice and Customs of the Commonwealth and the Australian Capital Territory for the provision of police services to the Australian Capital Territory*. The national policing function of the AFP and other national non-police law enforcement bodies (such as the Australian Crime Commission) are not included in the Report.

A profile of the police sector appears in section 5.1. The general approach to performance measurement for police services is outlined in section 5.2. The overarching indicators of police performance are contained in section 5.3, and the specific performance measurement frameworks and data for each service delivery area are discussed in sections 5.4–5.8. Section 5.9 contains information on capital costs in police services and section 5.10 covers future directions in performance reporting. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions' comments (section 5.11), information on sample data (section 5.12) and definitions (section 5.13).

A new performance indicator framework was implemented for the 2005 Report. The new framework emphasises the Review's focus on government service 'outcomes', consistent with the demand by governments for outcome orientated performance information.

The presentation of crime victimisation data (sections 5.1 and 5.4) has changed for the 2005 Report. Information on the level of selected crimes against the person and crimes against property is now sourced from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Crime and Safety Survey. In the 2004 Report, the source of data on the level of crime was the ABS Recorded Crime series. The ABS Recorded Crime series is used in the 2005 Report as the source of data on trends in selected crimes against the person, and crimes against property.

It should be noted that the use of the term 'offender' in this chapter refers to a person committing an offence and is not the same as the definition used in chapter 7 ('Corrective services'), where the term 'offender' refers to a person who is undertaking a community corrections sentence.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 5 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2005\Attach5A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2005\Attach5A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 5A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

5.1 Profile of police services

Service overview

Police services are the principal means through which State and Territory governments pursue the achievement of a safe and secure environment for the community through crime responses, the investigation of offences, the provision of services to the judicial process, and the provision of road safety and traffic management. Police are involved in a diverse range of activities aimed at reducing the incidence and effects of criminal activity. They also respond to more general needs in the community — for example, assisting emergency services, mediating family and neighbourhood disputes, delivering messages regarding death or serious illness, and advising on general policing and crime issues (CJC 1996).

Roles and responsibilities

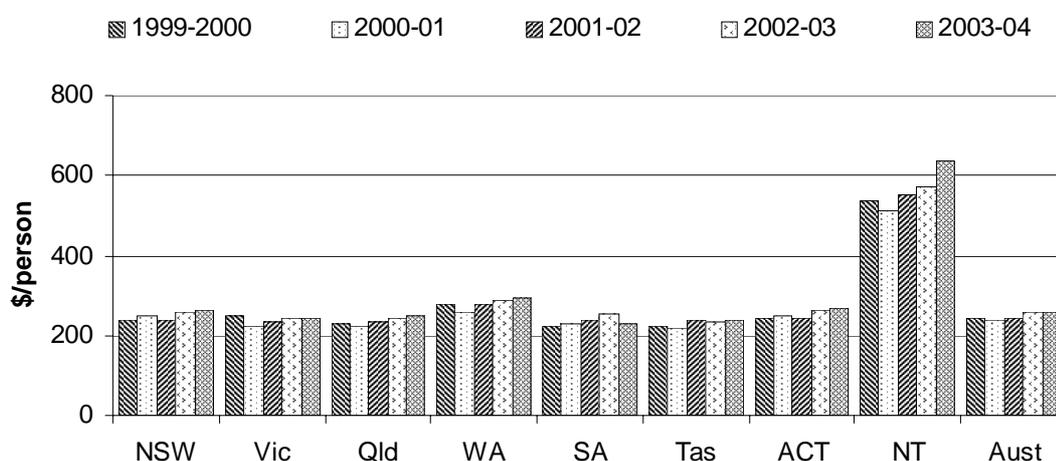
Policing services are predominantly the responsibility of State and Territory government agencies. The AFP provides a community policing service in the ACT through a strategic partnership with the ACT Government, underpinned by a detailed purchaser/provider agreement. The Australian Government is responsible for the AFP.

While each jurisdiction's police service is autonomous, there is significant cooperation across jurisdictions under the auspices of the Australasian Police Ministers' Council. There are also bilateral arrangements and common national police services, such as the National Institute of Forensic Sciences and the Australasian Centre for Policing Research (ACPR).

Expenditure

Funding for police services comes almost exclusively from State and Territory government budgets, with some limited specific purpose Australian Government grants. Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services across Australia was approximately \$5.2 billion (or \$259 per person) in 2003-04 (table 5A.11). All jurisdictions, except SA, increased their real expenditure over the past 12 months, with expenditure varying from \$637 per person in the NT to \$230 per person in SA (figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 **Real recurrent expenditure per person (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Revenue from own sources includes user charges and other types of revenue (for example, revenue from sale of stores and plant). It excludes fine revenue, money received as a result of warrant execution, and revenue from the issuing of firearm licences. ^b Excludes the user cost of capital. ^c As a result of a comprehensive review of enabling costs applicable to ACT policing in 2000-01, the formula previously applied to the calculation of staffing and expenditure data has been significantly revised. This methodological shift means that data relating to staffing and expenditure from 2000-01 are not directly comparable to data before 2000-01. ^d Real expenditure based on the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.11.

Variations in policies, socioeconomic factors and geographic/demographic characteristics have an impact on expenditure for police services in each jurisdiction. The scope of activities undertaken by police services also varies across jurisdictions. Tables 5A.1–5A.8 contain a breakdown of the expenditure and revenue from own sources (as well as staffing levels and asset values) of each jurisdiction's police service for 1999-2000 to 2003-04.

Expenditure breakdown, by key service delivery area

In this chapter, police outputs/programs are disaggregated into four service delivery areas (SDAs). A fifth area ('other services') has been identified to account for expenditure on unique functions that are not included in the SDAs. For this Report, all jurisdictions except Tasmania were able to provide expenditure by SDA.

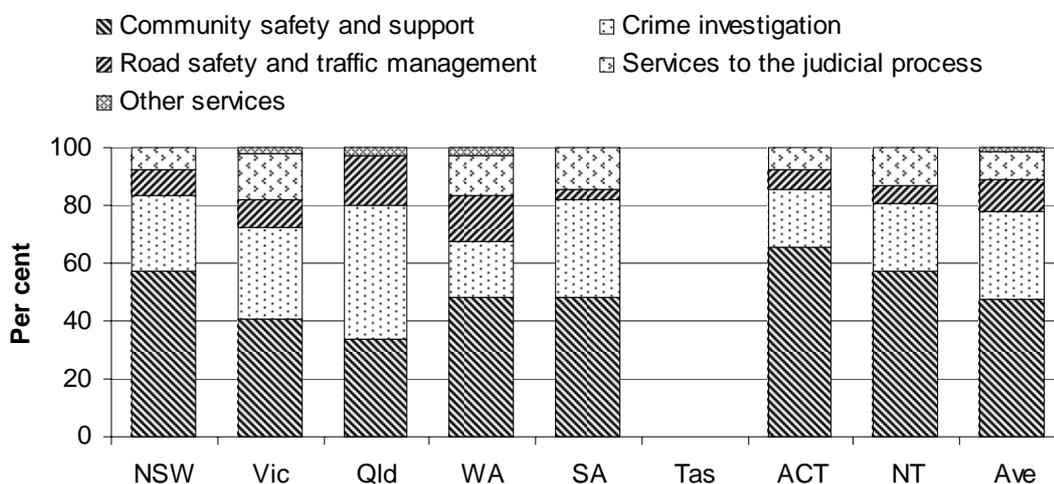
Care needs to be taken when comparing results across jurisdictions, because expenditure data on each SDA are not fully comparable. (Further information is included in section 5.2, and the outputs/programs undertaken within each SDA are listed in table 5A.10 by jurisdiction.) Differences in counting rules exist across jurisdictions, reflecting the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. As well, the activity survey data that provide the relative breakdown of expenditure rely on snapshot data for most jurisdictions, and may not accurately reflect the peaks and troughs in expenditure throughout the year. The reliability and representativeness of survey data will continue to improve as more surveys are conducted.

Community safety and support accounted for the largest component (46.3 per cent) of expenditure on police services in 2003-04, for those jurisdictions that provided data. Across jurisdictions, the proportion of expenditure on community safety and support was highest in the ACT (65.8 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (33.8 per cent) (figure 5.2).

Expenditure on crime investigation accounted for the second largest component (30.1 per cent) of expenditure in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the proportion of total expenditure on crime investigation was highest in Queensland (46 per cent) and lowest in WA (19.2 per cent) (figure 5.2).

More detail on expenditure by SDA is provided in tables 5A.12–5A15.

Figure 5.2 **Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services, by service delivery area, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d}**



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subject to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Overheads (for example, infrastructure costs such as rent on buildings and vehicle and equipment costs) have been apportioned to these SDAs on a pro rata basis. ^c For Queensland, expenditure data for services to the judicial process are unavailable. ^d Expenditure data for Tasmania could not be disaggregated by SDA.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.15.

Size and scope of sector

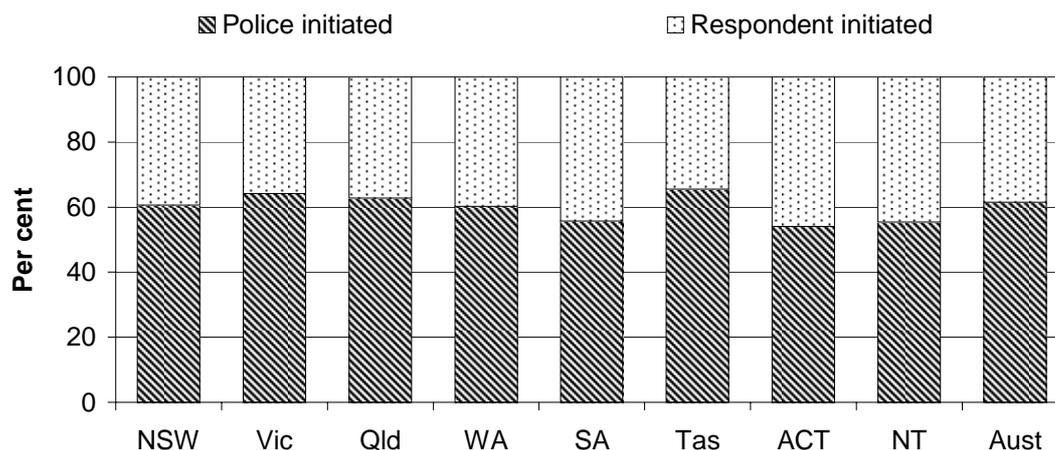
Client groups

Broadly, the whole community is a ‘client’ of the police. Police services aim to provide individuals with protection, help and reassurance, and everyone is required to comply with the law. Some members of the community have more direct dealings with the police and can be considered a specific client group, for example:

- victims of crime
- those suspected of committing offences
- those reporting criminal incidents
- those involved in traffic-related incidents
- third parties (such as witnesses to crime and people reporting accidents)
- those requiring police services for non-crime-related matters.

The ACPR *National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing* (NSCSP) indicated that 53 per cent of respondents nationally in 2003-04 had experienced some form of contact with police in the previous 12 months (table 5A.25). Police had initiated contact in the majority of cases (61.5 per cent) (figure 5.3).

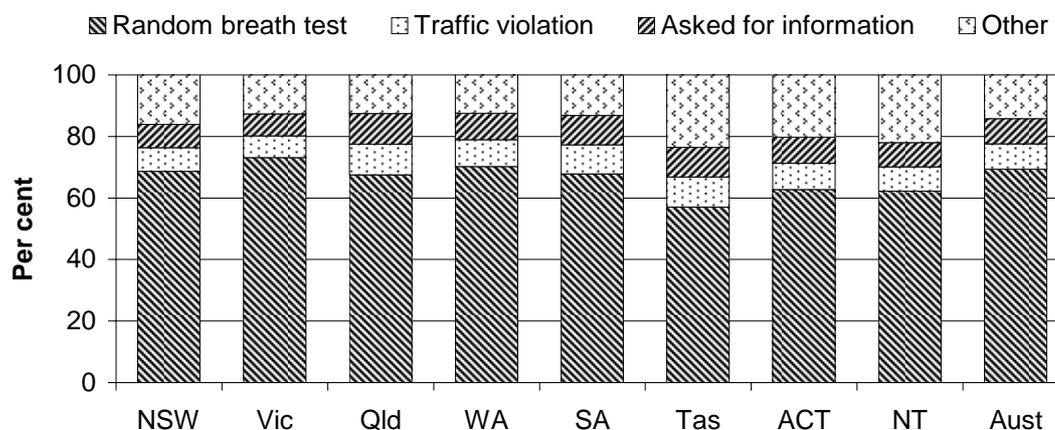
Figure 5.3 **Most recent police contact, by initiation, 2003-04**



Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.25.

The main reasons for police initiated contact were to undertake random breath testing (69.4 per cent of contacts), pursue traffic violations (8.2 per cent) or ask for information (7.3 per cent) (figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4 **Most frequent reasons for police contacting respondent in most recent contact, 2003-04^a**

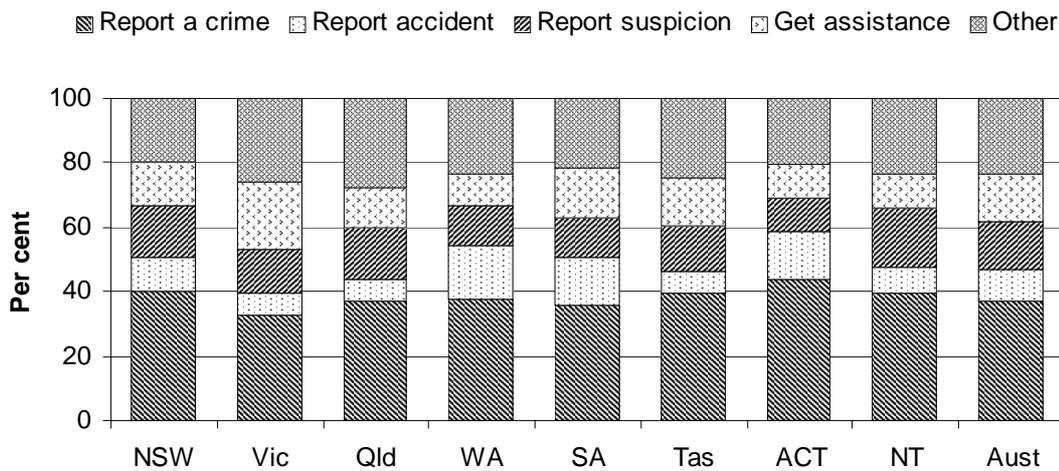


^a 'Other' includes traffic accident, noise/disturbance, arrested, informal contact, no response (refused) and other (not specified).

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.28.

Nationally, the respondent had initiated the most recent contact with police in 38.5 per cent of contacts (table 5A.25). Respondent initiated contacts were mainly to report a crime (37.3 per cent), get assistance (15.1 per cent), report a suspicion (14.4 per cent), report a traffic accident (9.9 per cent) or 'other' (13.3 per cent) (figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5 Most frequent reasons for respondent contacting police in most recent contact, 2003-04^a



^a 'Other' includes give other information, neighbourhood watch, lost/found property, no response (refused) and other (not specified).

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.27.

Victims of crime in Australia

Two ABS collections are used as the source of crime victimisation data in this Report: the Crime and Safety Survey, and the Recorded Crime collection.

Crime and Safety Survey

The Crime and Safety Survey is a regular national survey that was run in 1983, 1993, 1998 and 2002, and is expected to be conducted three yearly in the future. Information is collected from individuals and households, and focuses on those categories of more serious crime that affect the largest number of people.

The survey provides information on the levels of both reported and unreported victimisation in the Australian community for personal and household crimes:

- Personal crimes include robbery, assault and sexual assault.
- Household crimes include break-in, attempted break-in and motor vehicle theft.

Recorded Crime in Australia

The Recorded Crime collection provides details of selected crimes reported to, or detected by, police, whose details are subsequently recorded on police administrative systems. Data are reported on recorded crimes against people and property:

- Crimes against people include murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, assault, sexual assault, kidnapping/abduction, robbery and blackmail/extortion.
- Crimes against property include unlawful entry with intent, motor vehicle theft and other theft.

Crime and Safety Survey data are considered to be more comparable data across jurisdictions than the Recorded Crime collection, given differences in the way in which recorded crime data are compiled (box 5.1). However, both victimisation survey data and police recorded crime data contribute to informing users about the nature and extent of crime victimisation. While neither administrative statistics nor victimisation surveys alone can provide comprehensive information about crime, each is useful for addressing specific issues (which are discussed in more detail in ABS [2004a]).

This chapter reports the *level of crime* using the more comparable Crime and Safety Survey data, and the *annual trends* using the more timely Recorded Crime data.

Box 5.1 ABS crime victimisation statistics

The ABS maintains national collections on crime victimisation sourced from two different areas: administrative records obtained from State and Territory police agencies, and victimisation data obtained through surveys of individuals in the Australian community. In some instances, the results may provide a different picture of crime in the community, with administrative data indicating a trend in one direction and personal experience indicating the opposite.

(Continued on next page)

Box 5.1 (Continued)

The full extent of crime is unlikely to ever be captured — for example, recorded crime data on crimes against people and property understate the true level of crime in Australia as a result of the behaviour of victims and the limitations of the data. Data relate to recorded crimes, but not all offences are reported to, or become known by, police. The victim's confidence in the judicial process, the nature of the offence, and the relationship between the victim and perpetrator are among the key factors that influence the propensity to report an offence. Similarly, with survey data, it may be difficult to obtain information about some crimes such as sexual assault and assaults that have been committed by the members of the same household.

Comparing recorded crime statistics across jurisdictions

Recorded crime statistics are based on national standards and classifications, but care needs to be taken when directly comparing these statistics across states and territories, given the different practices of agencies supplying the relevant data. Information recorded by police agencies may vary across states and territories as a result of legislation, recording systems and recording practices, for example. The ABS is undertaking a project to investigate the differences in recorded crime statistics across State and Territory police agencies.

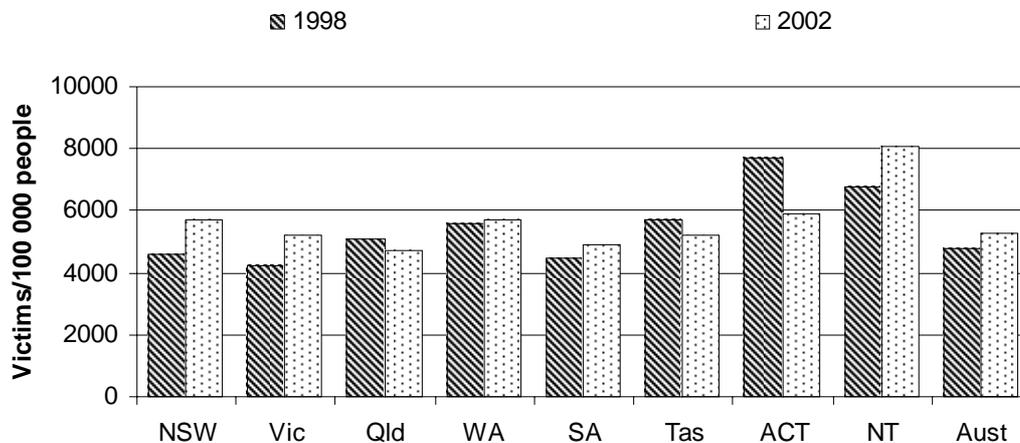
Comparing recorded crime statistics with jurisdiction-specific data

Care needs to be taken if attempting to compare ABS recorded crime statistics with data reported by some jurisdictions. The former are *victim based* (that is, based on the number of victims per selected offence category), whereas State and Territory data are commonly *offence or incident based* (that is, based on the total number of offences or incidents recorded). To illustrate the difference, multiple offences of the same national offence category committed against the same victim are included as only one count in the national crime statistics, but the information systems in each jurisdiction may separately count each offence committed against the same victim.

Rate of crime victimisation in Australia

Expressed as a rate, there were 5300 victims of personal crime per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002, up from 4800 in 1998 (when the last survey was undertaken). The rate in 2002 varied across jurisdictions, from 8100 per 100 000 people in the NT to 4700 per 100 000 people in Queensland. When compared with the results in the previous survey, the rate increased in all jurisdictions except Queensland, Tasmania and the ACT, where the number of victims per 100 000 declined (figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6 Estimated victims of personal crime^{a, b}

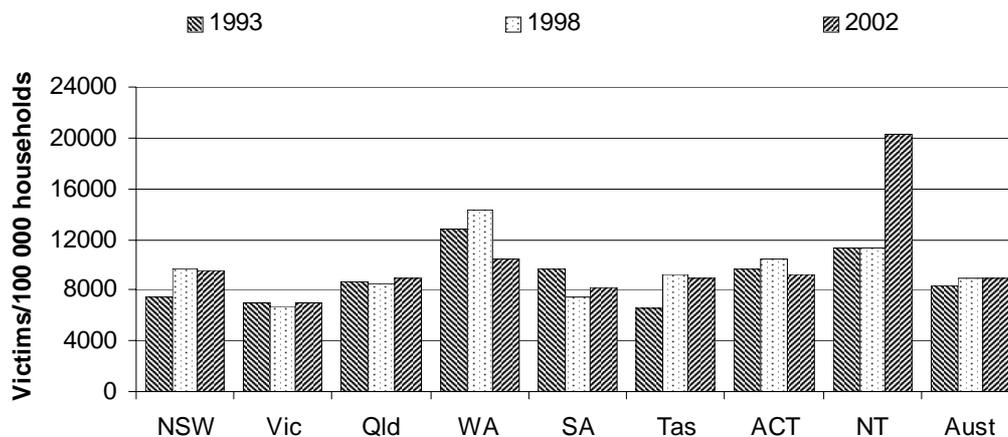


^a Data report only the prevalence of crime, not the incidence. A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one of the offences surveyed. Victims were counted once only for each type of offence, regardless of the number of incidents of that type. ^b Includes robbery, assault and sexual assault.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.52.

There were 8900 household victims of crime per 100 000 households in Australia in 2002, down from 9000 in 1998, when the previous survey was held (table 5A.53). Across jurisdictions, the rate ranged from 20 300 per 100 000 households in the NT to 7000 per 100 000 households in Victoria. When compared with the previous survey, the rate declined in all jurisdictions except Victoria, Queensland, SA and the NT (figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 Estimated household victims of crime^{a, b}



^a Data report only the prevalence of crime, not the incidence. A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one of the offences surveyed. Victims were counted once only for each type of offence, regardless of the number of incidents of that type. ^b Includes break-in, attempted break-in and motor vehicle theft.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.52.

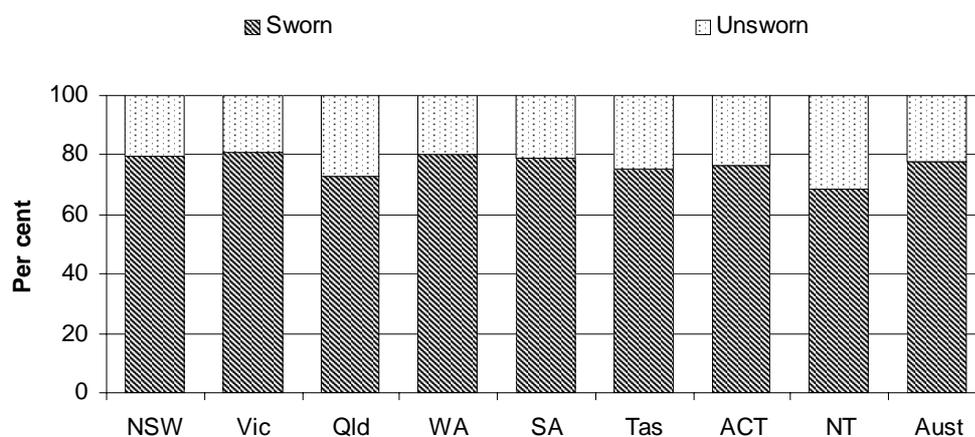
Staffing

Most people directly involved in delivering police services are sworn police officers. These officers exercise police powers, including the power to arrest, summons, caution, detain, fingerprint and search. A trend has developed in recent years to increase the participation of unsworn officers (or contracted external providers) in some activities. ‘Civilianisation’ of police services has three key objectives:

- to reduce costs
- to more effectively manage the increasing need for specialist skills
- to reduce the involvement of sworn staff in duties that do not require police powers (for example, administrative work, investigation support and intelligence analysis).

Total police staffing in Australia was 57 626 (or 289 staff per 100 000 people) in 2003-04 (table 5A.16). Nationally, staffing comprised 226 sworn police officers and 64 unsworn employees per 100 000 people in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, total staffing ranged from 624 staff per 100 000 people in the NT to 251 per 100 000 in the ACT. Between 1999-2000 and 2003-04, the number of police staff increased overall in all jurisdictions. Over the five year period, the national level of sworn police staff rose by 12 staff members per 100 000 people, and the number of unsworn staff rose by 18 per 100 000 (table 5A.16). In 2003-04, the proportion of total sworn staff was 78.0 per cent nationally, ranging across jurisdictions from 80.7 per cent in Victoria to 68.3 per cent in the NT (figure 5.8).

Figure 5.8 Police staff by, sworn/unsworn status, 2003-04^{a, b, c}



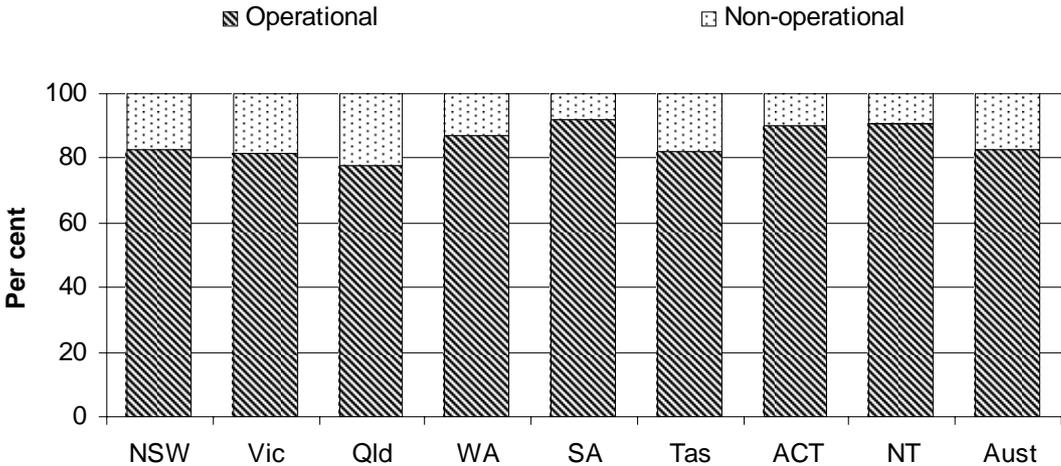
^a Comprises all full time equivalent (FTE) staff. ^b NSW data for 2003-04 are based on a head count at 30 June 2004 and are not FTE data. ^c For the NT, sworn police officers include police auxiliaries and Aboriginal community police officers.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.16.

A non-operational staff member is any person who does not satisfy the operational staff criteria, including functional support staff such as finance staff and personnel services staff. Approximately 82.9 per cent of staff were operational in Australia in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 91.9 per cent in SA to 78.1 per cent in Queensland (figure 5.9). Care needs to be taken when interpreting these results within and across jurisdictions, because the data for earlier years may not be strictly comparable as a result of changes in definitions or methods used to compile the data.

Police staff can also be categorised according to their classification level. Nationally in 2003-04, the majority of police staff (75.1 per cent) were concentrated at the practitioner level (comprising sworn staff from constable to senior constable, and their unsworn equivalents). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 78.2 per cent in Tasmania to 70.1 per cent in Queensland (figure 5.10). Further details are contained in tables 5A.18–5A.22.

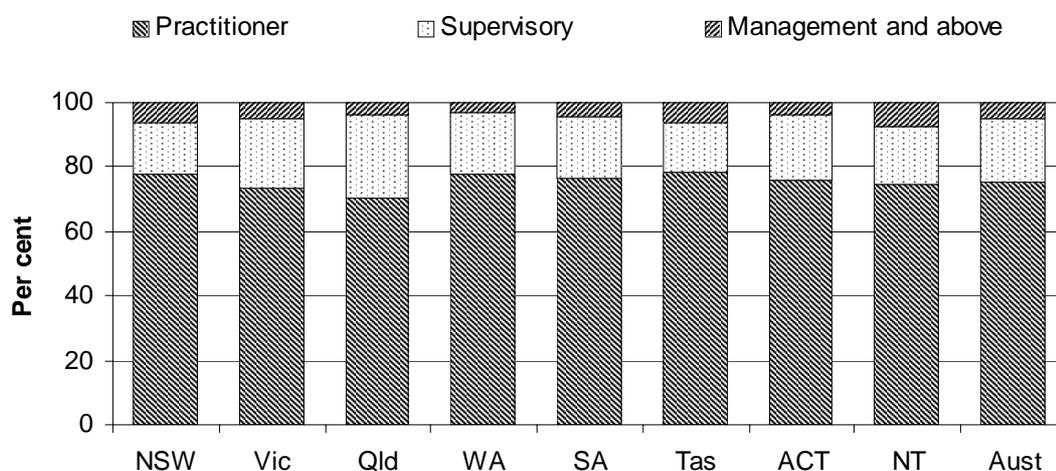
Figure 5.9 Police staff, by operational status, 2003-04^{a, b, c}



^a Comprises FTE staff. ^b NSW data for 2003-04 are based on a head count at 30 June 2004 and are not FTE data. ^c For the NT, sworn police officers include police auxiliaries and Aboriginal community police officers.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.17.

Figure 5.10 Police staff, by classification, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



^a Comprises FTE staff except for NSW, which uses a head count at 30 June 2004. ^b The practitioner category comprises civilian administration staff and sworn staff (from constable to senior constable). ^c The supervisory category comprises civilian team leaders and sworn staff (from sergeant to senior sergeant). ^d The management and above category comprises management level staff (civilian managers and sworn staff from inspectors to superintendents), executive level staff (civilian senior executive service and sworn staff from chief superintendent to assistant commissioner) and senior executive level staff (civilian top senior executive service and sworn staff, including commissioner, deputy commissioner and equivalent executives). ^e For WA, the data exclude recruits in training. ^f In the NT, small units and remote stations are staffed at sergeant level.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.22.

5.2 General approach to performance measurement for police services

Performance can be defined in terms of how well a service meets its objectives, given its operating environment. Performance indicators need to focus on outcomes and/or outputs aimed at meeting common, agreed objectives. The Review identified four objectives (and associated SDAs) for the purposes of this Report (box 5.2). The individual outputs/programs that are linked to the SDAs are contained in table 5A.10. For some jurisdictions, one output/program may be relevant for more than one SDA, so those jurisdictions may choose to disaggregate that output/program according to the data relevant to each SDA.

Box 5.2 Objectives for police services

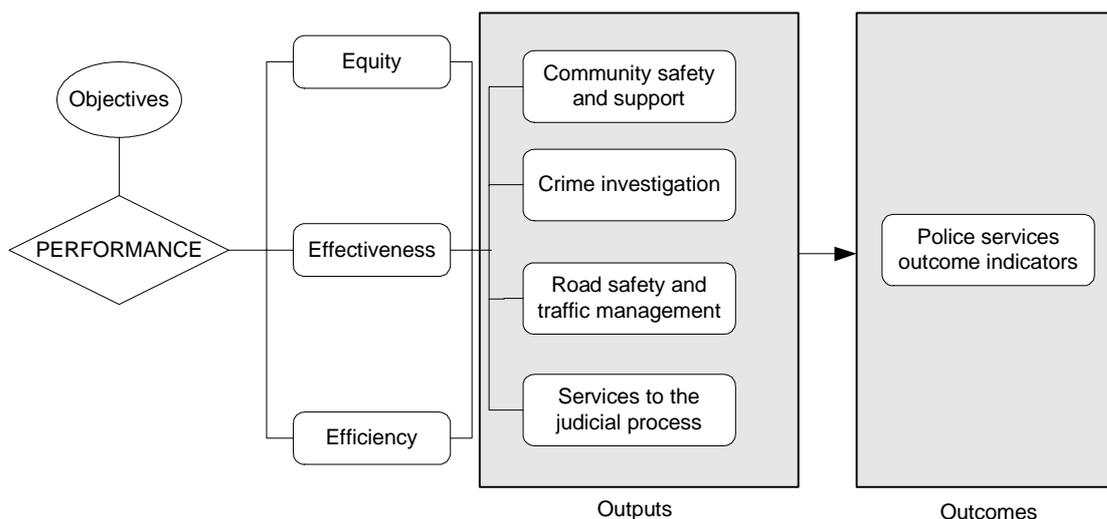
The key objectives for police services (and associated SDAs) are:

- to allow people to undertake their lawful pursuits confidently and safely (through activities associated with *community safety and support*)
- to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence (through activities associated with *crime investigation*)
- to promote safer behaviour on roads (through activities associated with *road safety and traffic management*)
- to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management and judicial processing, while providing safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensuring fair and equitable treatment of both victims and alleged offenders (through activities associated with *services to the judicial process*).

These objectives are to be met through the provision of services in an equitable and efficient manner.

A new framework was implemented (figure 5.11) in the 2005 Report consistent with the new Review framework (see chapter 1). The reported results need to be considered in conjunction with the data on demographic and geographic differences (see appendix A) and with other available information on jurisdiction-specific characteristics.

Figure 5.11 General performance framework for the police services sector



National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing

The 2005 Report uses data from the NSCSP, which collects information on community perceptions of police in terms of services provided and personal experiences of contact with the police. It also elicits public perceptions of personal safety and problems in the community and local area.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting any survey data. The statistical reliability of survey data is highly dependent on the key elements of the survey method, including the survey instrument, the collection method and the sample size and design. Attitudinal data, in particular, may be influenced in the short term by rare, but significantly adverse or highly publicised events (such as a mass murder or a police corruption incident). Point-in-time responses may thus vary from people's true underlying (or longer term) satisfaction with police and perceptions of safety and crime levels.

Direct comparison of 2001-02 data with later survey data needs to recognise that:

- the 2001-02 survey data are based on a sample with a minimum age of 18 years, whereas later survey data are based on a sample with a minimum age of 15 years
- the 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

5.3 Indicators relevant to all service delivery areas

The four SDAs in the performance indicator framework identify the core areas of police work. Within this context, certain indicators of police performance are not specific to any one particular SDA, but are relevant for all. These indicators include 'satisfaction with police services', 'perceptions of police integrity', 'complaints', 'Indigenous staffing' and 'police staff by gender' and access and equity considerations. This section provides information from the NSCSP and the State and Territory governments on these overarching indicators of police performance.

Satisfaction with police services

Client satisfaction is a widely accepted measure of service quality (box 5.3).

Box 5.3 Satisfaction with police services

'Satisfaction with police services' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective for police to perform their duties in a professional manner.

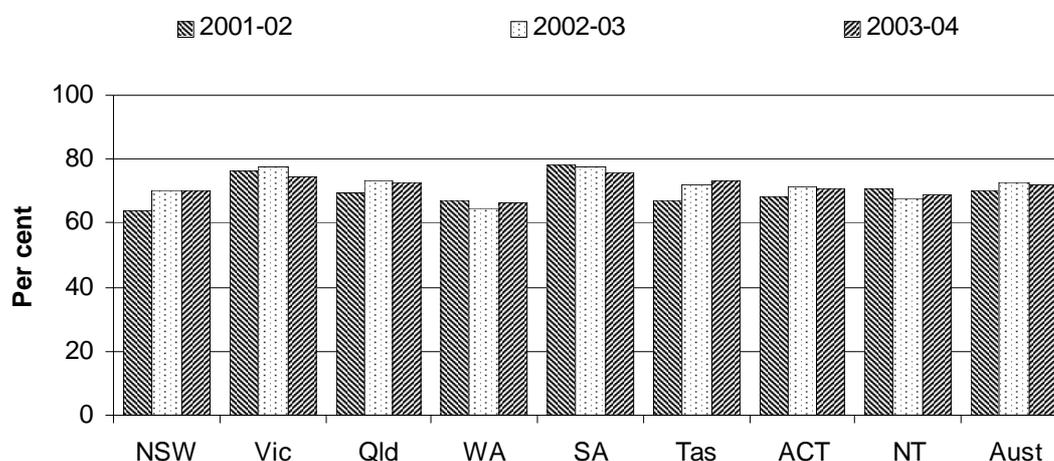
The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with police services.

A higher proportion of people who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' is more desirable.

Public perceptions may not reflect actual levels of police performance, however, because many factors — including individual experiences, hearsay and media reporting — may influence people's satisfaction with police services.

Nationally, the majority of people surveyed (71.8 per cent) were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the services provided by police in 2003-04 (down from 72.7 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion varied from 75.7 per cent in SA to 66.2 per cent in WA. Satisfaction levels increased in NSW, WA, Tasmania and the NT over the past 12 months, and declined in every other jurisdiction (figure 5.12).

Figure 5.12 People who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with police services^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.23.

The Likert Summation Index (LSI) — which provides a statistical measure of centrality for assessing the general (or 'average') level of community perceptions — is also useful for comparative purposes. The method and limitations of the LSI are discussed in box 5.4. An LSI of 5.00 would indicate that all respondents were 'very

satisfied', while an LSI of 1.00 would indicate that all respondents were 'very dissatisfied'. An LSI of 3.86 indicates that respondents were 'satisfied' on average.

Across Australia, the LSI for the responses to the question 'how satisfied are you in general with the services provided by the police?' was 3.86 in 2003-04 (down from 3.90 in 2002-03) on a scale of 1.00 to 5.00 (table 5A.23). Across jurisdictions, the LSI in 2003-04 varied from 3.93 in SA to 3.73 in WA (figure 5.13).

Box 5.4 Likert Summation Index

The LSI is a method for aggregating responses to obtain one measure of the general (or 'average') perceptions of respondents to Likert-type survey questions.

Example — General satisfaction with police services

On the following scale, how satisfied are you with services provided by the police?

Very satisfied = 5; Satisfied = 4; Neither = 3; Dissatisfied = 2; Very dissatisfied = 1

The responses are summarised below:

Category	Weight (A)	Responses	
		Actual (B)	Weighted (A×B)
Very Satisfied	5	950	4 750
Satisfied	4	2 500	10 000
Neither	3	1 250	3 750
Dissatisfied	2	400	800
Very Dissatisfied	1	250	250
Total		5 350	19 550

Each response category is allocated a weight between 1 and 5 (A). The actual responses (B) are multiplied by this weight to provide weighted responses (A×B). For example, five times 950 equals 4750. The sum of the weighted responses is divided by the sum of the actual responses:

$$L = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i R_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n R_i} = \frac{(5 \times 950) + (4 \times 2500) + (3 \times 1250) + (2 \times 400) + (1 \times 250)}{950 + 2500 + 1250 + 400 + 250} = \frac{19\,550}{5\,350} = 3.65$$

where: L = Likert Summation Index
 R_i = the responses for answer category i
 w_i = the score for answer category i
n = the number of response categories

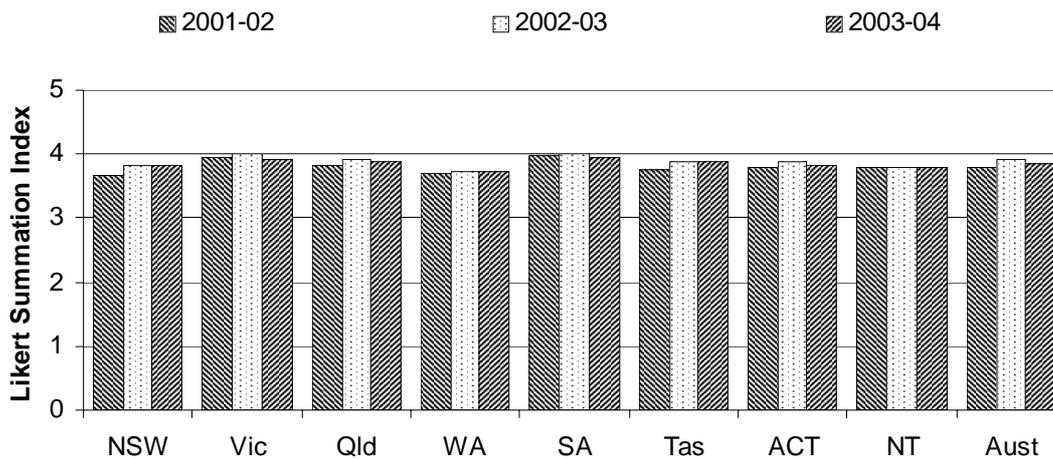
(Continued on next page)

Box 5.4 (Continued)

Care needs to be taken in interpreting the LSI because although it provides a useful tool for making inferences about aggregate population attitudes/perceptions, it is based on a number of simplifying assumptions. Likert scale questions such as that used in the above example provide ordinal data. The LSI method assumes that the underlying data are inherently 'interval' in nature. This assumption — which is not universally accepted in the literature — is closely linked to the design and implementation of the survey instrument.

Further, the LSI is a measure of centrality and does not explicitly highlight outliers — for example, those very dissatisfied with police services — who may be an important focus of police policy. For these reasons, the LSI should be interpreted in conjunction with related frequency data.

Figure 5.13 General satisfaction with police services^{a, b}

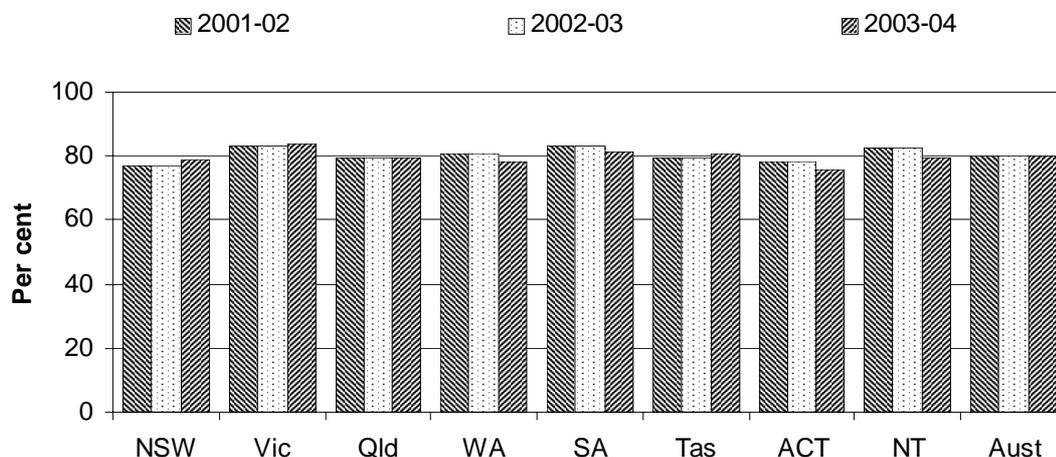


^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.23.

Nationally, of those respondents who had contact with police in 2003-04, 80.4 per cent were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the service they received during their most recent contact (down from 81.5 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 83.7 per cent in Victoria to 76.0 per cent in the ACT (figure 5.14).

Figure 5.14 People who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with police in their most recent contact^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

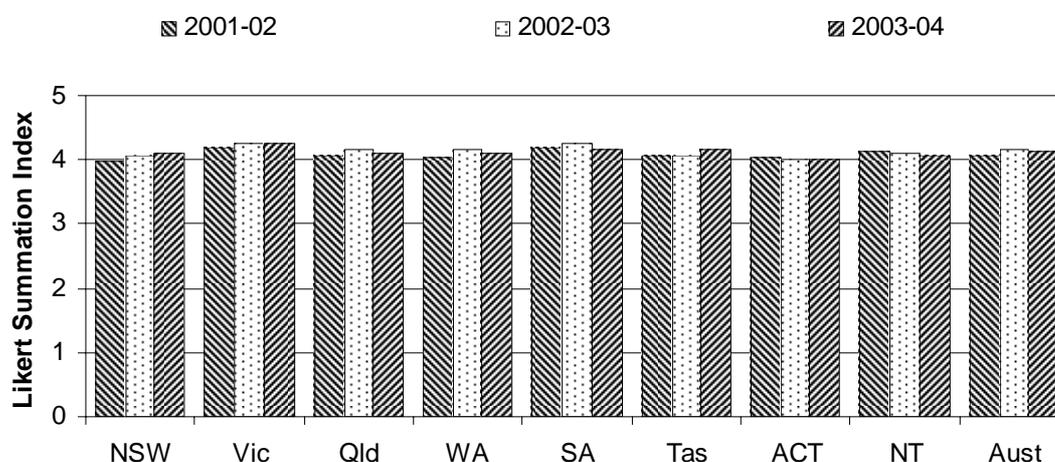
Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.29.

The national LSI in 2003-04 for the responses to the question 'how satisfied were you with the service you received during your most recent contact with police?' was 4.14 on a scale of 1.00 to 5.00 (down from 4.16 in 2002-03) (table 5A.29). An LSI of 4.14 indicates that respondents were 'satisfied' on average. Across jurisdictions, the LSI varied from 4.25 in Victoria to 4.00 in the ACT (figure 5.15).

Nationally, the most common reasons in 2003-04 for satisfaction with people's most recent police contact (table 5A.30) were that police:

- 'were prompt', 'handled the matter well', 'took appropriate action' and 'were efficient' (38.2 per cent of people who were satisfied with their most recent contact)
- 'were approachable/friendly', 'were helpful' and 'were courteous' (31.6 per cent of people who were satisfied with their most recent contact)
- 'were professional/fair' (13.0 per cent of people who were satisfied with their most recent contact).

Figure 5.15 **General satisfaction with police in most recent contact^{a, b}**



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.29.

Nationally, the most common reasons in 2003-04 for dissatisfaction with people's most recent police contact (table 5A.30) were that police:

- 'took no action', 'did not keep the respondent informed', 'made a false accusation', 'communicated poorly' or 'showed no interest' (35.8 per cent of people who were dissatisfied with their most recent contact)
- 'left respondent waiting', 'were unfriendly/impolite' or 'were unhelpful' (22.6 per cent of people who were dissatisfied with their most recent contact)
- 'were unprofessional/unfair' (9.7 per cent of people who were dissatisfied with their most recent contact).

Perceptions of police integrity

Public 'perceptions of police integrity' provide a valuable measure of police professionalism (box 5.5).

Nationally in 2003-04, 65.6 per cent of people 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police treat people 'fairly and equally' (down from 67.8 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 69.9 per cent in SA to 61.6 per cent in WA. Compared with 2002-03, the proportion fell in all jurisdictions except WA, which recorded a slight increase (figure 5.16).

Box 5.5 Perceptions of police integrity

'Perceptions of police integrity' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective for police to perform their duties with integrity and professionalism.

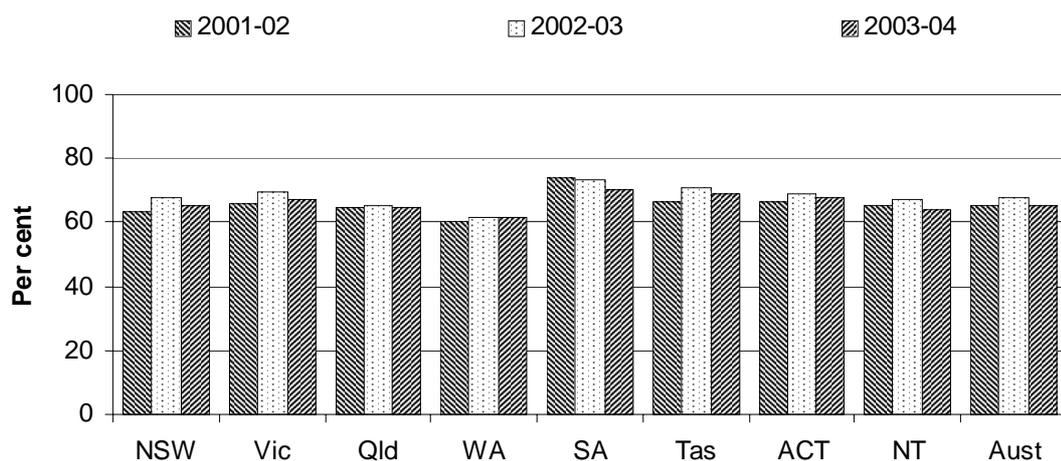
Three measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police treat people fairly and equally
- the proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police perform the job professionally
- the proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that most police are honest.

A higher proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police treat people fairly and equally is more desirable. Similarly, a higher proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police perform the job professionally, and a higher proportion of people who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that most police are honest, is also more desirable.

Public perceptions may not reflect actual levels of police integrity, however, because many factors — including individual experiences, hearsay and media reporting — may influence people's perceptions of police integrity.

Figure 5.16 People who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police treat people fairly and equally^{a, b}

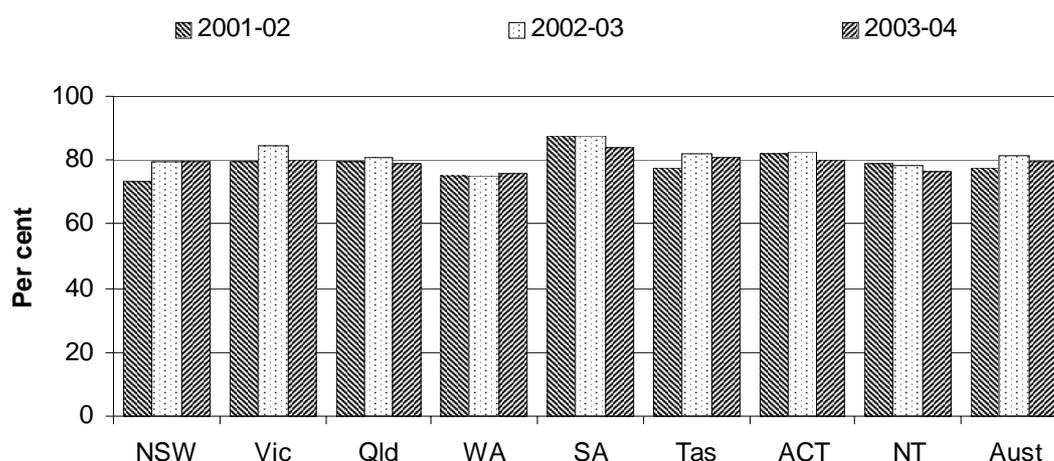


^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.32.

Nationally, 79.4 per cent of people ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ in 2003-04 that police perform the job ‘professionally’ (down from 81.2 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 83.9 per cent in SA to 75.5 per cent in WA. Compared with 2002-03, the proportion fell in all jurisdictions except WA, which recorded a slight increase (figure 5.17).

Figure 5.17 **People who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police perform the job professionally^{a, b}**

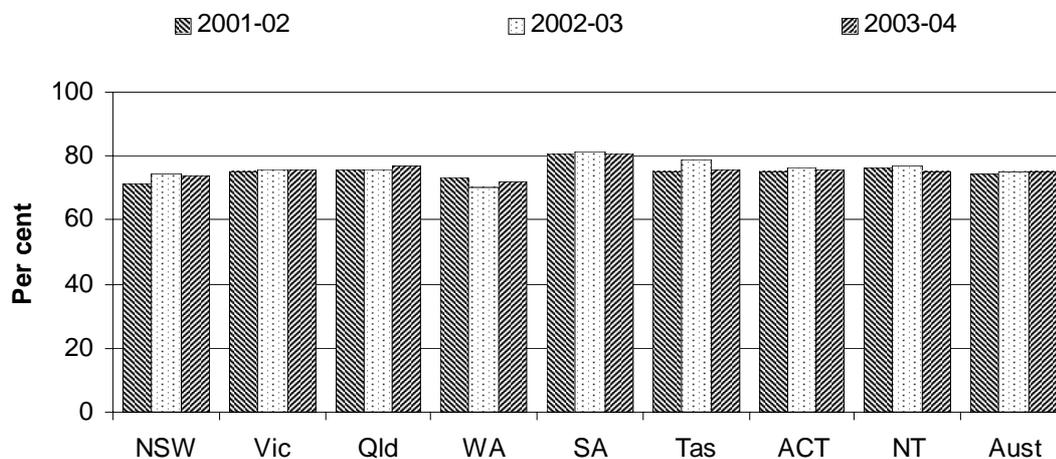


^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.31.

Police integrity is another important measure of police services’ performance. This can be judged to some extent by the public perception of police honesty. Nationally, 75.4 per cent of people ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ in 2003-04 that most police are ‘honest’ (unchanged from 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 81.0 per cent in SA to 72.0 per cent in WA. Compared with 2002-03, the proportion fell in all jurisdictions except Queensland and WA, which recorded increases, and Victoria, which showed no change (figure 5.18).

Figure 5.18 **People who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that most police are honest^{a, b}**



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.33.

Complaints

Police services across Australia continue to encourage and foster a code of customer service that provides for openness and accountability. Complaints made against police increasingly reflect a range of issues relating to service delivery (box 5.6). Complaints of a more serious nature are also overseen by the relevant external review bodies, such as the ombudsman, the director of public prosecutions or integrity boards in each jurisdiction.

Box 5.6 **Complaints**

‘Complaints’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective for police to perform their duties in a professional manner.

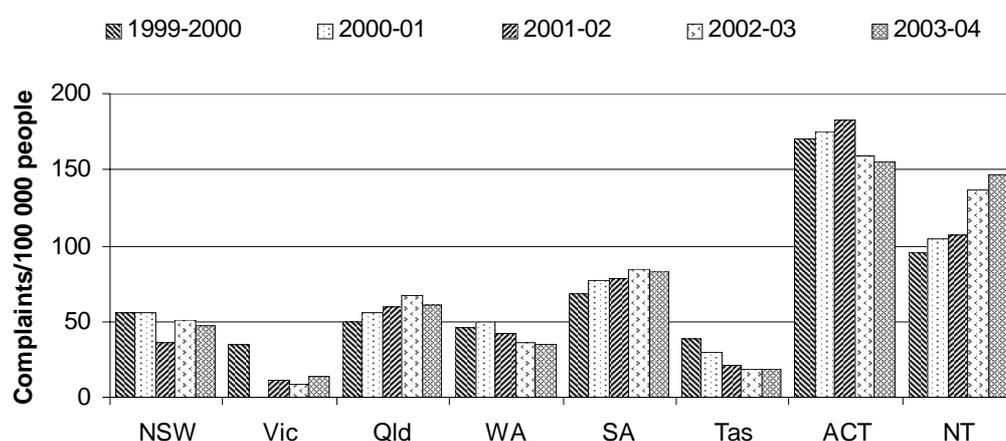
This indicator is defined as the number of complaints per 100 000 people.

A lower rate for complaints is generally more desirable. However, the rate at which complaints are made may also be influenced by the public’s familiarity and confidence with the complaint systems in place, and the effectiveness of the complaints system. This indicator does not provide information on whether complaints made against police were upheld on further investigation.

Complaints data are not comparable across jurisdictions, as a result of different counting rules. Victorian, ACT and NT data, for example, include verbal complaints, which are not counted in other jurisdictions. Complaints data presented in figures 5.19 and 5.20 provide a picture of trends over time for each jurisdiction.

Although there were fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, the number of complaints against the police per 100 000 people was on a general downward trend in NSW, Victoria, WA, Tasmania and the ACT over the period 1999-2000 to 2003-04. Queensland, SA and the NT experienced a rise in complaints per 100 000 people over the five years (figure 5.19).

Figure 5.19 **Complaints per 100 000 people^{a, b, c, d}**

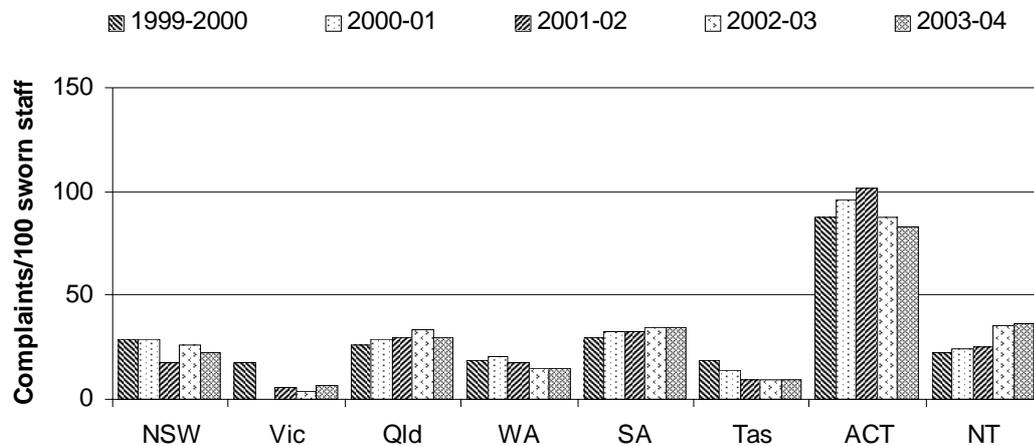


^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. Data can be used only to view trends over time within jurisdictions. ^b Data include verbal complaints in the NT and the ACT. ^c For NSW, a new complaints management system (ca@ts.i) was implemented in 2001-02; figures for 2001-02 include only matters entered into the former Complaints Information System so are incomplete. ^d For WA, complaints data refer to the number of statements of complaints by members of the public regarding police conduct when a person was in police custody or had a voluntary dealing with the police.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.35.

Another way of interpreting the complaints data is to consider the number of complaints per 100 sworn police officers in each jurisdiction (figure 5.20). The general trends within jurisdictions over the period 1999-2000 to 2003-04 are broadly similar to those discussed in complaints per 100 000 people.

Figure 5.20 Complaints per 100 sworn police staff^{a, b, c, d}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. Data can be used only to view trends over time within jurisdictions. ^b Data include verbal complaints in the NT and the ACT. ^c For NSW, a new complaints management system (ca@ts.i) was implemented in 2001-02; figures for 2001-02 include only matters entered into the former Complaints Information System so are incomplete. ^d For WA, complaints data refer to the number of statements of complaints by members of the public regarding police conduct when a person was in police custody or had a voluntary dealing with the police.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.35.

Access and equity — Indigenous staffing

This section focuses on the performance of mainstream services in relation to Indigenous Australians. One indicator of access and equity is ‘Indigenous staffing’ — that is, the proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds relative to the proportion of the general population who are from Indigenous backgrounds (box 5.7).

Box 5.7 Indigenous staffing

‘Indigenous staffing’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to provide police services in an equitable manner. Indigenous people may feel more comfortable in ‘accessing’ police services when they are able to deal with Indigenous police staff.

(Continued on next page)

Box 5.7 (Continued)

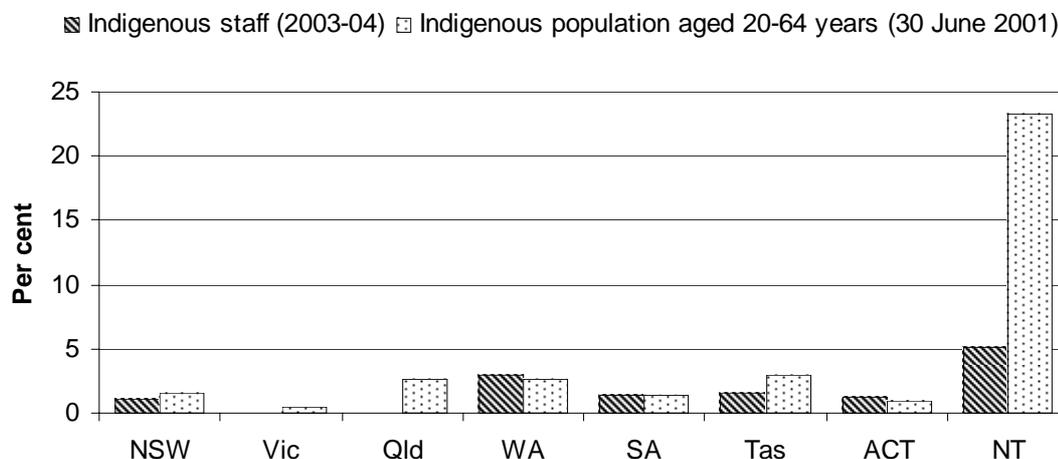
The indicator is defined as the proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds compared to the proportion of the general population aged 20–64 years who are from Indigenous backgrounds. These data are used because a significantly larger proportion of the Indigenous population falls within the younger non-working age groupings compared with the non-Indigenous population. Readily available ABS population estimates for people aged 20–64 years in 30 June 2001 provide a proxy for the estimated working population.

A proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds closer to the proportion of the general population aged 20–64 years who are from Indigenous backgrounds represents a more desirable equity outcome.

In some jurisdictions, the process of identifying Indigenous staff members relies on self-identification. Where Indigenous people are required to identify themselves, then the accuracy of the data will partly depend on how they perceive the advantages (or disadvantages) of identification and whether these perceptions change over time. More generally, many factors will influence the willingness of the Indigenous population to access police services, including familiarity with procedures for dealing with police, and confidence in the effectiveness of police services. For the purposes of this chapter, an Indigenous person is one who self-identifies as being Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander.

Of the jurisdictions that provided data in 2003-04, the NT had the highest proportion of Indigenous police staff (5.2 per cent), while Victoria had the lowest proportion (0.1 per cent) (table 5A.36). In most jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous police staff was broadly in line with the representation of Indigenous people in the population aged 20–64 years. The exception was the NT, where the representation of Indigenous people in police staff was significantly lower than their representation in the general population aged 20–64 years (23.2 per cent) (figure 5.21).

Figure 5.21 **Proportion of Indigenous staff (sworn and unsworn) and Indigenous population aged 20–64 years^{a, b, c}**



^a Indigenous staff numbers relate to those staff who self-identify as being of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander descent. ^b Information on Indigenous status is collected only at the time of recruitment. ^c Queensland was unable to separate Indigenous and non-Indigenous staff.

Source: ABS, Cat. no. 3201.0, (unpublished); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.36.

Access and equity — staffing by gender

Another measure of access and equity is the level of (sworn and unsworn) ‘police staff by gender’ (box 5.8). Nationally, 29.5 per cent of police staff were female in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 33.6 per cent in NSW to 21.4 per cent in WA (figure 5.22). Nationally, the proportion of female police staff increased by 3.6 per cent from 1999-2000 to 2003-04 (from 25.9 per cent to 29.5 per cent of staff).

The proportion of female police staff in all jurisdictions increased over this period. The greatest increase occurred in the ACT (from 24.2 per cent to 31.6 per cent of staff), while the smallest increase was in Tasmania (from 29.6 per cent to 29.9 per cent of staff) (table 5A.37). The change in the ACT needs to be viewed with care, given the introduction of a revised method of collecting data that better identifies those personnel within the AFP involved in providing enabling services (overheads/support services) to ACT policing.

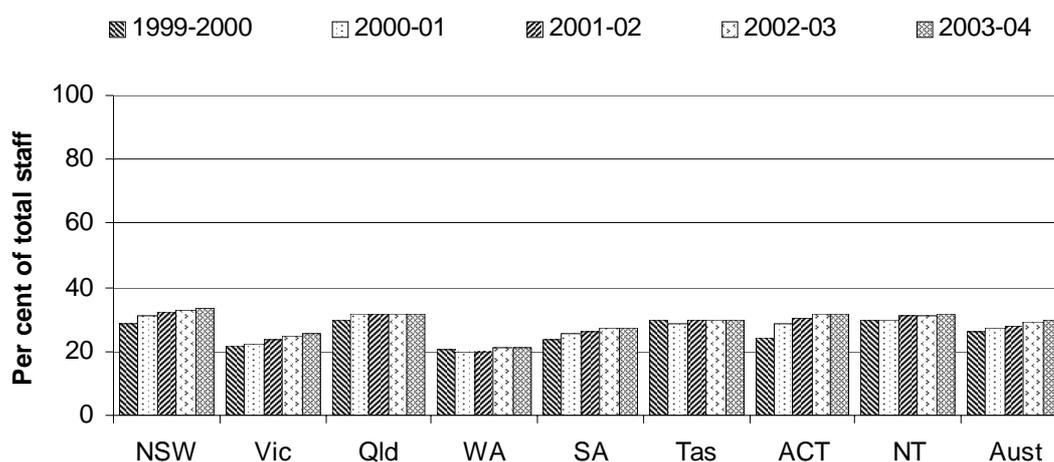
Box 5.8 Access — staffing by gender

'Police staffing by gender' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to provide police services in an equitable manner. Women may feel more comfortable in 'accessing' police services in certain situations when they are able to deal with female police staff.

The indicator is defined as the number of female police staff (sworn and unsworn) divided by the total number of police staff.

A proportion of female police staff commensurate with the proportion of females in the general population is generally more desirable.

Figure 5.22 Female police staff (sworn and unsworn)^{a, b, c, d}



^a Comprises FTE staff. ^b For NSW, data from 2000-01 are based on a head count at 30 June. ^c For WA, data exclude recruits in training. ^d In 2000-01, as a result of a comprehensive review of enabling costs (overhead/support service costs) applicable to ACT policing, the formula previously applied to the calculation of staffing and expenditure data was significantly revised. This methodological shift means that data relating to staffing from 2000-01 are not directly comparable to data before to 2000-01.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.37.

5.4 Community safety and support

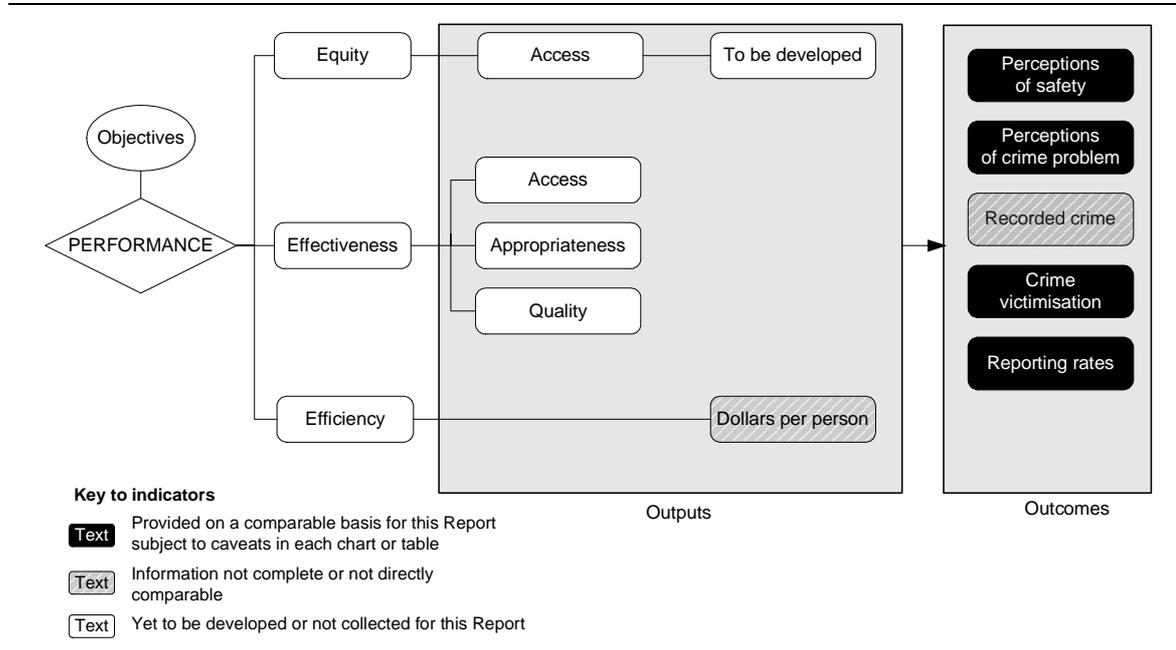
This SDA captures the role of police in preserving public order and promoting a safer community through a range of activities, including:

- responding to calls for assistance
- responding to, managing and coordinating major incidents and emergencies
- undertaking crime prevention activities and community support programs.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that incorporates information on recorded crime levels and community perceptions data. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable across jurisdictions in the 2005 Report (figure 5.23). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.23 Performance indicators for community safety and support



Key community safety and support performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified access to community safety and support as a key area for development in future reports (box 5.9).

Box 5.9 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for community safety and support services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is included as an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering community safety and support services (box 5.10).

Box 5.10 Dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with community safety and support in an efficient and effective manner.

The indicator is defined as police services' expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on community safety and support per person.

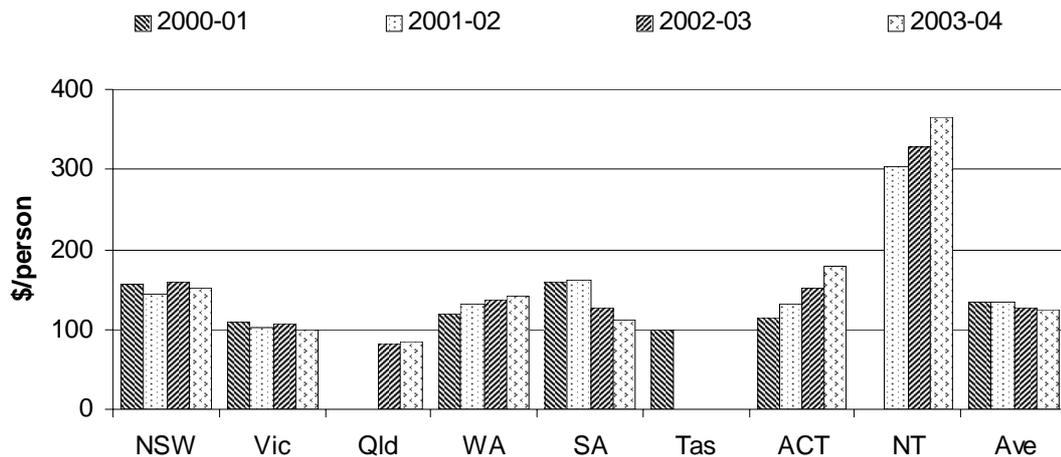
Lower expenditure per person generally represents a more desirable efficiency outcome, but, efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high expenditure per person may reflect less desirable efficiency outcomes, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as more effective policing or more challenging crime and safety situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect more desirable efficiency outcomes or worse quality (less effective policing) or less challenging crime and safety situations. Efficiency indicators thus need to be always interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Tasmania did not provide expenditure data by SDA for 2003-04. Nationally, on average for the jurisdictions that could provide data, expenditure on community safety and support was \$123 per person. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$365 per person in the NT to \$84 per person in Queensland (figure 5.24). Expenditure on community safety and support made up about half of all police expenditure nationally (46.3 per cent). As a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, it ranged from 65.8 per cent in the ACT to 33.8 per cent in Queensland (table 5A.15).

While comparisons can be made with the previous year's data, care needs to be taken, because the methods employed have changed. For those jurisdictions that provided data, the largest increase in real expenditure over the year occurred in the NT, where real expenditure on community safety and support rose by \$37 per person (from \$329 to \$365) (table 5A.54). The largest decrease in real expenditure

over the year occurred in Victoria, where real expenditure fell by \$8 per person (from \$107 to \$99). Nationally, real expenditure on community safety and support fell by \$5 per person over the past year (from \$128 to \$123) (table 5A.54).

Figure 5.24 **Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on community safety and support (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}**



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b For SA, the decrease in 2003-04 mainly reflects the outcomes of activity surveys conducted in 2004, which resulted in a shift in resources from community safety and support to crime investigation.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.54.

Outcomes

Perceptions of safety

An important objective of police services is to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe in public and private (box 5.11).

Box 5.11 Perceptions of safety

'Perceptions of safety' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe (within themselves and regarding their property) in public and private.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who felt 'safe or very safe' at home
- the proportion of people who felt 'safe or very safe' in public places.

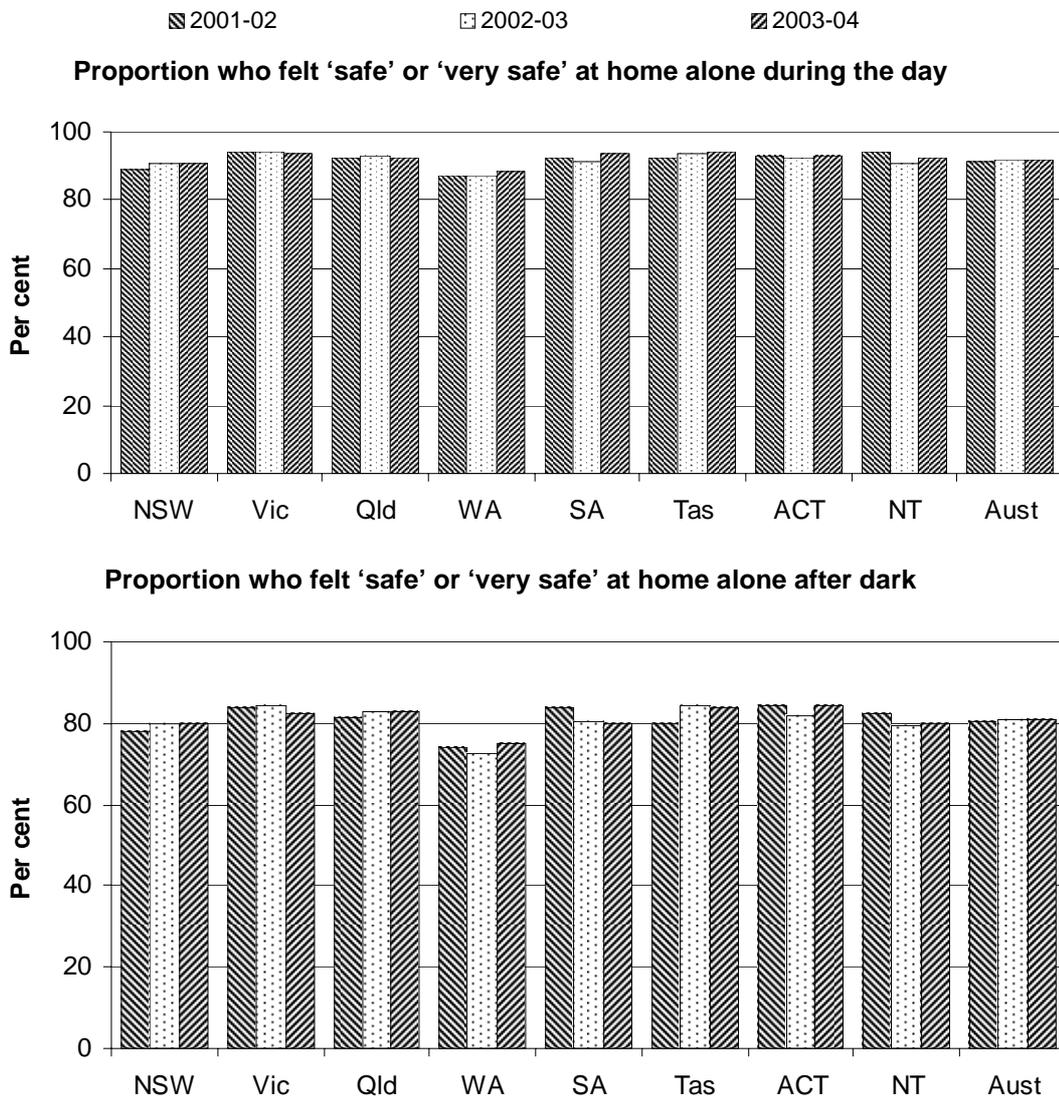
A higher proportion of people who felt 'safe' or 'very safe' for either indicator is a more desirable outcome.

Perceptions of safety may not reflect reported crime, however, for a number of reasons: reported crime may understate actual crime, under-reporting may vary across jurisdictions, and many factors (including media reporting and hearsay) may affect public perceptions of crime levels and safety.

Nationally, 91.9 per cent of people surveyed felt 'safe' or 'very safe' at home alone during the day in 2003-04 (up from 91.8 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 94.2 per cent in Tasmania to 88.2 per cent in WA. Nationally, 80.7 per cent of people felt 'safe' or 'very safe' at home alone after dark in 2002-03 (down from 81.0 per cent in 2002-03). This proportion ranged from 84.3 per cent in the ACT to 75.0 per cent in WA (figure 5.25).

Nationally, 40.4 per cent of people felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally after dark in 2003-04 (down from 41.5 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 45.0 per cent in Tasmania to 35.7 per cent in the NT (figure 5.26).

Figure 5.25 Perceptions of safety at home^{a, b}

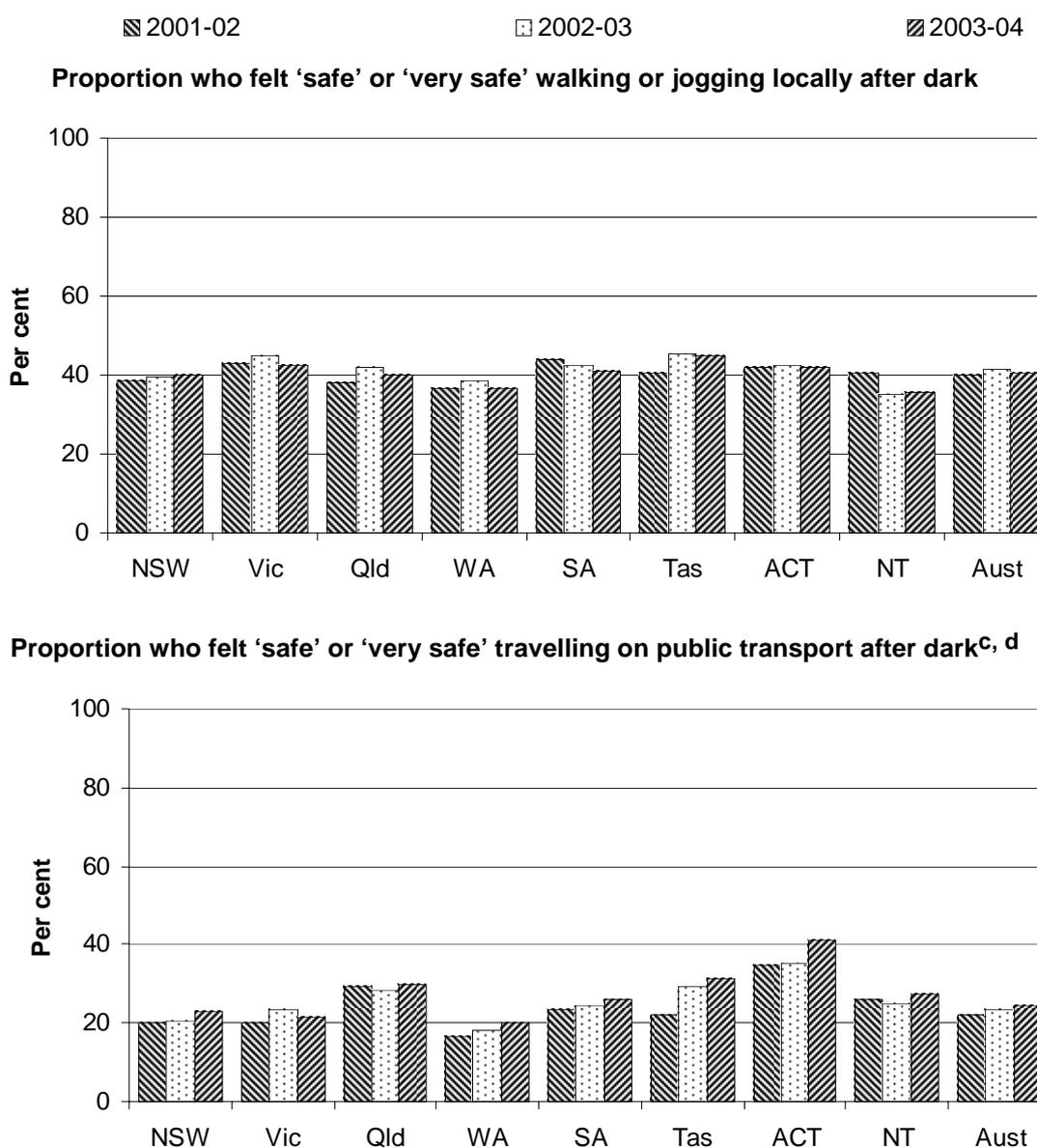


^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.38.

Nationally, 24.3 per cent of people surveyed felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when travelling on public transport after dark in 2003-04 (up from 23.3 per cent in 2002-03). This proportion ranged from 41.0 per cent in the ACT to 19.9 per cent in WA (figure 5.26). The results are influenced by the mix (that is, trains, buses, ferries and trams) of public transport in each jurisdiction. The ACT and the NT do not operate a suburban train network, however.

Figure 5.26 Perceptions of safety in public places ^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors. ^c For this survey question, the response 'not applicable' was very large and varied significantly across jurisdictions in line with the availability of public transport (tables 5A.39 and 5A.40). ^d Unlike other jurisdictions, the ACT and the NT do not operate a suburban train network and rely on buses as the primary means of public transportation.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); tables 5A.39 and 5A.40.

Nationally, 87.9 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally during the day in 2003-04 (up from 87.2 per cent in 2002-03), and 66.1 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very safe' on public transport during the day (up from 63.8 per cent in 2002-03). A jurisdiction breakdown of these results is presented in tables 5A.39 and 5A.40.

Perceptions of crime problem

'Perceptions of crime problem' is another indicator of how safe the members of the community feel in public and private (box 5.12).

Box 5.12 Perceptions of crime problem

'Perceptions of crime problem' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe (within themselves and regarding their property) in public and private.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who considered that various types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their State or Territory, and
- the proportion of people who considered that various types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area.

For both indicators, a lower proportion of people who felt the selected types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat a problem' is a more desirable outcome.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting data on perceptions of crime, however, because reducing people's concerns about crime and reducing the actual level of crime are two separate, but related challenges for police. Comparisons between perceptions of crime problems and the level of crime raise questions about the factors that affect perceptions. More generally, such comparisons highlight the importance of considering the full suite of performance indicators rather than assessing performance on the basis of specific measures in isolation.

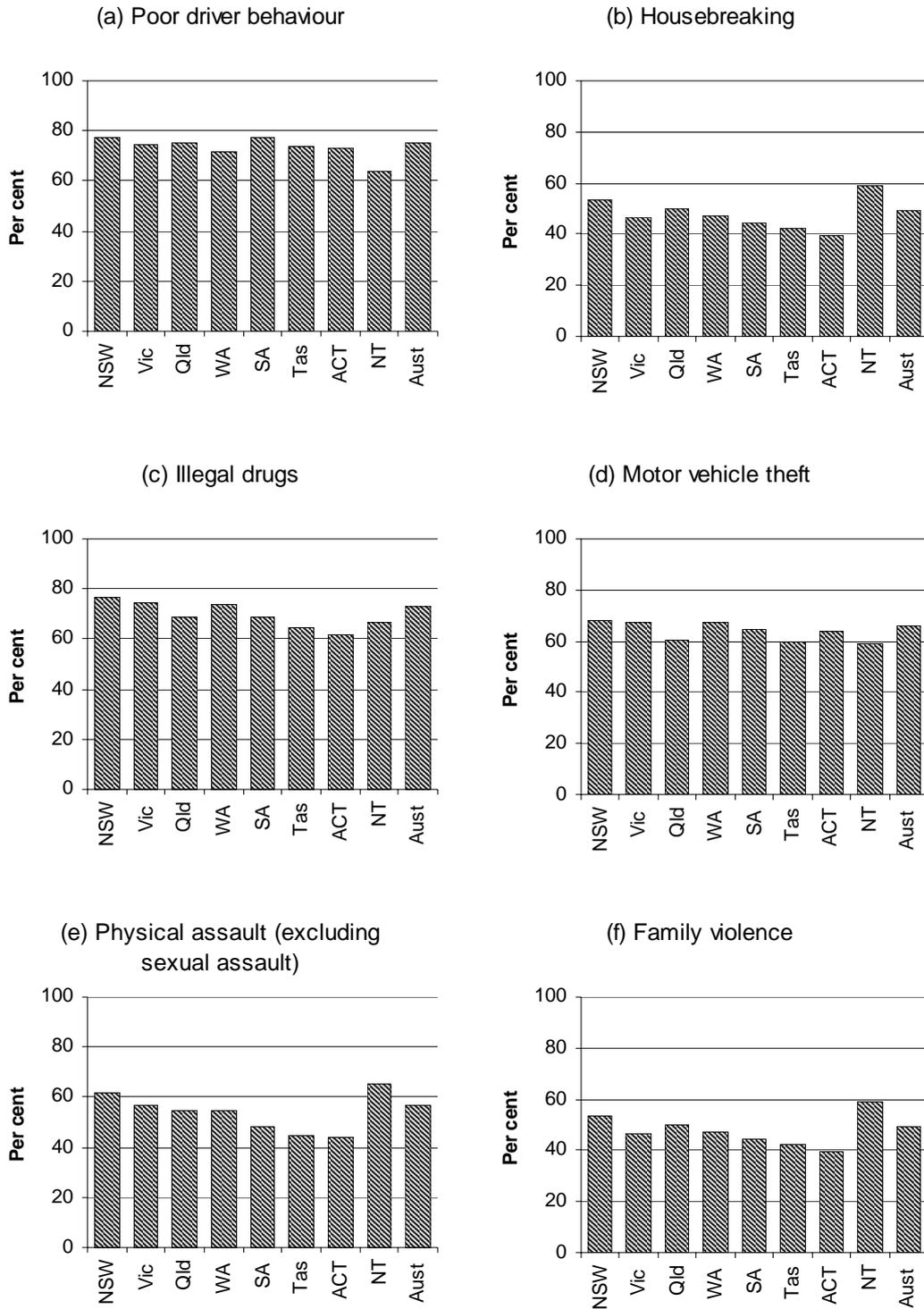
Nationally, when people were asked in 2003-04 about crime problems in their State or Territory, the proportion of people who perceived a particular crime as a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' was: 92.8 per cent for housebreaking; 92.4 per cent for illegal drugs; 90.4 per cent for vehicle theft; 88.9 per cent for physical assault; 88.4 per cent for poor driver behaviour (speeding cars, dangerous or noisy driving); 85.5 per cent for graffiti and other vandalism; 85.2 per cent for louts and gangs; 84.9 per cent for sexual assault; 81.9 per cent for drunken and disorderly behaviour and 81.3 per cent for family violence. When compared with 2002-03, national perceptions of crime as a problem increased in all categories (tables 5A.44–5A.46).

When people were asked about crime problems in their local area, they identified the following major areas of concern:

- *Poor driver behaviour* — nationally, 75.3 per cent of people believed poor driver behaviour to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (unchanged from 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 77.6 per cent in SA to 63.7 per cent in the NT (figure 5.27a).
- *Housebreaking* — nationally, 74.0 per cent of people believed housebreaking to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (up from 73.8 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 79.6 per cent in WA to 67.4 per cent in Tasmania (figure 5.27b).
- *Illegal drugs* — nationally, 73.1 per cent of people believed illegal drugs to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (up from 71.7 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 76.6 per cent in NSW to 61.4 per cent in the ACT (figure 5.27c).
- *Motor vehicle theft* — nationally, 65.9 per cent of people believed motor vehicle theft to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (down from 66.9 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 68.0 per cent in NSW to 59.3 per cent in the NT (figure 5.27d).
- *Physical assault (excluding sexual assault)* — nationally, 56.5 per cent of people believed physical assault to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (similar to 54.4 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 65.1 per cent in the NT to 44.3 per cent in the ACT (figure 5.27e).
- *Family violence* — nationally, 49.2 per cent of people believed family violence to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2003-04 (up from 45.1 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 59.3 per cent in the NT to 39.6 per cent in the ACT (figure 5.27f).

Comparisons between perceptions of crime problems and the level of crime raise questions about the factors that affect perceptions. More generally, such comparisons highlight the importance of considering the full suite of performance indicators rather than assessing performance on the basis of specific measures in isolation. The NSCSP indicates that perceptions of crime fall as the respondent focuses on their local neighbourhood rather than the State or Territory in which they live.

Figure 5.27 Proportion of people who consider the identified issues to be either a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area, 2003-04



Source: ACPR (unpublished); tables 5A.41–5A.43.

Crime victimisation

As noted in section 5.1, two ABS collections are used as the source of the majority of crime victimisation data in this Report: the Crime and Safety Survey and the Recorded Crime collection.

The Crime and Safety Survey is used as the source of data on the level of crime victimisation in this Report (that is, the number of victims), because it is considered to provide data that are more comparable across jurisdictions than the Recorded Crime collection. The Recorded Crime collection, however, provides more timely data than the Survey, and thus is used as the source of data on trends in crime victimisation over time. Data on homicides are provided by the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC 2004).

Crime victimisation — crimes against the person

The prevalence and trends in personal crime in the community are important measures of the effectiveness of police services (box 5.13).

Nationally, there were 1.6 recorded victims of homicide per 100 000 people in 2002-03 (down from 2.0 in 2001-02). Across jurisdictions, the rate ranged from 8.6 per 100 000 people in the NT to 0.9 per 100 000 people in the ACT. Between 2001-02 and 2002-03, the homicide rate fell in all jurisdictions, except the ACT, where it increased slightly (figure 5.28).

Box 5.13 Crime victimisation — crimes against the person

'Crime victimisation' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to enforce the law and improve community safety.

Three measures are reported on the level of crime against the person:

- victims of homicide per 100 000 people
- estimated victims of assault per 100 000 people
- estimated victims of robbery per 100 000 people.

For each measure, a lower rate of crime victimisation is a more desirable outcome.

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Box 5.13 (Continued)

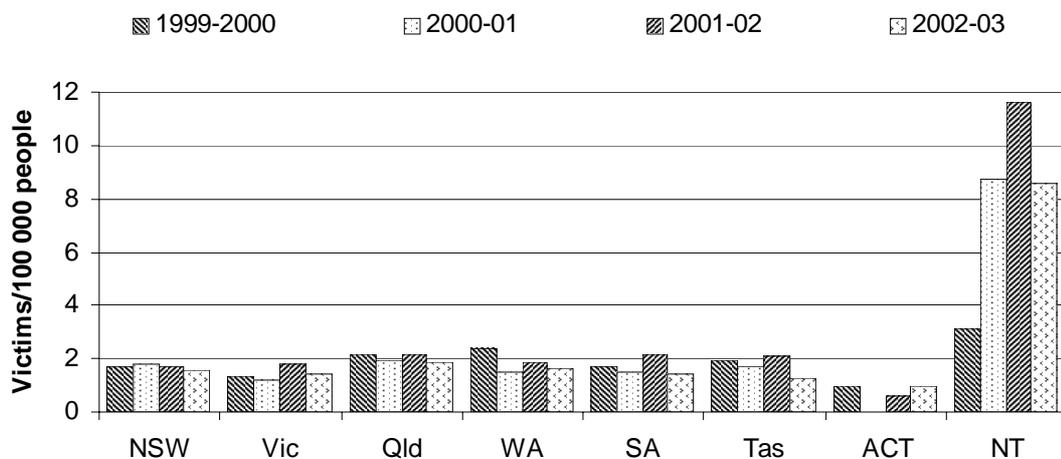
Data on trends in crime victimisation, based on the number of crimes reported to police, are presented in index form. Differences in the way in which crimes are recorded on jurisdiction's police administrative systems (due to legislation, recording systems and recording practices) mean that comparing the level of recorded crime across jurisdictions is problematic.

Two measures are reported on trends in crime against the person:

- victims of assault per 100 000 people (index 1999 = 100)
- victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people (index 1999 = 100).

For both measures, a fall in the index number is a more desirable outcome. The recorded number of victims may vary from the actual incidence of crimes against people for a number of reasons, however, including confidence in the judicial system as a whole.

Figure 5.28 Recorded victims of homicide^a

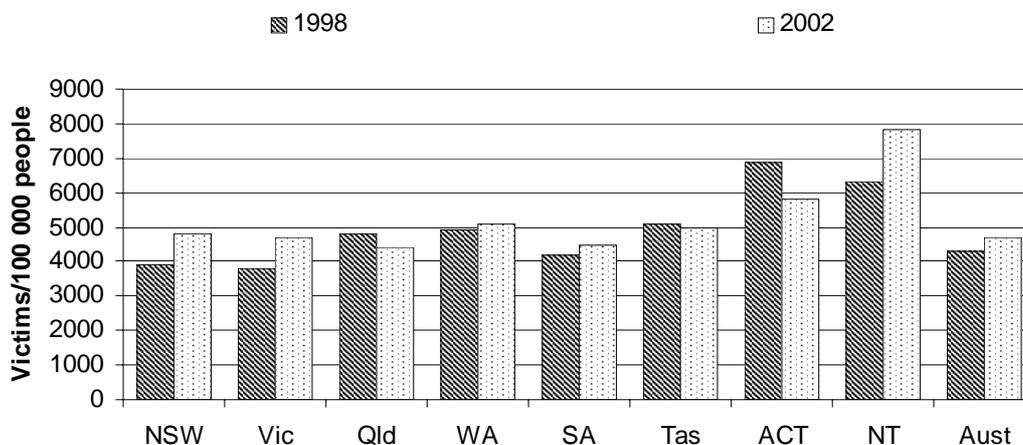


^a The definition of homicide is defined by the criminal law of each State and Territory. The specific wording of the definition varies somewhat between states and territories in terms of degree and culpability.

Source: AIC (2004); table 5A.48.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 4700 victims of assault per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002 (up from 4300 per 100 000 people in 1998). Across jurisdictions, this rate ranged from 7800 per 100 000 people in the NT to 4400 per 100 000 people in Queensland. Between 1998 and 2002, the rate rose in all jurisdictions except Queensland, Tasmania and the ACT (figure 5.29).

Figure 5.29 Estimated victims of assault^a

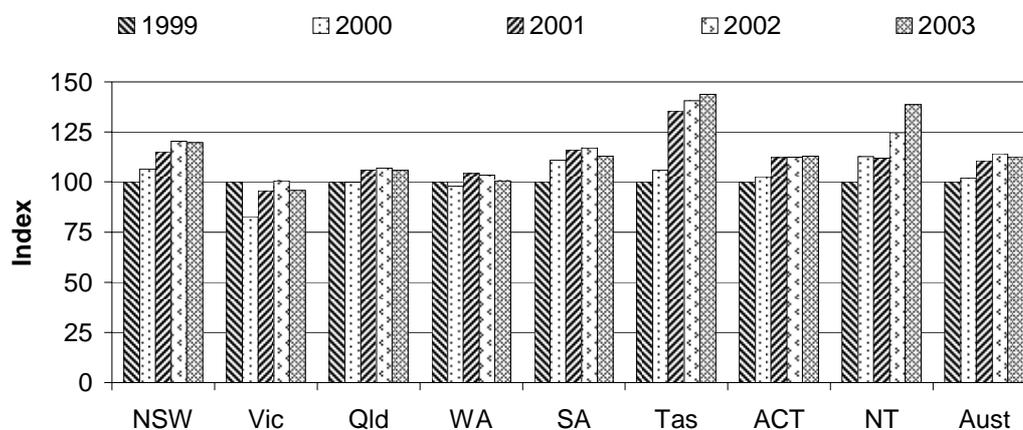


^a A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one assault. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of assault. Assault is defined as an incident, other than a robbery where the respondent was threatened with force or violence or physically attacked.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.52.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the rate of victims of assault per 100 000 people fell by 1.4 per cent in Australia between 2002 and 2003. Although there were rate fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, there was a general upward trend in the rate in NSW, Queensland, SA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT between 1999 and 2003. Victoria recorded a fall in the rate of victims of assault over the five years, and WA remained virtually unchanged (figure 5.30).

Figure 5.30 Trends in recorded crime — victims of assault per 100 000 people^{a, b, c}

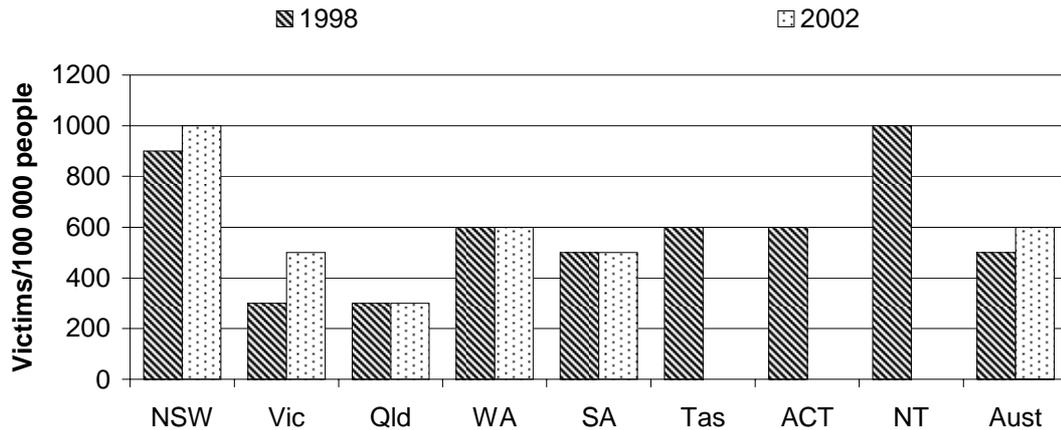


^a Index base year 1999 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variation in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions may be influenced by different reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.49.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 600 victims of robbery per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002 (up from 500 victims per 100 000 in 1998). This rate ranged from 1000 per 100 000 people in NSW to 300 per 100 000 people in Queensland (figure 5.31). Between 1998 and 2002, the rate rose in NSW and Victoria, and remained unchanged in Queensland, SA and WA.

Figure 5.31 **Estimated victims of robbery^{a, b}**

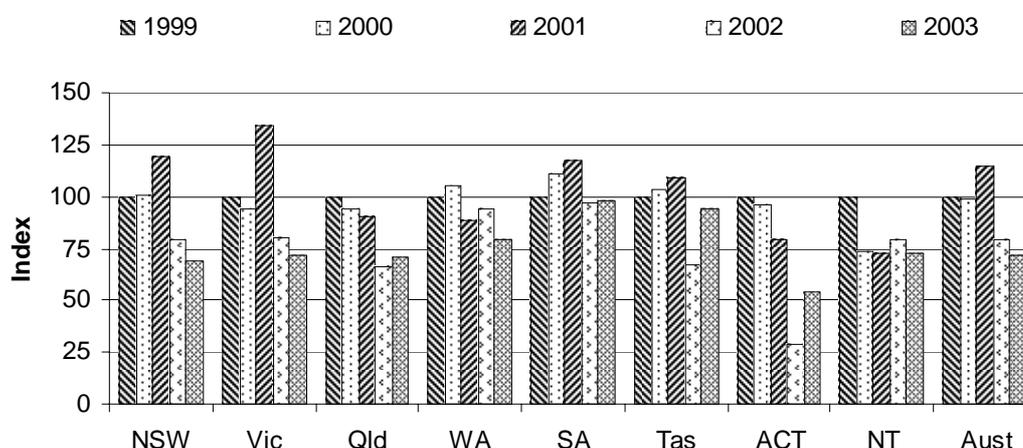


^a A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one robbery. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of robbery. Robbery is defined as an incident, where someone has stolen (or tried to steal) property from a respondent by physically attacking them or threatening them with violence. ^b Estimates for Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have a relative standard error of greater than 50 per cent and are considered too unreliable for general use.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.52.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the rate of victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people fell by 9.3 per cent in Australia between 2002 and 2003. Although there were fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, there has been a general downward trend in the rate of victims of armed robbery per 100 000 in all jurisdictions since 2001 (figure 5.32).

Figure 5.32 Trends in recorded crime — victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people^{a, b, c}



^a Index base year 1999 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variation in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions may be influenced by different reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.49.

Crime victimisation — crimes against property

The prevalence and trends in crimes against property in the community are important measures of the effectiveness of police services (box 5.14).

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 7400 break-ins or attempted break-ins per 100 000 households in Australia in 2002 (down from 7600 victims per 100 000 households in 1998). The incidence varied from 19 500 per 100 000 households in the NT to 5300 per 100 000 households in Victoria. Between 1998 and 2002, the rate increased in Queensland, SA and the NT, and declined in WA, Tasmania and the ACT. The rate remained unchanged in NSW and Victoria over the same period (figure 5.33).

Box 5.14 Crime victimisation — crimes against property

‘Crime victimisation’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to enforce the law and improve community safety.

Two measures are reported on the level of crime against property:

- estimated household victims of break-in/attempted break-in per 100 000 households
- estimated household victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 households.

(Continued on next page)

Box 5.14 (Continued)

For each of the indicators, a lower rate of crime victimisation is a more desirable outcome.

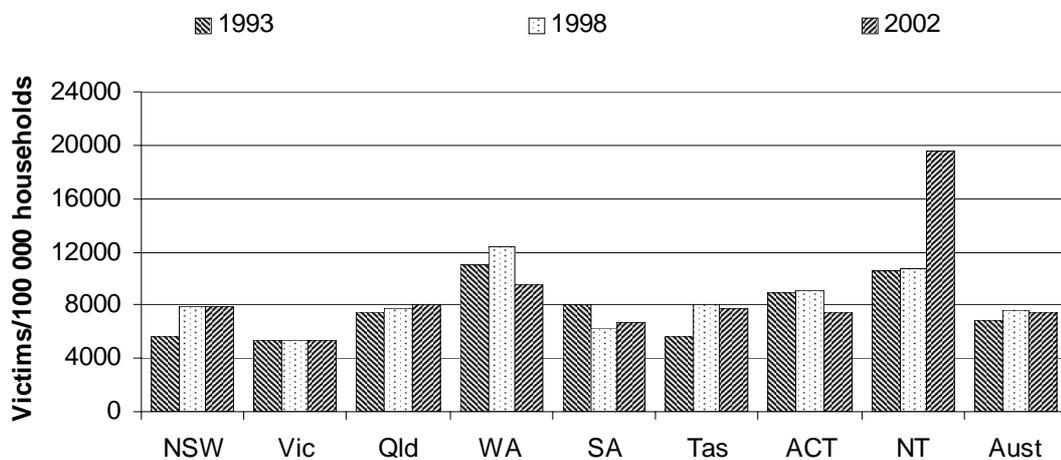
Data on trends in crime victimisation, based on the number of crimes reported to police, are presented in index form. Differences in the way in which crimes are recorded on jurisdiction's police administrative systems (due to legislation, recording systems and recording practices) mean that comparing the level of recorded crime across jurisdictions is problematic.

Two measures are reported on trends in property crime in the community:

- victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people (index 1999 = 100)
- victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 people (index 1999 = 100).

For both measures, a fall in the index number is a more desirable outcome. The recorded number of victims may vary from the actual incidence of crimes against property for a number of reasons, however, including confidence in the judicial system as a whole.

Figure 5.33 Estimated victims of break-in/attempted break-in^a



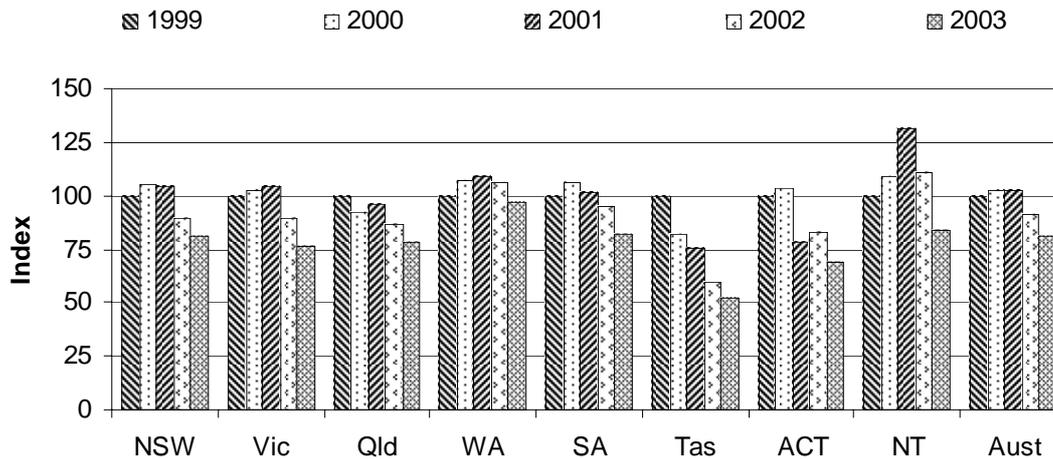
^a A victim is defined as a household reporting at least one break-in/attempted break-in. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of break-in/attempted break-in. Break-in is defined as an incident where the respondent's home had been broken into. Break-in offences relating to respondents' cars or gardens are excluded.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.53.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the rate of victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people fell by 11.2 per cent in Australia between 2002 and 2003. Although there were rate fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions,

there has been a general downward trend in the rate in all jurisdictions since 2001 (figure 5.34).

Figure 5.34 Trends in recorded crime — victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000^{a, b, c}

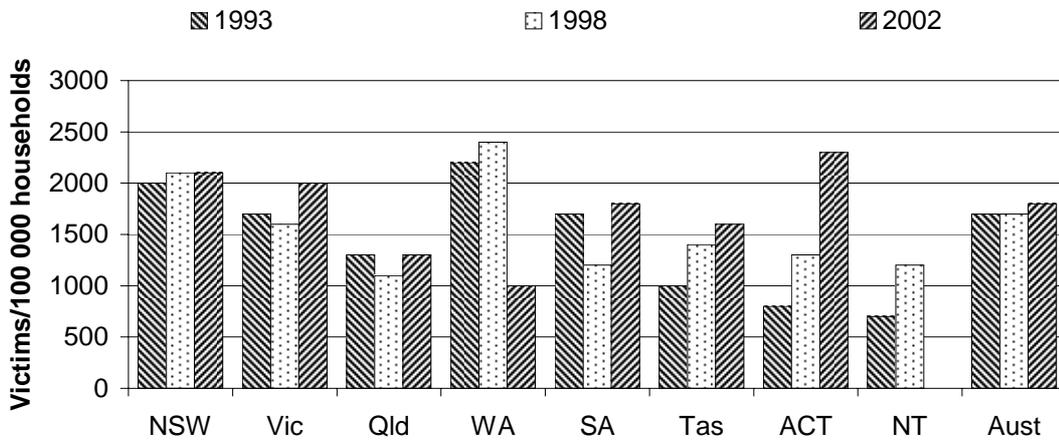


a Index base year 1999 = 100. **b** Data are based on crimes recorded by police. **c** Data are reported in index form because the variation in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions may be influenced by different reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.50.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, 1800 motor vehicles were stolen per 100 000 households in 2002 in Australia (up from 1700 per 100 000 households in 1998). The rate ranged from 2300 per 100 000 households in the ACT to 1000 per 100 000 households in WA. Between 1998 and 2002, the rate of motor vehicle theft increased in all jurisdictions except WA, where the rate fell by 58.3 per cent, and NSW, where it remained the same (figure 5.35).

Figure 5.35 Estimated victims of motor vehicle theft^{a, b}

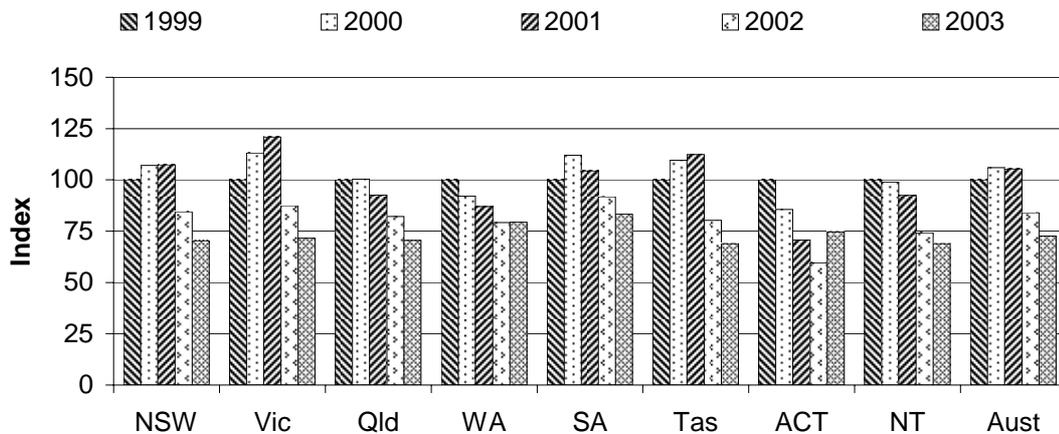


^a A victim is defined as a household reporting at least one motor vehicle theft. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of motor vehicle theft. Motor vehicle theft is defined as an incident where a motor vehicle was stolen from any member of the respondent's household. It includes privately owned vehicles, as well as business/company vehicles used exclusively by members of the household. ^b The estimate for the NT has a relative standard error greater than 50 per cent and is considered too unreliable for general use.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.53.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the rate of victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 people fell by 13.6 per cent in Australia between 2002 and 2003. Although there were rate fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, there has been a general downward trend in the rate in all jurisdictions since 2000 (figure 5.36).

Figure 5.36 Trends in recorded crime — victims of motor vehicle theft^{a, b, c}



^a Index base year 1999 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variation in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions may be influenced by different reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.50.

Reporting rates

The ABS defines a reporting rate as the total number of the most recent incidents of an offence that were reported to police, expressed as a percentage of the total victims of that offence (box 5.15). Reporting rates vary across different crime types (table 5A.51).

Box 5.15 Reporting rates

'Reporting rates' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to enforce the law and improve community safety by engendering public confidence in the police and judicial system.

The indicator is defined as the total number of the most recent incidents of a particular offence (break and enter, attempted break and enter, motor vehicle theft, robbery, assault, sexual assault and total victims of crimes against the person and property) that were reported to police, as a percentage of the total victims of that offence. A higher proportion is more desirable.

This indicator does not, however, provide information on why some people choose not to report particular offences to the police. It also does not account for unsubstantiated reports.

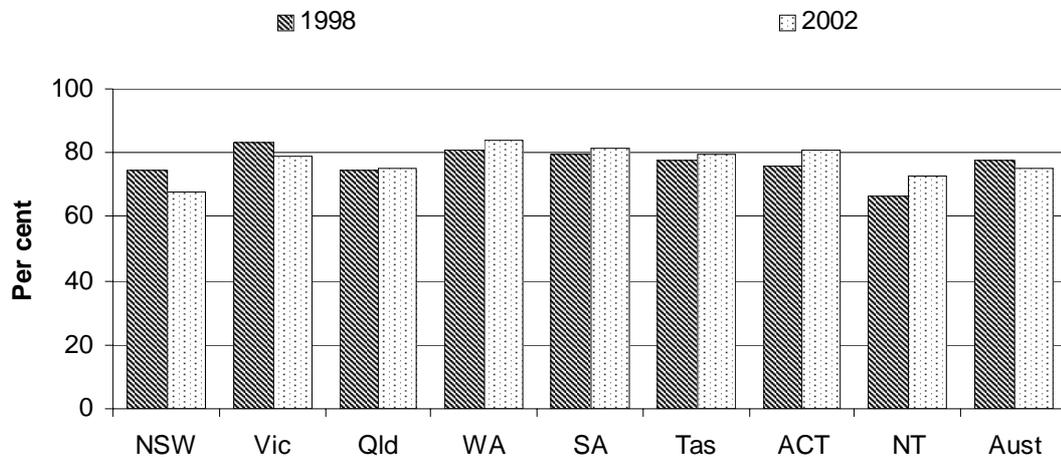
Reporting rate — break and enter

Nationally, the reporting rate for break and enter offences was 75.1 per cent in 2002 (compared with 77.5 per cent in 1998). Over the four year period, it rose in all jurisdictions, except NSW and Victoria (where it declined), and Queensland (where it remained relatively unchanged). In 2002, the reporting rate varied from 83.7 per cent in WA to 68.0 per cent in NSW (figure 5.37).

Reporting rate — attempted break and enter

Nationally, the reporting rate for attempted break and enter offences was 31.1 per cent in 2002 (similar to that in 1998). Estimates for Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have relative standard errors of greater than 50 per cent and are considered unreliable for general use. For the remaining jurisdictions, the reporting rate rose in NSW, Queensland and SA over the four year period, remained constant in WA and fell in Victoria (table 5A.51).

Figure 5.37 Reporting rate for break and enter^a



^a Break and enter estimates for 2002 for the ACT and the NT have a relative standard error between 25 and 50 per cent and need to be used with caution.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.51.

Reporting rate — motor vehicle theft

Nationally, the reporting rate for motor vehicle theft was 95.0 per cent in 2002 (similar to the 1998 rate of 95.1 per cent). Estimates for Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have relative standard errors of greater than 50 per cent and are considered unreliable for general use. In the remaining jurisdictions, the reporting rate rose in NSW, WA and SA over the four year period, and declined in Victoria and Queensland (table 5A.51).

Reporting rate — robbery

Nationally, the reporting rate for robbery was up slightly to 50.2 per cent in 2002 (compared with 49.8 per cent in 1998). Estimates for SA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have relative standard errors above 50 per cent and are considered unreliable for general use. Of the remaining jurisdictions, the reporting rate rose in NSW over the four year period and declined in Victoria, Queensland and WA (table 5A.51).

Reporting rate — assault

Nationally, the reporting rate for assault was 30.8 per cent in 2002 (compared with 27.7 per cent in 1998). Estimates for Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have relative standard errors above 50 per cent and are considered unreliable for general use. The reporting rate rose in all of the remaining jurisdictions over the four year period (table 5A.51).

Reporting rate — sexual assault

Nationally, the reporting rate for sexual assault was 19.8 per cent in 2002 (markedly lower than the 1998 rate of 33.0 per cent). The reporting rate for individual jurisdictions is considered too unreliable for general use, given the level of sampling standard errors (table 5A.51).

5.5 Crime investigation

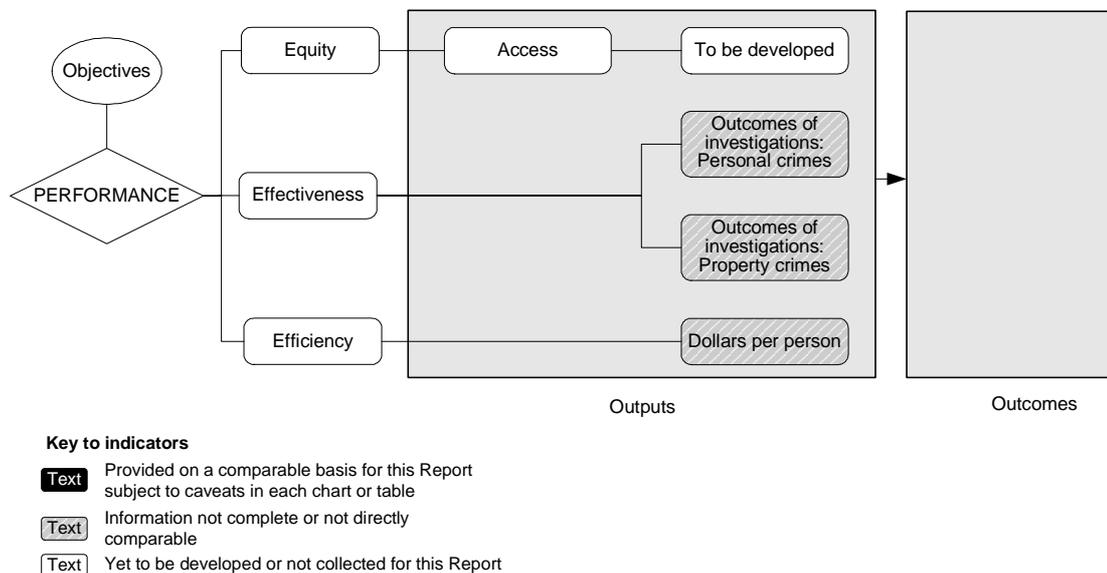
This SDA captures the role of police in investigating crime and identifying and apprehending suspects. Activities include:

- gathering intelligence on suspects and locations to assist with investigations
- collecting and securing evidence in relation to both the offence and the suspect.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that includes outcomes of investigations. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable across jurisdictions in the 2005 Report (figure 5.38). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.38 Performance indicators for crime investigation



Key performance indicator results

The ABS collects data on the 30 day status of investigations — that is, the stage that a police investigation has reached 30 days after the recording of the incident by police.

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for crime investigation as a key area for development in future reports (box 5.16).

Box 5.16 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for crime investigation services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is included as an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering crime investigation services (box 5.17).

Box 5.17 Dollars per person

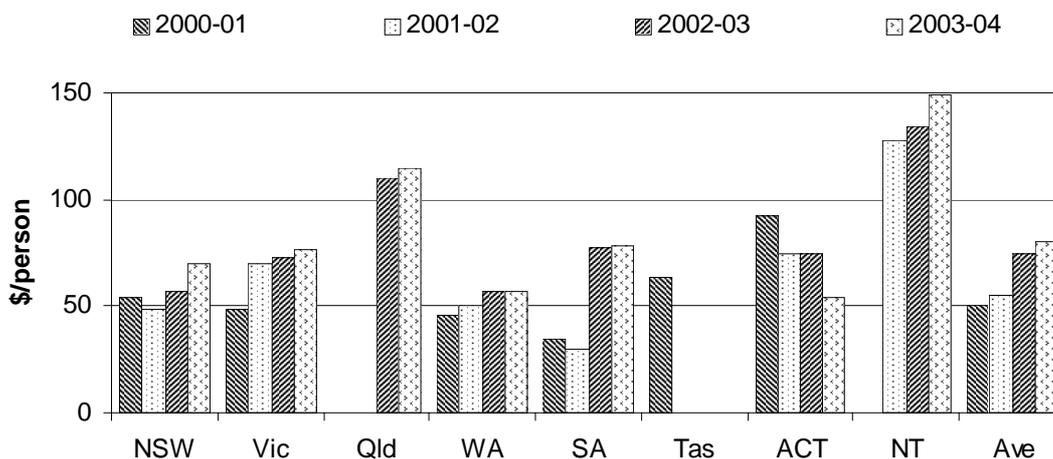
‘Dollars per person’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to undertake activities associated with crime investigation in an efficient manner.

The indicator is defined as expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on crime investigation per person.

Lower expenditure per person generally represents a more desirable efficiency outcome, but efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high expenditure per person may reflect worse efficiency outcomes, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as greater effectiveness or more challenging crime and safety situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect more desirable efficiency outcomes or worse quality (less effective policing) or less challenging crime and safety situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be always interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally, of the jurisdictions that could provide data for 2003-04, expenditure on crime investigations was \$80 per person. It ranged from \$149 per person in the NT to \$54 per person in the ACT (figure 5.39).

Figure 5.39 Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on crime investigation (2003-04 dollars)^a



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.57.

Expenditure on crime investigations as a proportion of total police expenditure was 30.1 per cent nationally in 2002-03. As a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, it ranged from 46.0 per cent in Queensland to 19.2 per cent in WA (table 5A.15).

While comparisons can be made with last year's data, care needs to be taken, because the methods employed may have changed. For those jurisdictions that provided data, the largest increase in real expenditure over the past year occurred in the NT, where real expenditure on crime investigations rose by \$15 per person (from \$134 to \$149) (table 5A.57).

The largest decrease in real expenditure over the past year occurred in the ACT, where real expenditure fell by \$20 per person (from \$74 to \$54). Nationally, real expenditure on crime investigations rose by \$6 per person over the past year (table 5A.57).

Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes

'Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing crimes (box 5.18).

Box 5.18 Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes

'Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police
- the proportion of finalised investigations for which proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

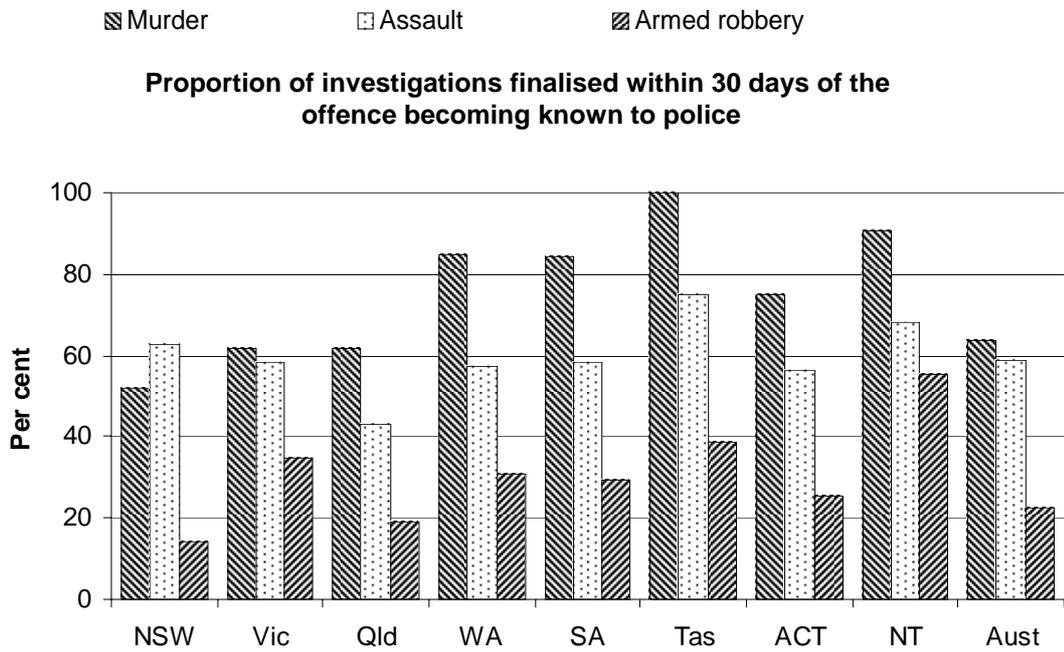
Outcomes of investigations indicators are reported for a range of offences against the person including murder, assault, armed robbery, and sexual assault. A higher proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police is a more desirable outcome. Similarly, a higher proportion of finalised investigations where proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, is a more desirable outcome.

‘Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes’ are not directly comparable because of differences in the way data are compiled by jurisdictions. Across jurisdictions in 2003, the proportion of recorded murder investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police varied from 100.0 per cent in Tasmania (based on four investigations) to 52.0 per cent in NSW (based on 102 investigations) (figure 5.40). For these finalised murder investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 100.0 per cent in SA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT, to 75.5 per cent in NSW in 2003 (figure 5.40).

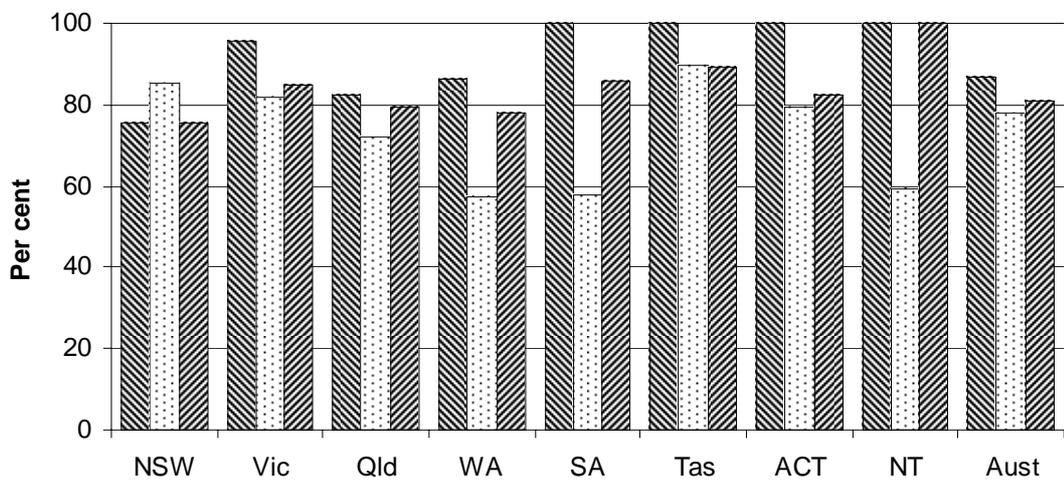
The proportion of recorded assault investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 74.8 per cent in Tasmania (based on 3745 investigations) to 43.1 per cent in Queensland (based on 21 140 investigations). For these finalised assault investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 89.6 per cent in Tasmania to 57.3 per cent in WA (figure 5.40).

The proportion of recorded armed robbery investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 55.2 per cent in the NT (based on 29 investigations) to 14.3 per cent in NSW (based on 3318 investigations). For these finalised armed robbery investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 100 per cent in the NT to 75.4 per cent in NSW (figure 5.40).

Figure 5.40 **Victims of crimes against the person: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2003**



Proportion of finalised investigations for which proceedings had begun within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police



Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.55.

The proportion of recorded sexual assault investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 61.1 per cent in Tasmania (based on 257 investigations) to 28.1 per cent in NSW (based on 6796 investigations). For these finalised sexual assault investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 82.8 per cent in Tasmania to 34.2 per cent in Queensland (figure 5.41).

The proportion of recorded unarmed robbery investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 51.9 per cent in the NT (based on 63 investigations) to 16.5 per cent in NSW (based on 7529 investigations). For these finalised unarmed robbery investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 89.3 per cent in the NT to 57.9 per cent in Queensland (figure 5.41).

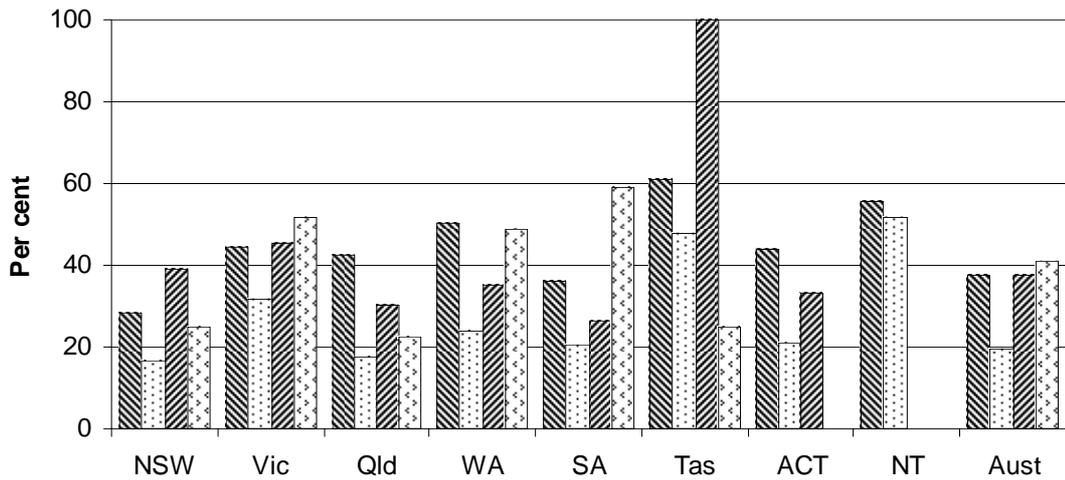
The proportion of recorded kidnapping/abduction investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 100 per cent in Tasmania (based on two investigations) to zero per cent in the NT (based on two investigations). For these finalised kidnapping/abduction investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 100 per cent in Tasmania and the ACT to 13.2 per cent in Queensland (figure 5.41).

The proportion of recorded blackmail/extortion investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 59.0 per cent in SA (based on 61 investigations) to zero per cent in the ACT (based on one investigation). For these finalised blackmail/extortion investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 83.9 per cent in Victoria to zero per cent in Tasmania (figure 5.41).

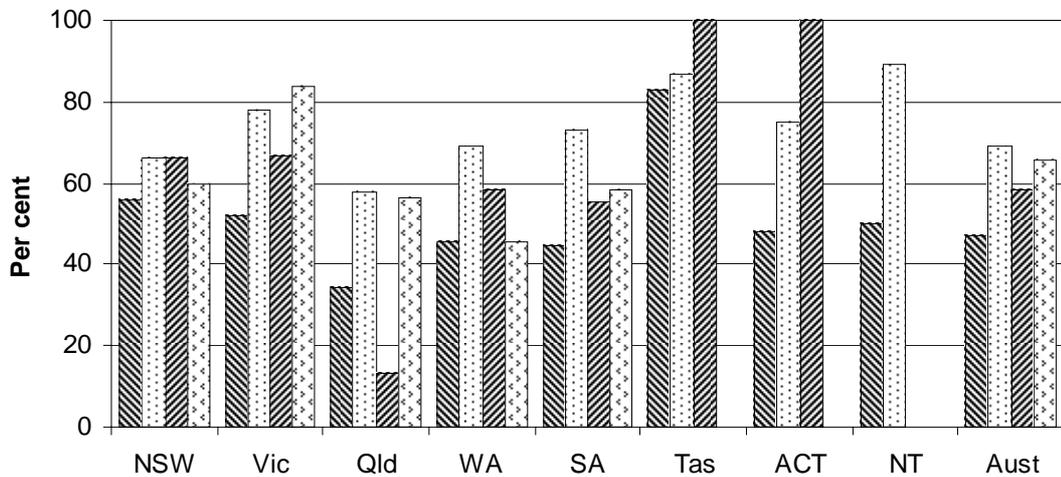
Figure 5.41 **Victims of crimes against the person: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2003**

▨ Sexual assault ▤ Unarmed robbery ▩ Kidnapping/abduction ▧ Blackmail/extortion

Proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police



Proportion of finalised investigations for which proceedings had begun within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police



Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.55.

Outcomes of investigations — property crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ is an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing crimes (box 5.19).

Box 5.19 Outcomes of investigations — property crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence.

Two measures are reported:

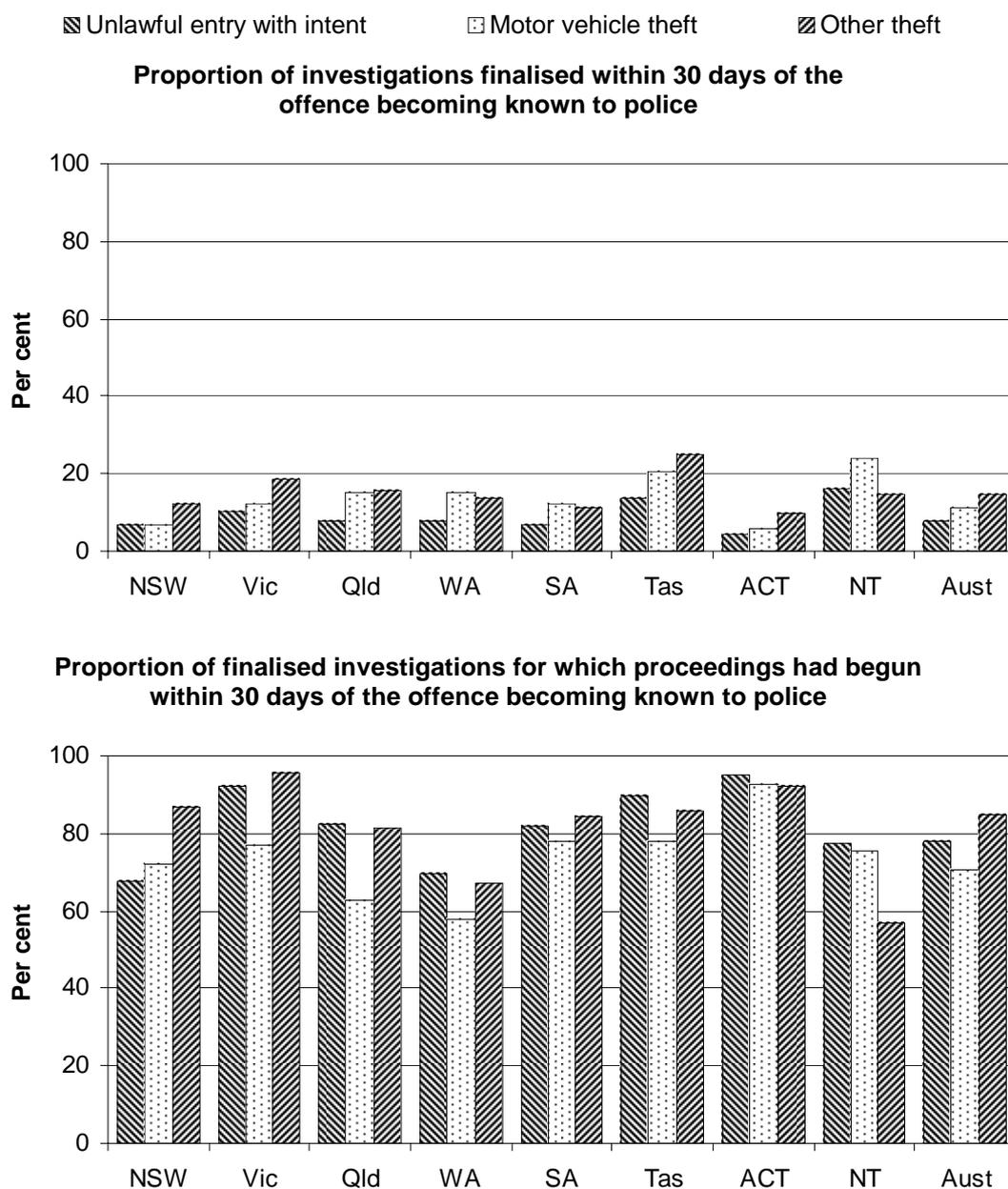
- the proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police
- the proportion of finalised investigations for which proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

Outcomes of investigations indicators are reported for three property offences: unlawful entry with intent, motor vehicle theft and other theft. A higher proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police is a more desirable outcome. Similarly, a higher proportion of finalised investigations where proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, is a more desirable outcome.

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ are not directly comparable because of differences in the way data are compiled by jurisdictions. The proportion of investigations of recorded unlawful entry with intent, that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 16.0 per cent in the NT to 4.2 per cent in the ACT. For these finalised investigations of unlawful entry with intent, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 95.0 per cent in the ACT to 67.7 per cent in NSW (figure 5.42).

The proportion of investigations of recorded motor vehicle theft that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 23.8 per cent in Tasmania to 5.9 per cent in the ACT. For these finalised motor vehicle theft investigations, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 92.7 per cent in the ACT to 57.9 per cent in WA (figure 5.42).

Figure 5.42 **Victims of property crime: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2003**



Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.56.

The proportion of investigations into recorded other theft that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 25.0 per cent in Tasmania to 9.9 per cent in the ACT. For these finalised investigations of other theft, the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police ranged from 95.4 per cent in Victoria to 56.8 per cent in the NT (figure 5.42).

Outcomes

Outcome indicators for crime investigation services are yet to be developed. The effectiveness with which police undertake criminal investigation services, however, will be somewhat reflected in the general performance indicators for police services, such as the indicator 'satisfaction with police services' reported in section 5.3.

5.6 Road safety and traffic management

This SDA captures the role of police in maximising road safety through targeted operations to reduce the incidence of traffic offences and through attendance at, and investigation of, road traffic accidents and incidents.

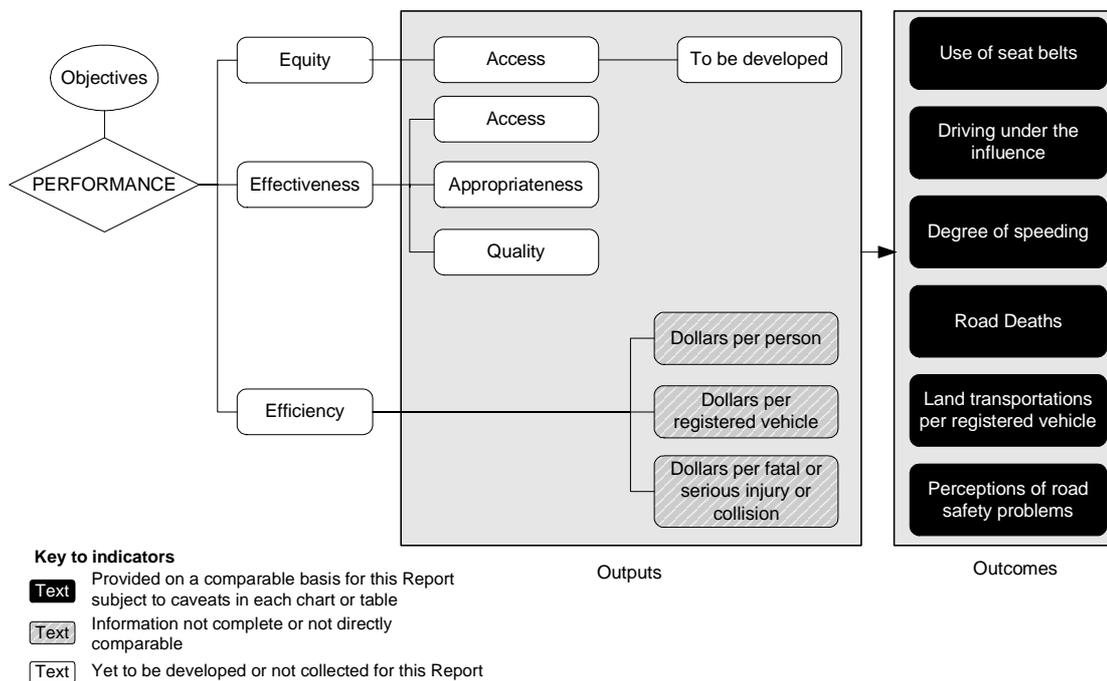
Activities typically include:

- monitoring road user behaviour, including speed- and alcohol-related traffic operations
- undertaking general traffic management functions
- attending and investigating road traffic accidents and incidents
- improving public education and awareness of traffic and road safety issues.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking road safety and traffic management activities is measured using a suite of indicators that includes people's behaviour on the roads and the number of land transport hospitalisations and road fatalities. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report (figure 5.43). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.43 Performance indicators for road safety and traffic management



Key performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for road safety and traffic management as a key area for development in future reports (box 5.20).

Box 5.20 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for road safety and traffic management services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person and dollars per registered vehicle

'Dollars per person' and 'dollars per registered vehicle' are included as indicators of the efficiency of governments in delivering road safety and traffic management services (box 5.21).

Box 5.21 Dollars per person and dollars per registered vehicle

'Dollars per person', and 'dollars per registered vehicle', are included as output indicators of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with road safety and traffic management in an efficient manner.

The indicator 'dollars per person' is defined as expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on road safety and traffic management per person.

The indicator 'dollars per registered vehicle' is defined as expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle.

Lower expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on road safety and traffic management per person is more desirable. Similarly, lower expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle is more desirable.

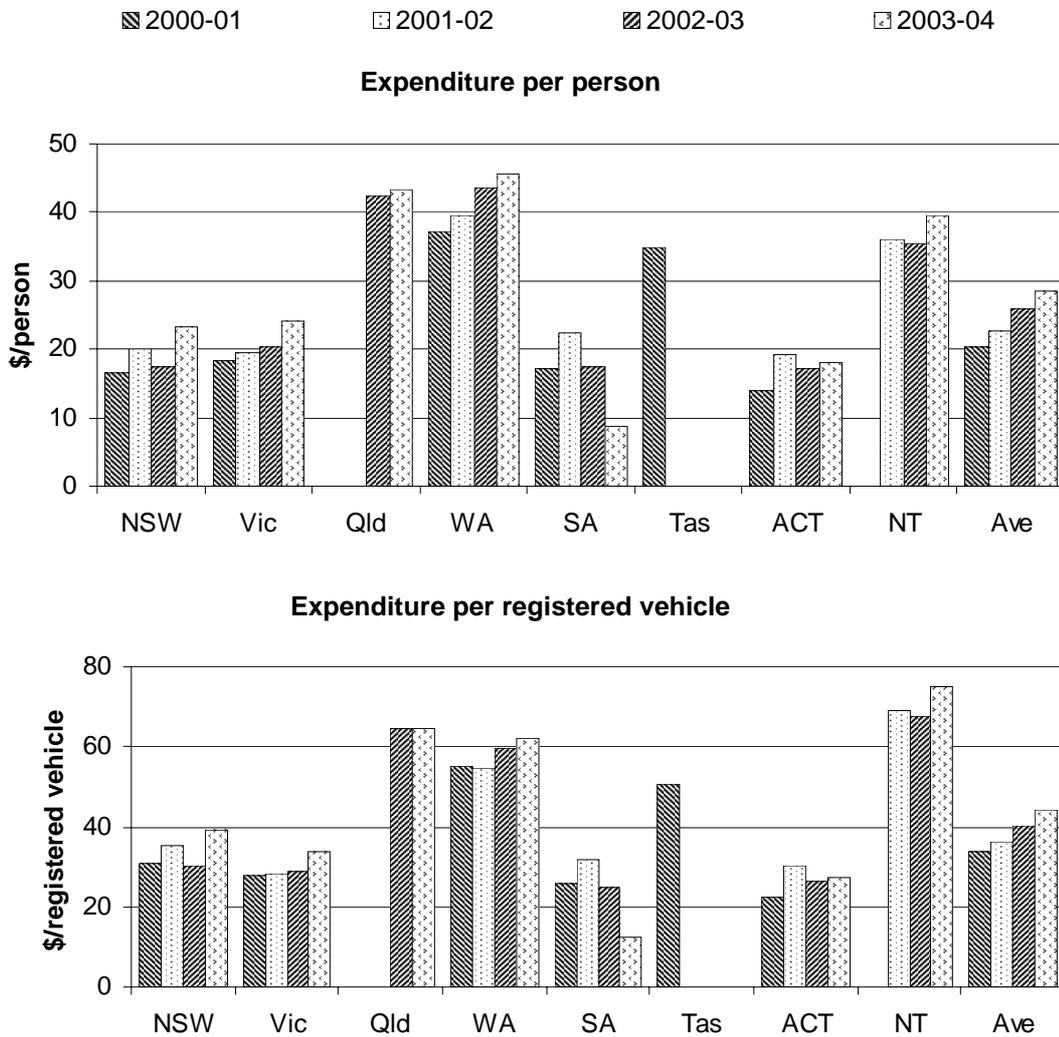
Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high expenditure values for either indicator may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or the characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging road safety and traffic management situations). Similarly, low expenditure values for either indicator may reflect efficient police services. Alternatively, it may reflect lower quality (less effective policing) or less challenging road safety and traffic management situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be always interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

For jurisdictions that could provide data in 2003-04, expenditure on road safety and traffic management was \$29 per person nationally. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$46 per person in WA to \$9 per person in SA. Expenditure on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle also varied across jurisdictions in 2003-04, from \$75 in the NT to \$12 in SA. Nationally, it was \$43 (figure 5.44).

Nationally in 2003-04, expenditure on road safety and traffic management as a proportion of total police expenditure per person was 11.0 per cent. As a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure per person, it ranged from 17.5 per cent in Queensland to 3.7 per cent in SA (table 5A.15).

While comparisons can be made with the previous year's data, care needs to be taken, because the methods employed may have changed. The largest increase in real expenditure per person on road safety and traffic management from 2001-02 to 2003-04 occurred in NSW (a rise of \$6 per person from \$17 to \$23). The largest decrease in real expenditure was in SA (a fall of \$9 per person from \$18 to \$9). Nationally, real expenditure on road safety and traffic management rose by \$3 per person (from \$26 to \$29) over the past year (table 5A.64).

Figure 5.44 **Real expenditure (less payroll tax) on road safety and traffic management (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}**



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b For SA, total recurrent expenditure on road safety and traffic management increased slightly in 2003-04. However, net recurrent expenditure has reduced as a result of \$14.9m, that was previously part of appropriation, now reflected as additional revenue from own sources (Community Road Safety Fund). This represents a change in funding arrangements.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.64.

Efficiency — dollars per fatal or serious injuries or collisions

Another indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering road safety and traffic management services is ‘dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision’ (box 5.22).

Box 5.22 Dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision

'Dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with road safety and traffic management in an efficient manner.

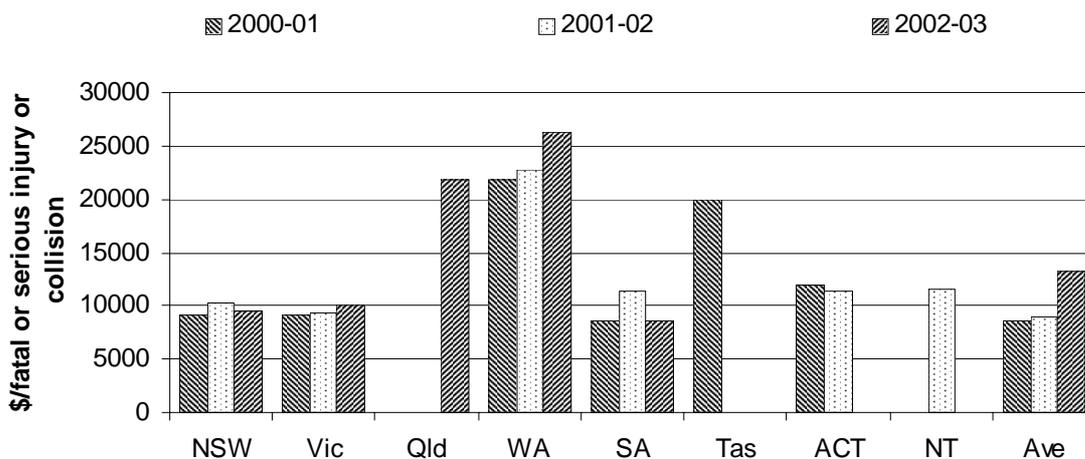
The indicator is defined as the cost of road safety and traffic management per fatal or serious injury or collision. The number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions is defined as the number of road deaths plus the number of land transport hospitalisations.

A lower cost of road safety and traffic management per fatal or serious injury or collision is generally a more desirable outcome.

Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high costs per fatal or serious injury or collision may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or the characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging road safety and traffic management situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect efficient police services; alternatively, it may reflect lower quality (less effective policing) or less challenging road safety and traffic management situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be always interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally in 2002-03, the cost of road safety and traffic management per fatal or serious injury or collision was \$13 209. Across jurisdictions for which data were available, this ranged from \$26 295 in WA to \$8639 in SA (figure 5.45).

Figure 5.45 Cost of SDA/number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions (2003-04 dollars)



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data.

Source: AIHW (unpublished); ATSB (2004); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.63.

Outcomes

For contextual purposes, 88.4 per cent of NSCSP respondents in 2003-04 stated that they had driven a motor vehicle in the past 12 months, compared with 88.2 per cent in 2002-03 (table 5A.58). An aim of police road safety programs is to influence road user behaviour so as to reduce the incidence of road crashes and the severity of road trauma. These programs target the non-wearing of seat belts, excessive speed and drink driving.

Use of seat belts

‘Use of seatbelts’ is one indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road user behaviour (box 5.23).

Box 5.23 Use of seatbelts

‘Use of seatbelts’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

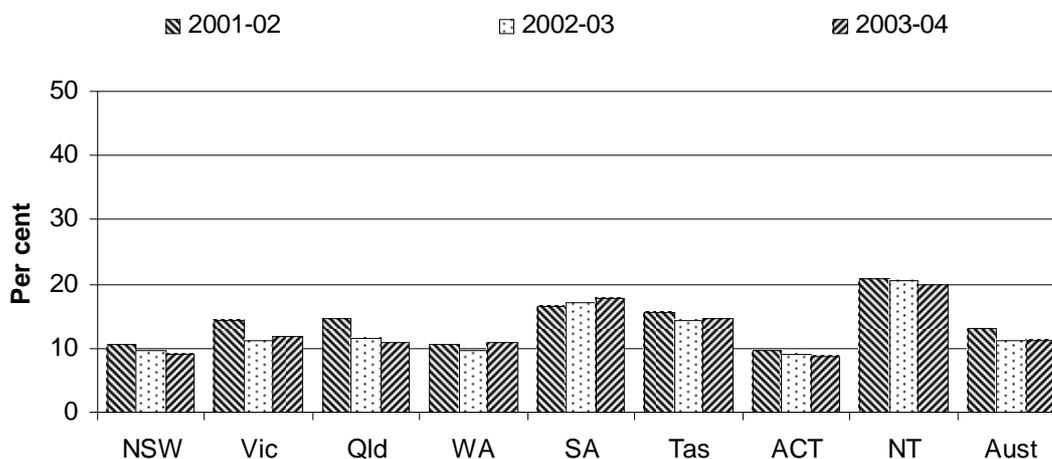
The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who had driven in the past 12 months and ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’) travelled in a car without wearing a seatbelt.

A lower proportion of people who had ‘sometimes’, or more often, travelled in the car without wearing a seatbelt, is more desirable.

The use of seatbelts in the population is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as driver education and advertising campaigns.

Nationally in 2003-04, 11.2 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months said they ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’) travelled in a car without wearing a seat belt (unchanged from 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 20.0 per cent in the NT to 8.7 per cent in the ACT. Compared with 2002-03, the use of seatbelts was higher in all jurisdictions except Victoria, WA, SA and Tasmania, which recorded a decline in seat belt use (figure 5.46).

Figure 5.46 **People who had driven in the previous 12 months and ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’) travelled in a car without wearing a seat belt^{a, b}**



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.59.

Degree of speeding

‘Degree of speeding’ is another indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road-user behaviour (box 5.24).

Box 5.24 Degree of speeding

Degree of speeding is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

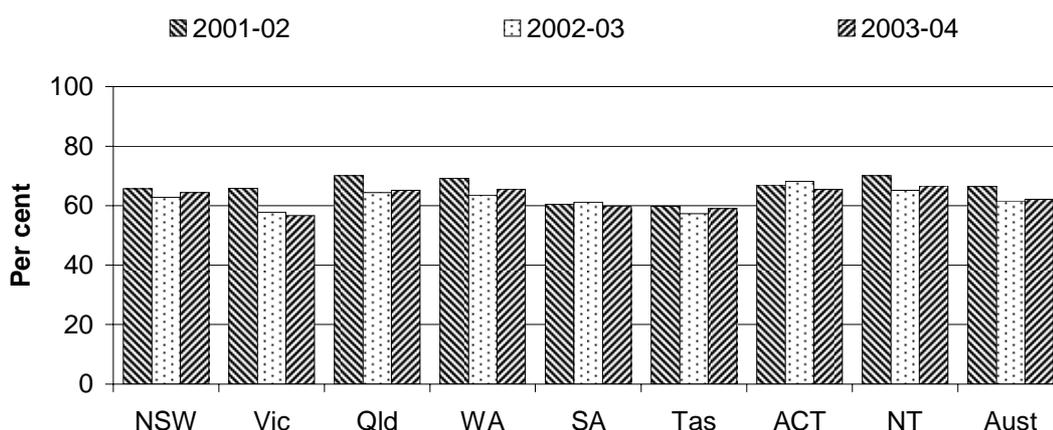
This indicator is defined as the proportion of people who indicated that they had ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’) driven more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit in the previous 12 months.

A lower proportion of people indicating that they had ‘sometimes’ or more often driven more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit in the past 12 months, is more desirable.

Nationally in 2003-04, 62.2 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months reported travelling more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’). This compares with 61.7 per cent in 2002-03. Across jurisdictions, the proportion in 2003-04 ranged from 66.7 per cent in the NT to 56.6 per cent in

Victoria. Compared with 2002-03, all jurisdictions experienced increases in speeding, except for Victoria, SA and the ACT, which recorded small decreases (figure 5.47).

Figure 5.47 People who indicated that they had driven in the previous 12 months more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always')^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.60.

Driving under the influence

'Driving under the influence' is another indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road user behaviour (box 5.25).

Box 5.25 Driving under the influence

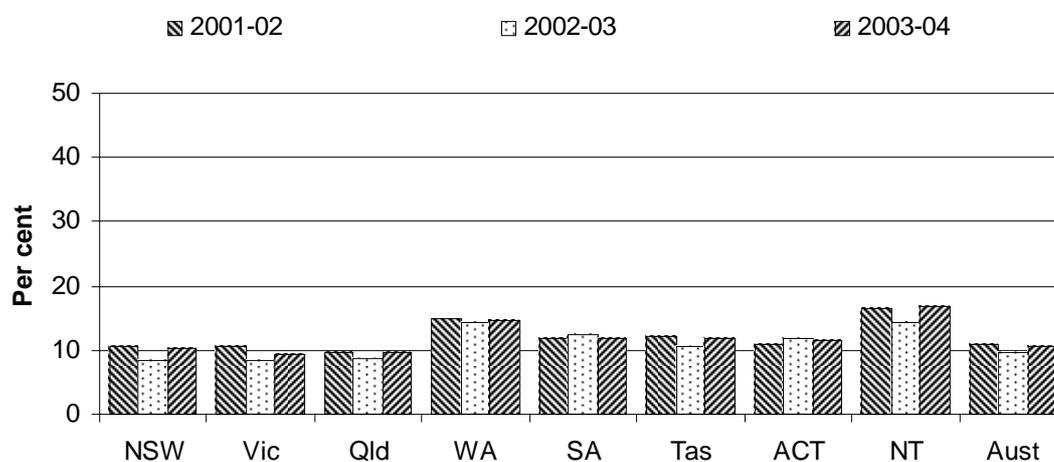
'Driving under the influence' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') driven when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit in the previous 12 months.

A lower proportion of people who indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often driven when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit in the past 12 months, is more desirable. The prevalence of driving under the influence in the population is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as driver education and advertising campaigns.

Nationally in 2003-04, 10.6 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months indicated that they had ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’) driven when possibly over the 0.05 blood alcohol limit (compared with 9.6 per cent in 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 16.7 per cent in the NT to 9.3 per cent in Victoria. Compared with 2002-03, all jurisdictions except SA and the ACT recorded an increase in the level of drink driving (figure 5.48).

Figure 5.48 People who indicated that they had driven in the previous 12 months when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit ‘sometimes’ or more often (‘half the time’, ‘most of the time’ or ‘always’)^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.61.

Road deaths

‘Road deaths’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to promote safer behaviour on the road (box 5.26).

Nationally, there were 1612 road deaths in 2003-04, representing a fall of 81 fatalities from 2002-03. Across jurisdictions, road fatalities ranged from 559 in NSW to nine in the ACT. Road fatalities between 2002-03 and 2003-04 fell in the ACT by 30.8 per cent, the NT by 26.2 per cent, Queensland by 11.8, WA by 9.7 per cent, Victoria by 8.9 per cent and SA by 6.9 per cent. Tasmania and NSW, however, experienced increases of 45.5 per cent and 4.7 per cent respectively over the same period. From 1999-2000 to 2003-04, road fatalities fell in all jurisdictions, except for SA, where the number of fatalities was unchanged, and Tasmania, where there was a slight increase (table 5A.62).

Box 5.26 Road deaths

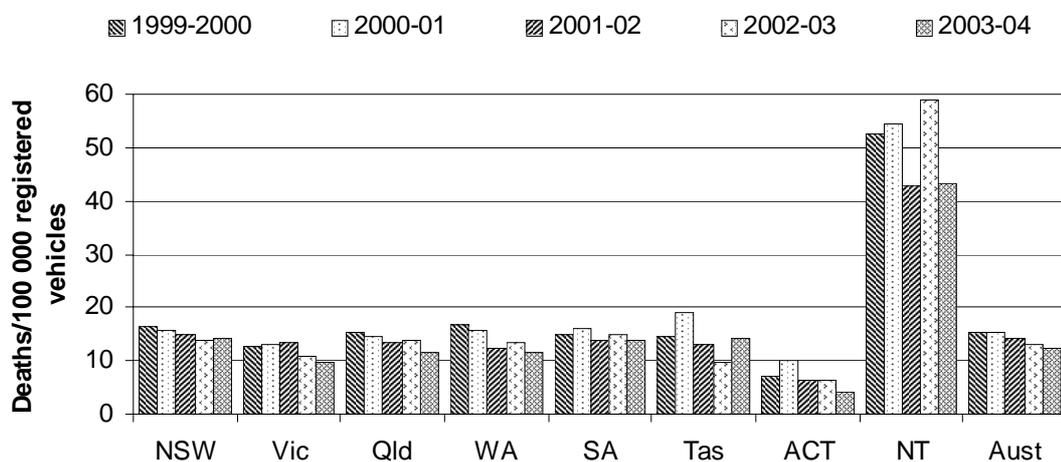
'Road deaths' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road. One aim of policing is to contribute to a reduction in road crashes and related road deaths and hospitalisations.

The indicator is defined as the number of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles.

A lower rate of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles is a more desirable outcome. The rate of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as the condition of roads, driver education and advertising campaigns.

There were 12 road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles in Australia in 2003-04, ranging from 43 in the NT to four in the ACT. The largest rate fall over the year occurred in the NT, where deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles fell by 16. The largest rate increase in deaths over the year occurred in Tasmania, where deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles increased by four. From 1999-2000 to 2003-04, the number of deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles fell in all jurisdictions, except Tasmania, where the rate remained unchanged (figure 5.49).

Figure 5.49 Road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles



Source: ATSB, *Fatal Road Crash Database* (accessed 29 September 2004); ABS Cat. no. 9309.0 (unpublished); table 5A.62.

Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle

'Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle' is another outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road (box 5.27).

Box 5.27 Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle

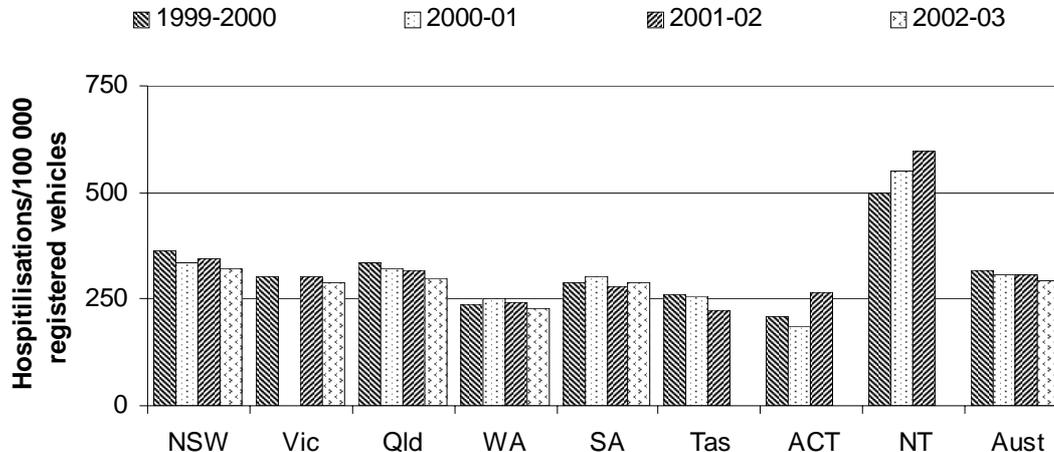
'Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the number of hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles.

A lower number of hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles is a more desirable outcome. Hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as the condition of roads, driver education and advertising campaigns.

There were 309 land transport hospitalisations per 100 000 registered vehicles in 2002-03 in jurisdictions where data were available, ranging from 319 in NSW to 228 in WA (figure 5.50). The rate of land transport hospitalisations fell in all jurisdictions where data were available, except SA (table 5A.63).

Figure 5.50 Land transport hospitalisations per 100 000 registered vehicles



Source: ABS (unpublished), Cat. no. 9309.0; AIHW (unpublished); table 5A.63.

Perceptions of road safety problems

An important objective of police services is to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe in driving and using the roads (box 5.28).

Box 5.28 Perceptions of road safety problems

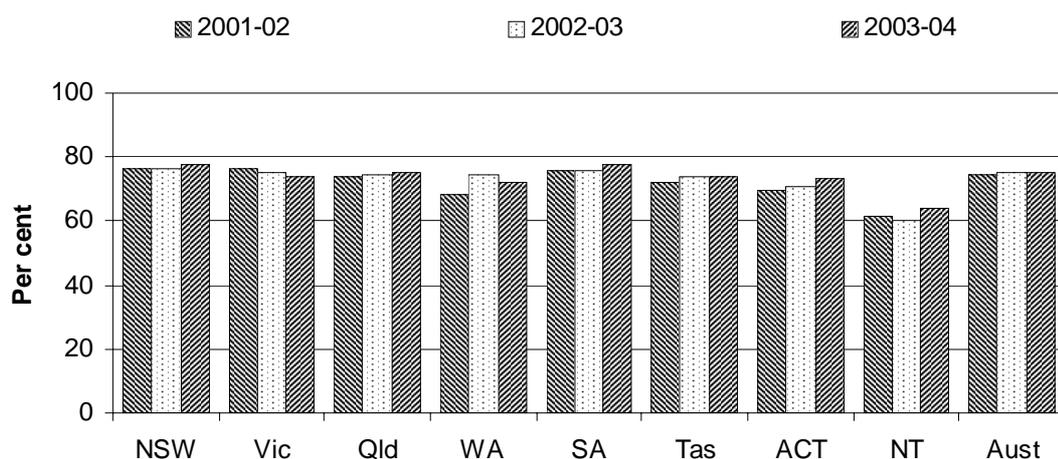
'Perceptions of road safety problems' is included as an outcome indicator of police services' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area.

A smaller proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area, is a more desirable outcome. Perceptions of road safety may not reflect actual levels of road safety, however, many factors (including individual experiences and media reporting) may influence people's perceptions of road safety.

Nationally in 2003-04, 75.3 per cent of people surveyed believed speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area (unchanged from 2002-03). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 77.6 per cent in SA to 63.7 per cent in the NT (figure 5.51). Compared with 2002-03, the perception of problems associated with local driving behaviour rose in all jurisdictions, except Victoria and WA, which experienced small decreases, and Tasmania, which had no change (table 5A.43).

Figure 5.51 Proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area^{a, b}



^a Data for 2001-02 are based on responses from people aged 18 years or over, whereas data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b The 2001-02 survey data contain some minor weighting errors.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.43.

5.7 Services to the judicial process

This SDA captures the role of police in providing effective and efficient support to the judicial process, including the provision of safe custody for alleged offenders and fair and equitable treatment of both victims and alleged offenders.

Activities typically include:

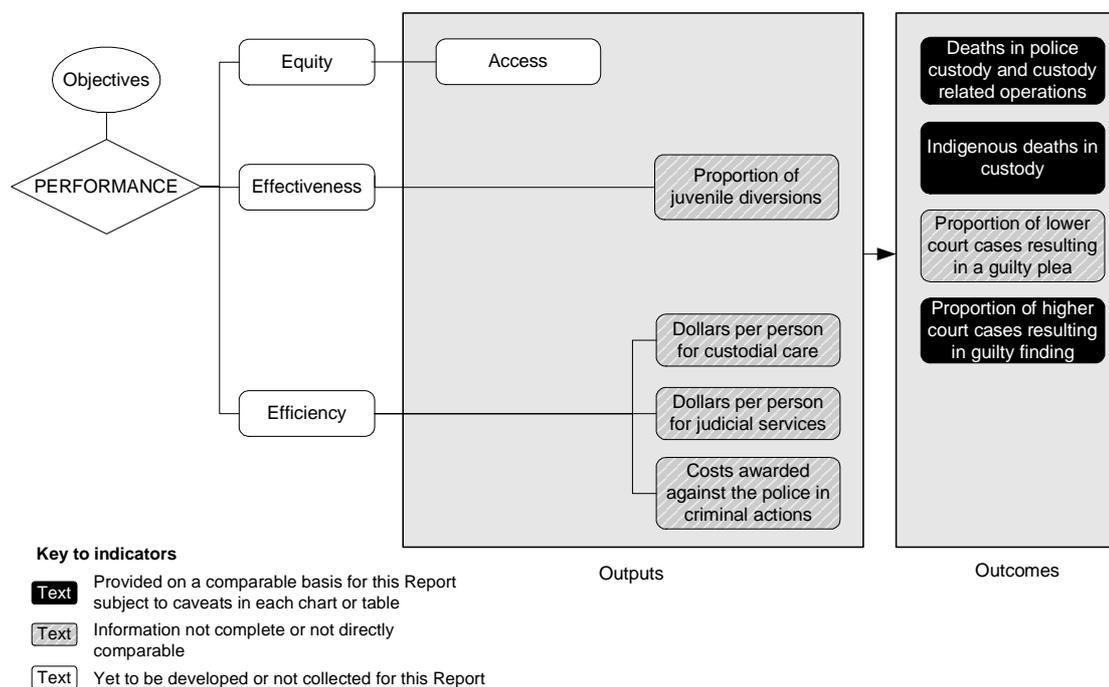
- preparing briefs
- presenting evidence at court
- conducting court and prisoner security.

The role of police services in conducting court and prisoner security differs across jurisdictions.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that include the proportion of court cases resulting in guilty pleas or guilty findings, and the effectiveness of police in diverting offenders from the criminal justice system. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report (figure 5.52). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.52 Performance indicators for services to the judicial process



Key performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for services to the judicial process as a key area for development in future reports (box 5.29).

Box 5.29 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for services to the judicial process has yet to be developed.

Effectiveness — proportion of juvenile diversions

'Proportion of juvenile diversions' is as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing (box 5.30).

Box 5.30 Proportion of juvenile diversions

'Proportion of juvenile diversions' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management.

The indicator is defined as the number of juveniles who would otherwise be proceeded against (that is, taken to court) but who are diverted by police, as a proportion of all juvenile offenders formally dealt with by police. A higher proportion of juvenile diversions represents a more desirable outcome.

When police apprehend offenders, they have a variety of options available. They can charge the offender, in which case criminal proceedings occur through the traditional court processes, or they can use their discretion to divert the offender away from this potentially costly, time consuming and stressful situation (for both the offender and victim). Diversionary mechanisms include cautions and attendances at community and family conferences. These options can be beneficial because they allow the offender to be admonished, without the necessity of traditional court processes. They are particularly useful mechanisms for dealing with juvenile offenders.

The term 'diverted' includes diversions of offenders away from the courts by way of community conference, diversionary conference, formal cautioning by police, family conferences, and other diversionary programs (for example, drug assessment/treatment). Excluded are offenders who would not normally be sent to court for the offence detected and who are treated by police in a less formal manner (for example, those issued with warnings or infringement notices).

This indicator does not provide information on the relative success or failure of these diversionary mechanisms.

The proportion of juvenile offenders undergoing diversionary programs ranged from 56 per cent in Tasmania to 30 per cent in Victoria in 2003-04 (table 5A.67). Across all jurisdictions, the proportion of juvenile diversions in 2003-04 was similar to that in 2002-03 (table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Juvenile diversions as a proportion of juvenile offenders (per cent)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld^b</i>	<i>WA^c</i>	<i>SA^d</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT^e</i>
1999-2000	na	32	43	41	53	50	36	na
2000-01	51	na	44	45	53	59	48	80
2001-02	57	30	44	44	49	68	51	57
2002-03	56	31	44	44	54	57	45	49
2003-04	54	30	45	39	55	56	43	44

^a 'Juvenile diversion' is defined in box 5.30. ^b For Queensland, data also include cautions and community conferences. ^c Data for WA are for calendar years, not financial years. Juvenile diversions include juvenile cautions and referrals to Juvenile Justice Teams. The proportion of juvenile diversions has been calculated on total recorded police contacts with juvenile offenders, comprising juvenile cautions, referrals to Juvenile Justice Teams and charges pertaining to juveniles. ^d For SA, 2002-03 data include figures from the first full year of operation of the SA Drug Diversion Initiative. Diversions include diversion by way of formal cautioning by police, and family conferences. ^e For the NT, data also include verbal warnings. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.67.

Efficiency — dollars per person for judicial services

'Dollars per person for judicial services' is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering services to the judicial process (box 5.31).

Box 5.31 Dollars per person for judicial services

'Dollars per person for judicial services' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with police services to the judicial process in an efficient and effective manner.

The indicator is defined as expenditure per person (adjusted for inflation) on police services to the judicial process.

Lower expenditure per person for police judicial services is generally more desirable.

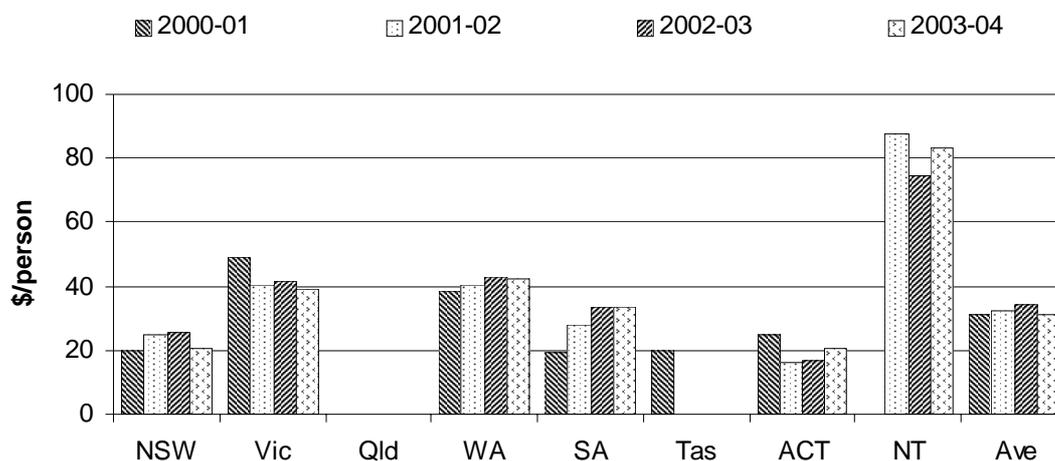
Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high expenditure per person may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging judicial situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect efficient police services, alternatively it may reflect lower quality or less challenging judicial situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be always interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally, of the jurisdictions able to provide data in 2003-04, estimated expenditure on services to the judicial process was \$31 per person. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$83 per person in the NT to \$21 per person in both NSW and the ACT (figure 5.53). Nationally, expenditure on judicial processes as a proportion of total police expenditure per person was 11.7 per cent. As a proportion

of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, it ranged from 16.0 per cent in Victoria to 7.6 per cent in the ACT (table 5A.15).

While comparisons can be made with the previous year's data, care needs to be taken, because the methods employed may have changed. The largest increase in real expenditure on services to the judicial process from 2002-03 to 2003-04 occurred in the NT (a rise of \$8 per person from \$75 to \$83). The largest decrease was in NSW (a fall of \$4 per person from \$25 to \$21). Nationally, real expenditure on services to the judicial process decreased by \$3 per person (from \$34 to \$31) (table 5A.68).

Figure 5.53 Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on services to the judicial process (2003-04 dollars)^a



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.68.

Efficiency — costs awarded against police in criminal actions

Another indicator of the efficiency with which police undertake activities associated with the judicial process is 'costs awarded against police in criminal actions' (box 5.32.)

Box 5.32 Costs awarded against police in criminal actions

'Costs awarded against police in criminal actions' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with police services to the judicial process in an efficient manner.

This indicator is defined as the costs (adjusted for inflation) awarded against police in criminal actions.

Lower costs awarded against police in criminal actions is more desirable. Court costs are generally awarded when a criminal action against an offender has failed; in this respect, it represents at least some of the resources expended when a prosecution fails.

Of those jurisdictions that provided data in 2003-04, the ACT had the highest costs per person awarded against the police (66 cents per person in the population) and Queensland had the lowest (3 cents per person in the population) (table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Real costs awarded against the police in criminal actions (2003-04 dollars)^a

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>
Total costs									
1999-2000	\$'000	na	1 408	208	421	398	24	192	na
2000-01	\$'000	535	na	167	491	323	4	104	na
2001-02	\$'000	552	1278	219	572	532	10	121	na
2002-03	\$'000	691	1027	174	608	477	na	177	na
2003-04	\$'000	589	1627	105	529	478	na	214	14
Total costs per person									
1999-2000	\$	na	0.30	0.06	0.23	0.27	0.05	0.62	na
2000-01	\$	0.08	na	0.05	0.26	0.21	0.01	0.33	na
2001-02	\$	0.08	0.27	0.06	0.30	0.35	0.02	0.38	na
2002-03	\$	0.10	0.21	0.05	0.32	0.31	na	0.55	na
2003-04	\$	0.09	0.33	0.03	0.27	0.31	na	0.66	0.07

^a Total costs awarded against the police resulting from summary offences and indictable offences tried summarily before a court of law. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.69.

Outcomes

Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations, and Indigenous deaths in custody-related operations

‘Deaths in custody and custody-related operations’, and ‘Indigenous deaths in custody’ are outcome indicators of governments’ objective to provide safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensure fair and equitable treatment for both victims and alleged offenders (box 5.33).

Box 5.33 Deaths in custody and custody-related operations, and Indigenous deaths in custody

‘Deaths in custody and custody-related operations, and ‘Indigenous deaths in custody’, are included as outcome indicators of governments’ objective to provide safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensure fair and equitable treatment for both victims and alleged offenders.

The indicators are defined as the number of non-Indigenous and Indigenous deaths in police custody and custody-related operations.

For both indicators, a lower number of deaths in custody and custody-related operations is a better outcome.

Nationally, there were 19 deaths in police custody and custody-related operations in 2002 (down from 31 in 2001). This total comprised 13 non-Indigenous deaths and six Indigenous deaths. Across jurisdictions, the number of non-Indigenous deaths ranged from six deaths in NSW to no deaths in SA, the ACT and the NT (table 5.3). Three jurisdictions recorded Indigenous deaths in 2002 — NSW (three deaths), the NT (two deaths) and WA (one death). Nationally, the death rate per 100 000 people over the period 1998–2002 was 0.66. Across jurisdictions, the rate ranged from 4.62 in the NT to 0.21 in Tasmania (with the ACT recording no deaths over the period) (table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust^b</i>
Non-Indigenous deaths									
1998	9	7	2	1	–	–	–	–	19
1999	4	4	3	2	2	–	–	4	19
2000	12	1	2	1	4	–	–	–	20
2001	15	5	4	1	1	–	–	–	26
2002	6	1	3	2	–	1	–	–	13
Indigenous deaths									
1998	2	–	1	1	–	–	–	2	6
1999	1	–	1	3	–	–	–	1	6
2000	2	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	5
2001	–	–	–	2	3	–	–	–	5
2002	3	–	–	1	–	–	–	2	6
Total deaths									
1998	11	7	3	2	–	–	–	2	25
1999	5	4	4	5	2	–	–	5	26
2000	14	1	3	2	5	–	–	–	25
2001	15	5	4	3	4	–	–	–	31
2002	9	1	3	3	–	1	–	2	19
Total 1998–2002	54	18	17	15	11	1	–	9	126
Rate per 100 000 people (1998–2002) ^c									
	0.83	0.38	0.48	0.80	0.73	0.21	–	4.62	0.66

^a Deaths in police custody include: deaths in institutional settings (for example, police stations/lockups and police vehicles, or during transfer to or from such an institution, or in hospitals following transfer from an institution); and other deaths in police operations where officers were in close contact with the deceased (for example, most raids and shootings by police). Deaths in custody-related operations cover situations where officers did not have such close contact with the person as to be able to significantly influence or control the person's behaviour (for example, most sieges and most cases where officers are attempting to detain a person, such as pursuits). ^b Includes one AFP death in custody in 1999. ^c Rate calculated by using the average population during 1998–2002. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIC (various years), *Deaths in Custody, Australia*; table 5A.65.

Outcomes of court cases

The police assist the judicial process in a variety of ways, including collecting evidence and providing testimony in court. Police work in this area can be measured to some extent by the success of the police in achieving a guilty plea or conviction.

Two sources are used to provide data on the outcomes of court cases for the 2005 Report:

- *ABS Criminal Courts collection* — the source used for the first time in the 2004 Report to provide data on higher court cases for all jurisdictions.
- Jurisdiction data — lower court cases data based on Magistrates' criminal court data provided by each jurisdiction.

It is anticipated that future reports will include comparable ABS data for both higher and lower courts.

Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea

The 'proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea' is one outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process (box 5.34).

Box 5.34 Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea

'Proportion of lower court cases' resulting in a guilty plea is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing.

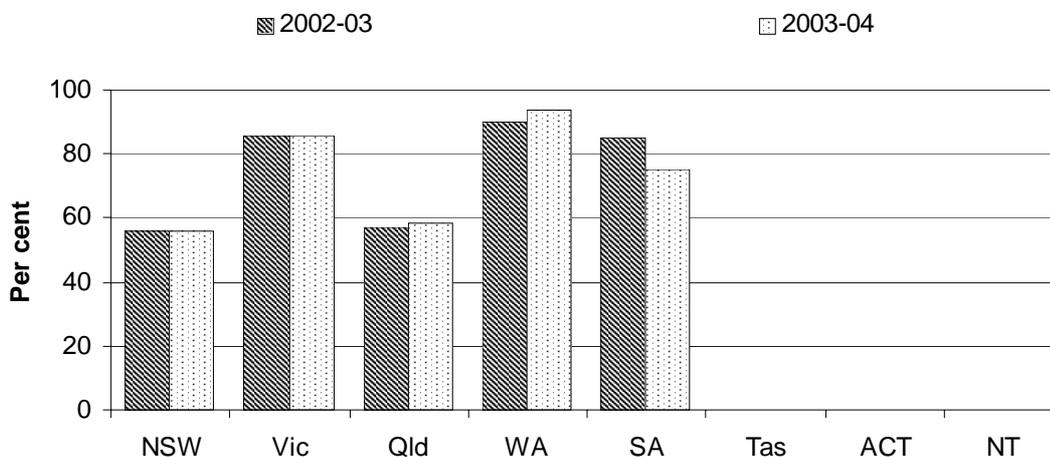
The indicator is defined as the number of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea, as a proportion of the total number of lower court cases.

A higher proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea is a more desirable outcome.

This indicator does not provide information on the number of cases where police have identified a likely offender but choose not to bring the case to trial due to a number of factors. It also does not provide information on the number of minor offences where defendants opt for a guilty plea due to a variety of factors.

Of the five jurisdictions that provided data, the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea in 2003-04 ranged from 94.0 per cent in WA to 56.0 per cent in NSW (figure 5.54). Data should be treated with caution, however, as data are not directly comparable across jurisdictions.

Figure 5.54 Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. ^b Lower court cases data are based on magistrates' criminal court data provided by each jurisdiction. ^c Data for NSW relate to calendar years. ^d For Queensland, the Queensland Wide Interlinked Courts database is unable to provide information consistent with the data dictionary — for example, 'no plea' includes ex-parte cases that are not recorded as a finding of guilty in this Report. ^e For WA, the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea is based on the number of guilty pleas expressed as a percentage of the sum of guilty pleas and matters listed for trial. Data include cases that have been placed before the Children's Court and the Court of Petty Sessions throughout the State by the police service and may also include a small number of cases placed before the Christmas Island Court by the AFP. Criminal cases placed before the district and supreme courts are not included. ^f For SA, data for 2003-04 refer to prosecutions finalised. The figure relates to a percentage of the total number of defendants appearing before a court. The court jurisdiction includes the Magistrates and the Youth Court. The percentage figure is a combination of both a guilty plea and a result of a guilty verdict, that is, the defendant was convicted, a charge was found proved without conviction or a charge was found proved with some other penalty/outcome. ^g Lower court data were not available for Tasmania, the ACT or the NT.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished)); table 5A.66.

Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding

The 'proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding' is another outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process (box 5.35).

Box 5.35 Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding

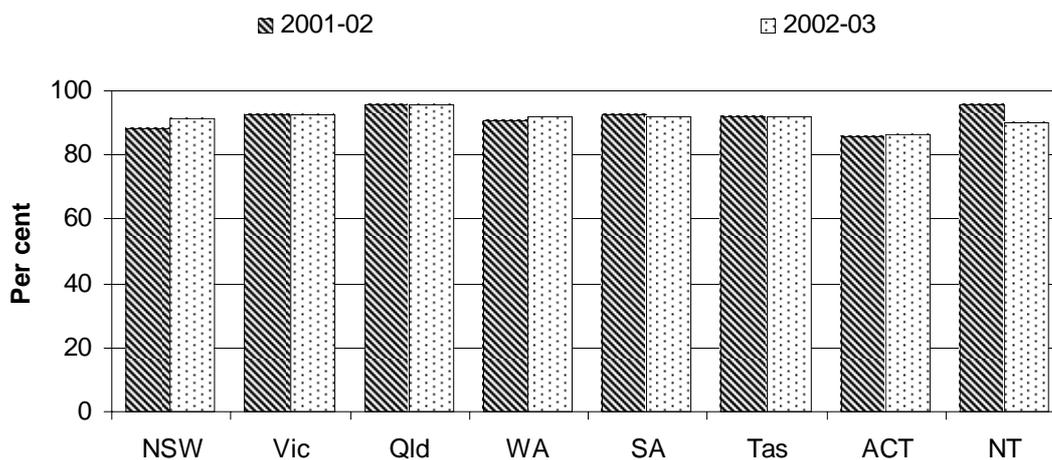
'Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing.

The indicator is defined as the number of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty, as a proportion of the total number of higher courts finalised defendants.

A higher proportion of higher courts finalised defendants submitting a guilty plea or being the subject of a guilty finding represents a better outcome. This indicator does not provide information on the number of cases where police have identified a likely offender, but choose not bring the case to trial due to a variety of factors.

In 2002-03, the proportion of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty ranged from 95.6 per cent in Queensland to 86.6 per cent in the ACT (figure 5.55). Compared with 2001-02, the proportion of cases with a guilty plea or finding increased in NSW and WA, decreased in the NT and remained relatively unchanged in other jurisdictions.

Figure 5.55 Proportion of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty^{a, b}



^a All jurisdictions' data include guilty findings and guilty pleas. ^b A defendant can be either a person or organisation against whom one or more criminal charges have been laid.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4513.0; table 5A.66.

5.8 Other services provided by police

Where possible, all jurisdictions have provided data on police activities within the four SDAs identified within the chapter (community safety and support; crime investigation; road safety and traffic management; and services to the judicial process). In some instances, jurisdictions cannot allocate particular activities or costs to the four SDAs already reported in this chapter, so a fifth SDA has been developed, called 'other services.' This SDA can include (but is not limited to) such things as information and licensing services, regulatory services and ministerial support services (see table 5A.10).

For this Report, only Victoria (\$4.37 per person), Queensland (\$6.75 per person), and WA (\$7.39 per person) have included expenditure under this SDA (table 5.4). As a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure in 2003-04, 'other services' represented 2.7 per cent of Queensland expenditure, 2.5 per cent of WA expenditure and 1.8 per cent of expenditure in Victoria (table 5A.15).

Table 5.4 **Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on 'other services' (2003-04 dollars)^a**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Ave</i>
2000-01	–	–	na	6.61	–	–	5.17	na	0.91
2001-02	–	–	na	5.74	–	na	2.24	–	0.74
2002-03	–	–	6.66	6.89	–	na	2.41	–	2.02
2003-04	–	4.37	6.75	7.39	–	na	–	–	3.18

Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. **na** Not available. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.70.

5.9 Capital costs in the costing of police services

Capital costs (including depreciation and the user cost of capital) for each jurisdiction are contained in tables 5A.1–5A.8. Costs associated with non-current physical assets (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) are potentially important components of the total costs of many services delivered by government agencies. Differences in the techniques for measuring non-current physical assets (such as valuation methods) may thus reduce the comparability of cost estimates across jurisdictions. In response to concerns regarding data comparability, the Steering Committee initiated a study, *Asset Measurement in the Costing of Government Services* (SCRCSSP 2001). The aim of the study was to examine the

extent to which differences in asset measurement techniques applied by participating agencies affect the comparability of reported unit costs.

In police services, the results reported in the study indicate that different methods of asset measurement could lead to quite large variations in reported capital costs. Considered in the context of total unit costs, however, the differences created by these asset measurement effects are relatively small, because capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost. A key message from the study is that the adoption of nationally uniform accounting standards across all service areas would be a desirable outcome from the perspective of the Review. (The study results are discussed in more detail in chapter 2.)

5.10 Future directions in performance reporting

Over recent years, the Review has examined more robust and suitable ways in which to measure levels of efficiency in the services that police jurisdictions provide to the community. Community safety and support, and road safety and traffic management have been identified as two areas in which initial developmental work can be undertaken. As a result of this work, the Report may include new indicators next year or in future years.

While the Report provides information on the costs of services for each SDA, it has proved difficult to develop efficiency indicators for each SDA and for policing in general. At present, the only efficiency indicators shown are the total cost of service per person for each SDA. These are considered to be only partial efficiency measures, given to the absence of agreed output measures.

Policing services are often delivered contemporaneously, covering a single SDA or even extending over several SDAs. Police response to a call for service, for example, will not only deal with the incident at hand, but may also increase police visibility and, therefore, provide public reassurance. Likewise, police road safety operations and crime investigations may also have crime prevention components.

As a result, the Review is examining alternative methods for developing efficiency indicators. The approach is to identify issues of prime importance and the activities required to address them. Measures can then be made of the time and cost of activities, and of the actions resulting from those activities. Efficiency indicators would be defined in terms of the cost per unit of output, where output is defined as the sum of actions taken, weighted to reflect the importance of redressing the problem.

Community safety and support

The Review has identified the following key areas of prime community concern:

- response capability — that police are contactable and attend as necessary
- family (domestic) violence — that police attend in a timely manner, ensure victim safety and follow up
- street and public order — that police patrol designated ‘hot spots’, care for intoxicated people and manage street level drug dealing.

Preliminary analysis suggests the following indicators may be considered as related efficiency indicators:

- cost of response service/calls received — a measure of the efficiency of communications operations
- cost of domestic violence/domestic violence victims — a measure of the efficiency of police domestic violence services
- cost of response service/(weighted) calls attended — a measure of the efficiency in response capability
- cost of targeted street patrols/weighted actions — a measure of the efficiency in public order.

The Police Practitioners Group and the Review continue to explore the potential indicator ‘cost of response service/number of calls dispatched in the metropolitan areas’, and have now collected trial data from all jurisdictions, which are currently being examined.

Road safety and traffic management

The police, in partnership with other key stakeholders, play an instrumental part in road safety and traffic management. Generally, traffic fatality statistics are the most common method used to assess the effectiveness of road safety strategies because they allow for comparative benchmarking and are readily understood by the wider community.

For some time, the Review has been exploring efficiency indicators for road safety and traffic management. Across jurisdictions, specific activities that contribute to the achievement of road safety are consistent. A measure using one of these activities — such as the number of collisions attended — may be used to determine a unit cost and may be a partial efficiency indicator. Such a measure, however, would require a standardised framework for measuring the total cost of road safety and traffic management, and for defining and counting collisions that police attend.

Also, due to the partial nature of the measure, as effectiveness increases (a decrease in collisions), efficiency decreases (an increase in cost per collision).

A possible measure using data collected from the NSCSP has also been considered. It would use information from the NSCSP Survey on the number of traffic related police contacts that respondents have during the year. The advantage of this measure is that the definition of traffic related contacts is consistent. However, definitions for the cost of providing road safety and traffic management are not consistent across jurisdictions. Another limitation of this measure is the methodology of the survey, which samples and 'weights' responses for demographic considerations. This method means that weighted traffic contacts, rather than actual contacts, are counted, which may over estimate the total number. The method also has inconsistent sampling errors across jurisdictions that may bias the results. Further as with the previous measure, as effectiveness increases, efficiency decreases.

Difficulties in determining efficiency indicators for road safety and traffic management include the difficulty of developing measures that are consistently and accurately defined and recorded across all jurisdictions. Compounding this difficulty, determining a measure that reflects the entire range of service delivery remains a challenge. The Review will continue to examine potential road safety and traffic management indicators as part of the 2006 Report process.

Other future developments

The Police Practitioners Group and the Review continue to maintain a watching brief on ABS progress in developing a judicial support indicator 'cost of judicial support SDA/number of offenders' (ABS offender-based statistics). This indicator is perceived as an interim measure, with a target date for the 2006 Report. The Review also continues to explore the potential indicator 'cost of crime investigation SDA/number of cases initiated'.

5.11 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status).

New South Wales Government comments



The mission of NSW Police is ‘police and community working together to establish a safer environment by reducing violence, crime and fear.’ The primary focus is on reducing crime and the community’s fear of crime-related problems. The development of local solutions to local problems, to ensure all people can freely enjoy their lawful pursuits, is undertaken in partnership with the community and government and non-government agencies.

Local Area Commands (LACs) are at the heart of service delivery. Performance at the State level is an accumulation of LACs and reflects the actions taken locally. However, the achievement of results, including reducing crime and improved community satisfaction, is influenced by many other factors other than NSW Police activity.

The last few years have shown significant reductions in almost all categories of recorded crime in most states. Police are reliant on victims and others reporting crime as the primary source of information. Reports of crime are recorded by police on internal administrative systems. However, the systems used and recording practices of the jurisdictions can be vastly different and the comparison of interstate crime rates is not recommended.

LACs are encouraged to engage in internal benchmarking, against past trends and in comparison to other LACs. At the State level, however, comparison with other states and territories is considered less useful, as the information is neither timely nor sufficiently consistent to be used operationally.

Crime victim surveys are one method of testing whether the apparent trend from recorded crime is ‘real’. The US Crime Victimization Survey has been conducted annually for the last 30 years and annual crime victim surveys are run in the UK. In Australia, Crime and Safety Surveys have been conducted annually in NSW since 1990, but national information is only available for 1993, 1998 and 2002. The victim surveys also provide additional measures, such as the reporting rate and therefore allow examination of whether community education programs and other efforts have elicited a change in reporting behaviour which might be the genuine cause of differences observed in Recorded Crime.

Community concern and opinion regarding policing are also important to police and accordingly the National Community Satisfaction with Policing Survey provides a basis of assessing performance. Police action, however, is not the sole determinant of public perception and the influence of media reporting and indeed film and TV cannot be discarded.



Victorian Government comments

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January 2004 saw the formal launch of The Way Ahead Strategic Plan 2003–2008. This will provide a clear focus for Victoria Police and is aimed at enhancing its capability and effectiveness in the face of rapidly increasing and diversified community demands and challenges. Through implementation of the strategies and initiatives outlined in The Way Ahead, Victoria Police aims to provide intelligent and confident policing focused on the development of partnerships and building community capacity that empowers individuals to build a safer Victoria.

In 2003-04, the overall recorded crime rate in Victoria, as measured per 100 000 population, fell by 7.3 per cent. In two areas of particular concern to the Victorian community, home burglary and theft of motor vehicles, the reductions achieved were 9.1 per cent and 18.2 per cent respectively. Safety on Victorian roads continued to improve, with 33 fewer deaths than in the previous year – making it the lowest road toll on record for the second successive year.

Additionally, the National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (NSCSP) indicated that 89.2 per cent of Victorians felt safe or very safe out and about in their own neighbourhood and 74.5 per cent of Victorians were satisfied or very satisfied with their local policing services.

The Way Ahead was produced following an extensive process of community and workforce consultation. One of the most important issues constantly underlined by this consultation process was that communities want policing services that are sensitive to local needs and priorities. In Victoria, this tailoring of services to meet local needs and priorities has been achieved through the implementation of the Local Priority Policing initiative, which is now thoroughly embedded in the way services are delivered to the community. Following the State-wide roll out of The Way Ahead, Victoria has also introduced a process of performance evaluation and analysis through bi-annual Compstat Forums.

Compstat Forums focus on the four key performance measures from The Way Ahead, together with a range of other corporate performance indicators. In 2004, local level data from the NSCSP is being used as part of that performance evaluation framework. Each Division participates in two Forums a year. These Forums are gradually being extended throughout Victoria Police, including into specialist support and corporate service areas, to drive performance improvement and the adoption of identified best practice.

Momentum for focused change and improvement in Victoria Police has been further enhanced by the outcomes of an independently conducted financial and management accountability review. The recommendations from the review have been used to generate improvements in corporate governance arrangements, management practices and accountability frameworks.

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Queensland Government comments



The Queensland Police Service delivers policing services to a population of almost four million Queenslanders dispersed across a land mass of 1.7 million square kilometres, or around one quarter of Australia.

Throughout 2003-04 the Police Service continued with its major commitment to accountability and proactive performance management aimed at continuous improvement in service delivery. The further development of Operational Performance Reviews across 29 police districts, State Crime Operations Command, Operations Support Command and more recently in selected corporate support areas has enabled the Queensland Police Service to respond effectively to the Queensland Government policy objective of achieving *Safe and Secure Communities* for people in Queensland.

The Service's Annual Statistical Review 2003-04 again recorded some decreases across the reported offences. For example, the unlawful use of motor vehicles and unlawful entry into premises, including dwellings and shops, decreased in comparison to the previous year. At the same time, police identified increased instances of handling stolen goods, an offence often closely linked to the unlawful entry of premises. There was an increase in the total number of Offences Against the Person reported in the 2003-04 financial year. However, there was a decrease in homicide, assaults and robbery.

The Service is developing strategies in support of the Government's priority of *Protecting our children and enhancing community safety*. The Police Service is committed to implementing the recommendations of the Crime and Misconduct Commission report: *Protecting Children: An Inquiry into Abuse of Children in Foster Care* and the Government's Child Protection Blueprint. Additional Government funding will allow for the establishment of a Coordination Support Unit, under the authority of a Superintendent (Child Safety Director), within State Crime Operations Command, to implement and monitor the Service's role and also provide for the deployment of an additional 50 Juvenile Aid Bureau officers in the Service by September 2005.

The Service has continued to expand its Police Beat and Police Shopfront programs. In addition, Tactical Crime Squads have been established at Oxley, North Brisbane and Mt Isa Districts.

The Government introduced new powers for police. The *Terrorism (Community Safety) Amendment Act 2004* gives police greater surveillance powers and the capacity to call on the assistance of interstate and federal police in the event of a terrorist incident.

Forensic facilities were upgraded to allow the Service to apply for accreditation by the National Association of Testing Authorities (NATA) during 2004. This accreditation will provide formal recognition that the Service meets international standards in performing forensic examinations. The Radio Electronics Calibration Laboratory received NATA accreditation in chemical testing for breath analysis instruments, and electrical testing for speed measuring devices.



Western Australian Government comments

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The final report of the Kennedy Royal Commission (Royal Commission) was publicly released following tabling in Parliament in March 2004. The Royal Commission provided the opportunity for the Western Australia Police Service (WA Police Service) to acknowledge both its achievements and areas for improvement, to rethink its priorities, as well as to unveil and address pockets of corrupt activity. A number of proactive and preventative strategies have already been adopted or are being actioned. Coinciding with the conclusion of the Royal Commission, an internal Reform Coordination Team was established for the purpose of analysing the report findings and developing a plan of works that will form the basis of ongoing reform.

An immediate priority has been to implement strategies to drive the importance of *Frontline First*, in providing improved core policing services to the community and ensuring adequate frontline resources to cope with policing demands.

Frontline First will shape all that the WA Police Service does in the year ahead and this philosophy encompasses many aspects. It provides a focus on responsive, accessible and professional service delivery; on improving the community's trust and confidence in their police service; on the importance of obligations as part of the whole-of-government approach and on the reforms emanating from the Royal Commission.

The WA Police Service's pledge to addressing family and domestic violence continues to be enhanced in line with a whole-of-government approach prompted by the Gordon Inquiry, which especially identified a lack of adequate services to members of remote Aboriginal communities. Strategic and operational changes have been made within the agency to improve the coordination and accountabilities for the management of family violence and child protection.

Considerable focus is now on the development of a new Strategic Plan which will lead to a corruption-resistant culture, identification of the appropriate number and mix of police and public service officers to meet frontline requirements, and enhancement of supervisory, management and leadership capabilities.

Implementation of the WA Government's Burglary Reduction Strategy has contributed to a 14.9 per cent decrease in the number of burglary offences recorded in 2003-04 compared with the previous year. WA also recorded decreases in sexual assault, threatening behaviour, non-aggravated robbery, motor vehicle theft, theft, arson, property damage and drug possession offences. In addition, the rate of offences cleared improved for homicide, threatening behaviour, deprivation of liberty, non-aggravated robbery, burglary, motor vehicle theft, receiving/illegal use and property damage.

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South Australian Government comments

“ An important new government feature in 2004 has been the introduction of South Australia’s Strategic Plan—Creating Opportunity; which recognises that successful economies are based on strong, inclusive communities. South Australia Police (SAPOL) contribute to a central component of the Plan (‘Safe and Secure Communities’), by providing police services that support a safe and secure environment as the foundation for all community wellbeing and prosperity.

Community safety underpins the delivery of our core policing functions, and as part of being responsive to community needs and expectations, SAPOL has maintained a focus on State security issues as an organisational priority. Effort has been expended on reassuring the public through the continued targeted investigations of the joint SAPOL and Australian Federal Police Counter Terrorism Team and the redevelopment of the Police Operations Centre, to ensure effective management of state, national, or international terrorist incidents aimed at Australian interests.

In 2003-04, guided by the organisational framework of the Future Directions Strategy 2003–2006, SAPOL has continued to demonstrate a capacity to provide a high standard of service delivery to the community. Once again, the community response to the delivery of policing services was very positive, with 85.6 per cent of South Australians having confidence in their police.

Policing services continued to be effectively delivered through fourteen Local Service Areas (Core Structures), established across the State as an integral part of the South Australia Policing Model in the Future Directions Strategy. Local Service Areas provide accountable, responsive and flexible local services, that are also able to work together and call on specialist central support resources to achieve broader community safety outcomes.

A Crime Reduction Strategy is also an important component of the South Australia Policing Model. A continuing decline in the total number of crimes reported by victims in both 2002-03 and 2003-04, reflects the success of this strategy and illustrates SAPOL’s commitment to the Future Directions Strategy mission statement of ‘Working together to reassure and protect the community from crime and disorder’.

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Tasmanian Government comments

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Results from the National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing confirmed that Tasmania Police continues to perform well across a range of national performance measures. Tasmania was below the national average in all nine major offence categories, with one of the best crime clearance rates in the country. Total offences decreased by 15 per cent, following a 6 per cent decrease the previous year. Contributing to these results was a substantial decrease of 17 per cent in property crime. Crimes against the person increased slightly by 1.5 per cent, lower than the 4 per cent increase the previous year. This increase was substantially due to rises in the reporting of assaults, a significant percentage of which were family violence incidents in private homes. However, public place assaults were down by 6 per cent. Crime clearance rates continued their improvement for the fifth year, with 38 per cent of all crime offences cleared. Ninety-one per cent of person offences were solved, with 29 per cent of property offences being cleared.

The same survey reveals that Tasmanians continued to hold their police in high regard and viewed them as being honest and trustworthy. Significantly, 80 per cent of those surveyed expressed satisfaction with their most recent contact with police. Tasmanians also continued to feel safe in their homes and in public places.

A major driver for Government policy is the whole-of-community Tasmania *Together* plan. In keeping with this, Tasmania Police commenced a number of major initiatives this year, including Safe at Home, Community Support Panels and Inter-Agency Information Sharing Protocols.

Safe at Home is a new whole-of-government integrated response and intervention approach designed to reduce the incidence of family violence. Tasmania Police will have a major management role in a strategy that is based on a pro-arrest, pro-charge, pro-prosecution policy by police with strong emphasis given to protecting the safety and wellbeing of victims. Complementing their law enforcement role, police will now receive special training to assist with victim support and case management.

The Tasmanian Government also continued funding for U-Turn, the ‘best practice’ diversionary program for young people who have been involved in, or who are at risk of being involved in, motor vehicle theft.

A whole-of-government initiative being managed as a project by Tasmania Police involves the development of Inter-Agency Protocols for Information Sharing for ‘at risk’ young people to improve identification of young peoples’ issues and more effective provision of early and integrated intervention programs.

Earlier this year, Tasmania jointly hosted Australia’s largest and most ambitious counter-terrorism exercise. An outstanding success, this involved extensive planning prior to the five-day event and, for the first time, fully tested the nation’s response to a national terrorist threat.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The 2003-04 year saw the continued implementation of long term, intelligence driven, property crime reduction strategies in the ACT. Analysis of crime trends conducted prior to the introduction of *Operation Halite*, highlighted the resurgent nature of property crime patterns in the Territory and particularly drew attention to the fact that the results of short term targeted operations were unsustainable into the long term due to the drain on human and financial resources.

During the first half of 2003-04 total offences levels in the Territory were high with projections indicating that end of year offence total would be greater than those recorded in 2002-03. As a result ACT Policing launched a number of targeted initiatives in the second half of the year which operated in support of the *Halite* concept to inundate the crime problem in the ACT and attack it simultaneously from a number of perspectives. The total number of offences reported in the ACT consequently fell by just over 10 per cent in 2003-04.

Since *Operation Halite* commenced on 28 October 2002, the average weekly burglary rate has fallen from 142 to 110 offences. Motor vehicle theft offences continued to fluctuate through the year with the most significant reductions occurring late in 2003-04 following the introduction of the targeted initiatives mentioned above. End of year results showed an overall reduction of seven percent in this offence category.

While these results are positive, of concern to police over this period has been the increasing evidence of growth in a range of emergent crime types and criminal methodologies in the ACT. Of particular note has been the recent prevalence in organised crime groups involved in the growth and large scale distribution on hydroponically grown cannabis. Increasingly sophisticated criminal networks have been detected in the ACT some of which have clear links to larger scale operations in other Australian and international jurisdictions. The development of organised crime elements in the ACT presents new challenges for traditional policing methodologies. These challenges are exacerbated by concurrent increases in information technology based crime particularly in the area of credit card fraud and, of greater concern, in relation to the sexual exploitation of children.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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During 2003-04, the Northern Territory Police underwent major structural change, bringing a renewed focus to the Agency's pivotal role of enhancing community safety and protection for Territorians.

Intelligence and forensic led policing in conjunction with crime reduction strategies focused on active repeat offenders, crime hot spots, crime scenes, and preventive patrolling. A crime reduction strategy was developed and will be implemented in the next reporting period. For the second consecutive year, reported crime reduced significantly, including break-ins to homes and businesses, and motor vehicle theft.

The outcomes of the Core Structures Review have been implemented. This Review resulted in the establishment of both a Human Resource Services Command, and Tasking and Coordination Groups across the Territory. The Tasking and Coordination Groups entail the directed use of uniform and plain-clothes officers. A further significant outcome was a noticeable reduction in attrition rates, and an improvement in the overall morale of police. Significant focus was placed on in-service training during the period. This resulted in more than half of the membership receiving training in leadership, management, crime investigation and crime intelligence.

In line with emerging national priorities, the Counter Terrorism Security Unit was expanded, and the organisation took part in a multi-jurisdictional counter terrorism exercise. Further training and equipment will be provided on an ongoing basis.

These strategies and initiatives align with the strong commitment of Northern Territory Police towards enhancing community safety and protection through excellent policing services.

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5.12 Information on sample data

Some of the results reported are estimates obtained by conducting surveys with samples of the group or population in question. Results, therefore, are subject to sampling error. The data obtained from a sample may be different from the ‘true’ data that would have been obtained from the entire group or population (not just a sample) using the same methods. Consequently, care needs to be taken when using survey results (see appendix A).

The standard error is a measure of sampling error. It indicates the extent to which the estimate may differ from the ‘true value’ because only a sample was taken. If the survey is performed repeatedly, then the difference between the sample estimate and the population value will be less than one standard error approximately 68 per cent of the time. The difference will be less than two standard errors 95 per cent of the time. It will be less than three standard errors 99 per cent of the time. Another way of expressing this is to say that in 68 (95, 99) of every 100 samples, the estimate obtained from a single survey will be within one (two, three) standard errors of the ‘true’ value.

The chance that an estimate falls within a certain range of the true value is known as ‘the confidence of the estimate’. For any particular survey, there is a tradeoff between the confidence of the estimate (68 per cent, 95 per cent or 99 per cent) and the size of the survey. The appropriate level of confidence chosen depends on the purpose of obtaining the estimate.

The relative standard error is the standard error, expressed as a percentage of the estimate, which should be attached to the estimate. It indicates the margin of error that should be attached to the estimate. The smaller the estimate, the higher is the relative standard error.

Table 5.5 Relative standard error of estimates for the ACPR Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing^a

<i>Estimate</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
'000	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
2	149	155	108	138	104	49	40	31	152
5	89	95	66	82	61	30	24	18	91
10	60	66	45	55	40	20	16	12	62
20	41	46	31	37	27	14	11	8	42
50	24	28	19	22	16	9	7	5	25
100	16	19	13	15	10	6	5	3	17
200	11	13	9	10	7	4	3	2	12
500	7	8	5	6	4	–	–	–	7
800	5	6	4	4	3	–	–	–	5
1 000	4	6	4	4	3	–	–	–	5
2 000	3	4	3	3	–	–	–	–	3
5 000	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2
10 000	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
12 000	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1
14 000	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1

^a The ABS considers that only estimates with relative standard errors of 25 per cent or less are sufficiently reliable for most purposes. Estimates greater than 25 per cent are subject to sampling variability too high for most practical purposes and need to be treated with caution and viewed as merely indicative of the magnitude involved. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ACPR (unpublished).

5.13 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Armed robbery	Robbery conducted with the use (actual or implied) of a weapon, where a weapon can include, but is not restricted to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• firearms — pistol, revolver, rifle, automatic/semi-automatic rifle, shotgun, military firearm, airgun, nail gun, cannon, imitation firearm and implied firearm• other weapons — knife, sharp instrument, blunt instrument, hammer, axe, club, iron bar, piece of wood, syringe/hypodermic needle, bow and arrow, crossbow, spear gun, blowgun, rope, wire, chemical, acid, explosive, vehicle, other dangerous article and imitation weapons.
Assault	The direct (and immediate/confrontational) infliction of force, injury or violence on a person(s) or the direct (and immediate/confrontational) threat of force, injury or violence where there is an apprehension that the threat could be enacted.
Available full time equivalent staff	Any full time equivalent category where the individual is on duty performing a function. To be measured using average staffing level for the whole reporting period.
Average non-police staff salaries	Salaries and payments in the nature of salary paid to civilian and other employees, divided by the total number of such employees.
Average police salaries	Salaries and payments in the nature of salary paid to sworn police officers, divided by the number of sworn officers.
Blackmail and extortion	Unlawful demanding with intent to gain money, property or any other benefit from, or with intent to cause detriment to, another person, accompanied by the use of coercive measures, to be carried out at some point in the future if the demand is not met. This may also include the use and/or threatened use of face-to-face force or violence, provided there is a threat of continued violence if the demand is not met.
Cautioning	A formal method of dealing with young offenders without taking court proceedings. Police officers may caution young offenders instead of charging them if the offence or the circumstance of the offence is not serious.
Civilian staff	Unsworn staff, including specialists (civilian training and teaching medical and other specialists) and civilian administrative and management staff.
Complaints	Number of statements of complaint by members of the public regarding police conduct.
Crimes against the person	Total recorded crimes against person, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• murder• attempted murder• manslaughter• assault• kidnapping/abduction• armed robbery• unarmed robbery• sexual assault• blackmail/extortion.
Death in police custody	Death of a person who was in police custody; <u>death caused or</u>

and custody-related incident	contributed to by traumatic injuries while in custody; death of a person who was fatally injured when police officers attempted to detain that person; or death of a person who was fatally injured when escaping or attempting to escape from police custody.
Depreciation	Where possible, based on current asset valuation.
Driving causing death	The unlawful killing of another person, without intent to kill, as a result of culpable, dangerous, reckless or negligent driving.
Executive full time equivalent staff	Number of executive full time equivalent staff, including civilian senior executive service and sworn (chief superintendent to assistant commissioner) staff.
Full time equivalent (FTE)	The equivalent number of full time staff required to provide the same hours of work as performed by staff actually employed. A full time staff member is equivalent to a full time equivalent of one, while a part time staff member is greater than zero but less than one.
Indigenous full time equivalent staff	Number of full time equivalent staff who are identified as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent.
Land transport hospitalisations	Hospitalisations due to traffic accidents that are likely to have required police attendance; these may include accidents involving trains, bicycles and so on.
Management full time equivalent staff	Number of management full time equivalent staff, including civilian (managers) and sworn (inspector to superintendent) staff.
Motor vehicle theft	The taking of another person's motor vehicle illegally and without permission.
Murder	The wilful killing of a person either intentionally or with reckless indifference to life.
Non-Indigenous full time equivalent staff	Number of full time equivalent staff who do not satisfy the Indigenous staff criteria.
Non-operational full time equivalent staff	Any person who does not satisfy the operational staff criteria, including functional support staff only. Functional support full time equivalent staff include any person (sworn or unsworn) not satisfying the operational or operational support staff criteria (for example, finance, policy, research, personnel services, building and property services, transport services, and management above the level of station and shift supervisors).
Other recurrent expenditure	Maintenance and working expenses; expenditure incurred by other departments on behalf of police; expenditure on contracted police services; and other recurrent costs not elsewhere classified. Expenditure is disaggregated by service delivery area.
Other staff	All unsworn, non-civilian staff, including all auxiliary police personnel who are neither sworn officers nor strictly civilians because they are authorised to exercise statutory powers normally restricted to sworn officers. This category includes police cadets, police aides and special constables.
Other theft	The taking of another person's property with the intention of depriving the owner of the property illegally and without permission, but without force, threat of force, use of coercive measures, deceit or having gained unlawful entry to any structure, even if the intent was to commit theft.
Outcome of investigations	The stage reached by a police investigation after a period of 30 days has elapsed since the recording of the incident.

Practitioner full time equivalent staff	Number of practitioner full time equivalent staff, including civilian (administration) and sworn (constable to senior constable) staff.
Property crimes	Total recorded crimes against property, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unlawful entry with intent • motor vehicle theft • other theft.
Proportion of higher court cases resulting in guilty finding	Total number of higher courts finalised defendants resulting in a guilty plea or finding, as a proportion of the total number of higher courts finalised defendants. A defendant can be either a person or organisation against whom one or more criminal charges have been laid. <p>A higher court is either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an intermediate court (known either as the district court or county court) that has legal powers between those of a court of summary jurisdiction (lower level courts) and a supreme court, and that deals with the majority of cases involving serious criminal charges • a supreme court (a higher court level which deals with the most serious criminal charges and has the greatest legal powers of all the State and Territory court levels) (ABS 2003c). <p>Guilty finding is an outcome of a trial in which a court determines that the criminal charge against a defendant has been proven (ABS 2003c).</p>
Proportion of juvenile diversions	Total number of juvenile offenders who are diverted by police (for example, through the use of cautions, official warnings or other diversionary programs) away from the criminal justice system, as a proportion of the total number of juvenile offenders either diverted from or dealt with by the criminal justice system (that is, those who are either diverted or prosecuted).
Proportion of lower court cases resulting in guilty plea	Total number of cases (excluding committal hearings) heard before lower courts of law only, for which there was a plea of guilty, as a proportion of the total number of cases (excluding committal hearings) heard before lower courts of law only. <p>A lower court is a court of summary jurisdiction (commonly referred to as magistrates' court, local court or court of petty sessions) that deals with relatively less serious charges and has the most limited legal powers of all State and Territory court levels. Such courts are presided over by a magistrate and have jurisdiction to hear trial and sentence matters relating to summary offences. Under some circumstances, this court level may also deal with the less serious indictable offences known as 'minor indictable' or 'triable either way' offences (ABS 2003c).</p> <p>A guilty plea is the formal statement by a defendant admitting culpability in relation to a criminal charge. A not guilty plea is the formal statement by a defendant denying culpability in relation to a charge (ABS 2003c). For this data collection, a plea of 'not guilty' should also include 'no plea', 'plea reserved' and 'other defended plea'.</p> <p>Further, these definitions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • exclude preliminary (committal) hearings for indictable offences dealt with by a lower court • count cases that involve multiple charges as a 'lower court case resulting in a plea of guilty' if a plea of guilty has resulted for at least

	one of those charges.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices, using the GDP(E) price deflator, and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Recorded crime	Crimes reported to (or detected) and recorded by police.
Registered vehicles	Total registered motor vehicles, including motorcycles.
Reporting rate	The proportion of crime victims who told police about the last crime incident of which they were the victim, as measured a crime victimisation survey.
Revenue from own sources	Revenue from activities undertaken by police, including revenue from the sale of stores, plant and vehicles; donations and industry contributions; user charges; and other revenue (excluding fine revenue and revenue from the issuing of firearm licenses). Revenue is disaggregated by service delivery area.
Road deaths	Fatal road injury accidents as defined by the Australian Transport Safety Bureau.
Robbery	The unlawful taking of property from the immediate possession, control, custody or care of a person, with the intent to permanently deprive the owner of the property accompanied by the use, and/or threatened use of immediate force or violence.
Salaries and payments in the nature of salary	<p>Includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • base salary package • motor vehicle expenses that are part of employer fringe benefits • superannuation, early retirement schemes and payments to pension schemes (employer contributions) • workers compensation (full cost) including premiums, levies, bills, legal fees • higher duty allowances (actual amounts paid) • overtime (actual amounts paid) • actual termination and long service leave • actual annual leave • actual sick leave • actual maternity/paternity leave • fringe benefits tax paid • fringe benefits provided (for example, school fee salary sacrifice at cost to the government, car parking, duress alarms, telephone account reimbursements, 'gold passes', other salary sacrifice benefits • fringe benefits provided (for example, school fee salary sacrifice at cost to the government, car parking, duress alarms, telephone account reimbursements, 'gold passes', other salary sacrifice benefits, frequent flier benefits, overtime meals provided, and any other components that are not part of a salary package) • payroll tax. <p>These are disaggregated by service delivery area.</p>
Senior executive full time equivalent staff	Number of senior executive full time equivalent staff, including civilian (top senior executive service) and sworn (commissioner, deputy commissioner and equivalent civilian executives) staff.

Service delivery areas	<p>The core areas of police work. Four service delivery areas are identified for the purposes of this Report:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • community safety and support • crime investigation • road safety and traffic management • services to the judicial process. <p>A fifth service delivery area ('other' or 'other services') was identified to account for those unique functions of jurisdictions that were not directly associated with the aforementioned areas.</p> <p>While this is an attempt to identify common areas of core service delivery, their exact formats do not neatly fit with any jurisdiction or with how the jurisdictions measure or plan for performance.</p>
Sexual assault	<p>Physical contact of a sexual nature directed towards another person where that person does not give consent, that person gives consent as a result of intimidation or fraud, or consent is proscribed (that is, the person is legally deemed incapable of giving consent as a result of youth, temporary/permanent (mental) incapacity or a familial relationship). Includes rape, attempted rape, indecent assault and assault with intent to commit sexual assault. Excludes sexual harassment not leading to assault.</p>
Supervisory full time equivalent staff	<p>Number of supervisory full time equivalent staff, including civilian (team leaders) and sworn (sergeant to senior sergeant) staff.</p>
Sworn staff	<p>Sworn police staff recognised under each jurisdiction's Police Act.</p>
Total capital expenditure	<p>Total expenditure on the purchase of new or second hand capital assets, and expenditure on significant repairs or additions to assets that add to the assets' service potential or service life.</p>
Total expenditure	<p>Total capital expenditure plus total recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources).</p>
Total FTE staff	<p>Operational staff and non-operational staff, including full time equivalent staff on paid leave or absence from duty (including secondment and training), as measured using absolute numbers for the whole reporting period.</p>
Total number of staff	<p>Full time equivalent staff directly employed on an annual basis (excluding labour contracted out).</p>
Total recurrent expenditure	<p>Includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • salaries and payments in the nature of salary • other recurrent expenditure • depreciation • less revenue from own sources.
Unarmed robbery	<p>Robbery conducted without the use (actual or implied) of a weapon.</p>
Unavailable full time equivalent staff	<p>Any full time equivalent category where the individual is on paid leave or absent from duty (including secondment and training), as measured using the average staffing level for the whole reporting period.</p>
Unlawful entry with intent — involving the taking of property	<p>The unlawful entry of a structure (whether forced or unforced) with intent to commit an offence, resulting in the taking of property from the structure. Includes burglary and break and enter offences. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.</p>
Unlawful entry with intent — other	<p>The unlawful entry of a structure (whether forced or unforced) with intent to commit an offence, but which does not result in the taking of</p>

	property from the structure. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.
Value of physical assets — buildings and fittings	The value of buildings and fittings under the direct control of police.
Value of physical assets — land	The value of land under the direct control of police.
Value of physical assets — other	The value of motor vehicles, computer equipment, and general plant and equipment under the direct control of police.

5.14 References

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- 2003c, *Criminal Courts 2001-02, Australia*, Cat. no. 4513.0, Canberra.
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6 Court administration

This chapter covers the performance of court administration for State and Territory supreme, district/county and magistrates (including children's) courts, electronic courts, coroners courts and probate registries. It also covers the performance of court administration for the Federal Court of Australia, the Federal Magistrates Court, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA. The focus of this Report is on the administration of the courts, not the outcomes of legal processes.

A profile of court administration is presented in section 6.1. The framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 6.2 and data are discussed in section 6.3. Future directions for performance reporting are discussed in section 6.4. Jurisdictions' comments are provided in section 6.5, followed by definitions in section 6.6.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 6 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Reports\2005\Attach6A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as Attach6A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 6A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

6.1 Profile of court administration services

Service overview

Court administration agencies throughout Australia provide a range of services integral to the effective performance of the judicial system. The primary functions of court administration agencies are to:

-
- manage court facilities and staff, including buildings, security and ancillary services such as registries, libraries and transcription services
 - provide case management services, including client information, scheduling and case flow management
 - enforce court orders through the sheriff's department or a similar mechanism.

Roles and responsibilities

State and Territory court levels

There is a hierarchy of courts within each State and Territory. The supreme court hears disputes of greater seriousness than those heard in the other courts. It also develops the law and operates as a court of judicial review or appeal. For the majority of jurisdictions, the hierarchy of courts are as outlined below (although Tasmania and the territories do not have a district/county court):

- the supreme court
- the district/county court
- the magistrates court.

Within certain court levels, a number of specialist courts (such as drug courts and children's courts) aim to improve the responsiveness of courts to the special needs of particular clients. Tribunals can also improve responsiveness and assist in alleviating the workload of courts — for example, small claims tribunals may assist in shifting work away from a magistrates court.

Differences in court jurisdictions, along with the use of specialist courts and tribunals, can mean that the allocation of cases to courts varies across states and territories (boxes 6.1–6.3). As a result, the seriousness and complexity of cases heard in each jurisdiction's equivalent court often vary. Any performance comparison needs to account for these factors.

Box 6.1 Magistrates court jurisdiction across states and territories

Criminal

All magistrates courts deal with criminal matters that can be decided without a jury and committal proceedings. There are, however, differences across jurisdictions:

NSW: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to two years imprisonment for a single offence, and up to five years imprisonment for multiple offences.

Victoria: Hears and determines some indictable offences (if the court is of the opinion that the charge is appropriate to be dealt with summarily, and the defendant consents).

Queensland: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to three years imprisonment, including some indictable offences dealt with summarily.

WA: Hears and determines some indictable offences (if the court is of the opinion that the charge can be dealt with summarily).

SA: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to two years imprisonment, juvenile prosecutions and intervention orders (including breaches).

Tasmania: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to two years imprisonment, including some indictable offences dealt with summarily.

ACT: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to 14 years imprisonment if the offence relates to money or property, and up to 10 years imprisonment in other cases.

NT: deals with some drug and fraud charges and matters with a maximum penalty of up to 10 years imprisonment (or 10–14 years imprisonment if the accused consents).

Civil

NSW: Deals with small claims up to \$10 000 and general division claims up to \$60 000, as well as family law matters.

Victoria: deals with up to \$100 000 for monetary damages, as well as applications for equitable relief and applications under the *Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987*.

Queensland: Deals with small claims (including residential tenancy disputes) up to \$7500, minor debt claims up to \$7500 and other claims up to \$50 000.

WA: Deals with claims for debt recovery and damages (other than personal injury) up to \$25 000. It has a small disputes division and deals with residential tenancy disputes.

SA: Deals with small claims up to \$5000, commercial cases up to \$30 000 and personal injury claims up to \$60 000.

Tasmania: Deals with claims up to \$20 000 for monetary damages and debt recovery, minor civil claims up to \$5000, residential tenancy disputes and restraint orders.

ACT: Deals with small claims up to \$10 000, workers compensation claims, some family law matters, other claims up to \$50 000 and matters under the *Domestic Relations Act 1994*.

NT: deals with claims up to \$100 000 and workers compensation claims.

Sources: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments.

Box 6.2 District/county court jurisdiction across states and territories

The district/county court does not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT.

Criminal

All State district/county courts have jurisdiction over indictable criminal matters (such as rape and armed robbery) except murder and treason, but differences exist across jurisdictions. The following are examples of the jurisdiction of the criminal district/county courts:

NSW: District Court deals with most of the serious criminal cases that come before the courts in NSW. It has responsibility for indictable criminal offences that are normally heard by a judge and jury, but on occasions by a judge alone. It does not deal with treason or murder.

Victoria: County Court deals with all indictable offences, except the following (which must be heard in the Supreme Court): murder; attempted murder; child destruction; certain conspiracy charges; treason; and concealing an offence of treason. Examples of criminal offences heard in the County Court include: drug trafficking; serious assaults; serious theft; rape; and obtaining financial advantage by deception.

Queensland: District Court deals with more serious criminal offences than heard by the Magistrates Court — for example, rape, armed robbery and fraud.

WA: District Court deals with any indictable offence except those that carry a penalty of life imprisonment.

SA: District Court has jurisdiction to try a charge of any offence except treason or murder. Almost all matters have been referred following a committal process in the Magistrates Court.

Appeals from magistrates courts are heard in the district/county courts in NSW, Victoria and Queensland, but not in WA and SA.

Civil

All district/county civil courts hear appeals.

NSW: Deals with claims up to \$750 000, and unlimited claims in motor accident cases.

Victoria: Deals with damages for non-personal injuries claims up to \$200 000, appeals under the *Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987*, unlimited claims for compensation resulting from injury or death, adoption matters and change-of-name applications.

Queensland: Deals with claims between \$50 000 and \$250 000.

WA: Deals with claims up to \$250 000 and unlimited claims for personal injuries.

SA: Deals with unlimited claims for general and personal injury matters.

Sources: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments.

Box 6.3 Supreme court jurisdiction across states and territories

Criminal

All State and Territory supreme courts have jurisdiction over serious criminal matters such as murder, treason and certain serious drug offences, but significant differences exist across jurisdictions:

- Given that district/county courts do not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT, the supreme courts in these jurisdictions generally exercise a jurisdiction equal to that of both the supreme and district/county courts in other States.
- The Queensland Supreme Court deals with a significant amount of minor drug matters, which supreme courts in other states and territories do not hear.
- In the NSW Supreme Court, almost all indictments are for offences of murder and manslaughter, whereas the range of indictments routinely presented in other states and territories is broader.

All State and Territory supreme courts hear appeals, but the amount and type of appeals vary because only NSW, Victoria and Queensland hear appeals in their district/county court.

Civil

All supreme courts deal with appeals and probate applications.

NSW: Deals with unlimited claims. The court's jurisdiction is usually confined to complex cases, including matters involving large monetary sums, test cases, administrative law, defamation, possession/mortgage, professional negligence, commercial, technology and construction cases, and the administration of corporations, partnerships and trusts.

Victoria: Deals with unlimited claims.

Queensland: Deals with claims over \$250 000 and administrative law matters.

WA: Court deals with unlimited claims.

SA: Deals with general claims of more than \$30 000, personal injury claims of more than \$60 000 arising from motor vehicle accidents, and the possession of property of more than \$60 000 value. Cases awarded less than the amounts shown are subject to cost penalties.

Tasmania: Deals with unlimited claims.

ACT: Deals with unlimited claims.

NT: Deals with unlimited claims, as well as mental health, family law and *Coroners Act 1993* applications.

Sources: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments.

State and Territory court levels — specific elements

The data in this chapter are reported by each State and Territory court level. In addition, the chapter separates out certain data items from each court level to improve the comparability and understanding of the data presented. In certain instances, the data sets from the following areas are reported separately from their court level:

- probate registries (separate from the supreme court level)
- children's courts (separate from the magistrates court level)
- electronic courts (separate from the magistrates court level)
- coroners courts (separate from the magistrates court level).

The following section outlines the role of these areas and their coverage within each State/Territory.

Probate

In all jurisdictions, probate issues are heard in supreme courts and encompass applications for the appointment of an executor or administrator to the estate of a deceased person. The two most common types of application are:

- where the executor nominated by a will applies to have the will proved
- where the deceased died intestate (without a will) and a person entitled to administer the estate applies for letters of administration.

Children's courts

In all jurisdictions, the children's court deals with all complaints of offences alleged to have been committed by young people (with the minimum age varying across jurisdictions). The children's court also hears matters if a child has been seriously abused or neglected; in these instances, the court has jurisdiction to determine matters relating to the child's care and protection.

Electronic courts

Electronic courts operate to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences. They have the status of courts (despite minimal judicial involvement), because they have the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants. The orders impose penalties such as fines (which may be enforced by warrants or

licence cancellation), asset seizure, garnishment, arrest, community correction orders and incarceration.

Electronic courts included in the scope of this data collection operate in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. In these jurisdictions, the electronic court comes under the ambit of the magistrates court, but the workload and expenditure of the electronic courts have been separately identified to allow for a more comparable interpretation of magistrates court data. In other jurisdictions, the magistrates court may enforce infringements and on-the-spot fines, or state debt recovery offices and/or fines enforcement units may operate outside the auspices of a court.

Coroners courts

In all states and territories, coroners courts (which generally operate under the auspices of State and Territory magistrates courts) inquire into the cause of sudden and unexpected reported deaths. The definition of a reported death differs across states and territories, but generally includes deaths for which the cause is violent, suspicious or unknown. In some states and territories, the coroner has the power to commit for hearing, while the coroner in other jurisdictions is prohibited from making any finding of criminal or civil liability (that is, the matter may be referred to the Director of Public Prosecutions). Suspicious fires are generally in the jurisdiction of the coroners court (except in WA, SA and the NT). The coroners court is distinct from other courts not only because it has a role in inquiring into the cause of sudden and unexpected deaths (and suspicious fires), but also because it has other functions, including reporting inadequacies in regulatory systems.

Australian courts

The following hierarchy of courts exists within the Australian courts jurisdiction:

- the High Court of Australia
- the Federal Court of Australia and the Family Court of Australia
- the Federal Magistrates Court.

Data on the High Court are not reported in this chapter. The following sections highlight the relationship between the other three Australian courts.

Federal Court of Australia

This court is a superior court of record and a court of law and equity. It sits in all capital cities and elsewhere in Australia from time to time.

The Court has jurisdiction to hear and determine any civil matter arising under laws made by the Federal Parliament, as well as any matter arising under the Constitution or involving its interpretation. The Court also has original jurisdiction in respect of specific subject matter conferred by over 150 statutes of the Federal Parliament.

The Court has a substantial and diverse appellate jurisdiction. It hears appeals from decisions of single judges of the Court, decisions of the Federal Magistrates Court in non-family law matters, decisions of the Supreme Court of Norfolk Island and certain decisions of State and Territory supreme courts exercising federal jurisdiction.

Family Court of Australia

The Family Court of Australia has jurisdiction in all states and territories except WA (which has its own Family Court). It has jurisdiction to deal with matrimonial cases and associated responsibilities, including divorce proceedings and children's matters such as residence, contact and special issues orders.

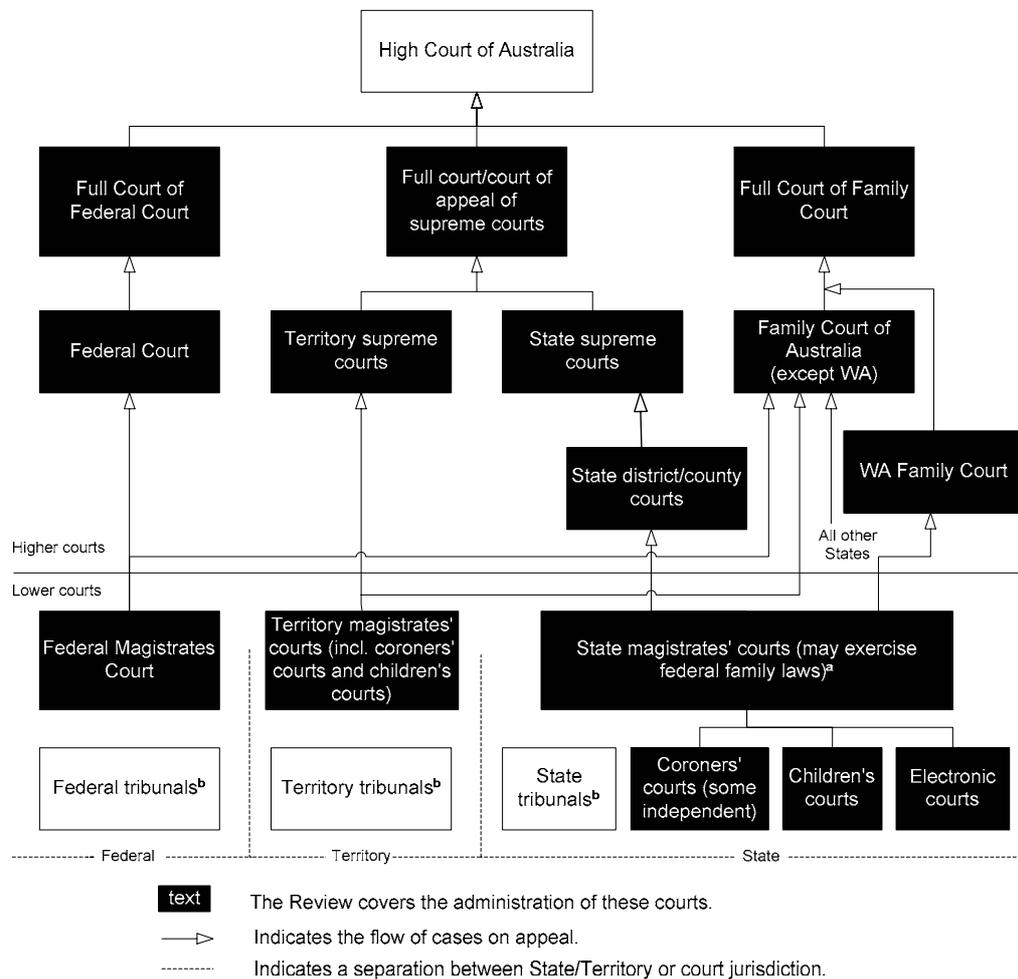
Federal Magistrates Court

The first sittings of the Federal Magistrates Court were on 3 July 2000. The court was established to provide a simpler and more accessible service for litigants, and to ease the workload of both the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. Its jurisdiction includes family law and child support, administrative law, bankruptcy, consumer protection, human rights, privacy law and copyright matters. State courts also continue to do some work in these areas (FMC 2004).

The Federal Magistrates Court shares its jurisdiction with the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. The intention is for the latter two courts to focus on more complex legal matters. In family law matters, the Family Magistrates Court's jurisdiction is similar to that of the Family Court, except that only the Family Court can consider adoption, property disputes worth over \$700 000, and applications concerning the nullity and validity of marriage (FMC 2004).

The major relationships between, and hierarchy of, courts in Australia are summarised in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Major relationships of courts in Australia



^a In some jurisdictions, appeals from lower courts or district/county courts may go directly to the court of appeal in the supreme court. In the ACT, the Court of Appeal of the Supreme Court commenced exercising limited jurisdiction on 31 October 2001; full jurisdiction commenced on 14 October 2002. ^b Appeals from federal, State and Territory tribunals may go to any higher court in their jurisdiction.

Administrative structures

Most courts use the same court infrastructure (such as court buildings and facilities) for civil and criminal case types. Given that separate information systems and case flow management practices have been established for civil and criminal case types, the Steering Committee has sought to report the two case types separately where possible. In addition, the allocation of responsibilities between court administration and other elements of the system (including the judiciary) varies across the Australian, State and Territory legal systems.

Recurrent expenditure less income

A number of factors affect a jurisdiction's expenditure and income, including the volume and type of work undertaken. In some jurisdictions, court fees (which are part of income) are set by government and not by court administrators, and some jurisdictions apportion expenditure between their criminal and civil courts.

Total recurrent expenditure by Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was approximately \$1.1 billion in 2003-04 (table 6.1). Nationally, court administration expenditure for the states and territories in that year was higher in the criminal jurisdiction of the supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (\$454.1 million) than in the civil jurisdiction of those courts (\$431.3 million minus \$74.5 million for Australian courts, or \$356.8 million). The coroners court expenditure was \$31.5 million in 2003-04, while the electronic court expenditure and probate court expenditure were \$17.5 million and \$2.8 million respectively (table 6.1). In the Australian courts jurisdiction, recurrent expenditure in 2003-04 was \$108.3 million for the Family Court of Australia, \$74.5 million for the Federal Court of Australia and \$32.3 million for the Federal Magistrates Court (table 6.1).

Total income (excluding fines) by Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was \$261.8 million in 2003-04 (table 6.1). Income was \$140.0 million in the civil courts, \$11.6 million in the criminal courts and \$66.8 million in electronic courts. Income from probate was \$24.1 million nationally. In the Australian courts jurisdiction, income was \$11.3 million for the Federal Magistrates Court, \$5.1 million for the Family Court of Australia and \$7.1 million for the Federal Court of Australia (table 6.1).

Total recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) by Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was \$831.2 million in 2003-04. Nationally, court administration expenditure less income for the states and territories was higher in the criminal jurisdiction of the supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (\$442.5 million) than in the civil jurisdiction of those courts (\$291.3 million minus \$67.4 million, or \$223.9 million). The coroners court expenditure less income was \$30.4 million, while both the probate registries and electronic courts had greater income than expenditure during 2003-04 (by \$21.4 million and \$49.3 million respectively) (table 6.1). In the Australian courts jurisdiction, recurrent expenditure less income was \$103.1 million for the Family Court of Australia, \$67.4 million for the Federal Court of Australia and \$21.0 million for the Federal Magistrates Court (table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines), 2003-04 (\$ million)^{a, b, c, d}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	139.5	74.7	46.9	42.4	30.4	4.2	8.5	10.2	74.5	431.3
Criminal courts ^g	159.7	90.0	76.2	59.9	41.0	11.2	7.1	9.1	..	454.1
Electronic courts	..	1.6	8.6	3.7	3.7	17.5
Family courts ^f	15.3	108.3	123.6
Federal Magistrates ^h	32.3	32.3
Coroners courts	7.8	4.7	6.8	4.3	4.0	0.6	2.4	0.8	..	31.5
Probate — supreme ⁱ	1.5	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	..	2.8
Total	308.6	171.5	138.5	125.7	79.4	16.0	18.1	20.1	215.0	1 093.1
<i>Court administration income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	64.4	29.5	17.9	9.4	7.6	1.2	2.4	0.6	7.1	140.0
Criminal courts ^g	5.2	0.0	0.9	3.1	1.5	0.4	0.5	0.1	..	11.6
Electronic courts ^j	..	26.9	19.7	10.5	9.8	66.8
Family courts ^f	1.6	5.1	6.7
Federal Magistrates	11.3	11.3
Coroners courts	0.2	0.0	0.8	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
Probate — supreme	15.0	3.6	0.0	2.3	2.7	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	24.1
Total^k	84.8	60.0	39.3	27.0	21.5	1.8	3.3	0.7	23.5	261.8
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	75.1	45.3	29.0	33.0	22.8	3.0	6.1	9.5	67.4	291.3
Criminal courts ^g	154.5	90.0	75.3	56.7	39.5	10.8	6.6	9.0	..	442.5
Electronic courts ^j	..	-25.3	-11.1	-6.8	-6.1	-49.3
Family courts ^f	13.7	103.1	116.8
Federal Magistrates ^h	21.0	21.0
Coroners courts	7.7	4.7	6.0	4.2	4.0	0.6	2.4	0.8	..	30.4
Probate — supreme ⁱ	-13.5	-3.2	0.0	-2.0	-2.3	-0.1	-0.3	0.0	..	-21.4
Total^j	223.9	111.5	99.2	98.8	57.9	14.2	14.8	19.4	191.5	831.2

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). ^c District/county courts do not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT. The Australian courts do not operate district/county or supreme courts. ^d Payroll tax is excluded. ^e Includes data for the supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (including children's courts), and the Federal Court of Australia. Excludes data for the probate, family courts and the Federal Magistrates Court. ^f The data for the Family Court of Australia includes the 'free' allocation of Family Court resources to the Federal Magistrates Court. Data for the Federal Court include the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Court. ^g Includes data for supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (including children's courts). Excludes data for the electronic and coroners courts. ^h The Federal Magistrates Court expenditure data includes resources received free of charge from the Federal Court. ⁱ The full cost of probate may not be identified, because rent or depreciation may be included under general supreme court figures. ^j NSW, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not include income from electronic courts. These jurisdictions' debt recovery offices (or the equivalent) are not part of the justice or attorney-general's department. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.9–6A.13.

Real recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) on court administration from 2001-02 to 2003-04 for each Australian, State and Territory court level is contained in tables 6A.12 and 6A.13.

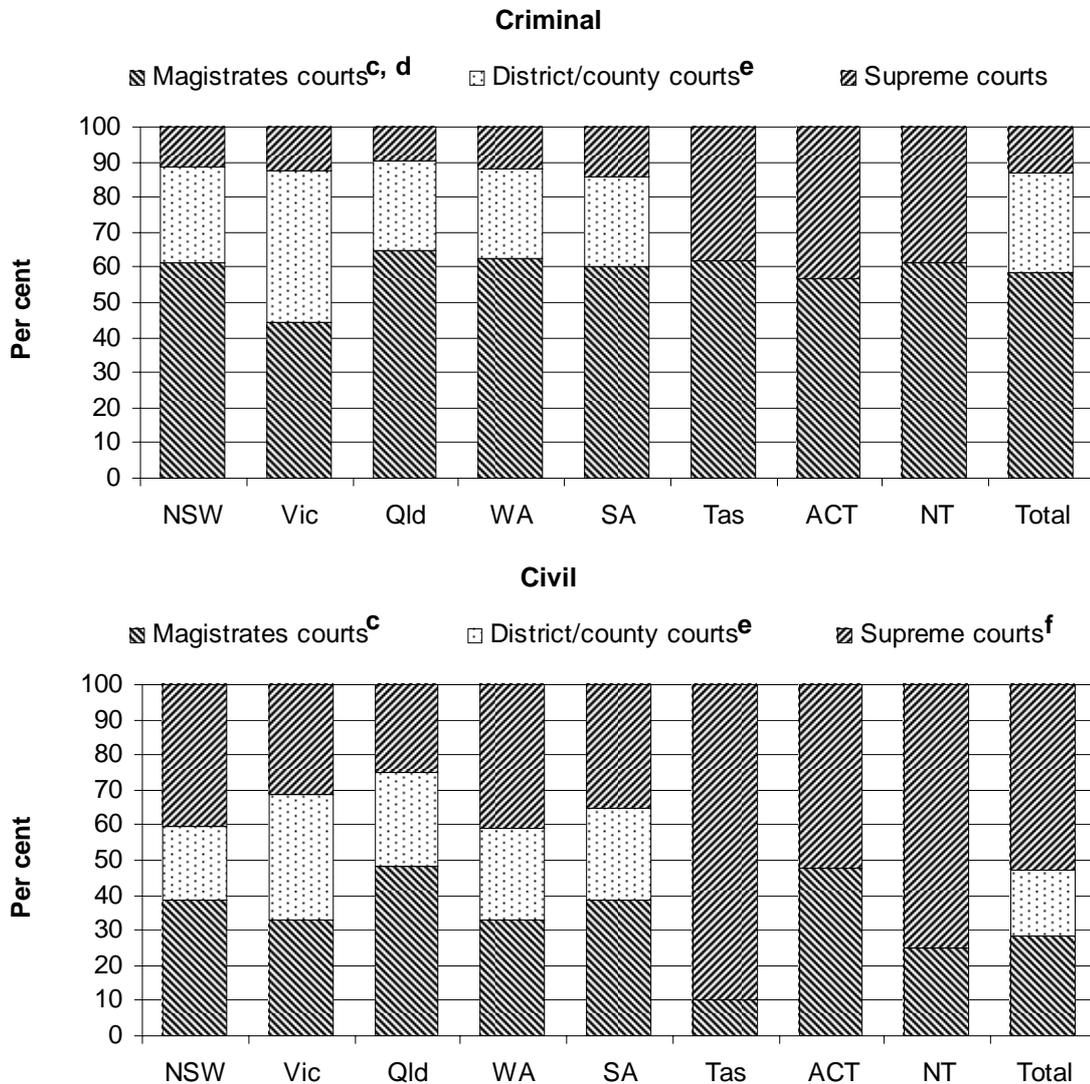
Distribution of criminal and civil court administration expenditure

The distribution of court administration expenditure (less income) on the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts varied across states and territories in 2003-04. A greater proportion of funds were distributed to the supreme courts of Tasmania, the ACT and the NT (under the two-tier court system), for example, than to the supreme courts of other jurisdictions (under the three-tier court system) (figure 6.2).

In 2003-04, magistrates courts (excluding electronic courts) in the criminal jurisdiction accounted for 58.3 per cent of expenditure (less income) across State and Territory criminal courts. District/county courts in the criminal jurisdiction accounted for 28.4 per cent of expenditure (less income), while supreme courts accounted for 13.3 per cent. Comparing states and territories, the magistrates court share of expenditure (less income) was highest in Queensland (64.6 per cent) and lowest in Victoria (44.3 per cent); the district/county court share was highest in Victoria (43.0 per cent) and lowest in WA (25.7 per cent); and the supreme court share was highest in the ACT (43.4 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (9.5 per cent) (figure 6.2).

In 2003-04, magistrates courts in the civil jurisdiction accounted for 28.5 per cent of expenditure (less income) in State and Territory courts as a whole. The supreme courts in the civil jurisdiction accounted for 52.8 per cent of expenditure (less income), while district/county courts accounted for 18.7 per cent. Comparing jurisdictions, the magistrates courts share of civil expenditure (less income) varied from 48.4 per cent in Queensland to 10.5 per cent in Tasmania. The supreme court share ranged from 89.5 per cent in Tasmania to 24.2 per cent in Queensland, and the district/county court share ranged from 35.6 per cent in Victoria to 21.2 per cent in NSW (figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 **Distribution of court administration expenditure (less income), by court level, 2003-04^{a, b}**



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).

^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Includes expenditure on children's courts. ^d Excludes expenditure on coroners courts. Excludes expenditure on electronic courts for Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. ^e There are no district/county courts in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT. ^f Includes probate.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.12 and 6A.13.

Size and scope of court activity

Lodgments

Lodgments are matters initiated in the court system. Box 6.4 explains how lodgment data are collected for this chapter. Table 6.2 (criminal) and table 6.3 (civil) outline the number of lodgments in 2003-04, by court level, for the Australian courts and for each State and Territory.

Box 6.4 Explanation of lodgment data used in this chapter

Lodgments reflect the degree to which the Australian community demands court services, such as dispute resolution and criminal justice. The different ways of counting a court's workload reflect the variety of work undertaken within the court system. The units of measurement of workload (or counting units) used within this chapter are:

- *criminal courts*: — the number of defendants
- *civil courts*: — the number of cases
- *family courts*: — the number of forms (that is, the number of applications made to the court)
- *electronic courts*: — the number of unpaid infringement notices
- *coroners courts*: — the number of reported deaths (and, if relevant, reported fires).

The following types of lodgment are excluded from the criminal and/or civil lodgment data reported in this chapter:

- any lodgment that does not have a defendant element (such as applications for telephone taps etc.)
- extraordinary driver's licence applications
- bail procedures (including applications and review)
- directions
- bench warrants
- cross-claims
- secondary processes — for example, interlocutory matters, breaches of penalties (that is, bail, suspended sentences, probation)
- applications for default judgments (because the application is a secondary process).

Source: SCRCSSP (2003), p. 6.17.

Nationally, in the criminal jurisdiction in 2003-04, there were 777 200 defendants in the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts; approximately 1.5 million lodgments of unpaid infringement notices in electronic courts; and 21 500 reported

deaths and fires in the coroners courts (19 900 deaths and 1600 fires) (table 6A.1 and table 6.2).

Reporting rates for deaths reported to a coroner varied as a result of different reporting requirements. Deaths in institutions (such as nursing homes) of persons suffering intellectual impairment of any kind, for example, must be reported in SA but not in other jurisdictions. Reporting requirements also vary for fires. Fires may be reported and investigated at the discretion of the coroner in Victoria, but they are excluded from the coroner's jurisdiction in WA, SA and the NT.

Table 6.2 Court lodgments — criminal, by court level, 2003-04 ('000)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates (total) ^{b, c}	187.2	149.1	183.2	74.0	71.1	62.4	6.6	11.7	745.3
<i>Magistrates (only)</i>	175.0	138.3	171.0	66.6	64.5	60.6	5.9	10.6	692.6
<i>Children's</i>	12.2	10.8	12.2	7.4	6.6	1.7	0.7	1.1	52.7
District/county ^c	9.7	4.8	8.3	2.7	1.6	27.1
Supreme	0.7	0.5	1.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.4	4.8
All criminal courts	197.6	154.4	193.0	77.2	73.1	67.6	6.8	12.1	777.2
Electronic courts ^d	..	768.2	388.4	201.1	123.1	1480.7
Coroners courts ^e	6.1	4.5	3.7	1.3	4.0	0.6	1.1	0.3	21.5

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b NSW criminal magistrates court lodgment figures differ from prior years as a result of a revision of the counting rules applied. ^c Drug court data has not been included in NSW District Court lodgment figures. In Queensland, some children's court matters are heard in the district court. As a result, the inclusion of all children's court matters in the magistrates court will lead to a slight overestimation of the magistrates court total and an underestimation in the district court total. ^d Electronic courts are fines enforcement registries that have the status of a court. Only Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA have electronic courts. In other jurisdictions, unpaid traffic infringement notices may be dealt with by other bodies that do not have the status of a court (such as a State debt recovery office). ^e Includes data for 180 reported fires in NSW, 705 in Queensland and 751 in the ACT. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.1.

Nationally, in the civil jurisdiction in 2003-04, there were 647 700 cases in the supreme, district/county and magistrates courts, with an additional 56 300 probate lodgments in the supreme court (table 6A.2 and table 6.3). Also in 2003-04, there were 6000 cases lodged in the Federal Court of Australia. Lodgements in the Federal Magistrates Court included 70 000 family law forms. Around 62 000 forms were filed in the family courts (table 6.3).

Table 6.3 Court lodgments — civil, by court level, 2003-04 ('000)^a

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^{b, c}	202.0	173.5	90.9	54.8	33.6	11.6	7.7	5.9	..	579.9
Magistrates (only) ^{b, c}	196.5	171.1	86.4	54.0	32.8	11.5	7.5	5.8	..	565.5
Children's	5.5	2.4	4.5	0.7	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.1	..	14.3
District/county	8.4	8.8	7.3	3.4	2.9	30.8
Supreme ^d /Federal ^e	11.3	6.3	5.2	2.9	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.4	6.0	37.0
All civil courts	221.7	188.6	103.4	61.1	38.4	13.2	9.0	6.3	6.0	647.7
Federal Magistrates ^f	76.8	76.8
Family courts ^{e, g}	15.1	46.9	62.0
Probate										
Supreme courts ^h	22.4	15.7	5.4	5.1	5.0	2.1	0.6	0.1	..	56.3

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b The Victorian data include 64 213 residential tenancies matters and 5131 civil claims list applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. As well, applications for an intervention order made in the children's court have been reported under magistrates court lodgments. ^c Queensland has included lodgments at its small claims tribunal. ^d Queensland supreme court data are extrapolated. ^e The Federal Magistrates Court has implications for the number of lodgments in the Family Court of Australia. The Family Court of Australia does not include family law matters dealt with in the Federal Magistrates Court (reported separately). ^f Lodgments in the Federal Magistrates Court included 70 000 family law forms. ^g The Family Court of Australia civil lodgment data exclude instances where Family Court of Australia deputy registrars were given delegation to conduct Federal Magistrate Court divorce applications. The Family Court of WA does elements of both the Family Court of Australia and Federal Magistrates Court work, so direct comparisons must be made with caution. ^h Tasmanian data include elections to administer. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.2.

The number of lodgments per 100 000 people can be used to assist in understanding the comparative workload of a court (in relation to the size of the State or Territory population). Tables 6A.3 and 6A.4 provide data on criminal and civil lodgments (per 100 000 people) respectively for each State and Territory court and the Federal Court of Australia. There were 3719 criminal court lodgments in the magistrates court per 100 000 people in Australia in 2003-04. This number ranged from 13 011 per 100 000 people in Tasmania to 2032 in the ACT (table 6A.3). In the civil jurisdiction, there were 2894 civil court lodgments in the magistrates court per 100 000 people in Australia. This rate ranged from 3502 per 100 000 people in Victoria to 2192 in SA (table 6A.4).

Distribution of court lodgments

The majority of criminal matters in Australia in 2003-04 were lodged in the magistrates courts (95.9 per cent), followed by the district/county courts (3.5 per cent) and the supreme courts (0.6 per cent). Tasmania had the highest

proportion of criminal matters lodged in the magistrates court (99.1 per cent), NSW had the highest proportion lodged in the district/county court (4.9 per cent) and the ACT and NT had the equal highest proportion lodged in the supreme court (3.3 per cent) (table 6.4).

The majority of civil matters in Australia in 2003-04 were lodged in the magistrates courts (89.5 per cent), followed by the supreme courts (5.7 per cent) and the district/county courts (4.8 per cent). Victoria had the highest proportion of civil cases lodged in the magistrates court (92.0 per cent), SA had the highest proportion lodged in the district/county court (7.5 per cent) and the ACT had the highest proportion lodged in the supreme court (14.0 per cent) (table 6.4).

In the Australian courts jurisdiction, no attempt has been made to calculate the proportion of lodgments going to the Federal Court, the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Magistrates Court, because each of these courts uses different counting units for their lodgments. (The Federal Court uses cases, the Family Court uses forms, and the Federal Magistrates Court uses a mix of cases and forms). As a result, any comparison of the proportion of lodgments within the Australian courts jurisdiction would be meaningless.

Table 6.4 Distribution of court lodgments, by court level, 2003-04^a

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Criminal courts</i>										
Magistrates (total) ^{b, c}	%	94.8	96.5	94.9	95.9	97.3	99.1	96.7	96.7	95.9
District/county ^c	%	4.9	3.1	4.3	3.5	2.2	3.5
Supreme	%	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.9	3.3	3.3	0.6
All courts	'000	197.6	154.4	193.0	77.2	73.1	63.0	6.8	12.1	777.2
<i>Civil courts</i>										
Magistrates (total) ^d	%	91.1	92.0	87.9	89.6	87.4	87.7	86.0	93.6	89.5
District/county	%	3.8	4.7	7.0	5.6	7.5	4.8
Supreme ^e	%	5.1	3.4	5.1	4.8	5.1	12.3	14.0	6.4	5.7
All courts ^f	'000	221.7	188.6	103.4	61.1	38.4	13.2	9.0	6.3	647.7

^a Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes electronic court lodgments to provide a more meaningful comparison across jurisdictions. Also excludes coroners courts data. ^c In Queensland, some Children's Court matters are heard in the District Court. As a result, the inclusion of all Children's Court matters in the Magistrates Court will lead to a slight overestimation of the Magistrates Court proportion and an underestimation of the District Court proportion. ^d The Victorian data include around 64 213 residential tenancies matters and 5131 civil claims list applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. Queensland data include lodgments at the Small Claims Tribunal. ^e Excludes probate data. ^f Excludes data for the Family Court of WA, the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Magistrates Court because lodgment data are based on forms that are not comparable with the State and Territory civil data or Federal Court data (which are based on cases). .. Not applicable.

Sources: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.1 and 6A.2.

Finalisations

Finalisations represent the completion of matters in the court system. Each lodgment can be finalised only once. Matters may be finalised by adjudication, transfer or another non-adjudicated method (such as withdrawal of a matter by the prosecution, or settlement by the court or an external mediator).

Tables 6.5 (criminal) and 6.6 (civil) outline the number of finalisations in 2003-04, by court level, for the Australian Government and each State and Territory. Lodgements do not equal finalisations in any given year because matters lodged in one year may be finalised in the next. In 2003-04, there were 743 300 criminal finalisations in the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts; approximately 1.8 million electronic court unpaid infringement notice finalisations; and 20 200 finalisations (involving reported deaths and fires) in the coroners court (tables 6A.5 and 6.5).

Table 6.5 Court finalisations — criminal, 2003-04 ('000)^{a, b}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates (total) ^{c, d}	183.5	140.5	182.2	77.3	54.7	57.2	6.7	10.5	712.4
<i>Magistrates (only)</i>	171.1	130.9	170.5	72.3	50.0	55.5	6.0	9.5	665.8
<i>Children's^e</i>	12.3	9.6	11.7	5.0	4.7	1.7	0.7	0.9	46.6
District/county ^c	9.2	5.0	8.2	2.7	1.2	26.3
Supreme	0.7	0.6	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.3	4.6
All criminal courts	193.3	146.1	191.8	80.4	56.2	57.7	6.9	10.8	743.3
Electronic courts	..	1053.0	567.8	100.1	89.7	1810.7
Coroners courts ^f	5.9	4.1	3.1	1.3	3.8	0.7	1.0	0.2	20.2

^a Lodgments do not equal finalisations in any given year because matters lodged in one year may be finalised in the next. ^b Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^c In NSW, drug court data has not been included in District Court finalisation figures. In Queensland, some Children's Court matters are heard in the District Court. As a result, the inclusion of all children's court matters in the magistrates court will lead to a slight overestimation of the magistrates court total and an underestimation in the district court total. ^d NSW criminal Magistrates Court finalisation figures differ from those prior years because the counting rules were revised. NSW Magistrates Court finalisation data are estimated from the 83 per cent of cases on the case management computer system. ^e Excludes finalisations data for committals heard in the children's court. ^f Includes finalisations data for fires reported in NSW, Queensland and the ACT. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.5.

In 2003-04, 581 800 civil cases (587 900 minus 6100) were finalised in the State and Territory magistrates, district/county and supreme courts. The Federal Court finalised 6100 cases, the Federal Magistrates Court finalised 62 800 matters (mainly family law forms plus some federal law cases) and the Family Court of Australia finalised 52 400 family law forms (tables 6A.6 and 6.6).

Table 6.6 **Court finalisations — civil, 2003-04 ('000)**^{a, b, c}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^{d, e, f}	193.4	148.9	95.2	36.3	22.5	11.9	8.2	3.7	..	520.0
Magistrates (only) ^{e, f}	188.3	146.7	91.1	35.4	22.5	11.8	8.0	3.5	..	507.2
Children's	5.1	2.2	4.1	0.9	..	0.1	0.2	0.2	..	12.8
District/county ^{g, h}	10.4	7.3	7.5	3.3	2.8	31.2
Supreme/Federal ^{g, i}	11.1	5.2	6.2	3.4	1.2	2.0	1.2	0.4	6.1	36.7
All civil courts	214.9	161.3	108.9	42.9	26.5	13.9	9.4	4.0	6.1	587.9
Federal Magistrates	62.8	62.8
Family ⁱ	13.3	52.4	65.7

^a Lodgements do not equal finalisations in any given year because matters lodged in one year may be finalised in the next. ^b Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^c Cases withdrawn after initial lodgment may not be recorded as a finalisation in some jurisdictions. ^d In Queensland and SA, magistrates courts (total) data exclude children's finalisations. ^e The Victorian data include 64 213 residential tenancy matters and 5131 civil claims applications that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^f Queensland includes finalisations at the Small Claims Tribunal. ^g In Victoria, the 12 month deeming rule for inactive cases has not been used for the county or supreme courts. ^h In Queensland, not all inactive matters have been identified or finalised. ⁱ The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Court has implications for the finalisations data of the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.6.

The number of finalisations per 100 000 people provides a better understanding of the comparative workload of a court (in relation to the size of the State or Territory population). Tables 6A.7 and 6A.8 provide data on criminal and civil finalisations (per 100 000 people) respectively for each State and Territory court and the Federal Court. There were 3555 criminal court finalisations per 100 000 people in the magistrates courts in Australia in 2003-04, with the number ranging across individual jurisdictions from 11 924 in Tasmania to 2072 in the ACT (table 6A.7). There were 2595 civil court finalisations per 100 000 people in the magistrates courts in Australia, with the number ranging across jurisdictions from 3005 in Victoria to 1473 in SA (table 6A.8).

6.2 Framework of performance indicators

The framework of performance indicators is based on common objectives for court administration services across Australia (box 6.5). The emphasis placed on each objective varies across jurisdictions.

Box 6.5 Objectives for court administration

Objectives for court administration are:

- to be open and accessible
- to process matters in an expeditious and timely manner
- to provide due process and equal protection before the law
- to be independent yet publicly accountable for performance.

In addition, all governments aim to provide court administration services in an efficient manner.

The performance indicator framework

The performance indicator framework is shown in figure 6.3. For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

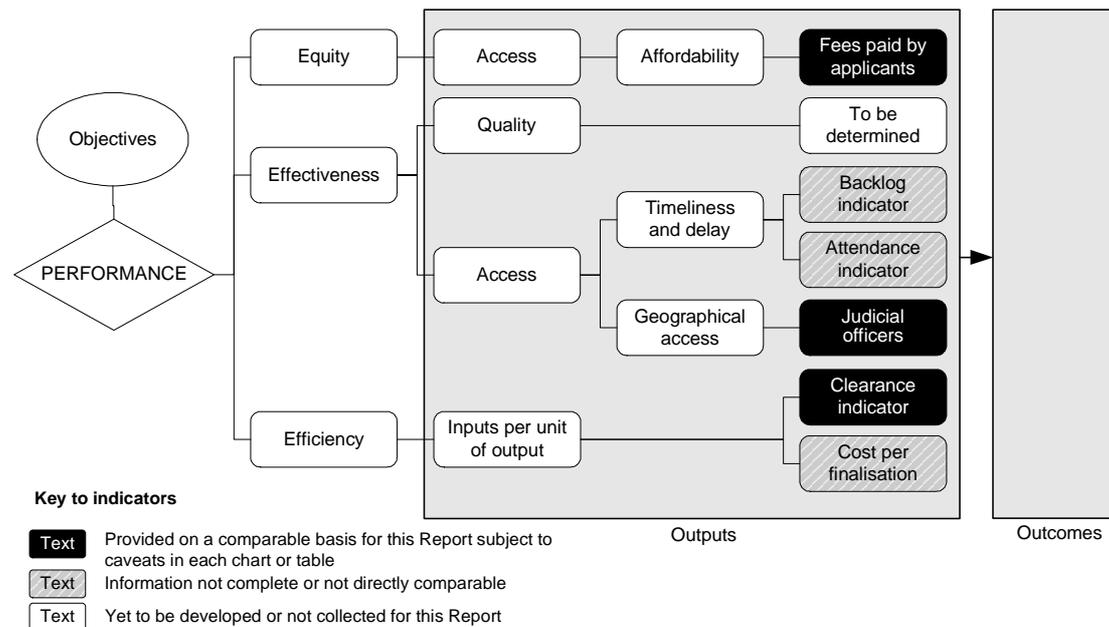
Each indicator in the performance indicator framework is briefly described below:

- *fees paid by applicants* — an indicator of access that measures the average fees paid per lodgment.
- *backlog indicator* — a measure of timeliness that relates the age of each court's pending caseload to timeliness standards.
- *attendance indicator* — a measure of effectiveness that records the number of attendances by the parties or their representatives, for each finalised matter.
- *judicial officers* — the number of judicial officers is a measure of resources (that is, the number of officers who can make enforceable orders of the court). It also indicates access to the judicial system.
- *clearance rate* — is a measure of whether the court is keeping up with its workload. It is the number of finalisations divided by the number of lodgments (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).
- *cost per finalisation* — a measure of efficiency that shows the average net recurrent expenditure per finalisation.

A full description of each indicator is provided when the corresponding data are reported in the key performance indicator results (see section 6.3).

As shown in figure 6.3, there are no outcome indicators for court administration. The activities of court administrators lead to broader justice-wide outcomes that are not readily picked up in this service-specific chapter.

Figure 6.3 Performance indicator framework for court administration



6.3 Key performance indicator results

Different delivery locations, case loads, case types and government policies may affect the equity, effectiveness and efficiency of court administration services. The allocation of cases to different courts also differs across jurisdictions. Performance comparison across states and territories and Australian courts for specific indicators needs to account for these factors. Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

Outputs

Equity — fees paid by applicants

A description of this indicator is contained in box 6.6.

Box 6.6 Fees paid by applicants

This indicator of access shows the average fees paid per lodgment.

Court fees are only part of the costs faced by applicants (with legal fees being more significant). Court filing fees largely relate to civil cases.

In 2003-04, average court fees collected per lodgment were generally greater in higher courts than in intermediate and lower courts. NSW had the highest average civil fees collected per lodgment in the supreme court (\$1651) and also the highest in the district/county courts (\$1289). In all NSW civil jurisdictions, corporations are charged twice the applicable fee payable by private individuals.

The lowest average civil fees collected per lodgment in the supreme court were in Tasmania (\$119); the lowest in the district/county court were in SA (\$454). For magistrates courts only (excluding children's courts), NSW had the highest average fees collected per lodgment (\$152) and WA had the lowest (\$55). Average probate fees collected per lodgment were highest in NSW (\$670) and lowest in Tasmania (\$108) (table 6.7).

In 2003-04, the average fee per lodgment in the Federal Court was \$783. The average civil court fees collected were \$98 for the Family Court of WA and \$61 for the Family Court of Australia. (The WA Family Court does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Court and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons are not appropriate.) The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Court reduced fees received by the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court. The Federal Magistrates Court's average civil court fees per lodgment were \$146 (table 6.7).

The level of cost recovery from the collection of court fees varied across court levels and across jurisdictions in 2003-04. The proportion of costs recovered via court fees for the magistrates courts was highest in Tasmania (62.6 per cent) and for the district/county courts, it was highest in NSW and Queensland (both 35.8 per cent). In the supreme courts, the proportion of costs recovered was highest in NSW (37.7 per cent). The level of cost recovery varied across the Australian courts: 6.3 per cent in the Federal Court, 34.8 per cent in the Federal Magistrates Court and 2.6 per cent in the Family Court of Australia. The Family Court of WA recovered 9.7 per cent of costs (table 6.8).

Table 6.7 Average civil court fees collected per lodgment, 2003-04 (dollars)

	NSW ^a	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^{b, c}	148	np	89	54	84	0	..	101
Magistrates (only)	152	81	93	55	85	70	60	0	..	104
Children's courts	1	np	0	4	7	0
District/county	1289	746	631	670	454	832
Supreme/Federal ^d	1651	1145	673	1031	696	119	714	0	783	1069
Probate — supreme	670	231	na	445	542	108	572	300	..	475
Federal Magistrates ^e	146	146
Family courts ^d	98	61	46

^a In all NSW civil jurisdictions corporations fees are payable by corporate users of the court. These fees are twice the applicable fees payable by private individuals. Subsequently the 'average fees' in the table are substantially higher than the actual fees paid by private individuals in NSW. ^b The Victorian magistrates court fees incorporate both criminal and civil case types, but the civil court fees are likely to account for a more significant proportion. As well, the data include around 64 213 residential tenancies matters and 5131 civil claim applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^c Queensland includes lodgments (and fees) at its Small Claims Tribunal. ^d The Federal Magistrates Court has reduced fees payable by applicants to the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. Many of the Family Court of Australia's applications do not attract a fee. The Family Court of WA does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Court and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons with either are not possible. ^e Lodgments in the Federal Magistrates Court included 70 000 family law forms. **np** Not published **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.16.

Table 6.8 Civil court fees collected as a proportion of civil recurrent expenditure (cost recovery), 2003-04 (per cent)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^{c, d}	49.5	np	35.1	20.6	22.3	na	..	0.0	..	39.5
Magistrates (only)	53.0	52.8	44.3	21.1	23.4	62.6	11.2	0.0	..	43.6
Children's courts	0.0	np	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0
District/county	35.8	29.0	35.8	20.2	16.8	30.2
Supreme/Federal ^{e, f}	37.7	33.7	31.6	18.2	13.5	6.6	21.8	0.0	6.3	20.0
Federal Magistrates	34.8	34.8
Family ^g	9.7	2.6	2.3

^a Recurrent expenditure with no income deducted. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c The Victorian magistrates court fees incorporate both criminal and civil case types, but the civil court fees are likely to account for a more significant proportion. ^d Abnormally high revenue was received during the reporting year from a program of recovering long outstanding filing fees. ^e Excludes probate costs. ^f The Federal Magistrates Court has reduced fees payable by applicants to the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. Many of the Family Court of Australia's applications do not attract a fee. The Family Court of WA does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Court and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons with either are not possible. **np** Not published **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.15.

Effectiveness — quality

The Steering Committee has identified quality as an important measures of court administration performance (box 6.7).

Box 6.7 Indicators of quality

Indicators of quality for court administration have not yet been identified. The perceptions of court users about the quality of the services delivered by courts may be strongly influenced by the outcomes of judicial decisions (which are not the subject of this chapter). Isolating perceptions of the quality of court administration may be difficult.

Effectiveness — timeliness and delay

There are two indicators of timeliness and delay: ‘backlog’ and ‘attendance’. Timeliness is the time taken between the lodgment of a matter with the court and its finalisation. It can be affected by delays caused by factors other than those related to the workload of the court (for example, a witness not being available). Timeliness in civil cases can be similarly affected (box 6.8).

Box 6.8 Civil timeliness factors

The following factors may affect the timeliness of cases in the civil courts:

- where civil cases are contested, a single case may involve several related applications or issues that require judgments and decisions by the court
- the parties to a case can significantly affect the conduct and timeliness of a case — that is, matters often may be adjourned at the instigation of, and by the consent of, the parties. Such consent arrangements are outside the control of the court
- the court may employ case management or other dispute resolution processes (for example, mediation) that are alternatives to formal adjudication
- an inactive case is regarded as finalised (or closed) one year after the last action on the case.

Longer case completion times in the civil jurisdiction generally reflect different case flow management practices, the individual needs of cases, and the priority given to criminal matters. Further, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have a two-tier court system (that is, they do not have a district/county court), whereas the other jurisdictions have a three-tier court system. This difference needs to be taken into account when comparing timeliness performance. In addition, the complexity and

distribution of cases may vary across jurisdictions. Some of the differences between State and Territory courts and across Australian Courts are covered in section 6.1.

This data collection is based on national counting rules, so data presented in this chapter may differ from data published by individual jurisdictions in their annual reports. There also may be differences from the data reported in the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) *Criminal Courts* publication.

The Steering Committee focuses on providing the best available data in a timely fashion. Jurisdictions, when signing off the data, acknowledge that the data have been supplied according to the nationally agreed counting rules. Where a jurisdiction advises that it has diverged from these counting rules, this divergence is appropriately footnoted in the table and surrounding text.

The Steering Committee recognises, however, that this collection (unlike some other data collections) does not have an intermediary data collector or validator akin to the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare or the ABS. The reporting process in this chapter is one of continual improvement and refinement, with the long term aim of ensuring a national data collection that covers court activities across the Australian, State and Territory jurisdictions in a timely and comparable way.

Backlog indicator

This indicator is a measure of case processing timeliness (box 6.9). In the criminal jurisdiction, those defendants who failed to appear when required and had bench warrants issued have been excluded from the pending caseload count. In the civil jurisdiction, those lodgments that have not been acted upon in the past 12 months are counted as finalised, the aim being to focus on those matters that are part of an ‘active pending’ population (see section 6.6 for definitions). However, the NSW higher courts proactively manage their civil cases. Consequently, cases that, by their nature, cannot be finalised for a lengthy period are not deemed finalised, but continue to be monitored from time to time by the courts.

Box 6.9 Backlog indicator

The 'backlog indicator' measures a court's pending caseload against time standards.

The indicator recognises that case processing must take some time and that such time does not necessarily equal delay. Timeliness can be affected by delays caused by factors other than those related to the workload of the court (for example, a witness not being available).

The following national standards have been set:

Magistrates, children's and coroners courts and the Federal Magistrates Court.

- No more than 10 per cent of lodgments pending completion are to be more than 6 months old.
- No lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old.

District, supreme and family courts, the Federal Court and all appeals.

- No more than 10 per cent of lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old.
- No lodgments pending completion are to be more than 24 months old.

As stated in box 6.9 and shown in tables 6.9 to 6.12, there are two national standards for each court level. For the supreme and district courts, the first national standard is that no more than 10 per cent of criminal lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old. Of the supreme courts, NSW, Queensland, Tasmania and the ACT met this standard for appeal cases and no jurisdiction met the standard for non-appeal cases. In the district court, NSW and Victoria met the national standard for appeal cases, and no jurisdiction met the standard for non-appeal cases (table 6.9).

For the magistrates, children's and coroners courts, the first national standard is that no more than 10 per cent of criminal lodgments pending completion are to be more than 6 months old. No jurisdiction met this standard in the magistrates court and in the children's court, Victoria was the only jurisdiction that met this national standard. In the coroners court, no jurisdiction met the standard (table 6.10).

Table 6.9 Backlog indicator — the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload in excess of timeliness standards, all criminal matters — supreme and district/county courts, 2003-04

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>
Supreme — appeal								
Pending caseload (no.)	273	338	126	163	77	9	21	na
Cases >12 months								
Number	23	68	1	28	na	0	1	na
Per cent	8.4	20.1	0.8	17.2	na	0.0	4.8	na
Cases >24 months								
Number	17	2	0	5	na	0	0	na
Per cent	6.2	0.6	0.0	3.1	na	0.0	0.0	na
Supreme — non - appeal^a								
Pending caseload (no.)	144	74	316	160	48	233	112	na
Cases >12 months								
Number	39	18	44	35	16	50	12	na
Per cent	27.1	24.3	13.9	21.9	33.3	21.5	10.7	na
Cases >24 months								
Number	4	4	7	11	5	2	6	na
Per cent	2.8	5.4	2.2	6.9	10.4	0.9	5.4	na
District/county — appeal								
Pending caseload (no.)	1 040	605	367	na	na
Cases > 12 months					
Number	30	53	93	na	na
Per cent	2.9	8.8	25.3	na	na
Cases >24 months					
Number	8	9	10	na	na
Per cent	0.8	1.5	2.7	na	na
District/county — non-appeal								
Pending caseload (no.)	2 313	1 600	2 625	2 037	768
Cases >12 months					
Number	280	244	741	602	163
Per cent	12.1	15.3	28.2	29.6	21.2
Cases > 24months					
Number	50	45	185	116	30
Per cent	2.2	2.8	7.0	5.7	3.9

^a In NSW, almost all non-appeal cases heard by the Supreme Court relate to murder or manslaughter. These serious cases take longer to resolve than other types of offences. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.17.

Table 6.10 Backlog indicator — the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload in excess of timeliness standards, all criminal matters — magistrates, children's and coroners courts, 2003-04^a

	<i>NSW^b</i>	<i>Vic^c</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>
Magistrates								
Pending caseload	17 224	27 518	26 450	8 909	13 310	21 980	2 168	na
Cases >6 months								
Number	1 982	4 792	6 722	4 677	3 853	4 183	470	na
Per cent	11.5	17.4	25.4	52.5	28.9	19.0	21.7	na
Cases >12 months								
Number	478	1 248	2 727	3 407	1 200	1 819	208	na
Per cent	2.8	4.5	10.3	38.2	9.0	8.3	9.6	na
Children's								
Pending caseload	1 746	2 029	2 130	608	958	603	158	na
Cases >6 months								
Number	200	133	479	151	193	170	38	na
Per cent	11.5	6.6	22.5	24.8	20.1	28.2	24.1	na
Cases >12 months								
Number	44	24	198	71	63	75	18	na
Per cent	2.5	1.2	9.3	11.7	6.6	12.4	11.4	na
Coroners								
Pending caseload	1 595	2 753	1 955	723	na	244	194	na
Cases >6 months								
Number	757	1 274	982	391	na	95	73	na
Per cent	47.5	46.3	50.2	54.1	na	38.9	37.6	na
Cases >12 months								
Number	414	711	580	232	na	48	43	na
Per cent	26.0	25.8	29.7	32.1	na	19.7	22.2	na

^a Excludes data for electronic courts. ^b NSW magistrate court finalisation data are estimated based on the 83 per cent of cases on the case management computer system. ^c In the Victorian Magistrates Court, defendants can be entered into the Criminal Justice Diversion Program and the proceedings are adjourned for a period of up to 12 months. These defendants remain 'pending' and hence may misrepresent the true case processing timeliness. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.17.

In each of the courts, the second national standard is that no criminal matters are to be more than 12 months old for magistrates, children's and coroners court matters and 24 months old for district and supreme courts. The Queensland, Tasmanian and ACT supreme courts are the only courts that met the second national standard for criminal appeal cases, and no jurisdiction met the standard for criminal non-appeal cases. The results of the backlog indicator against this second standard are shown in tables 6.9 and 6.10, which report results in terms of the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload that are older than the standard. The corresponding results for civil cases are shown in tables 6.11 and 6.12.

In the supreme, district and family courts, the first national standard is that no more than 10 per cent of civil lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old. In the supreme court, SA and the ACT met this standard for appeal cases, and no jurisdiction met the standard for non-appeal cases. In the district court, NSW and SA met the standard for appeal cases, and no jurisdiction met the standard for non-appeal cases (table 6.11). Neither the Family Court of Australia nor the Family Court of WA met the standard (table 6.12).

In the magistrates courts and the Federal Magistrates Court, the first national standard is that no more than 10 per cent of civil lodgments pending completion are to be more than 6 months old. In the magistrates court, no jurisdiction met the standard.

In each of the courts, the second national standard is that no pending civil cases are to be more than 12 months old for magistrates, children's, and the Federal Magistrates Court and 24 months old for district, supreme and family courts and the Federal Court. In 2003-04, SA met this national standard in its Supreme Court for appeal cases, but no jurisdiction met the standard for non-appeal cases. Neither the family courts nor the magistrates courts met the standard. The results of the backlog indicator against this standard are shown in tables 6.11 and 6.12, which report results in terms of the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload that are older than the standard.

Table 6.11 Backlog indicator — the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload in excess of timeliness standards, all civil matters — supreme and district/county courts, 2003-04

	NSW ^a	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust Courts
Supreme/Federal — appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	630	317	412	382	10	182	67	na	450
Cases >12 months									
Number	78	98	200	91	0	29	6	na	49
Per cent	12.4	30.9	48.5	23.8	0.0	15.9	9.0	na	10.9
Cases >24 months									
Number	22	18	52	11	0	11	2	na	19
Per cent	3.5	5.7	12.6	2.9	0.0	6.0	3.0	na	4.2
Supreme/Federal — non-appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	6 900	4 705	6 171	2 494	2 556	2 043	1 353	na	3 273
Cases >12 months									
Number	2 780	1 673	2 850	961	604	990	615	na	1 616
Per cent	40.3	35.6	46.2	38.5	23.6	48.5	45.5	na	49.4
Cases >24 months									
Number	1 636	498	1 639	527	120	548	298	na	1 039
Per cent	23.7	10.6	26.6	21.1	4.7	26.8	22.0	na	31.7
District/county — appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	43	na	811	154	7
Cases >12 months									
Number	3	na	305	24	0
Per cent	7.0	na	37.6	15.6	0.0
Cases >24 months									
Number	0	na	141	5	0
Per cent	0.0	na	17.4	3.2	0.0
District/county — non-appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	10 315	10 970	8 178	3 640	3 157
Cases >12 months									
Number	4 126	3 833	3 573	1 95	1 355
Per cent	40.0	34.9	43.7	41.1	42.9
Cases >24 months									
Number	2 269	941	1 699	701	484
Per cent	22.0	8.6	24.1	19.3	15.3

^a The NSW higher courts proactively manage their civil cases. Consequently cases that, by their nature, cannot be finalised for a lengthy period are not deemed finalised, but continue to be monitored from time to time by the Court. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.18.

Table 6.12 Backlog indicator — the number and proportion of a court's pending caseload that is older than the standard, all civil matters — family and magistrates courts and the Federal Magistrates Court, 2003-04

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust Courts</i>
Family — appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	na	222
Cases >12 months									
Number	na	65
<i>Per cent</i>	na	29.3
Cases >24 months									
Number	na	30
<i>Per cent</i>	na	13.5
Family — non-appeal									
Pending case load (no.)	384	24 698
Cases >12 months									
Number	247	9 919
<i>Per cent</i>	64.3	40.2
Cases >24 months									
Number	67	3 284
<i>Per cent</i>	17.4	13.3
Magistrates									
Pending case load (no.)	na	9 875	37 251	1 990	17 809	5 212	3 203	na	..
Cases >6 months									
Number	na	3 516	14 510	1 169	7 924	2 019	1 478	na	..
<i>Per cent</i>	na	35.6	39.0	58.7	44.5	38.7	46.1	na	..
Cases >12 months									
Number	na	2 301	3 118	526	2 714	200	487	na	..
<i>Per cent</i>	na	23.3	8.4	26.4	15.2	3.8	15.2	na	..
Federal Magistrates Service									
Pending case load (no.)	23 341
Cases >6 months									
Number	6801
<i>Per cent</i>	29.1
Cases >12 months									
Number	3 723
<i>Per cent</i>	16.0

na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.18.

Attendance indicator

The Steering Committee has identified the number of court attendances required as an effectiveness measure (box 6.10).

Box 6.10 Attendance indicator

The attendance indicator is a measure of effectiveness.

The number of attendances is the number of times that parties or their representatives are required to be present in court to be heard by a judicial officer or mediator/arbitrator (including appointments that are adjourned or rescheduled).

This year's chapter presents the total number of finalisations during the year for each court and the number of attendances associated with these matters (no matter when the attendance occurred). This approach simply represents an average number of attendances per finalisation.

In the context of the attendance indicator, it is important to note that Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) can resolve certain matters out of court and thereby reduce the number of court attendances. Accordingly, differences between and within jurisdictions in the availability and use of ADR, can affect the comparability of the attendance indicator.

The average number of attendances per finalisation ranged in the criminal jurisdiction: in the supreme court, from 6.3 in the ACT to 2.3 in Victoria; in the district/county court, from 6.3 in SA to 4.0 in both Queensland and WA; in the magistrates court, from 4.9 in the ACT to 1.7 in Queensland; and in the children's court, from 5.2 in the ACT to 2.0 in Queensland (table 6.13).

Table 6.13 Attendance indicator — criminal, 2003-04^a

	NSW ^b	Vic	Qld ^c	WA	SA	Tas	ACT ^d	NT
<i>Average attendances per finalisation</i>								
Supreme	na	2.3	2.6	3.4	5.1	5.8	6.3	6.1
District/county ^e	na	4.8	4.0	4.0	6.3
Magistrates	na	2.5	1.7	2.1	3.5	1.9	4.9	3.4
Children's	na	2.9	2.0	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.4
Coroners	na	0.1	na	0.1	na	0.1	0.2	0.1

^a Excludes data for electronic courts. ^b Courts do not have data available to enable them to identify the number of times that parties are present in court. ^c Data are extrapolated. ^d Total number of attendances based on total number of listings. ^e In WA, the criminal case management computer system does not record the number of hearings that occurred per defendant. Data extracted are based on the number of listings recorded. Information may be refined in future. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.19.

In the civil jurisdiction, the average number of attendances per finalisation ranged in the supreme court from 4.6 in SA to 1.8 in Victoria, and in the district court from 5.0 in SA to 0.3 in Queensland. The average number of attendances per finalisation was 2.2 in the Family Court of Australia and 1.7 in the Federal Magistrates Court (table 6.14). Most jurisdictions that reported for the civil jurisdiction of the magistrates courts had on, average around, 1.0 attendance per finalisation, with 2.5 in the NT.

Table 6.14 **Attendance indicator — civil, 2003-04**

	NSW ^a	Vic ^b	Qld ^c	WA ^a	SA	Tas	ACT ^d	NT	Aust courts
<i>Average attendances per finalisation</i>									
Supreme	na	1.8	0.5	3.0	4.6	na	4.5	3.3	3.7
District/county	na	2.5	0.3	4.6	5.0
Magistrates	na	1.0	0.8	0.0	1.3	na	1.5	2.5	..
Children's	na	na	2.2	4.2	na	na	3.9	2.4	..
Federal Magistrates ^e	1.7
Family ^f	na	2.2

^a Courts do not have data available to enable them to identify the number of times parties are present in the magistrates court. ^b Supreme court data are estimated and the county court data are extrapolated. As well, the 12 month deeming rule has not been used for civil timeliness data for the supreme and county courts. The magistrates court attendances for the Victims of Crime Assistance Tribunal and family law applications are estimates, with the estimate being one attendance per finalisation. ^c Court data are extrapolated. ^d Total number of attendances is based on total number of listings. ^e Excludes 'responses' to applications. ^f Family Court of Australia data include alternative dispute resolution, court and conference events held in the Family Court of Australia. Data include events that may not typically require attendance of parties, but these are included because they form part of the lodgments and finalisation figures. Data exclude responses to applications. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.19.

Effectiveness — judicial officers

This indicator relates access to the number of judicial officers available to deal with cases (box 6.11).

Box 6.11 **Judicial officers**

The 'judicial officers' indicator is a simple way of representing resources (that is, the number of officers who can make enforceable orders of the court). It also indicates access to the judicial system.

For the purposes of this chapter, the definition of a judicial officer includes:

- judges
- magistrates
- masters
- coroners
- judicial registrars
- all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court.

Numbers are expressed in full time equivalent terms and based on the proportion of time spent on judicial functions. They are also presented in comparison to the population of each jurisdiction.

A higher proportion of judicial officers in the population indicates potentially greater access to the judicial system.

The number of full time equivalent judicial officers for each court level is outlined in table 6.15. As would be expected, the number of judicial officers is related to the size of the jurisdiction. In all State and Territory jurisdictions with a three-tier system, there were more judicial officers in the magistrates courts than in the district/county courts, and more officers in the district/county courts than in the supreme courts (except in WA).

The number of judicial officers can be viewed in the context of the population in each jurisdiction. As a result, table 6.16 shows the number of judicial officers per 100 000 people. For the supreme courts, the rate ranged from 4.0 judicial officers per 100 000 people in the NT to 0.6 in Queensland. In the district courts, it ranged from 1.3 per 100 000 in both WA and SA to 0.8 in Queensland. In the magistrates courts, it ranged from 6.1 in the NT to 1.7 in NSW (table 6.16).

Table 6.15 **Judicial officers, full time equivalent, 2003-04^{a, b}**

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Supreme/Federal	60.9	40.0	23.0	28.7	15.7	7.0	5.6	7.9	45.0	233.8
District/county	75.0	54.0	30.8	26.0	20.3	206.1
Magistrates	117.0	113.0	68.2	44.1	34.0	11.0	6.5	12.2	..	406.0
Children's	12.0	8.0	5.0	5.0	4.0	0.6	1.3	0.6	..	36.5
Electronic ^c	..	na	na	na	na	na
Coroners	5.0	5.0	3.7	2.0	1.0	0.5	0.7	1.5	..	19.4
Family	14.6	57.0	71.6
Federal Magistrates	23.0	23.0
Total	269.9	220.0	130.7	120.4	75.0	19.1	14.1	22.2	125.0	996.3

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b Judicial officers are defined to include judges, magistrates, masters, coroners, judicial registrars, and all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court. The data are provided on the basis of the proportion of time spent on judicial activities. ^c No electronic courts have open court sittings. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.20.

Table 6.16 **Judicial officers, full time equivalent, per 100 000 people, 2003-04^{a, b}**

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Population ('000)	6 721	4 955	3 854	1 972	1 531	479	325	200	..	20 040
<i>Judicial officers per 100 000 people</i>										
Supreme/Federal	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.7	4.0	0.2	1.2
District/county	1.1	1.1	0.8	1.3	1.3	1.0
Magistrates	1.7	2.3	1.8	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.0	6.1	..	2.0
Children's	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3	..	0.2
Electronic ^c	..	na	na	na	na	na
Coroners	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.8	..	0.1
Family	0.7	0.3	0.4
Federal Magistrates	0.1	0.1
Total	3.9	4.3	3.3	5.3	4.8	3.9	4.1	10.4	0.6	4.4

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b Judicial officers are defined to include judges, magistrates, masters, coroners, judicial registrars, and all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court. The data are provided on the basis of the proportion of time spent on judicial activities. ^c No electronic courts have open court sittings. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.20, Appendix A.

Efficiency — clearance rate

This indicator is a measure of efficiency in processing the inflow of cases through the court (box 6.12).

Box 6.12 Clearance rate

The 'clearance rate' measures whether a court is keeping up with its workload.

The indicator is the number of finalisations in the reporting period, divided by the number of lodgments in the same period (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).

The following should assist in understanding the indicator:

- a figure of 100 per cent indicates that the court, during the reporting period, finalised as many cases as were lodged
- a figure greater than 100 per cent means the pending caseload of the court is decreasing
- a figure less than 100 per cent means the pending caseload of the court is increasing.

The clearance rate can be affected by external factors (such as changes in legislation), as well as by changes in a court's case management practices.

All matters

For all matters (both criminal and civil) in the supreme courts in 2003-04, those jurisdictions that kept up with their workload or reduced their pending caseload (that is, those with a clearance rate of 100 per cent or above) were Queensland, WA and Tasmania. The clearance rate in the Federal Court of Australia was 100.8 per cent. In the district courts, the two jurisdictions with a clearance rate of 100 per cent or over were NSW and Queensland. In the magistrates courts, the ACT and Queensland had a clearance rate of over 100 per cent (table 6.17). Table 6.17 also provides a breakdown for each jurisdiction, with some differences in the clearance rate, depending on whether the matter was criminal or civil.

In the electronic courts, the jurisdictions that had a clearance rate of 100 per cent or over were Victoria and Queensland. In the coroners courts, the only jurisdiction with a clearance rate of 100 per cent or over was Tasmania. The clearance rate in the Family Court of Australia was 111.8 per cent; in the Federal Magistrates Court it was 81.7 per cent (table 6.17).

Table 6.17 **Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), all matters, 2003-04 (per cent)**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust courts</i>
Supreme									
Criminal	98.1	106.3	94.4	105.1	85.4	94.8	88.1	80.9	..
Civil	98.2	82.0	118.2	115.2	62.6	124.9	92.1	94.5	100.8
<i>Total</i>	<i>98.2</i>	<i>83.9</i>	<i>113.0</i>	<i>113.8</i>	<i>66.7</i>	<i>116.8</i>	<i>91.4</i>	<i>87.7</i>	<i>100.8</i>
District/county									
Criminal	95.2	104.8	92.9	100.3	77.1
Civil	123.9	82.5	103.4	95.3	95.9
<i>Total</i>	<i>108.6</i>	<i>90.4</i>	<i>100.4</i>	<i>97.5</i>	<i>89.2</i>
Magistrates									
Criminal	97.8	94.7	99.7	108.6	77.5	91.5	100.9	90.0	..
Civil	95.8	85.7	105.4	65.5	68.7	102.7	107.2	60.5	..
<i>Total</i>	<i>96.7</i>	<i>89.7</i>	<i>101.6</i>	<i>89.3</i>	<i>74.5</i>	<i>93.3</i>	<i>104.4</i>	<i>79.6</i>	..
Children's									
Criminal	101.0	88.8	96.0	66.6	70.9	97.5	111.9	87.7	..
Civil	92.4	90.6	92.0	121.4	na	102.8	83.3	130.9	..
<i>Total</i>	<i>98.3</i>	<i>89.1</i>	<i>94.9</i>	<i>71.5</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>97.8</i>	<i>104.5</i>	<i>92.7</i>	..
Electronic	..	137.1	146.2	49.8	72.9
Coroners	97.0	91.4	85.1	98.3	95.7	115.6	98.3	83.7	..
Family	87.7	111.8
Federal									
Magistrates	81.7

na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.1, 6A.2, 6A.5, 6A.6., 6A21 and 6A.22

Appeal and non-appeal matters

Where relevant, the clearance rate data have also been disaggregated between appeal and non-appeal matters. For non-appeal matters (both criminal and civil) in the supreme courts in 2003-04, those jurisdictions that kept up with their workload or reduced their pending caseload (that is, those with a clearance rate of 100 per cent or above) were Queensland, WA and Tasmania. The clearance rate for non-appeal matters was 101.3 per cent in the Federal Court of Australia and 111.9 per cent in the Family Court of Australia. In the district courts, the jurisdictions with a clearance rate of 100 per cent or above were NSW and Queensland (table 6.18). Table 6.18 also provides a breakdown for each jurisdiction, with some differences in the clearance rate depending on whether the matter was criminal or civil.

Table 6.18 Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), non-appeal matters, 2003-04 (per cent)

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust courts</i>
Supreme									
Criminal	98.4	104.9	89.3	89.6	86.2	95.5	80.6	82.7	..
Civil	98.3	77.9	117.5	119.9	61.7	130.9	93.8	97.0	101.3
<i>Total</i>	<i>98.3</i>	<i>78.4</i>	<i>112.6</i>	<i>117.2</i>	<i>63.1</i>	<i>120.9</i>	<i>92.2</i>	<i>87.7</i>	<i>101.3</i>
District/county									
Criminal	84.5	103.2	98.8	100.3	77.1
Civil	124.0	82.3	102.2	97.0	96.0
<i>Total</i>	<i>111.1</i>	<i>87.0</i>	<i>100.3</i>	<i>98.4</i>	<i>89.2</i>
Family	na	111.9

na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.21 and 6A.22.

For appeal matters (both criminal and civil) in the supreme courts in 2003-04, Victoria and Queensland kept up with their workload or reduced their pending caseload (that is, they had a clearance rate of 100 per cent or above). In the district courts, NSW, Victoria and Queensland had a clearance rate of 100 per cent or above for appeal matters. Within each of these court levels, the clearance rate within each jurisdiction differed depending on whether the matter was criminal or civil. Table 6.19 provides a criminal and civil breakdown for each jurisdiction. The clearance rate for appeal matters was 97.8 per cent in the Federal Court of Australia and 105.1 per cent in the Family Court of Australia.

Table 6.19 Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), appeal matters, 2003-04 (per cent)

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust courts</i>
Supreme									
Criminal	98.1	106.7	108.0	124.1	85.2	80.8	108.1	61.8	..
Civil	96.7	151.0	134.0	73.8	72.5	68.6	71.1	92.0	97.8
<i>Total</i>	<i>97.3</i>	<i>126.9</i>	<i>117.0</i>	<i>94.6</i>	<i>80.8</i>	<i>70.3</i>	<i>85.5</i>	<i>87.6</i>	<i>97.8</i>
District/county									
Criminal	102.9	106.5	72.3	na	na
Civil	110.9	105.1	114.4	62.0	92.5
<i>Total</i>	<i>103.0</i>	<i>106.5</i>	<i>102.4</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>
Family	na	105.1

na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.21 and 6A.22

Efficiency — cost per finalisation

This indicator is a measure of efficiency (box 6.13). Cost is measured as net recurrent expenditure excluding payroll tax.

Box 6.13 Cost per finalisation

The cost per finalisation is calculated by dividing the total net recurrent expenditure within each court for the financial year, by the total number of finalisations for the same period.

It is an imperfect measure of an individual jurisdiction's efficiency. The following points need to be considered in interpreting the cost per finalisation efficiency results:

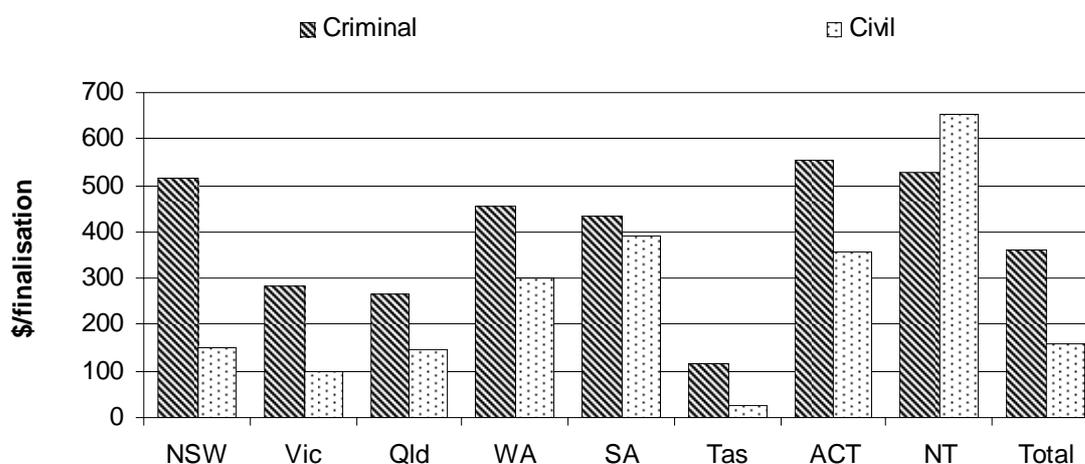
- some finalisations take only a short time and require few resources, whereas other finalisations may be resource intensive and involve complicated trials
- the finalisation of a case may not provide a true indication of the resources expended by the court, because any one case may involve several related applications or issues that require judgments and decisions by the court
- lodgements that have not been acted upon in the last 12 months are counted as finalised. However, NSW does not allow lengthy cases to become dormant as under their case management approach they continue to monitor the matter. Consequently, NSW cannot deem these cases finalised
- the expenditure provided may include arbitrary financial splits between criminal and civil.
- the income deducted from court expenditure includes court fees, which in some jurisdictions are set by government and not by court administrators
- a number of factors are beyond the control of jurisdictions, such as geographic dispersion, economies of scale and socioeconomic factors
- the efficiency results need to be viewed in light of the performance indicator framework as a whole, because there can be trade-offs between equity, effectiveness and efficiency.

Net expenditure per finalisation for total magistrates courts (including magistrates and children's courts)

Nationally, net expenditure per criminal finalisation for total magistrates courts (including children's courts but excluding electronic courts) was \$362 in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the ACT (\$555) and lowest in Tasmania (\$116) (figure 6.4).

Nationally, net expenditure per civil finalisation for total magistrates courts (including children's courts but excluding electronic courts) was \$160. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$655) and lowest in Tasmania (\$27). The Victorian data include 70 660 finalisations of residential tenancy and civil matters that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.4 **Net expenditure per finalisation, total magistrates courts (excluding electronic courts), 2003-04^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}**



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). ^b Excludes electronic court data but includes children's court data. ^c Excludes payroll tax. ^d The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction. ^e In the civil jurisdiction, the Victorian data include 70 660 finalisations of residential tenancy and civil claims applications (and the associated expenditure) that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^f In the criminal court jurisdiction in Queensland, some Children's Court expenditure and finalisations are heard in the District Court. This has not been taken into account in the above analysis. ^g In the civil jurisdiction, Queensland and SA data exclude children's court finalisations but include children's court expenditure, which creates a slightly increased expenditure per finalisation for the magistrates courts (total). All other jurisdictions include civil children's court data.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23 and 6A.24.

The analysis of the magistrates court efficiency in figure 6.4 excludes electronic court expenditure and finalisations. Box 6.14 shows the impact of including electronic courts within the efficiency results of the magistrates courts.

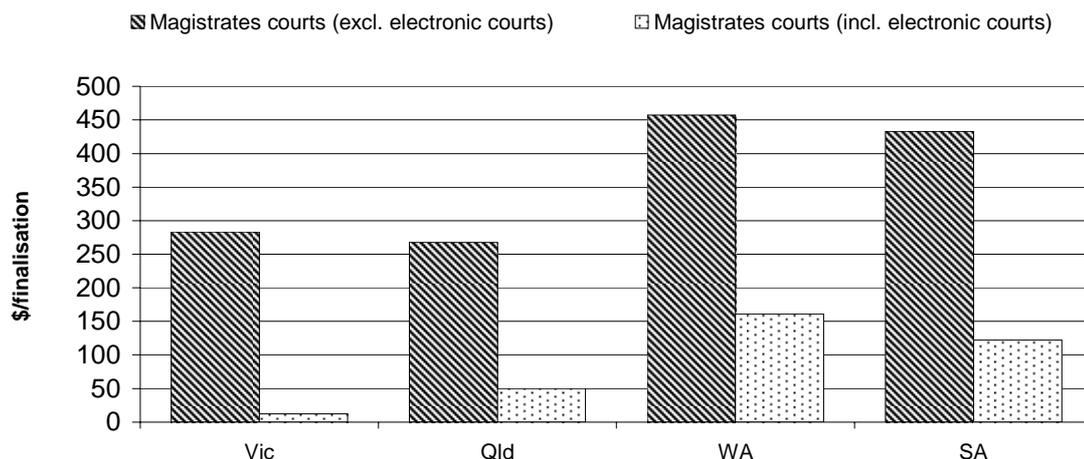
Box 6.14 The impact of the electronic courts on the magistrates courts

All State, Territory and Australian jurisdictions operate tribunals and specialist courts, partly to reduce the workload on courts such as the magistrates courts.

Electronic courts — which are infringement and offence processing systems that have the status of a court and deal with matters such as unpaid infringement notices for minor traffic offences — can also reduce the workload on the magistrates courts.

Electronic courts currently operate only in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. The figure in this box shows the impact that including electronic courts data for these jurisdictions would have on the magistrates court efficiency results reported in figure 6.4.

The impact is to reduce expenditure less income per criminal finalisation for the magistrates courts in all four jurisdictions (assuming all of the matters dealt with by the electronic courts would otherwise have been dealt with by the magistrates courts). The magnitude of the reductions under this assumption is shown in the figure below and table 6A.23.



While NSW, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not operate electronic courts that fall under the jurisdiction of the magistrates courts, they have bodies (such as the NSW State Debt Recovery Office and the Motor Vehicle Registry in the ACT) that deal with unpaid infringement notices and that may have a similar impact in reducing the workload of the magistrates courts.

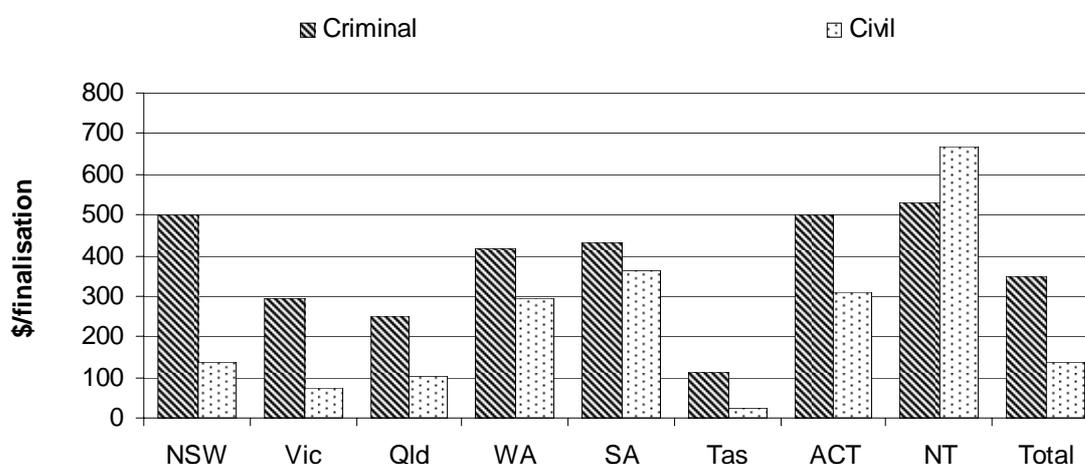
Net expenditure per finalisation for magistrates courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts)

In 2003-04, net expenditure per criminal finalisation for magistrates courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts) was \$350 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$528) and lowest in Tasmania (\$112) (figure 6.5).

Nationally, net expenditure per civil finalisation for the magistrates courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts) was \$136. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$667) and lowest in Tasmania (\$27) (figure 6.5).

The Victorian data include 70 660 finalisations of residential tenancy matters and civil claims applications (and the associated expenditure) that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.5 **Net expenditure per finalisation, magistrates courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts), 2003-04^{a, b, c, d, e}**



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).

^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction. ^d In the civil jurisdiction, the Victorian data include 70 660 finalisations of residential tenancy and civil claims applications (and the associated expenditure) that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^e In the civil jurisdiction, Queensland data include finalisations and associated expenditure from the Small Claims Tribunal.

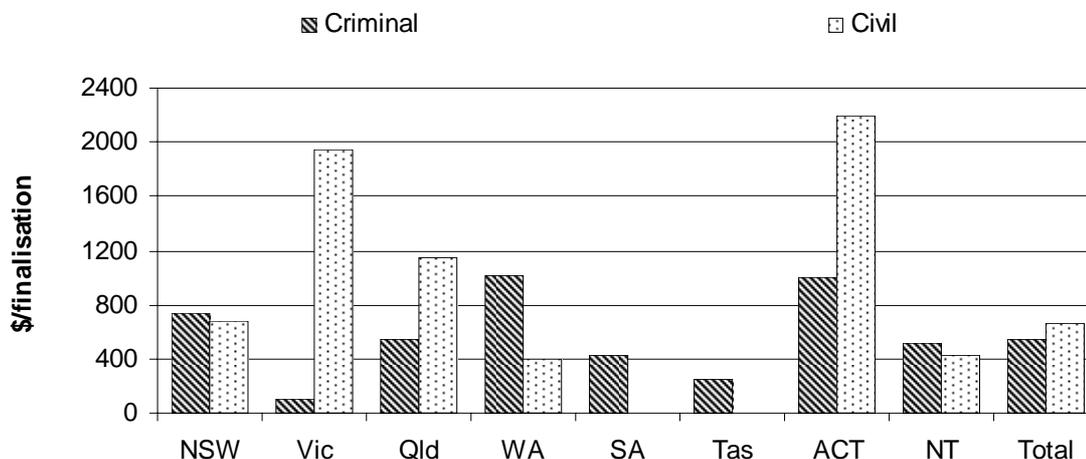
Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23 and 6A.24.

Net expenditure per finalisation for children's courts

In 2003-04, net expenditure per criminal finalisation for children's courts was \$539 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in WA (\$1022) and lowest in Victoria (\$107) (figure 6.6).

Nationally, net expenditure per civil finalisation for the children's courts was \$660. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the ACT (\$2201) and lowest in WA (\$394) (figure 6.6). The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.6 **Net expenditure per finalisation, children's courts, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). **b** Excludes payroll tax. **c** The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction. **d** Excludes finalisations for committals heard in the children's courts. **e** SA has not provided Children's Court civil finalisations data. **f** Tasmanian children's court civil lodgments were statistically insignificant (106 cases), resulting in a nil return due to the rounding process.

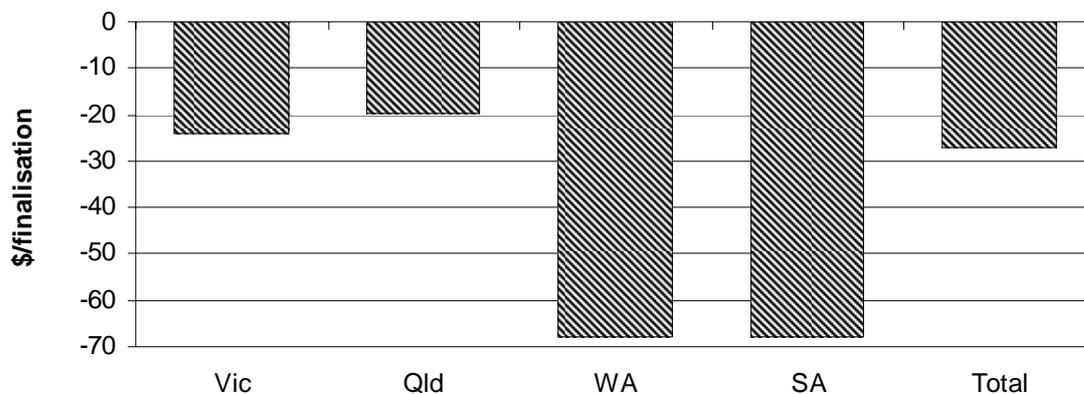
Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23 and 6A.24.

Net expenditure per finalisation for electronic courts

All electronic courts in 2003-04 had income that outweighed any associated expenditure. Nationally, the income generated over expenditure per finalisation (based on unpaid infringement notices) was \$27. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in WA and SA (\$68) and lowest in Queensland (\$20) (figure 6.7).

New South Wales, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not operate electronic courts. They may, however, operate bodies (such as a debt recovery office) that perform similar functions but do not operate under the auspices of a court.

Figure 6.7 Net expenditure per finalisation, electronic courts, 2003-04^{a, b, c}



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).

^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Electronic courts (infringement and expiated offence processing systems that have the status of a court) operate only in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. The electronic court data are based on unpaid infringement notices. Other jurisdictions may operate similar bodies that do not operate under the auspices of a court.

Source: State court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.23.

Net expenditure per finalisation for district/county courts

In 2003-04, net expenditure per criminal finalisation for district/county courts was \$4768. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in SA (\$8407) and lowest in Queensland (\$2387) (figure 6.8).

Nationally, net expenditure per civil finalisation for district/county courts was \$1739. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in WA (\$2680) and lowest in Queensland (\$1018) (figure 6.8). Tasmania, the ACT, the NT and the Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

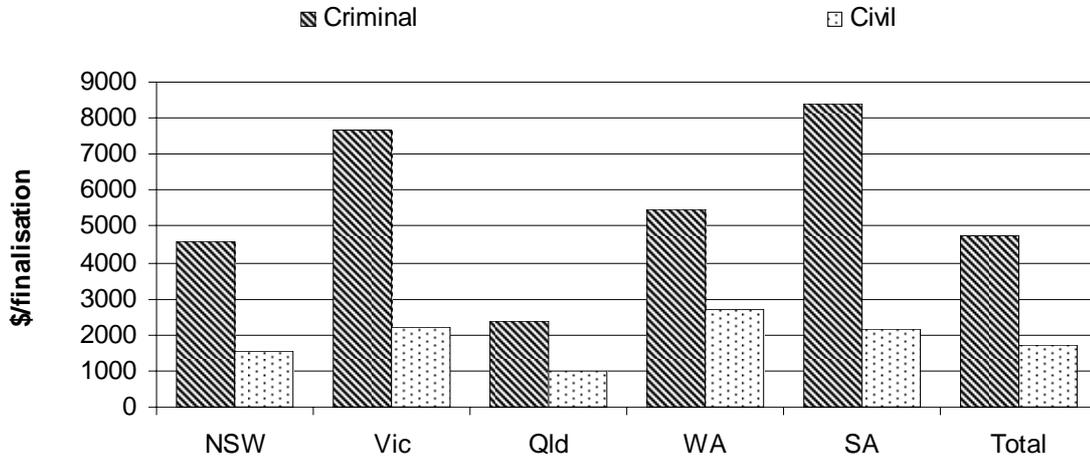
Net expenditure per finalisation for the supreme courts and the Federal Court

In 2003-04, net expenditure per criminal finalisation in the supreme courts was \$12 859 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in NSW (\$25 636) and lowest in Queensland (\$5224) (figure 6.9).

Nationally, net expenditure per civil finalisation was \$4197. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$18 813) and lowest in Queensland (\$1185) (figure 6.9).

The Federal Court's net expenditure per civil finalisation was \$11 119 (figure 6.9).

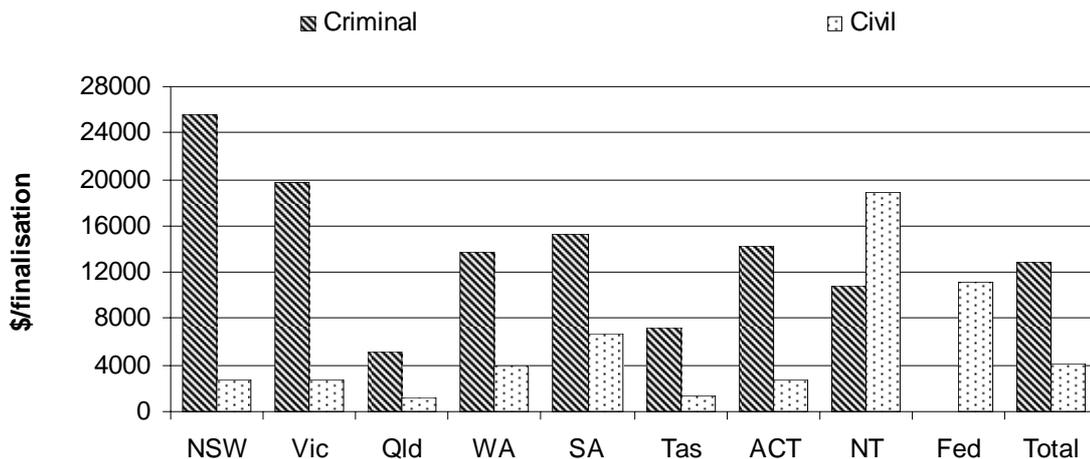
Figure 6.8 **Net expenditure per finalisation, district/county courts, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).
^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Tasmania, the ACT, the NT and the Australian Government do not operate district/county courts. ^d In the criminal court jurisdiction in Queensland, some children's court expenditure and finalisations are heard in the district court. This has not been taken into account in the above analysis.

Source: State court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23 and 6A.24.

Figure 6.9 **Net expenditure per finalisation, supreme courts and the Federal Court, 2003-04^{a, b, c}**



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).
^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Data for the Federal Court include the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Court. As well, the Federal Magistrates Court has an impact on the workload and costs of the Federal Court. The Federal Court does not operate in the criminal jurisdiction.

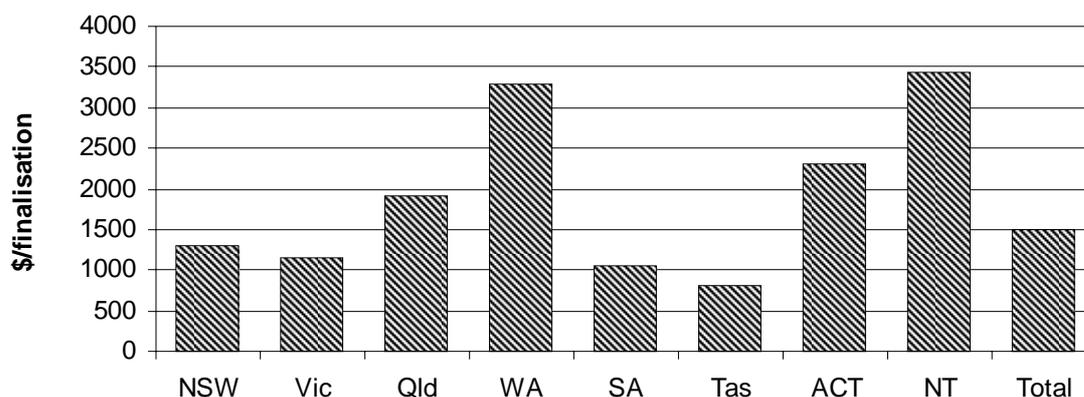
Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23 and 6A.24.

Net expenditure per reported death and fire for coroners courts

Nationally, expenditure per reported death and fire in the coroners courts was \$1503 in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$3426) and lowest in Tasmania (\$804) (figure 6.10). Some jurisdictions include autopsy and chemical analysis costs in their expenditure data, but others exclude these costs because they are outside the court's immediate control.

Data for NSW, Queensland and the ACT include fires reported to the coroner; all other jurisdictions exclude these data, so care needs to be taken when making comparisons. The Australian courts do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.10 Net expenditure per finalisation, coroners courts, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d}



a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). **b** Excludes payroll tax. **c** Data for NSW, Queensland and the ACT include fires reported to the coroner. All other jurisdictions exclude these data. **d** Some jurisdictions include autopsy and chemical analysis costs in their expenditure data, but others exclude these costs because they are outside the court's immediate control.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.23.

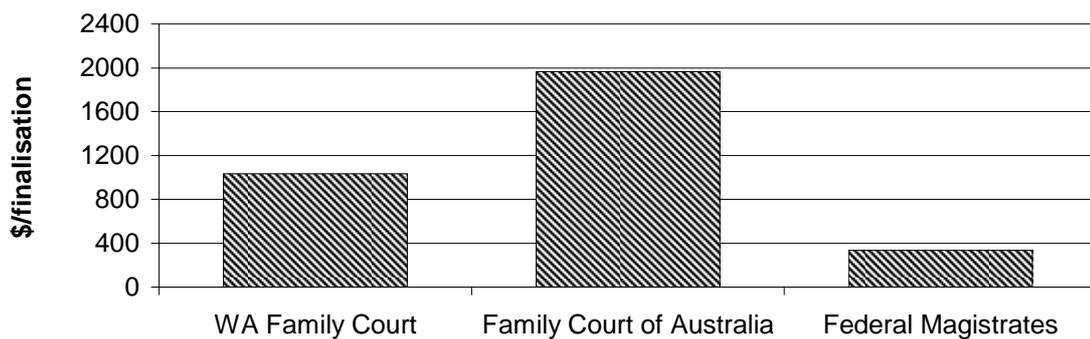
Net expenditure per lodgment for family courts and the Federal Magistrates Court

The establishment of the Federal Magistrates Court has implications for the number of finalisations and expenditure associated with the Family Court of Australia. The intention is for the Federal Magistrates Court to take on some of the workload previously managed by the Family Court of Australia (and the Federal Court).

In 2003-04, net expenditure per finalisation was \$1967 for the Family Court of Australia and \$1033 for the Family Court of WA (figure 6.11). The Federal Magistrates Court received resources provided free of charge from the Family Court

of Australia, which has implications for comparisons between the two family courts. Net expenditure per finalisation for the Federal Magistrates Court was \$334.

Figure 6.11 Net expenditure per finalisation, family courts, 2003-04^{a, b}



^a Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). ^b The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Court has expenditure and lodgment implications for the Family Court of Australia. The Federal Magistrates Court has received resources provided free of charge from the Family Court of Australia, and since November 2003, all divorces have been lodged in the Federal Magistrates Court.

Source: Australian court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.24.

Outcomes

There are no outcome indicators for court administration. It is noted, however, that the activities of court administrators lead to broader justice-wide outcomes that are not readily picked up in this service-specific chapter.

6.4 Future directions in performance reporting

Improving data quality

Differences across states and territories in the jurisdiction of courts, and in the allocation of cases between courts, affect the comparability of equity, efficiency and effectiveness data. The different methods undertaken to collect the data can also have an impact on data consistency and quality.

The Review, through the Court Administration Working Group and the Courts Practitioner Group, is taking steps to improve data quality, including:

-
- assessing and implementing recommendations associated with the *ABS Courts Administration Data Collection National Report* on lodgments and finalisations
 - clearly defining issues pertaining to the scope of the data collection and reporting within the chapter
 - assessing the most appropriate way in which to collect and publish data
 - amending data definitions
 - improving data verification and data quality.

These changes are ongoing and incremental.

6.5 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (including Indigenous and ethnic status).

New South Wales Government comments

“ During 2003–04, the Attorney General’s Department of NSW continued to focus on improving the administration of the community’s justice system for resolving civil disputes and criminal matters. As well as continued improvements in court performance, our priorities included building community capacity to prevent crime, improving outcomes and services for Aboriginal communities, enhancing value for money through justice sector cooperation, and use of technology such as video conferencing.

The District Court’s pending civil caseload, has reduced substantially as a result of the introduction of Tort Law reforms. With criminal matters, the District Court ranked first in Australia in relation to time standards, despite having the largest number of serious cases.

The NSW Supreme Court has continued to deal with its criminal cases in a timely way and, amongst the supreme courts, has the third smallest backlog of cases older than 2 years. This is despite that fact that it deals almost exclusively with the most serious offences (murder and manslaughter).

NSW also improved outcomes and services for Aboriginal communities through the expansion of circle sentencing and community justice groups. Circle sentencing was extended to Dubbo, and is due to commence in the near future at Brewarrina and Walgett Local Courts. Aboriginal Community Justice Groups were established at Lismore, Grafton, Yamba, Maclean, Toronto and Mt. Druitt.

Local Courts now provide outreach services in 35 courthouses. Outreach services improve access to a range of government information and transaction services for residents in physically remote and isolated locations and to targeted client groups such as Aboriginal communities and people from non-English-speaking backgrounds.

Video conferencing systems installed in courtrooms and other justice facilities have been used for over 20 000 bail appearances, parole hearings and remote witness appearances. This technological advance has significantly reduced the costs and risks of transporting people in custody and has improved security within courts, particularly for vulnerable witnesses.

CourtLink, the multi-jurisdictional case management system is providing an impetus to review and streamline processes in each of the jurisdictions. Additionally, court forms and documents in the criminal jurisdiction have been reduced from 700 to fewer than 100 types of documents.

Lawlink NSW was consistently rated in the top five most popular legal websites in Australia, registering an average of more than 4 million hits per month. For Caselaw, the web-based application containing NSW court and tribunal decisions, more than 19 million pages were accessed throughout the year.

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Victorian Government comments

“ In 2003-04 Victoria continued to introduce new technology, new mediation processes and construct court houses to improve the delivery of services to the community.

Construction of the \$15.5M Warrnambool Courts Complex continued through 2003-2004. The multi-jurisdictional complex has four court rooms and will also accommodate the Office of Public Prosecutions, the Sheriff's Office and Community Correctional Services. Work also continued on the new \$16.7M Mildura Courts Complex through 2003-2004 and it was completed in early October 2004. The multi-jurisdictional court house has jury and custody facilities as well as a pre-trial hearing room, interview rooms and facilities for the public and staff. Both courthouses will incorporate ecologically sustainable development principles, including energy efficient design and features the latest in court technology.

The Department is continuing to enhance access to technology for courts across the state. In 2003-04 the Victorian Government Reporting Service (VGRS) upgraded video-conferencing facilities, and in partnership with the County Court, trialed the installation of a combined DVD, VHS and CD Player for use in the presentation of evidence in courtrooms. The Supreme Court upgraded the IT infrastructure to support a rollout to windows XP and standardise information technology across the Melbourne and regional Courts. The Court commenced a project to upgrade court rooms in the criminal jurisdiction to support electronic delivery of evidence for major criminal trials.

The County Court introduced a new criminal listing regime which has resulted in more appropriate timeliness in this jurisdiction, particularly in relation to criminal trials. The County Court also continued to address the increased caseload arising from the reintroduction of the common law right to sue for work related injuries, as well as addressing the changing caseload arising from Tort Law reforms introduced during 2003.

Since its inception in February 2003 the mediation initiative for civil claims above \$30,000 at the Magistrates Court has proved most successful. The Court's accredited mediators (also Registrar's of the Magistrates Court) conducted 138 mediations of which 91 settled and 47 matters were listed for hearing before an Open Court. The success rate currently lies at 66%. The total saving of Court sitting time has been a total 205 sitting days. In relation to designated Intervention Order complaints (which excluded applications between family members) an agreement rate of 72% was achieved between parties which resulted in the original complaint for an intervention order being withdrawn. Participation in the program is voluntary.

The Criminal Justice Diversion Program operating in the Magistrates Court has also proved quite successful.

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Queensland Government comments

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Queensland courts have continued to set high standards of efficiency and effectiveness during 2003–04. A range of initiatives have been undertaken to improve access to justice in Queensland including:

- Implementation of the *Evidence (Protection of Children) Amendment Act 2003* which improves the environment for children in the criminal justice system through pre-recording all evidence at a preliminary hearing unless (because of extraordinary circumstances) the court orders otherwise; and mandatory use of CCTV or screens where pre-recording has not occurred.
- The continued expansion of closed circuit television (CCTV) and voice enhancement facilities for witnesses throughout Queensland including – in the Higher Courts – at Mt Isa, Cairns, Townsville, Bundaberg, Kingaroy, and Gympie and – in the Magistrates Courts – at Richlands.
- The continued successful Drug Court program in South East Queensland and expansion of the Drug Court through trials in Cairns and Townsville.
- Implementation of the Illicit Drug Diversion Program trial (at the Brisbane Central Magistrates Courts and Children's Court) with the aim of diverting minor drug offenders into assessment, education and treatment.
- Commencement of the operations of the Office of the State Coroner delivering high quality coronial services including comprehensive coronial investigations – with the aim of preventing future similar deaths.
- Expansion of the Civil Case Register System (CRS) in the Magistrates Courts to a total of 19 sites (adding three new locations at Petrie, Noosa and Cleveland). This CRS facility enables solicitors and others to electronically lodge civil claims and requests for default judgement in Magistrates Courts.
- Continuation of the development of the Integrated Justice Information System project - a whole-of-government initiative to better plan and implement integrated justice solutions in collaboration with government agencies. The project will deliver a number of initiatives over five years. The first stage in 2003–04 has involved the electronic transfer of bench charge sheets and related information from police to courts and access to court lists.
- Planning for the delivery of state-of-the-art digital recording and transcription services in Queensland courts – commencing in 2004–05 with the Brisbane Magistrates Court and the Brisbane Higher Courts.
- Continuation of the modernisation program in Queensland courts - not just as new bricks and mortar projects but as specific improvements designed to make the criminal justice system more effective. These include the new state-of-the-art Brisbane Magistrates Court complex (commencing November 2004), refurbishment of the Mackay Courthouse and an upgrade of the Hervey Bay courthouse.

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Western Australian Government comments

“ A considerable legislative agenda that impacts upon courts activities has been progressed through Parliament and includes:

- Structural and procedural reform of the lower courts to create a Magistrates' Court, exercising both a civil and criminal jurisdiction. The Court will have increased jurisdictional limits and the power to make its own rules.
- The Civil Judgments Enforcement Act and the Criminal Procedure Act that will establish uniform procedures across all of the respective jurisdictions.
- Increasing the likelihood of 'either-way' offences being dealt with in the Magistrates Court.
- Creating a State Administrative Tribunal (SAT) that will amalgamate all or part functions of over 50 boards and tribunals and transfer hundreds of administrative appeals from courts.
- Amending the Restraining Orders Act to reflect community concerns relating to family and domestic violence.
- Changing procedures to afford sexual assault complainants greater protection.

Other projects underway include:

- The construction of a Central Business District Courts complex. This facility will provide for all criminal trials in the CBD to be managed from the one facility. The expected completion is by 2008.
- Implementing the Integrated Courts Management System (ICMS) into the civil jurisdiction of the Supreme and District Courts and planning for Criminal Case Management. The system will also provide a case management facility for the SAT and enable the expansion of e-Business (Magistrates' Courts are now receiving more than 85% of police criminal complaints electronically).
- Development of a management plan for self represented persons in Courts and Tribunals.
- A joint assessment has commenced on the merits of developing cross-border agreements between WA, SA and the NT to provide for summary criminal matters perpetrated in one state/territory to be dealt with in another and enforceable in the originating state/territory. Participating Magistrates and Court Officers will hold simultaneous appointments for all jurisdictions.

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South Australian Government comments

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There are no substantial changes in this year's reported data compared with the trends that have been noted in the activities and performance of the South Australian courts over recent years.

The two projects being undertaken in the Magistrates Court in collaboration with the Attorney-General's Department and other organisations, namely; adjournments and video conferencing, are continuing to be investigated.

In the District and Supreme Courts the examination of the listing processes to see if greater consistency can be achieved between what is expected to take place when a matter is listed for trial and what actually takes place is continuing.

Key initiatives not covered in the report include:

- A number of Aboriginal Justice initiatives have been introduced to improve the responsiveness of the Courts system for Aboriginal people and to make it more culturally appropriate. Examples of these initiatives are; Aboriginal Justice Officers, Aboriginal Court Days, Aboriginal Youth Court Pilot in Port Augusta, Aboriginal Recruitment and Employment in Magistrates Courts and Aboriginal interpreters extended to Ceduna, Yalata and Coober Pedy.
- The Court Diversion Program continues to expand, now covering the CBD, metropolitan and three regional areas of South Australia. The Program provides an opportunity for eligible individuals to address their mental health, disability issues and their offending behaviour, while their legal proceedings are suspended.
- Funding has been approved to develop a new Courthouse at Port Augusta. The development provides for a three courtroom building that provides rooms for associated agencies within the building, registry and mediation facilities, point of entry security, open plan for internal waiting spaces and sheltered external waiting areas. Multi Purpose Courtrooms will be designed to provide a high degree of flexibility in the operating configuration to suit the specific requirements of particular hearings/trials. Construction completion date is expected to be September 2006.

The South Australian Courts have continued to pursue a range of strategies designed to improve the flow of matters through the various courts.

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Tasmanian Government comments

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The accuracy of many of the data items provided by Tasmania in this report has improved significantly following a review of the implementation of the new performance indicators first used in 2002–03 and full implementation a new case management system in the Criminal Division of the Magistrates Court (“CRIMES”).

The review revealed that in 2002–03 Tasmania had incorrectly interpreted the new counting rules for pending caseload in the Magistrates Court’s Civil and Criminal Divisions and the Civil Division of the Supreme Court. This, together with an increased focus on timely disposal of cases, explains a significant improvement in the backlog indicator in 2003–04 for these courts. The backlog indicator for the Coronial Court has also improved significantly in 2003–04 due to the allocation of additional judicial resources and improved case management.

The courts plan to achieve further improvements in the timeliness of finalising cases, as represented by the backlog indicator in 2004–05. The Supreme Court plans to improve the management of civil cases and in particular identify cases where the parties settle out of court and the court is not informed. The Magistrates Court has reallocated a Magistrate from the Civil to Criminal Jurisdiction and has had two temporary Magistrates appointed for the first half of 2004–05.

Unlike the majority of other state jurisdictions the Tasmanian Magistrates Court deals with matters arising from drivers failing to pay infringement notices. In most other states these unpaid infringement notices are dealt with through Electronic Courts. These matters account for approximately 66 per cent of all lodgments and finalisations in the Magistrates Court. This factor accounts for a number of apparent anomalies in the Magistrates Courts indicators including the proportionally high numbers of lodgments and finalisations, the low attendance indicator (These matters are generally dealt with through a single appearance) and the low net expenditure per finalisation (The matters are dealt with ex-parte by an unpaid Justice of the Peace). It is anticipated that in 2006 the implementation a new Monetary Penalties Enforcement System will remove these matters from the Magistrates Court.

For many years the average civil court fees per lodgment in the Tasmanian Supreme Court has been very low when compared with other states. The Court has recently reviewed the level of fees for civil lodgments and has revised the fees for 2004–05 to be in line with those in other states District and County Courts.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The progressive introduction of the new reporting framework, based on agreed national Key Performance Indicators, is opening up new opportunities to identify better practice in Australia. In the ACT, the KPIs are being rolled out across the jurisdictions, with planning well advanced to report against them monthly to assist in the management of the courts' caseload.

The 2003–04 year saw further improvements in the management of the Territory's courts and tribunals, including:

- legislative reform to fundamentally change the way that court rules are developed and implemented through a Joint Courts Rules Committee;
- improved physical access to the Supreme Court for people with disabilities;
- new Supreme Court Criminal Practice Directions, including new arrangements for early arraignments and the management of special fixtures;
- commencement of a “Circle Sentencing” pilot in the Magistrates Court, allowing greater involvement of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander community in the criminal sentencing process; and
- increased levels of customer satisfaction, with 90 per cent of survey respondents rating our services overall as “very satisfactory” or “satisfactory”, up from 86 per cent last year.

This year's Report graphically highlights the impact of long and complex cases on any court's productivity. In 2001–02 the unit cost in the ACT Coroners Court was \$449. In 2003–04 it had increased to \$2,314 [see Table 6A.23]. This 515 per cent increase is wholly attributable to a single case, the Coronial Inquiry into the January 2003 Bushfire emergency. While all Australian jurisdictions recognise the effect of ‘mega-trials’, rarely has the resourcing impact been so clearly discernable as it is in a comparatively small system like that in the ACT.

With an increasing reliance on the results of this Report for government resource allocation and public sector performance review, the ACT looks forward to the time when all courts in all jurisdictions reliably report against all indicators, so that more meaningful national averages are available.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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The Courts Administration Division of the Department of Justice was re-named 'Court Support Services' during the year.

Achieved the first full year of operation of the Court Referral and Evaluation for Drug Intervention and Treatment (CREDIT NT) program. CREDIT NT is a 12 week pre-sentence bail program wherein defendants are assessed for eligibility to participate in the program, and if the Court allows, are then referred to one of a range of treatment providers as a component of their bail conditions. The program is co-ordinated by two Court Clinicians based in Darwin and Alice Springs.

An electronic courtroom was constructed within the Supreme Court building at Darwin to reduce the time taken for trials, resulting in a more efficient use of resources. The electronic courtroom involved the fit-out of an unused 'shell only' courtroom thereby providing a much needed additional criminal courtroom which will assist the Supreme Court in dealing with criminal matters in a more timely manner.

Conducted a pilot video-conferencing project with Oenpelli during the year and expanded the videoconferencing network to include the Jabiru, Nhulunbuy and Alyangula courthouses.

Developed a Client Service Charter that sets out standards of service users of the Courts and Tribunals can expect from Court Support Services' staff.

The Education Liaison Officer continued to work closely with the Department of Employment Education and Training to facilitate the courts' contribution to the Discovering Democracy Project. The program has been developed with suitable and relevant content being reviewed for publication on the Supreme Court web page.

Continued to develop a performance indicator framework in line with the framework established by the Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision.

Responded to a call from local civil legal practitioners by increasing Supreme Court sitting weeks at Alice Springs. The calendar at Alice Springs was also restructured to enable more time to be allocated to civil matters during the year.

Commenced a Community Court pilot in Nhulunbuy. The community plays an active role in providing advice to the Magistrate on the sentencing of members of their communities.

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6.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Active pending population	A lodgment that is yet to be finalised but is part of the case management of court administrators.
Average expenditure per civil case	The total cost of the administrative services provided to civil matters, divided by the total number of civil files handled. Includes salaries, sheriff expenses, juror costs, accommodation costs, library services, information technology, departmental overheads and court operating expenses.
Attendance Indicator	The average number of attendances for each finalisation in the reporting period. An attendance is defined as the number of times that parties or their representatives are required to be present in court (including any appointment which is adjourned or rescheduled) for all finalised matters during the year. The actual attendance is one that is heard by a judicial officer or mediator/arbitrator.'
Backlog Indicator	A measure of case processing timeliness. It is the number of pending cases older than the applicable reporting standards, divided by the total pending caseload (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).
Bench warrant	A warrant issued by a court for the arrest of a person who has been indicted.
Case	The measurement of workload in the civil jurisdiction. It is the issues, grievances or complaints that constitute a single and related series of disputes brought by an entity (or group of entities) against another entity (or group).
Clearance rate	A measure of whether a court is keeping up with its workload. It is the number of finalisations in the reporting period, divided by the number of lodgments in the same period (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).
Cost recovery	The level of court fees divided by the level of court expenditure.
Court fees collected	Total court income from fees charged in the civil jurisdiction. Includes filing, sitting hearing and deposition fees, and excludes transcript fees.
Electronic court	A court with the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants (such as fines, licence cancellation and incarceration) and to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences.
Electronic court	A court with the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants (such as fines, licence cancellation and incarceration) and to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences.
Excluded courts and tribunals	Guardianship boards, environment resources and development courts, and administrative appeals tribunals.
Finalisation	The completion of a matter so it ceases to be an item of work to be dealt with by the court. Finalisations are derived from timeliness data that may not reflect the total matters disposed by the courts in the reporting period.
Forms	The counting unit used in the family courts and family law matters pertaining to the Federal Magistrates Court. Forms are applications or notices lodged with the court.
Income	Income derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation

	revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).
Information technology expenditure	Non-salary and salary expenditure on information technology. Excludes capital expenditure on information technology infrastructure and includes licensing costs, computer leasing costs, the cost of consumables (such as data lines, paper and disks), training fees, access fees (for example, catalogue search and Internet access) and maintenance charges for software and hardware.
Inquests and inquiries held	Court hearings to determine the cause and circumstances of deaths reported to the coroner. Includes all coronial inquests and inquiries in full court hearings.
Judicial officer	Judges, magistrates, masters, coroners, judicial registrars and all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court. The data are provided on the basis of the proportion of time spent on the judicial activity.
Judicial and judicial support salaries	All salary expenditure and payments in the nature of salary that are paid to employees of court administration. Includes base salaries, the employer contributed component of superannuation, workers compensation (full cost, inclusive of any levies, bills and legal fees), higher duty allowances, overtime, actual and accruing terminal and long service leave, fringe benefits tax and untaxed fringe benefits. (Judicial officers include judges, magistrates, masters, judicial registrars and other judicial officers who fulfil a primarily judicial function. Judicial support staff include judicial secretaries, tipstaff and associates).
Library expenditure	Non-salary and salary expenditure on court operated libraries. Non-salary expenditure includes book purchases, journal subscriptions, fees for interlibrary loans, copyright charges, news clippings service fees and photocopying. Expenditure also includes current information technology costs and court administration contributions towards the running costs of non-government operated libraries. Any costs recovered through borrowing and photocopy fees by court operated libraries are subtracted from expenditure.
Lodgment	The initiation or commencement of a matter before the court. The date of commencement is counted as the date of registration of a court matter.
Matters	<i>Coronial matters:</i> Deaths and fires reported to the coroner in each jurisdiction, including all reported deaths and fires regardless of whether the coroner held an inquest or inquiry. Coronial jurisdictions can extend to the manner of the death of a person who was killed; was found drowned; died a sudden death of which the cause is unknown; died under suspicious or unusual circumstances; died during or following the administration of an operation of a medical, surgical, dental, diagnostic or like nature; died in a prison remand centre or lockup; or died under circumstances that (in the opinion of the Attorney-General) require that the cause of death be more clearly ascertained. <i>Criminal matters:</i> Matters brought to the court by a government prosecuting agency, which is generally the Director of Public Prosecutions but could also be the Attorney-General, the police, local councils or traffic camera branches. <i>Civil matters:</i> Matters brought before the court by individuals or organisations against another party, such as small claims and residential tenancies, as well as matters dealt with by the appeal court jurisdiction.

	<p><i>Excluded matters:</i> Extraordinary driver's licence applications; any application on a pending dispute; applications for bail directions or judgment; secondary processes (for example, applications for default judgments); interlocutory matters; investigation/examination summonses; firearms appeals; escort agents' licensing appeals; pastoral lands appeals; local government tribunals; police promotions appeals; applications appealing the decisions of workers compensation review officers.</p> <p><i>Probate:</i> Matters such as applications for the appointment of an executor or administrator to the estate of a deceased person.</p>
Method of finalisation	The process that leads to the completion of a criminal charge within a higher court so it ceases to be an item of work in that court.
Method of initiation	How a criminal charge is introduced to a court level.
Non-adjudicated finalisation	A judgment or decision by the court as to whether the defendant is guilty of the charge laid against him or her — for example, whether the defendant pleaded guilty or was found guilty by the court, or was acquitted.
Probate registry expenditure	Salary expenditure of the probate registrar and probate clerks, along with non-salary expenditure directly attributable to probate registries.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices using the GDP(E) price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Sheriff and bailiff expenditure	Expenditure on court orderlies, court security, jury management and witness payment administration. For the civil jurisdiction, it includes expenditure (by or on behalf of the court) on bailiffs to enforce court orders. In the coronial jurisdiction, it includes expenditure on police officers permanently attached to the coroner for the purpose of assisting in coronial investigations. Excludes witness payments, fines enforcement (criminal jurisdiction) and prisoner security.
Withdrawn	The formal withdrawal of charges by the prosecution (that is, by police, the Director of Public Prosecutions or the Attorney-General).

6.7 References

FMC (Federal Magistrates Court) 2004, www.fmc.gov.au (accessed 14 October 2004).

SCRCSSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision) 2003, *Report on Government Services 2003*, AusInfo, Canberra.

7 Corrective services

Corrective services aim to meet the overall objectives of the criminal justice system, outlined in the 'Justice preface', by providing a safe, secure and humane adult correctional system that incorporates the elements of rehabilitation, community protection and reparation. In this Report, corrective services include prison custody (including periodic detention) and a range of community corrections orders and programs for adult offenders (for example, parole and community work orders). The term 'prisoners' is used in this chapter to refer to people held in full time custody under the jurisdiction of an adult corrective service agency; the term 'offenders' is used to refer to people serving community corrections orders. Both public and privately operated correctional facilities are included; however, the scope of this chapter does not extend to:

- juvenile justice (which is covered in the community services preface)
- prisoners or alleged offenders held in forensic mental health facilities to receive psychiatric care (who are generally the responsibility of health departments)
- prisoners held in police custody (who are covered in the police services chapter)
- people held in facilities such as immigration or military detention centres.

A profile of the corrective services sector is provided in section 7.1. The framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 7.2, and the data collected are discussed in section 7.3. Future developments in performance reporting are broadly discussed in section 7.4. Jurisdictions' comments are provided in section 7.5, and the chapter concludes with definitions in section 7.6.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 7 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as `\Publications\Reports\2005\Attach7A.xls` and in Adobe PDF format as `\Publications\Reports\2005\Attach7A.pdf`.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 7A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet

access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

7.1 Profile of corrective services

Service overview

As discussed in the ‘Justice preface’, the operation of corrective services is significantly influenced by, and in turn influences, the other two components of the criminal justice system: police and courts. The management of prisoners and offenders serving community corrections orders is the core business of all corrective services agencies, however, the scope of the responsibilities of these agencies varies widely. Functions administered by corrective services in one jurisdiction may be administered by a different justice sector agency in another — for example, the management of prisoners held in court cells or police cells, the supervision of juvenile offenders on community corrections orders, juvenile detention, and the prosecution of breaches of community corrections orders vary across jurisdictions.

Roles and responsibilities

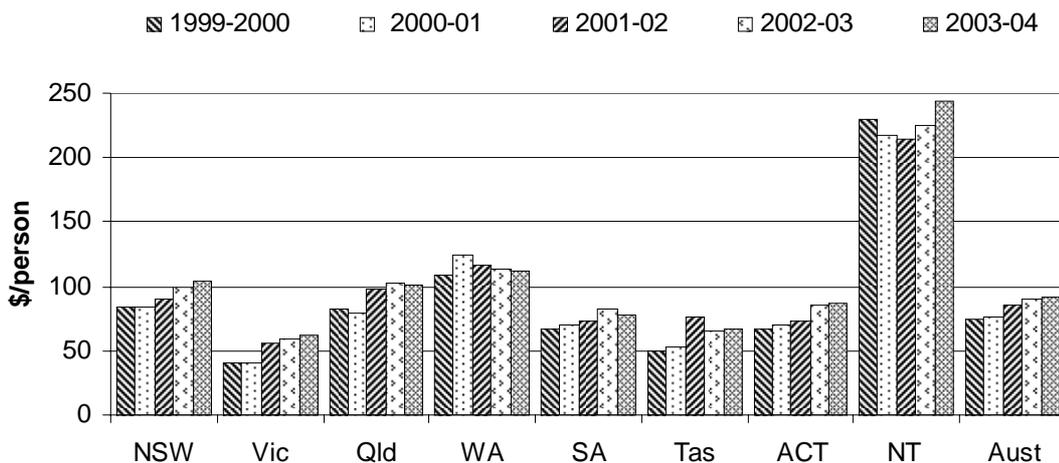
Corrective services are the responsibility of State and Territory governments, which may deliver services directly, purchase them through contractual arrangements or operate a combination of both arrangements. All jurisdictions except the ACT maintained both open and secure custody prison facilities during the reporting period. In 2003-04, the ACT maintained two remand facilities and one periodic detention centre, with people sentenced to imprisonment in the ACT being held in NSW prisons under contractual arrangements between the two jurisdictions. Private prisons operated in five jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA) in 2003-04. Two jurisdictions (NSW and the ACT) provided periodic detention for prisoners — for example, weekend detention in custody, whereby prisoners can return home and maintain work commitments during the week.

Funding

Reported expenditure on corrective services (net of revenue derived from own sources and excluding payroll tax) totalled \$1.8 billion nationally in 2003-04 — \$1.6 billion (85.5 per cent) for prisons, \$198.0 million (10.8 per cent) for community corrections and \$67.0 million (3.7 per cent) for transport and escort

services (table 7A.11).¹ Expenditure per person in the population ranged from \$243 in the NT to \$62 in Victoria in 2003-04 (tables 7A.11 and 7A.12). Nationally, expenditure per person increased in real terms from \$74 in 1999-2000 to \$92 in 2003-04 (figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 Real expenditure on corrective services per person (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}



^a Includes expenditure for all corrections (prisons, transport and escort services, and community corrections) net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues); excludes payroll tax. Includes depreciation, capital asset charges, debt servicing fees and other associated capital expenses; excludes the user cost of capital. Per person cost is calculated using total population (all ages). ^b Data for previous years have been adjusted to 2003-04 dollars using the gross domestic product price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.12.

Size and scope of sector

Prison custody

There were 121 corrective service operated custodial facilities throughout Australia in 2003-04 (table 7A.2). These comprised 79 government operated prisons and seven privately operated prisons; five government operated community custodial facilities (including two transitional centres) and three privately operated community custodial facilities; 12 periodic detention centres; and 15 24-hour court-cell centres (under the responsibility of corrective services in NSW) (table 7A.2).

¹ Transport and escort service expenditure for 2003-04 was reported separately from overall prison expenditure by NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA and the ACT (table 7A.6).

On average, 23 015 people per day (excluding periodic detainees) were held in Australian prisons during the year — an increase of 3.5 per cent over the average daily number reported in the previous year (table 7A.1). In addition, on average, 831 people per day were serving periodic detention orders in NSW and the ACT in 2003-04 — a decline of 12.2 per cent from the 2002-03 average.

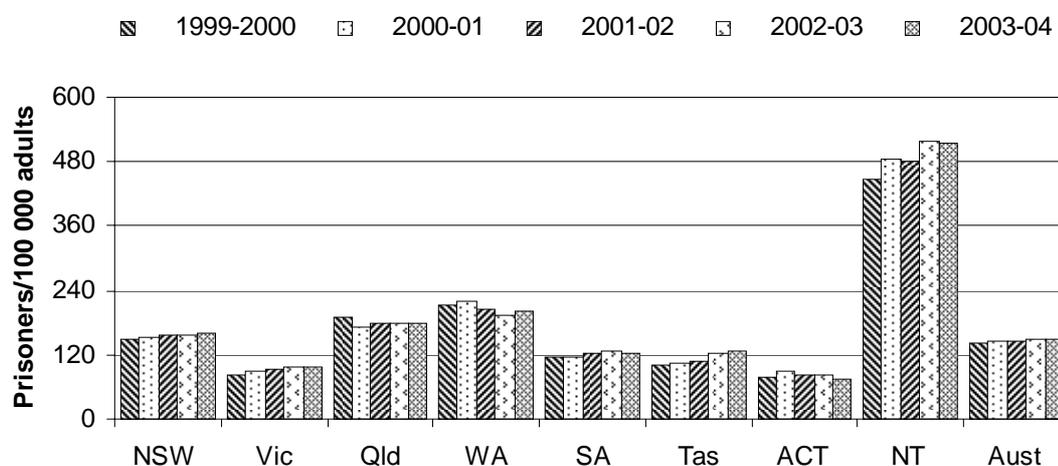
Excluding periodic detainees, 28.0 per cent of prisoners were held in open prisons (facilities for prisoners classified as low security) in 2003-04 and 72.0 per cent were held in secure facilities. A daily average of 4281 prisoners (18.6 per cent of the total Australian prisoner population, excluding periodic detainees) were held in privately operated facilities during the year — an increase of 2.6 per cent from the previous year's average. The proportion of prisoners accommodated in private prisons in those jurisdictions operating private prisons ranged from 40.4 per cent in Victoria to 7.3 per cent in SA, in 2003-04 (table 7A.1).

Nationally, the daily average number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) in 2003-04 comprised 21 465 males and 1549 females — 93.3 per cent and 6.7 per cent of the prison population respectively. The daily average number of Indigenous prisoners was 4960 — 21.6 per cent of prisoners nationally (table 7A.1).

The rate of imprisonment represents the number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) per 100 000 people in the corresponding adult population. The adult population includes people at or over the minimum age at which sentencing to adult custody can occur in each jurisdiction (17 years in Victoria and Queensland, and 18 years in all other jurisdictions for the reporting period).

The national rate of imprisonment for all prisoners was 150.2 per 100 000 Australian adults in 2003-04, compared to 147.2 in 2002-03 (figure 7.2). The NT reported the highest imprisonment rate per 100 000 adults in 2003-04 (515.6) and the ACT reported the lowest rate (73.7) (figure 7.2). On a gender basis, the national imprisonment rate was 284.9 per 100 000 adult males and 19.9 per 100 000 adult females in 2003-04 (table 7A.4).

Figure 7.2 **Imprisonment rates^{a, b}**



^a Based on the daily average prisoner population numbers supplied by States and Territories, calculated against adult population estimates (ABS data supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics).

^b ACT rates include prisoners held in the ACT and ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. NSW rates exclude ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons as of 2002-03.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.5.

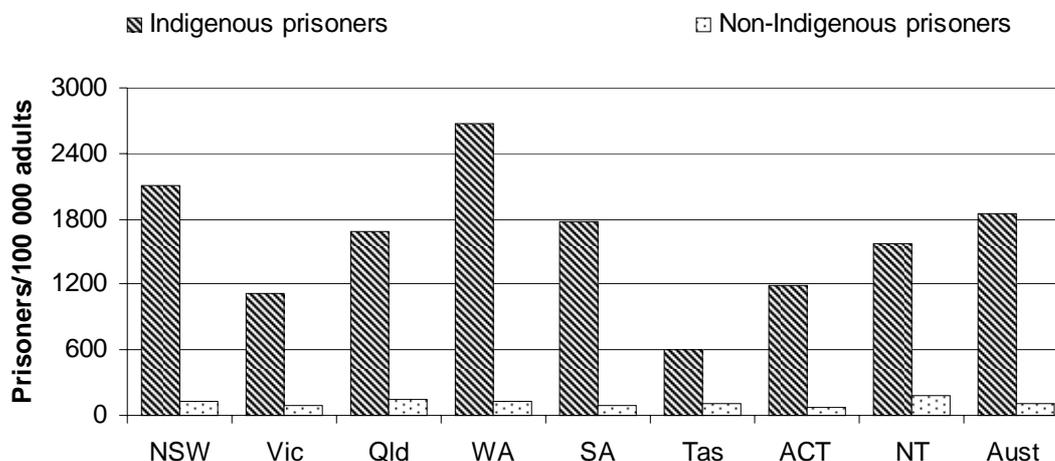
Imprisonment rates for Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners are not yet available for 2003-04. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) has suspended publication of these rates until new population projections can be appropriately integrated into the corrective services data series.

The national imprisonment rate per 100 000 Indigenous adults in 2002-03 was 1850.5 compared with a rate of 115.4 for non-Indigenous prisoners per 100 000 non-Indigenous adults (figure 7.3). WA reported the highest rate of Indigenous imprisonment per 100 000 adults (2678.4) and Tasmania reported the lowest (600.8). The NT reported the highest non-Indigenous imprisonment rate per 100 000 adults (177.7) and the ACT reported the lowest (70.2) (figure 7.3).

These comparisons need to be interpreted with care, especially for states and territories with low Indigenous populations, where small changes in prisoner numbers can cause variations in rates that do not accurately represent either real trends over time or consistent differences from other jurisdictions.

While imprisonment rates for Indigenous people are far higher than those for non-Indigenous people, the majority of prisoners are non-Indigenous. Nationally, 76.3 per cent of prisoners were non-Indigenous in 2003-04 (table 7A.1).

Figure 7.3 **Indigenous and non-Indigenous imprisonment rates, 2002-03^{a, b, c}**



^a Based on the daily average prisoner population numbers supplied by states and territories, calculated against adult Indigenous and non-Indigenous population estimates (ABS figures supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b ACT rates include ACT prisoners held in the ACT and in NSW prisons. NSW rates exclude ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. ^c Excludes prisoners reported as being of unknown Indigenous status.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.4.

Community corrections

All jurisdictions operate community corrections programs. Community corrections comprise a variety of non-custodial programs (listed for each jurisdiction in table 7A.23). These programs vary in the extent and nature of supervision, the conditions of the order (such as a community work component or personal development program attendance) and the level of restrictions placed on the person's freedom of movement in the community (for example, home detention). No single objective or set of characteristics is common to all community corrections programs, other than that they generally provide either a non-custodial sentencing alternative or a post-custodial mechanism for reintegrating prisoners into the community under continued supervision.

Community corrections include court imposed non-custodial sentences that are administered by corrective services. These sentences may include suspended sentences, court imposed home detention, community service orders, probation, intensive supervision orders and recognisance. In most states and territories, fine default orders are administered by community corrections, as is bail supervision in some jurisdictions. All jurisdictions have reparation and supervision orders. Restricted movement orders were available in all jurisdictions except Tasmania in

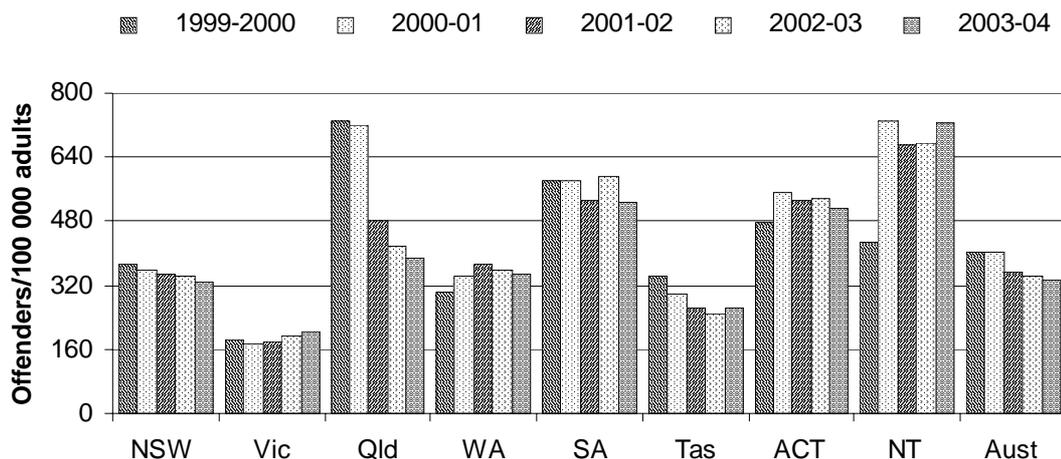
2003-04. Community corrections also include post-custodial programs (for example, parole, release on licence, pre-release orders and some forms of home detention), under which prisoners released into the community continue to be subject to corrective services supervision.

A daily average of 50 821 offenders were serving community corrections orders across Australia in 2003-04 — a decrease of 2.1 per cent from the previous year's average (table 7A.3). This daily average comprised 41 369 males (81.4 per cent), 9011 females (17.7 per cent) and 441 offenders whose gender was not recorded. The daily average comprised 7676 Indigenous offenders (15.1 per cent of the total community correction population), 38 853 non-Indigenous offenders (76.5 per cent) and 4292 persons whose Indigenous status was unknown (table 7A.3).

The community corrections rate represents the number of offenders serving community corrections orders per 100 000 people in the corresponding adult population. The adult population includes people at or over the age of entry to the adult correctional system in each jurisdiction (17 years in Victoria and Queensland, and 18 years in all other jurisdictions for the reporting period).

The national community corrections rate was 331.6 per 100 000 adults in 2003-04 compared to 343.9 in 2002-03 (figure 7.4). The NT reported the highest rate per 100 000 adults in 2003-04 (724.2) and Victoria reported the lowest (205.0) (figure 7.4).

Figure 7.4 **Community corrections rates^{a, b}**



^a Based on the daily average offender population numbers supplied by State and Territory governments, calculated against adult population estimates (ABS data supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b As of 2000-01 rates include persons on inactive orders, although not all persons on inactive orders are included in all jurisdictions (see tables 7A.29, 7A.35, 7A.73).

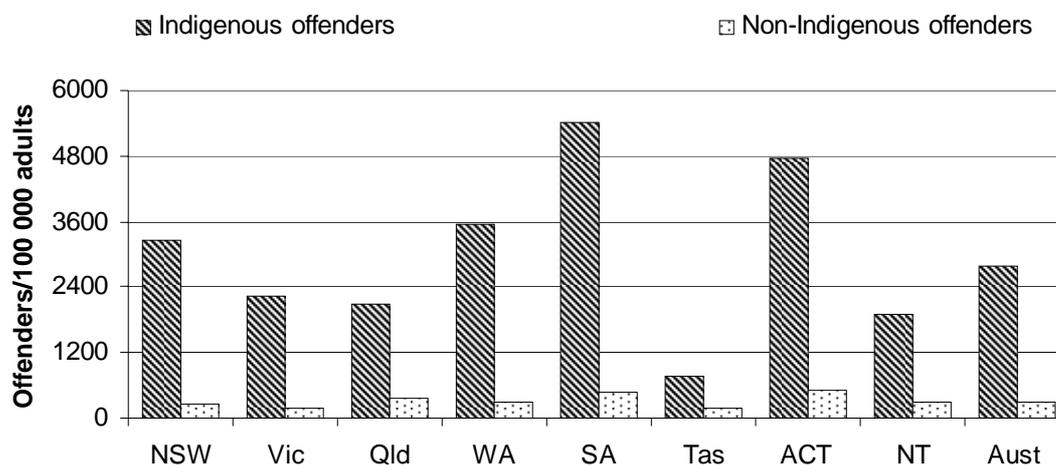
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.5.

The national rate for female community correction offenders was 115.7 per 100 000 adult females, compared with 549.1 for adult males (table 7A.4).

Community corrections rates for Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners were not available for 2003-04. The ABS has discontinued publication of these rates until new population projections can be appropriately integrated into the corrective services data series. The national rate for Indigenous offenders in 2002-03 was 2764.1 per 100 000 Indigenous adults compared with 275.3 for non-Indigenous offenders (figure 7.5). South Australia reported the highest rate of Indigenous offenders per 100 000 Indigenous adults in 2002-03 (5398.1) and Tasmania reported the lowest (766.5). The ACT reported the highest rate of non-Indigenous offenders per 100 000 non-Indigenous adults (497.5) and Victoria reported the lowest rate (173.7) in 2002-03 (figure 7.5).

As in the case of imprisonment rates, these comparisons need to be interpreted with care, especially for those jurisdictions with low Indigenous populations, where small changes in offender numbers can cause variations in rates that do not accurately represent either real trends over time or consistent differences from other jurisdictions.

Figure 7.5 **Indigenous and non-Indigenous community corrections rates, 2002-03^a**



^a Rates are based on the daily average offender population numbers supplied by State and Territory governments, calculated against adult Indigenous and non-Indigenous population estimates (ABS data supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). Excludes offenders whose Indigenous status was reported as unknown.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.4.

7.2 Framework of performance indicators

Corrective services performance is reported against common objectives agreed by all jurisdictions (box 7.1). The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report (figure 7.6). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Box 7.1 Objectives for corrective services

Corrective services effectiveness indicators relate to the objectives of:

- **custody** — to protect the community by the sound management of prisoners commensurate with the risks they pose to the community, and to ensure the environment in which prisoners are managed enables them to achieve an acceptable quality of life consistent with community norms
- **community** — to protect the community by the sound management of offenders commensurate with the risks they pose to the community, and to ensure the environment in which offenders are managed enables them to achieve an acceptable quality of life, consistent with community norms, through referral to social support agencies
- **reparation** — to ensure work undertaken by prisoners or offenders benefits the community either directly or indirectly (by reducing costs to the taxpayer)
- **prisoner/offender programs** — to provide programs and opportunities that address the causes of offending, maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community and reduce the risk of re-offending
- **advice to sentencing and releasing authorities** — to provide sentencing and releasing authorities with advice to assist in the determination of the disposition of prisoners and offenders, their release to parole, and the necessary conditions for their supervision and post-release supervision.

These objectives will be met through the provision of services in an equitable and efficient manner.

Corrective services efficiency indicators relate to the objective of **resource management** — to manage resources to deliver correctional services efficiently.

Jurisdictions continue to investigate comparability issues through their participation in the National Corrections Advisory Group (NCAG) and work to improve the counting rules for performance indicators. Definitions and counting rules were refined during the year as part of the continuing effort to improve comparability of all indicators across jurisdictions. Data for previous years have been updated, where possible, in accordance with any revisions made to counting rules and definitions.

As a result, this Report presents some historical data that may vary from data published in previous reports. In other cases, it has not been possible to recalculate historical data, so any conclusions about changes within individual jurisdictions need to be considered in this context.

Figure 7.6 Performance indicators for corrective services

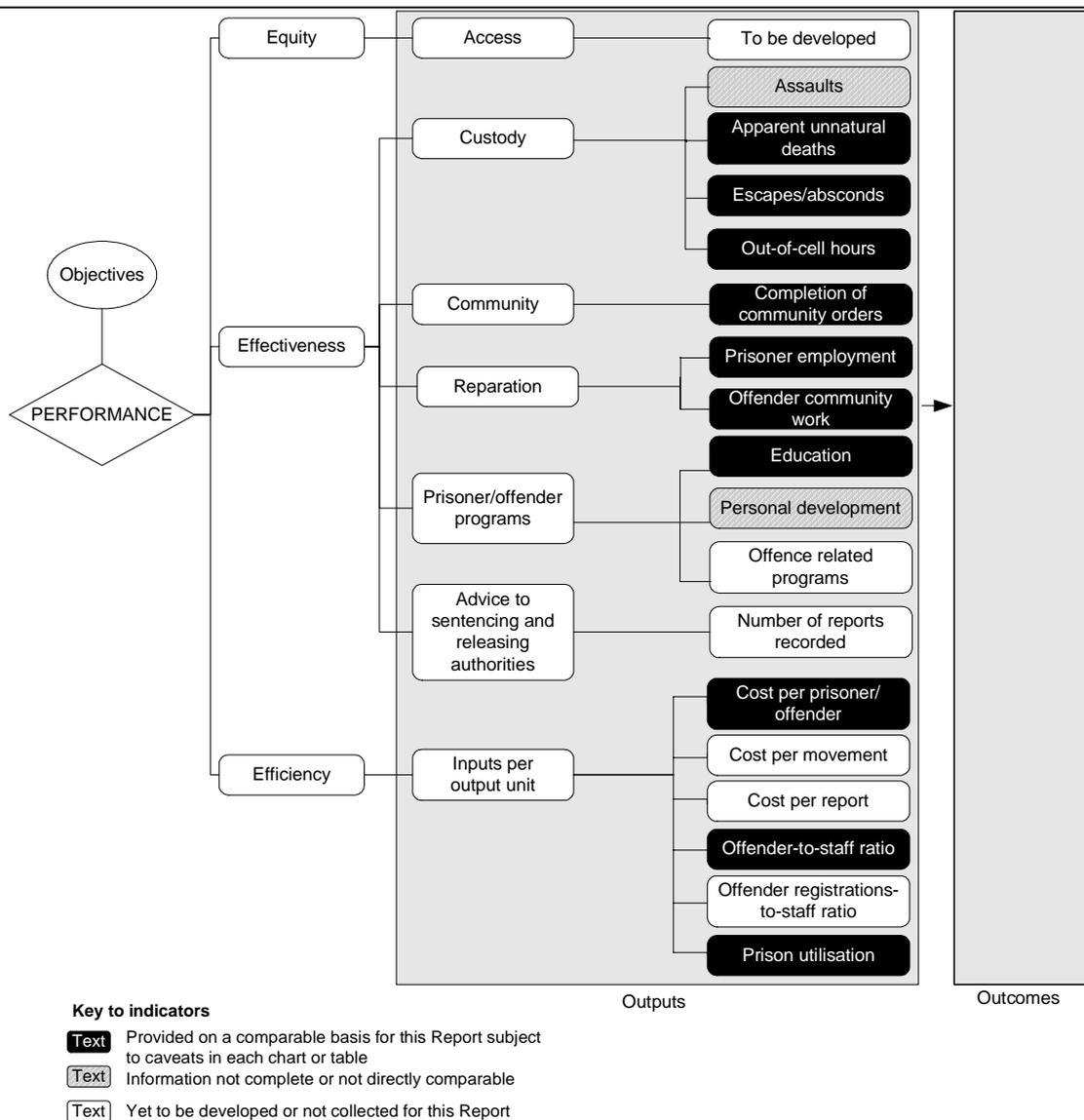


Figure 7.6 specifies the performance indicators associated with the objectives identified in box 7.1. At this stage, there are no outcome indicators for corrective services. It is noted, however, that the activities of corrective services influence broader justice-wide outcomes (such as recidivism) that are reported in the ‘Justice preface’.

For periodic detainees, relevant effectiveness indicators, such as assaults and escapes, are reported separately. For relevant efficiency indicators (such as

recurrent cost per prisoner), periodic detainees are counted as two sevenths of a prisoner, because they spend two days a week in prison. Given the unique contracted service arrangements in the ACT, the ACT indicators are presented according to the most appropriate representation of effectiveness and cost — that is, either separately for remand prisoners and/or periodic detainees held in ACT centres, or as the total ACT prisoner population (whether held in NSW or ACT facilities).

7.3 Key performance indicator results

Performance is reported against the objectives for corrective services set out in box 7.1, using the indicator framework shown in figure 7.6. Jurisdictional differences in service delivery settings, geographic dispersal and prisoner/offender population profiles have an impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of correctional service systems. Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

Outputs

Equity

Equity — access indicator

The Steering Committee has identified equity — access in corrective services as a key area for further development in future reports (box 7.2).

Box 7.2 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of access to appropriate programs and services for people under the responsibility of corrective services has yet to be developed.

Effectiveness

Prison custody indicator results are affected by small numbers, especially when expressed as a rate of total prisoner populations in jurisdictions with relatively small average daily prisoner populations. Given the small absolute numbers in many cases, care needs to be taken when comparing effectiveness indicators across

jurisdictions and over time within jurisdictions. A single incident in a smaller jurisdiction can markedly increase the rate of some indicators, but have little apparent effect in the larger jurisdictions. For example, a single death in prison in the jurisdiction with the smallest prison population (the ACT) in 2003-04 would result in a rate of 1.56 per 100 prisoners and a second death would double the rate to 3.13. By contrast, one additional death during the year in the jurisdiction with the largest prisoner population (NSW) would change the rate by a far smaller proportion, from 0.10 per 100 prisoners to 0.11, and a second additional death would increase the rate to 0.12.

Custody — assaults

Assault rates are provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.3).

Box 7.3 Custody — assaults

Effective custodial management involves a duty of care for the safety of persons detained or working in prisons. This includes providing an environment where there is a low level of violence perpetrated by prisoners on staff or other prisoners.

The 'assaults' rate is defined as the number of victims of violent physical attacks reported over the year, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100, and is reported separately for assaults against another prisoner or against a member of staff, and separately for assaults or serious assaults. 'Serious assaults' refer to acts of physical violence requiring medical treatment and assessment by a medical officer, resulting in overnight hospitalisation in a medical facility or requiring extended periods of medical treatment, and also include all acts of sexual assault. 'Assaults' refer to acts of physical violence resulting in a physical injury that may or may not require short-term medical intervention but do not involve hospitalisation.

A low 'assaults' rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of custody as defined in box 7.1.

The ACT did not provide 2003-04 data for these indicators. Victoria recorded the highest rate of 'serious assaults' by prisoners on other prisoners per 100 prisoners in 2003-04 (0.93) and SA reported the lowest (0.27). Tasmania had the highest rate of 'assaults' by prisoners on other prisoners per 100 prisoners (15.32) and Queensland had the lowest (5.49) (table 7A.13).

The reported rate of 'serious assaults' by prisoners on officers per 100 prisoners in 2003-04 ranged from 0.56 in the NT to zero in NSW and Tasmania. Small numbers of incidents relative to small prisoner populations affect this indicator and need to be considered when interpreting these results. The rate of 'assaults' by prisoners on

officers per 100 prisoners was highest in Tasmania (6.78) and lowest in Victoria (0.76) (table 7A.13).

In NSW in 2003-04, the rate of 'serious assault' on periodic detainees by other periodic detainees was zero per 100 detainees and the rate of 'assault' on detainees was 3.21. There were no incidents of 'serious assault' on officers and the rate of 'assault' on officers was 0.13 (table 7A.13).

Custody — apparent unnatural deaths

The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.4).

Box 7.4 Custody — apparent unnatural deaths

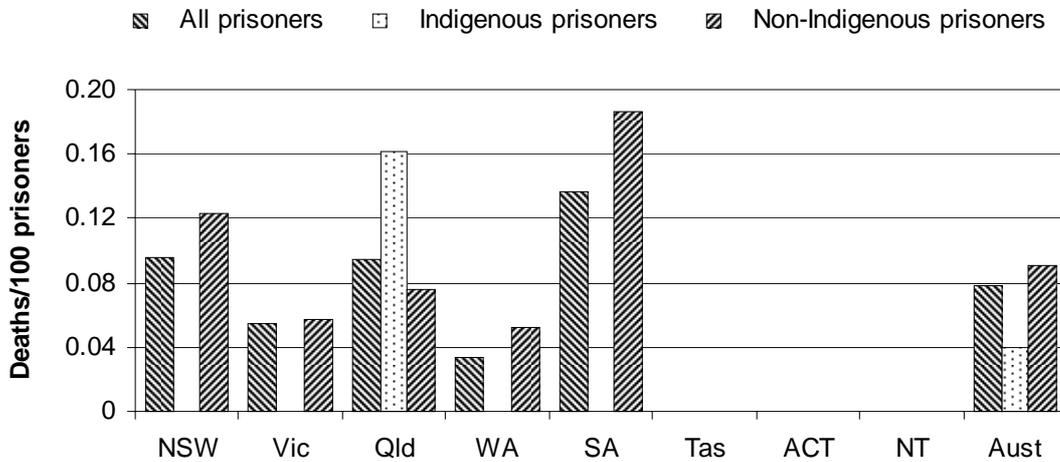
Effective custodial management involves a duty of care for the safety and well-being of people detained in prisons, particularly for those prisoners at risk of self-harm or harm from others. This includes providing an environment where there is a low risk of death from unnatural causes.

The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is defined as the number of deaths, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100, where the likely cause of death is suicide, drug overdose, accidental injury and homicide, and is reported separately for Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners.

A zero or low deaths rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of custody as defined in box 7.1.

The rate of deaths from apparent unnatural causes for all prisoners in 2003-04 ranged from 0.14 per 100 prisoners in SA to zero in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT (figure 7.7). For Indigenous prisoners, Queensland reported two deaths (table 7A.39) from apparent unnatural causes (a rate of 0.16 per 100 prisoners) and all other jurisdictions reported a zero rate (figure 7.7). Neither of the two jurisdictions operating periodic detention reported deaths of periodic detainees in 2003-04 (table 7A.14).

Figure 7.7 Prisoner deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes, 2003-04^{a, b, c}

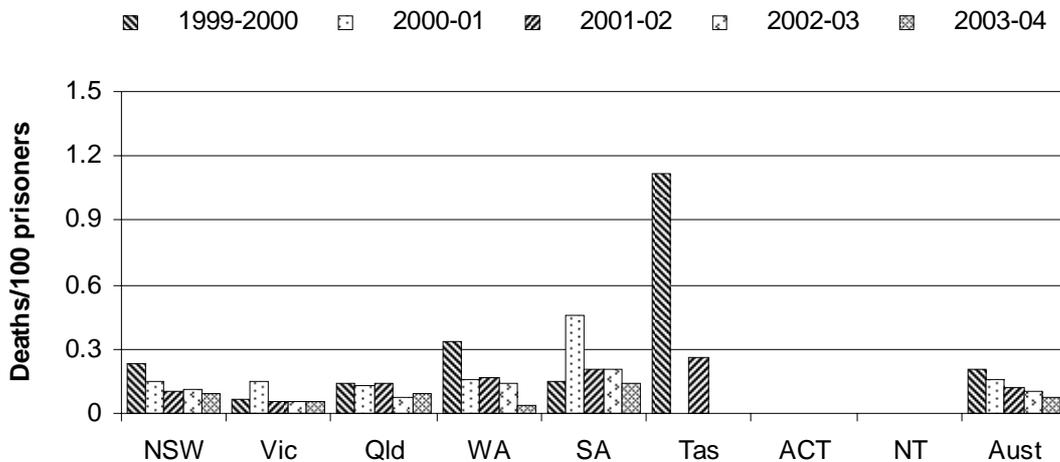


^a The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is calculated as the number of deaths, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100. ^b Indigenous deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes represent two deaths in Queensland in 2003-04. ^c NSW, Victoria, WA, SA, Tasmania the ACT and the NT reported zero deaths from unnatural causes for Indigenous prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.14.

The national rate of deaths from apparent unnatural causes for all prisoners declined from 0.20 in 1999-2000 to 0.08 in 2003-04 (figure 7.8). Rates fell for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners (table 7A.15).

Figure 7.8 Prisoner deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes, all prisoners^a



^a The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is calculated as the number of deaths, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.15.

Custody — escapes/absconds

The 'escapes/absconds' rate is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.5).

Box 7.5 Custody — escapes/absconds

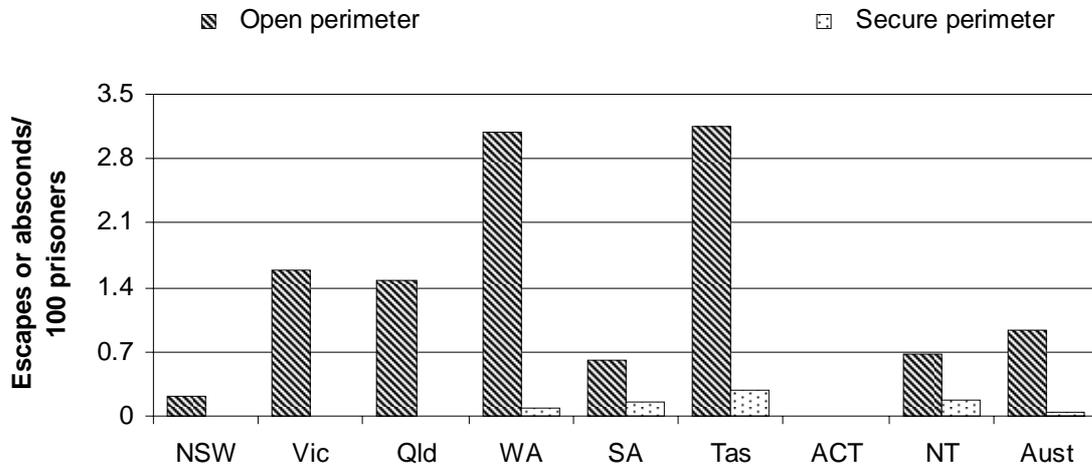
Effective custodial management involves ensuring that all prisoners comply at all times with the requirements of the court order that has placed constraints on their liberty, particularly if their being supervised in the community poses a risk to the safety of any person.

The 'escapes/absconds' rate is defined as the number of escapes or absconds divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100, and is reported separately for prisoners escaping from secure custody and from open custody.

A zero or low 'escapes/absconds' rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of custody as defined in box 7.1.

Tasmania reported the highest rate of 'escapes/absconds' from open custody in 2003-04 (3.16 per 100 prisoners) and NSW reported the lowest (0.21). The rate of escapes from secure custody ranged from 0.28 in Tasmania (one incident) to zero in NSW, Victoria, Queensland and the ACT (figure 7.9). The absconds rate among prisoners serving periodic detention was 0.27 for NSW and zero for the ACT (table 7A.16).

Figure 7.9 Prisoner escapes/absconds rate, 2003-04^{a, b, c}



^a The 'escapes/absconds' rate is calculated as the number of escapes/absconds, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100. ^b Secure perimeter escapes rates represent two incidents each in WA and SA in 2003-04. The rates for escapes from secure custody in Tasmania and the NT both represent a single incident where the escape occurred during escort, to a court building and to a hospital respectively, rather than from a secure prison facility. ^c NSW, Victoria, Queensland and the ACT reported zero secure perimeter escapes/absconds.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.16.

Custody — out-of-cell hours

'Out-of-cell hours' per day is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.6).

Box 7.6 Custody — out-of-cell hours

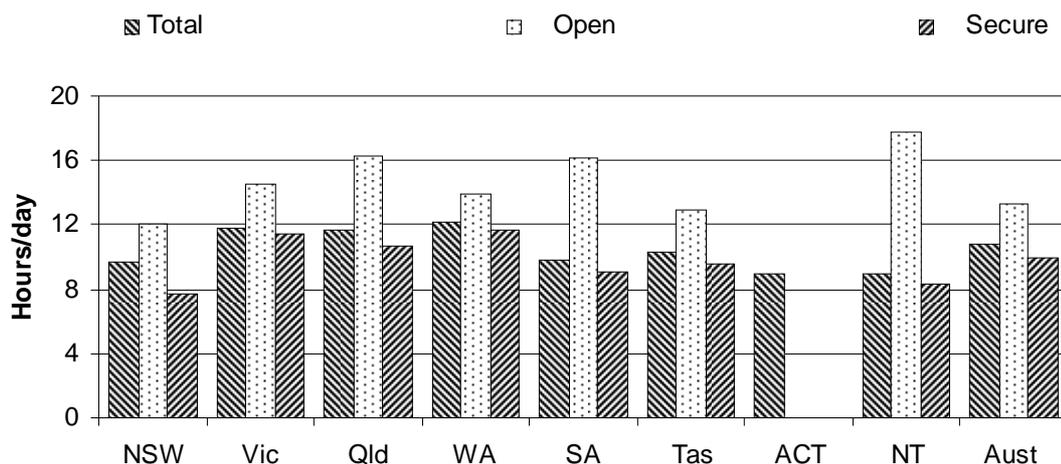
Effective custodial management involves managing prisoners in a manner that minimises the risks they pose to the community while enabling them to achieve an acceptable quality of life consistent with community standards. Time spent out of cells provides a greater opportunity for prisoners to participate in activities within the wider prison, such as work, education, well being and recreation programs, visits, and interacting with other prisoners and staff — activities that can contribute to better community reintegration and reduce the risk of re-offending after leaving prison.

‘Out-of-cell hours’ is defined as the average number of hours prisoners spend outside their cells during the day.

A relatively high average ‘out-of-cell hours’ per day indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of custody as defined in box 7.1. Jurisdictions with higher proportions of prisoners who need to be accommodated in more secure facilities because of the potentially greater risk that they pose to the community, are likely to report relatively lower total out of cell hours.

WA reported the highest average daily ‘out-of-cell hours’ for all prisons in 2003-04 combined (12.2 hours per day) and the NT reported the lowest (8.9 hours per day). ‘Out-of-cell hours’ for open custody ranged from 17.7 per day in the NT to 12.0 per day in NSW. ‘Out-of-cell hours’ for secure custody ranged from 11.7 per day in WA to 7.7 per day in NSW (figure 7.10).

Figure 7.10 Average out-of-cell hours, by prisoner security level, 2003-04^a



^a The ACT data are based on prisoners held in ACT remand facilities and therefore open and secure custody breakdowns are not applicable for that jurisdiction.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.17.

Community corrections — completion of community orders

The percentage of community orders completed is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.7).

Box 7.7 Community corrections — completion of community orders

Effective community corrections management involves ensuring offenders comply at all times with the requirements of the court order that has imposed certain conditions on their activities or behaviour. This may include restrictions on the offender's liberty (as with home detention), a requirement to undertake community work or other specified activities (such as a drug and alcohol program), regularly attending a community corrections centre as part of supervision requirements, or other conditions.

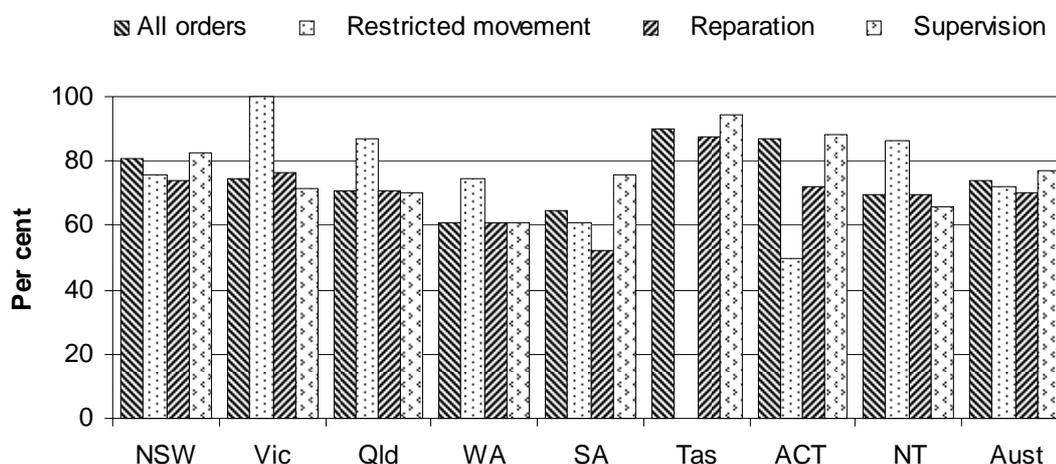
'Completion of community orders' is defined as the percentage of orders completed during the year that were not breached for failure to meet the order requirements or because further offences were committed.

A high percentage of successful order completions indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective related to community as defined in box 7.1.

Completion rates are affected by differences in the risk levels of offender populations and risk assessment and breach procedure policies. High risk offenders subject to higher levels of supervision have a greater likelihood of being detected when conditions of orders are breached. High breach rates could therefore be interpreted as a positive outcome reflecting more intensive management of offenders. A high completion rate may therefore mean either exceptionally high compliance or a failure to detect or act on breaches of compliance.

Tasmania reported the highest percentage of successful completion for all orders in 2003-04 (90.3 per cent) and WA reported the lowest (61.2 per cent). Successful completion of restricted movement orders ranged from 100.0 per cent in Victoria to 50.0 per cent in the ACT. The percentage in both jurisdictions, however, is based on the outcomes of a very small number of restricted movement orders during the year (seven in Victoria and four in the ACT) and is not necessarily indicative of long term trends or consistent differences from other jurisdictions. The completed proportion of reparation orders ranged from 87.5 per cent in Tasmania to 52.1 per cent in SA. The completed proportion of supervision orders ranged from 94.2 per cent in Tasmania to 60.7 per cent in WA (figure 7.11).

Figure 7.11 **Successful completion of community corrections orders, by type of order, 2003-04^{a, b}**



^a Tasmania did not have restricted movement orders in 2003-04. ^b The ACT and Victorian rates are based on only a very small number of restricted movement orders per year. Therefore, they are not indicative of long term trends and may fluctuate from year to year.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.18.

Reparation — prisoner employment

The ‘prisoner employment’ rate is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.8).

Box 7.8 Reparation — prisoner employment

‘Prisoner employment’ provides constructive opportunities for reparation to be made to the community by generating income from prison industries, by offsetting expenditure through work in prison services (work undertaken to service the prison), and through unpaid community work by prisoners.

The ‘prisoner employment’ rate is defined as the number of prisoners employed as a percentage of those eligible to work (that is, excluding those unable to participate in work programs because of full-time education, ill health, age, being imprisoned for only a short period of time, or other reason).

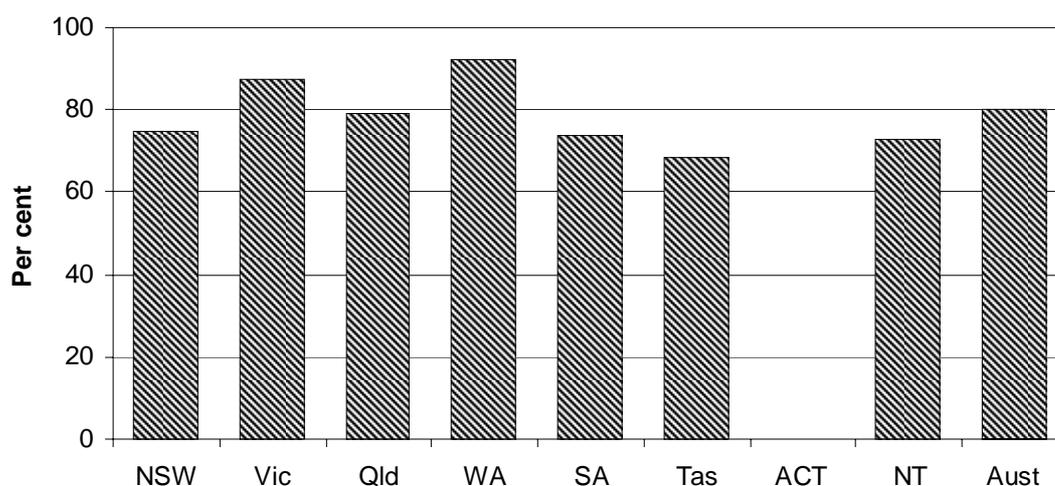
A high ‘prisoner employment’ rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of reparation as defined in box 7.1.

This indicator does not provide information on the extent to which the employment undertaken benefits the community.

Jurisdictions reported the number of prisoners employed in prison industries or services or, in some cases, working in the community as part of a pre-release scheme where prisoners are employed under industrial award conditions. The highest proportion of prisoners employed in 2003-04 was reported by WA (92.5 per cent of prisoners eligible to work) and the lowest was reported by Tasmania (68.6 per cent) (figure 7.12). Victoria reported the highest proportion of prisoners employed in commercial industries (44.3 per cent), WA reported the highest proportion employed in prison service industries (74.3 per cent) and Queensland reported the highest proportion in work release (3.8 per cent) (table 7A.19).

These comparisons need to be interpreted with care because factors outside the control of corrective services (such as local economic conditions) affect the capacity to attract commercially viable prison industries, particularly where the prisons are remote from large population centres.

Figure 7.12 Proportion of eligible prisoners employed, 2003-04^a



^a Excludes the ACT because ACT prison facilities accommodate only remand prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.19.

The employment rate among periodic detainees in 2003-04 in the two jurisdictions operating periodic detention was 72.2 per cent in NSW and 26.6 per cent in the ACT (table 7A.19).

Reparation — community work by community corrections offenders

‘Offender community work’ is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.9).

Box 7.9 Reparation — offender community work

Offenders may perform unpaid community work as a requirement of community correctional orders imposed by the court. Community work provides offenders with the opportunity to make restitution to the community.

‘Offender community work’ is defined as the ratio of hours of community work expected to be worked to the number of hours actually worked. It is based on the number of community work hours to be served on all orders registered during the year, divided by the number of hours actually worked by all offenders during the same period regardless of whether the current order was made in that year or during previous years.

The ratio indicates the extent to which corrective services were able to administer the community work components of the orders registered.

This indicator does not measure the extent to which individual offenders complied with the community work requirements of their orders or provide information on the degree to which the work undertaken benefits the community.

Large numbers of offenders are required to undertake community work as part of their orders. The ACT reported the highest average number of hours ordered per offender with a work order in 2003-04 (125 hours) and Queensland reported the lowest (74 hours), of those jurisdictions able to report these data (table 7A.19). The ACT also reported the highest number of hours worked per offender with a work order in 2003-04 (59 hours) and WA and the NT reported the lowest (40 hours) of those jurisdictions able to report these data (table 7A.19).

Prisoner/offender programs — education

Prisoner ‘education’ is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.10).

Box 7.10 Prisoner/offender programs — education

Access to accredited education and training is an important element of providing programs and opportunities that address the risk of offending, maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community, and reduce the risk of re-offending by prisoners.

The 'education' rate is defined as the number of prisoners participating in accredited education and training courses under the Australian Qualifications Framework as a percentage of those eligible to participate (that is, excluding those unable to participate for reasons of ill health, being imprisoned for only a short period of time, or other reason).

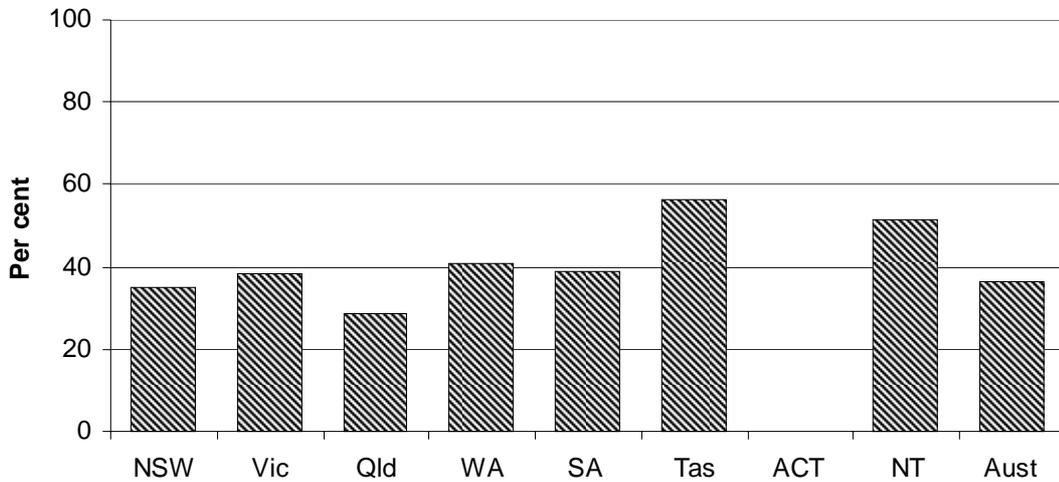
A high 'education' participation rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of prisoner/offender programs as defined in box 7.1.

This indicator measures only participation in accredited education programs, and does not assess participation relative to individual prisoner specific needs or measure successful completion of educational programs. It does not include a range of offence related programs that are also provided in prisons, such as drug and alcohol, psychological and personal development courses.

Tasmania reported the highest proportion of eligible prisoners undertaking accredited education or training courses in 2003-04 (56.5 per cent) and Queensland reported the lowest (28.5 per cent) (figure 7.13). The proportion of prisoners undertaking different types of education and training courses varied across jurisdictions, with WA reporting the highest proportion in vocational education and training (39.7 per cent), NSW reporting the highest in secondary school sector courses (20.5 per cent), Queensland reporting the highest in higher education (3.1 per cent) and Tasmania reporting the highest in pre-certificate level 1² courses (14.8 per cent) (table 7A.20).

² Refers to accredited education courses below the Certificate 1 level (for example, learning to read and recognising numbers).

Figure 7.13 **Proportion of prisoners enrolled in education and training, 2003-04^a**



^a Excludes the ACT because ACT prison facilities accommodate only remand prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.20.

Prisoner/offender programs — personal development

‘Personal development’ is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.11).

Only two jurisdictions could report on this indicator for 2003-04 — WA (59.0 per cent) and the NT (41.4 per cent) (table 7A.20).

Box 7.11 Prisoner/offender programs — personal development

Access to personal development programs is an important element in providing programs and opportunities that address the risk of offending, irrespective of whether the offender is in custody or being supervised in the community. Personal development programs are designed to reduce the risk of re-offending.

‘Personal development’ participation is defined as the number of offenders participating in personal development programs provided by or on referral from corrective services as a percentage of total offenders.

A high ‘personal development’ participation rate indicates better performance towards achieving the effectiveness objective of prisoner/offender programs as defined in box 7.1.

This indicator measures only enrolments in personal development programs, and does not assess participation relative to individual offender specific needs or measure successful completion of a program.

Prisoner/offender programs — offence related programs

The Steering Committee has identified ‘offence related programs’ as an output indicator of the effectiveness of corrective services (box 7.12). No data were available for the 2005 Report.

Box 7.12 Prisoner/offender programs — offence related programs

‘Offence related programs’ for prisoners and offenders aim to address criminogenic behaviour and reduce the risk of re-offending. For prisoners released from custody these programs aim to maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community.

An ‘offence related programs’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details). This measure will replace the ‘personal development’ indicator when finalised.

Advice to sentencing and releasing authorities — number of reports recorded

The Steering Committee has identified ‘number of reports recorded’ as an output indicator of the effectiveness of corrective services (box 7.13). No data were available for the 2005 Report.

Box 7.13 Advice to sentencing and releasing authorities — number of reports recorded

Corrective services provide advice to sentencing and releasing authorities to support decision making processes in the justice system in relation to prisoners and offenders. A relevant indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Efficiency

The data presented for these efficiency indicators are affected by factors other than differences in efficiency, including:

- the composition of the prisoner population (such as security classification and the number of female or special need prisoners)
- the size and dispersion of the area serviced, and
- the scale of operations.

For community corrections, efficiency indicators are also affected by size and dispersion factors, particularly in jurisdictions where offenders reside in remote communities. These indicators can also be affected by differences in criminal justice system policies and practices — for example, the availability and use of sentencing options that impose particular program or supervision requirements.

Inputs per output unit — cost per prisoner/offender

‘Cost per prisoner/offender’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.14).

Box 7.14 Inputs per output unit — cost per prisoner/offender

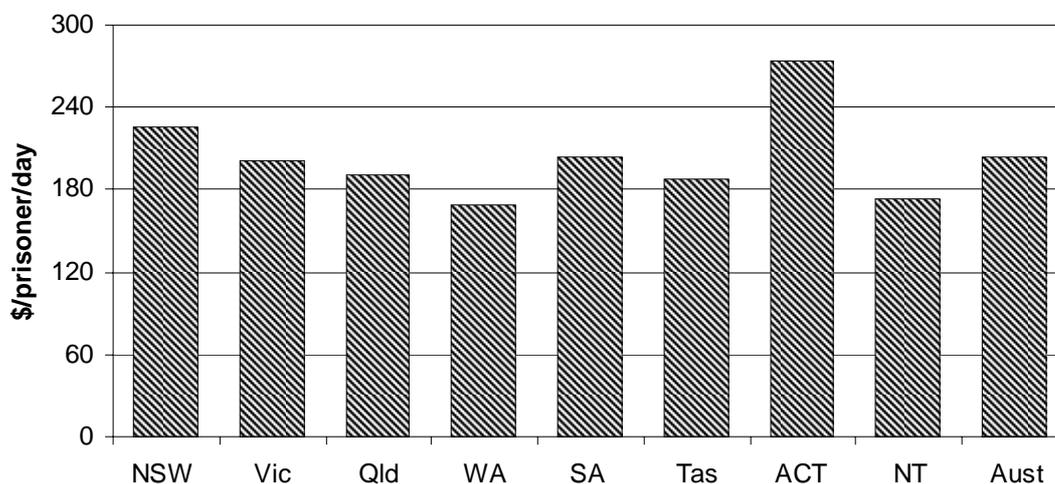
The unit cost per prisoner and offender provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services.

'Cost per prisoner/offender' is defined as the average daily cost of providing corrective services per prisoner and per offender, reported separately for recurrent cost and capital cost, and for secure and open custody prisoners.

A low unit cost suggests better performance towards achieving efficient resource management, however, efficiency indicators are difficult to interpret in isolation and need to be considered in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A low cost per prisoner, for example, may reflect lesser emphasis on providing prisoner programs to address the risk of re-offending. Unit costs are also affected by differences in the composition of the prisoner and offender populations, geographic dispersion and isolation factors that limit opportunities to reduce overheads through economies of scale.

The total cost (combined recurrent and capital costs) per prisoner per day in 2003-04 ranged from \$273 in the ACT to \$170 in WA (figure 7.14). WA did not report on asset value for prisons in 2003-04, so its cost data exclude the user cost of capital component, and is therefore not comparable with other jurisdictions.

Figure 7.14 Total cost per prisoner per day, 2003-04^{a, b}



^a Total cost per prisoner per day is the combined recurrent and capital cost per prisoner per day. Recurrent cost is calculated from recurrent expenditure and is net of recurrent receipts (own source revenue) and payroll tax. Capital cost includes the user cost of capital, depreciation and debt service fees where applicable. Total cost excludes the cost of transport and escort services where these are reported separately by jurisdictions.

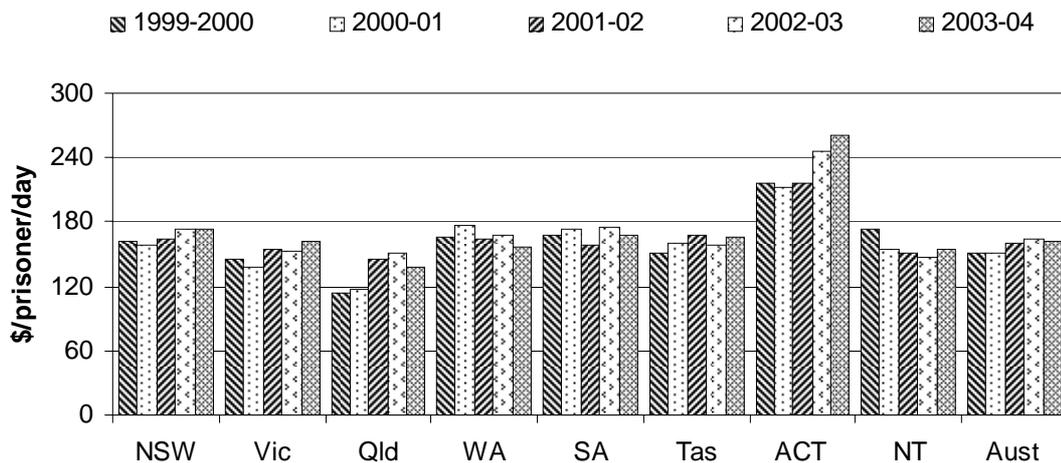
^b WA figures exclude user cost of capital.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.6.

Average recurrent cost per prisoner per day in 2003-04 (for open and secure prisons combined) ranged from \$261 in the ACT to \$139 in Queensland (tables 7A.6 and 7A.8). Calculating recurrent costs for open and secure custody separately, SA and the ACT reported the highest unit cost for open prisons (which includes periodic detention costs) (\$162) and WA reported the lowest (\$110). The ACT also reported the highest unit cost for prisoners in secure custody (\$396) and Queensland reported the lowest (\$140) (table 7A.6). Recurrent costs per prisoner for the ACT are affected by the fact that nearly all costs relating to ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons are recurrent costs.

Nationally, the real recurrent cost per prisoner per day increased from \$151 in 1999-2000 to \$162 in 2003-04 (figure 7.15).

Figure 7.15 Real recurrent cost per prisoner per day (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}



^a Costs are based on recurrent expenditure net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues) and exclude payroll tax. ^b Data for previous years were adjusted to 2003-04 dollars using the gross domestic product price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.8.

The capital costs included in this section are the user cost of capital and depreciation for government owned prisons, and debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities. The user cost of capital is the cost of the funds tied up in government capital used to deliver services (for example, the land and buildings used to house prisoners). The user cost of capital makes explicit the opportunity cost of this capital (the return forgone by using the funds to deliver services rather than investing them elsewhere or using them to retire debt). The equivalent capital costs for privately owned prisons are debt servicing fees. These fees are paid to private owners in addition to payments relating to prison operations.

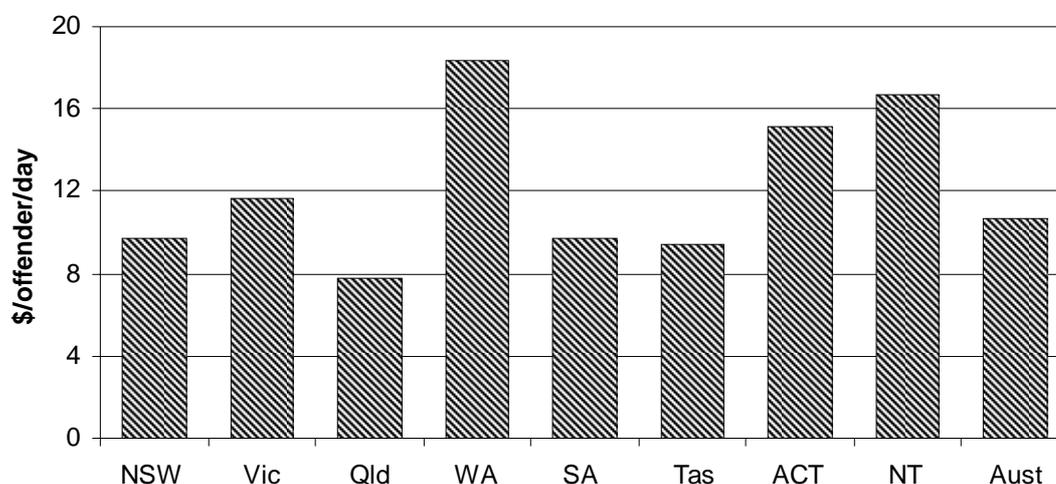
The user cost of capital was calculated by applying a nominal cost of capital rate of 8 per cent to the value of government assets. The costs of capital for land and other assets are shown separately, to allow users to consider any differences in land values across jurisdictions when comparing the data.

The Steering Committee acknowledges that asset valuation data are imperfect and that the treatment of costs does not necessarily fully reflect the cost of public capital used by departments to deliver services (that is, capital has generally been considered ‘free’). This treatment can lead to significant underestimation of costs for those services for which government capital is a major input unless user cost of capital is taken into account.

Capital cost per prisoner per day for 2003-04 (for open and secure prisons combined) ranged from \$52 in NSW and Queensland to \$12 in the ACT (table 7A.6). The ACT capital costs relate to only remand and periodic detention centres in the ACT.

The total cost per offender per day in community corrections in 2003-04 ranged from \$18.30 in WA to \$7.70 in Queensland (figure 7.16).

Figure 7.16 Total cost per offender per day, 2003-04^a



^a Total cost per offender per day is the combined recurrent and capital cost per offender per day. Recurrent cost is calculated from recurrent expenditure and is net of recurrent receipts (own source revenue) and payroll tax. Capital cost includes the user cost of capital and depreciation.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.9.

The average recurrent cost per offender per day in 2003-04 ranged from \$18 in WA to \$7.60 in Queensland (table 7A.9). The capital costs relevant to community corrections are the user cost of capital and depreciation for government owned

community corrections assets. Capital cost per offender per day ranged in 2003-04 from \$0.71 in Victoria to zero in Tasmania (table 7A.9).

Inputs per output unit — cost per movement

The Steering Committee has identified ‘cost per movement’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.15). No data were available for the 2005 Report.

Box 7.15 Inputs per output unit — cost per movement

‘Cost per movement’ of prisoners provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services, since the transport of prisoners can represent a significant resource expenditure for prison services that is not necessarily reflected in the cost per prisoner indicator.

A ‘cost per movement’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — cost per report

The Steering Committee has identified ‘cost per report’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.16). No data were available for the 2005 Report.

Box 7.16 Inputs per output unit — cost per report

The ‘cost per report’ provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services, since the provision of advice to sentencing and releasing authorities can represent a significant resource expenditure for community corrections that is not necessarily reflected in the cost per offender indicator.

A ‘cost per report’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — offender-to-staff ratio

‘Offender-to-staff ratio’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.17).

Box 7.17 Inputs per output unit — offender-to-staff ratio

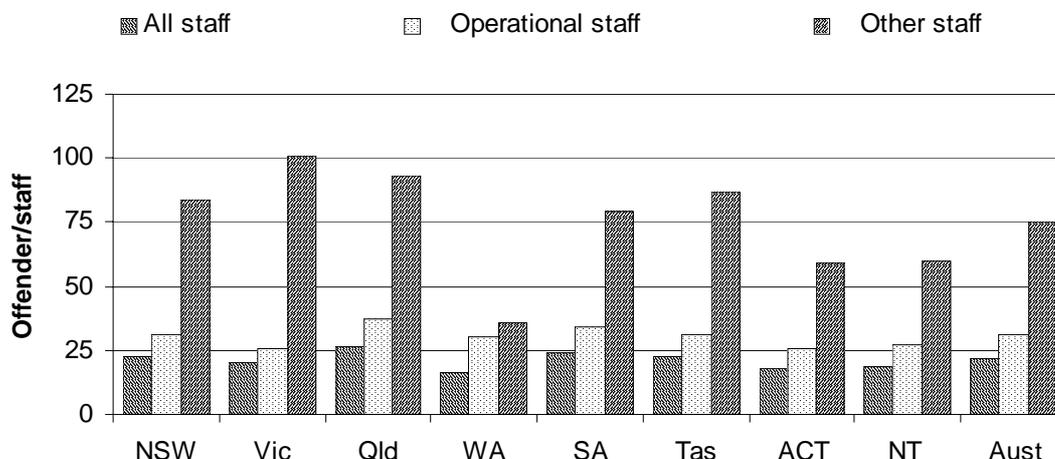
The number of staff relative to the number of offenders provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services. This indicator assesses number of staff relative to the daily average number of offenders to provide a measure of 'snapshot' (a count of individuals at a specific point in time), rather than 'flow' (a count of individuals across a period of time), which is addressed by the offender registration-to-staff indicator.

The 'offender-to-staff ratio' is defined as the number of offenders per full-time community corrections staff employed, and reported separately for operational staff (who are involved in the direct supervision of offenders) and other staff.

A high ratio suggests better performance towards achieving efficient resource management, however, efficiency indicators are difficult to interpret in isolation and need to be considered in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A low ratio may, for example, represent more intensive levels of supervision and program provision, commensurate with the risk and offence-related needs of the particular offender population aimed at producing greater efficiencies in the longer term. Offender-to-staff ratios are also affected by differences in geographic dispersion and isolation factors that limit opportunities to reduce overheads through economies of scale.

Offender-to-staff ratios for community corrections ranged from 26.6 offenders per staff member in Queensland to 16.4 in WA in 2003-04. Queensland also reported the highest ratio of offenders to operational staff (37.2) and ACT reported the lowest (25.2). The ratio of offenders to other staff ranged from 100.7 in Victoria to 35.3 in WA (figure 7.17).

Figure 7.17 Community corrections offender-to-staff ratios, 2003-04



Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.21.

Inputs per output unit — offender registrations-to-staff ratio

The Steering Committee has identified ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.18). No data were available for the 2005 Report.

Box 7.18 Inputs per output unit — offender registrations-to-staff ratio

The number of staff relative to the number offenders provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services. This indicator assesses the number of staff relative to the number of new offenders registered during the year to provide a measure of ‘flow’ (a count of individuals across a period of time), rather than a ‘snapshot’ (a count of individuals at a specific point in time), which is addressed by the offender-to-staff indicator.

An ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — prison utilisation

‘Prison utilisation’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.19).

Box 7.19 Inputs per output unit — prison utilisation

The extent to which prison design capacity is meeting the demand for prison accommodation provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services.

‘Prison utilisation’ is defined as the average daily prisoner population as a percentage of the number of single occupancy cells and designated beds in shared occupancy cells that is provided for in the design capacity of the prisons, and is reported separately for open and secure custody.

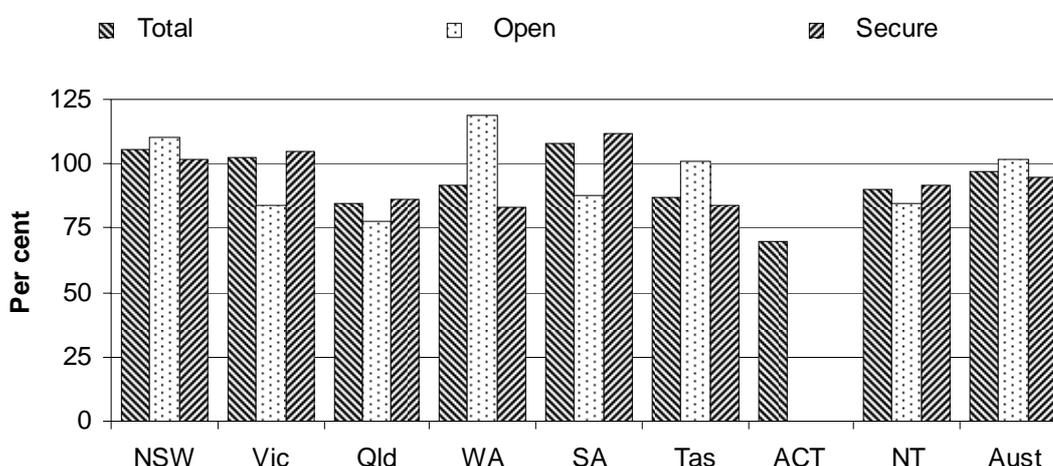
It is generally accepted that the desirable rate of ‘prison utilisation’ falls between 85 and 95 per cent because of the need for spare capacity to cater for the transfer of prisoners, special-purpose accommodation such as protection units, separate facilities for males and females and different security levels, and to manage short-term fluctuations in prisoner numbers. ‘Prison utilisation’ rates at the upper end of this range indicate better performance towards achieving efficient resource management.

Efficiency indicators are difficult to interpret in isolation and need to be considered in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A high utilisation rate, for example, may adversely impact on custody effectiveness indicators such as ‘assaults’.

'Prison utilisation' for all prisons (open plus secure) in 2003-04 ranged from 108.1 per cent in SA to 70.1 per cent in the ACT. In NSW, Victoria and SA 'prison utilisation' exceeded 100 per cent of design capacity (figure 7.18). (Rates exceed 100 per cent of design capacity when more prisoners are housed in a facility than allowed for in its design.)

The highest open 'prison utilisation' rate was in WA (119.0 per cent) and the lowest was in Queensland (77.8 per cent). SA had the highest secure custody utilisation rate (111.5 per cent) and WA had the lowest (83.1 per cent) in 2003-04 (figure 7.18).

Figure 7.18 Prison design capacity utilisation rates, 2003-04^a



^a ACT data are based on prisoners held in ACT remand facilities.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.22.

Outcomes

No outcome indicators for corrective services are included in this Report, however, broader justice-wide outcomes (such as recidivism) are reported in the 'Justice preface'.

7.4 Future directions in performance reporting

The Steering Committee is committed to the continual improvement of reporting on corrective services. It works closely with the NCAG to develop new indicators and improve reporting on existing indicators by refining data definitions and counting rules.

A number of indicators are being trialed for inclusion in future reports. These include:

- the ‘number of reports recorded’ — reports prepared by corrective services providing pre- or post-sentencing advice to sentencing or releasing authorities
- ‘cost per movement’ — the cost of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services
- ‘cost per report’
- the ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ — new offenders registered with community corrections during the counting period who do not have a current order as a ratio of community corrections staff.

Other indicators are being developed to report on issues of policy relevance to corrective services, such as indicators to assess illicit substance abuse and offence related programs.

7.5 Jurisdictions’ comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status).

New South Wales Government comments

“ NSW is responsible for managing the largest correctional system in Australia. The NSW inmate population has continued to steadily increase at a rate of approximately 4 per cent a year since 1999-00. In 2003-04 the daily average prisoner population was 8367; and the daily average periodic detention population was 748. The demand for community-based services remained high both in terms of increased demand for court advice and the subsequent flow of offenders registering with community-based orders. In 2003-04 the average number of people serving community-based orders was 16 840.

In terms of performance in 2003-04, NSW has shown a number of significant improvements; notably a continued downturn trend in deaths by apparent unnatural causes, a continuing downward trend in prisoner assault rates, and a new record low escape rate. Despite the pressure of increasing demands, community-based outcomes were consistent with previous years and levels of prison utilisation remain within nationally recognised targets.

To meet the increasing demand for custodial and community-based services, the NSW Government opened a number of new and/or expanded correctional facilities. In 2003-04 the Mid-North Coast Correctional Centre in Kempsey was opened along with an expansion of the regional Community Offender Services (COS), Probation and Parole District Office to service the new correctional centre and provide alternatives to custody for the courts. In mid 2004, the Dillwynia Correctional Centre for women located in outer metropolitan Sydney was opened along with an extension of the associated COS facilities at Windsor. NSW expanded COS with additional positions to accommodate recent court and sentencing legislative changes and established a specialised diversion facility for women with mental health disorders along with substance abuse. NSW is proceeding with the planning and development of a correctional centre in the Central West region of NSW located at Wellington. In addition to these new centres, there has been an expansion of the Parklea Correctional Centre to accommodate the increasing inmate population.

During 2003-04, NSW made a significant advancement in the development of the ‘Throughcare model’ incorporating whole of sentence planning and integrated case management, which focuses on the identification and assessment of offender needs and risk of re-offending on entry into the correctional system and on re-integration into the community. NSW has also established E Case Management based on a standardised risk needs assessment within COS and extended into correctional centres. Accredited offender-based programs such as ‘ThinkFirst’ have been provided in correctional centres and in COS, and the Sober Drivers Program has been implemented throughout the State this year. Overall, these developments will lead to improvements in the way NSW measures and reports on risk management and intervention through focused programs, aimed at reducing offending behaviour.”

Victorian Government comments

“

In 2003-04, the management and operation of Victoria's corrective services underwent a major integration process to enhance the delivery of adult correctional services by the public and private agencies. The integrated organisation, known as Corrections Victoria, commenced operation on 1 July 2003.

Victoria continued to implement programs funded under the Corrections Long Term Management Strategy (CLTMS) during the year in review. This Strategy comprises an extensive prison infrastructure program, delivery of diversion programs, rehabilitative programs to reduce the risk of re-offending and pre and post-release programs to assist prisoners re-integrate into the community. During 2003-04 Victoria's prisoner population fell almost 4 per cent, the first significant decline in 12 years.

The main achievements during 2003-04 were:

- The infrastructure program continued to upgrade cell safety and fire prevention in existing prisons as well as constructing three new prisons — a 600 bed maximum security remand prison, a 300 bed medium security programs facility and a 120 bed minimum security prison.
- In January 2004, a three year pilot Home Detention program commenced. The program provides a front-end sentencing option as well as a pre-release option to assist the re-integration of prisoners into the community and will provide supervision for up to 80 offenders at any one time.
- As an initiative of the Victorian Aboriginal Justice Agreement, a 20 bed residential facility will be built to provide a diversionary option for Indigenous male offenders on Community Correctional Services orders. A rural site in central Victoria has been selected and developmental work on the facility is underway.
- Consistent with Government's policy aims, in the last four years Community Correctional Services has experienced a 23 per cent growth in the daily average number of offenders. An evaluation of the Community Correctional Services re-development initiatives is under way.
- Independent evaluations of the Community Correctional Services Re-development, Housing Pilot and Employment Pilot which were CLTMS initiatives were progressed.
- An actuarial risk/need assessment tool (Victorian Intervention Screening Assessment Tool) was developed and successfully piloted in June 2004. Roll-out to community corrections and prisons is scheduled for 2004-05.

”

Queensland Government comments

“ Queensland’s Department of Corrective Services managed a daily average prison population of 5264 during 2003-04 compared to 5067 in the prior reporting period, reflecting continued growth in the prisoner population in Queensland. Indigenous peoples were reported as representing 23.5 per cent of the prisoner population.

The Department continued to maintain a safe, secure and humane correctional system. Points of particular note include no escapes from a secure custody prison, out-of-cell hours above the Australian average and appropriate overall use of cell accommodation as indicated by prison capacity utilisation rates.

The daily average number of persons on community correction orders in Queensland was 11 468 — a similar number to that reported last year. As with the prisoner population, the number of persons on community corrections orders was the second highest of all jurisdictions.

Perhaps the most significant initiative of the year was a review of the Department’s business model. The aim of the review was to ensure that the new approach to improved frontline service delivery would be reflected and supported by a revitalised organisational structure. The new structure will be operational by 1 February 2005.

Other key initiatives during 2003-04 included:

- continuation of the expanded drug testing program for offenders on community-based orders
- implementation of a programs accreditation panel that seeks to improve the quality and effectiveness of intervention programs and services delivered to offenders
- collaboration in the design, specification and production of new perimeter vehicles, which will meet “best practice” workplace health and safety standards
- continued participation in the cross-agency drug court pilot.

Development work continued in 2003-04 on the Department’s information system which will support the integrated offender management strategy. The system is scheduled for deployment during 2004-05.”

Western Australian Government comments

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During 2003-04, Western Australia focussed on implementing a number of key strategies in the areas of; reducing the supply and demand for drugs within the custodial system, the ongoing assessment of the Pharmacotherapy programs for prisoners and re-entry initiatives that have been designed to assist offenders leaving custodial settings and re-establishing pro-social lifestyles in the community.

Ongoing work is occurring with the refinement of systems and processes to monitor the success of these key Departmental strategies.

Boronia, the new low security Pre-Release Centre for women prisoners became operational in May 2004. It signalled a significant shift in the way women prisoners are managed and rehabilitated, equipping women prisoners with important life skills and reducing their risk of re-offending.

With the proclamation of new sentencing legislation also occurring during 2003-04, Western Australia has seen changes to the length of prison terms, with the abolition of sentences six months or less, and alterations to the managing of release to parole with the introduction of CEO approved parole orders for prisoners serving terms of twelve months or less.

The prisoner population in Western Australia increased during 2003-04, however, it was less than the prisoner population projections for 2003-04 established prior to the reducing imprisonment strategies.

In March 2004, Western Australia established and commenced a State-wide Aboriginal Justice Agreement. The Agreement aims to address the over-representation of Aboriginal people in the criminal justice system and provides a framework for justice-related State Government agencies to work collaboratively and coordinate programs and services.

A review into the case management of ‘high risk’ offenders under supervision in the community was undertaken for the Department in October 2003. The review found that Western Australia’s management of offenders was equal to the best in Australia and overseas. However, the review did make a number of recommendations aimed at improving risk management practices. Western Australia has responded by implementing initiatives to address the recommendations.

Western Australia developed a set of outcome-based Key Performance Indicators for managing offenders in the community and has incorporated the data needs for these indicators into the establishment of a new community-based information system. This new system will become operational in 2004-05 and will improve the ability of field staff to manage data about offenders and case management and allow research staff to extract quantitative data for the purpose of performance monitoring.

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South Australian Government comments

“ The high prison utilisation rate in SA has been problematic for some time. The secure imprisonment rate has averaged around 110 per cent of design capacity for a number of years. In response the Government has commissioned a fifty-bed medium security extension of its Mobilong (Murray Bridge) facilities. The original design capacity of the prison was 160 persons. Additional accommodation (80) beds were provided in 1996. The new construction will increase the capacity of the prison to 290. The Department (for Corrections) is pursuing like options in regard to the extension of prison capacity in other locations.

As at 30 June 2004 there were 6238 offenders on Community Correction Orders. For the 2003-04 financial year 8749 Community Corrections Orders were completed. This throughput is slightly less than the previous year. The reduction in numbers is attributed to diversionary options available to the courts. In assisting develop such options the Department has committed significant resources to a “Throughcare Coordination Project”. The intent is to create pathways for improved service delivery for both external and internal services to the Department. The project will work across the full continuum of DCS service environments, commencing in the community, then through court, remand, sentence, community corrections, and back to community.

The Department continues in its commitment to the Aboriginal Reconciliation Framework through its involvement in the Aboriginal Lands Task Force (convened by the Department of Premier and Cabinet) and through its continued efforts to improve correctional services and programs in the Anangu-Pitjantjatjara lands. The Department is also actively involved in the Cross-Border Justice Project (initiated by the Chief Executives of the Justice Portfolios in WA, SA and the NT). This project is involved in the identification of avenues of possible cross-jurisdictional cooperation in the delivery of justice services to the communities of the “lands”. Through its Aboriginal Services Branch the Department has also committed to increase the delivery of culturally sensitive programs to Indigenous offenders. A number of projects are in place to ensure this commitment is met.”

Tasmanian Government comments

“ In 2003-04 Tasmania experienced further growth in the daily average prisoner population, with figures reflecting a total increase of more than 23 per cent since 2000-01. The unprecedented numbers have placed further pressure on staff and facilities, with the need to incorporate additional accommodation into existing facilities continuing to increase.

In recent years the Government commenced the Prisons Infrastructure Redevelopment Program which will create a new men's maximum security prison, a Secure Mental Health Unit and re-develop existing facilities at the Risdon site. The Program has entered the construction phase with site preparation for the new facilities now well underway. In January 2004, the Ron Barwick Medium Security prison was decommissioned to make way for the new men's maximum security facility, further compounding accommodation issues.

We look forward to developing a system in which we can not only offer inmates better opportunities for rehabilitation and development within a safe, secure setting, but also one in which we can offer our staff a modern and more comfortable working environment, as well as new opportunities for training, development and career progression, with an operating model that lends itself more readily to team-based work.

Community Corrections experienced a continued increase in the demand for service over the 2003-04 period. A high staff turnover, in comparison to previous years, also contributed to the pressure placed on this service. Consistent with the State Government's Tasmania *Together* strategy, and the Community Corrections Business Plan, initiatives progressed during this period include: improving the effectiveness of the offender information system; revitalising staff development forums; further development of a cognitive skills program; review of the management structure and planning of a professional supervision trial; further development of the community service order scheme; development of an induction process, and policy and procedures manuals; and a working party was formed with Offender Services, Custodial Corrections to work towards achieving an integrated offender management system.

In relation to the interpretation of Tasmanian data presented in the Corrective services chapter of this Report, it is vital to take care when comparing indicators across jurisdictions, given the size of our jurisdiction and offender/inmate populations. As stated at several points in this Report, very small changes in absolute numbers can result in significant changes in rates or percentages in smaller jurisdictions, and it can be misleading to make broad comparisons with other jurisdictions.”

Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ In 2003-04, significant decreases in ACT detainee numbers resulted in a further overall increase in the recurrent cost per prisoner day due to the ACT absorbing similar custodial costs compared to the previous year. The high ACT costs per prisoner day are attributable to poor economies of scale and the fact that a relatively small number of detainees are divided between two remand facilities. The ACT has no control over prisoner per day costs of prisoners accommodated in NSW correctional facilities under a contractual agreement.

The decision by the ACT Government to establish a publicly managed correctional centre in the ACT will lead to the repatriation of ACT prisoners from NSW. The new prison will replace the Belconnen Remand Centre and the Symonston Temporary Remand Centre. The operating philosophy and model of the new prison will be consistent with the ACT *Human Rights Act 2004* and sit within the framework provided by the Canberra Plan. It is expected to be operational in 2007.

In 2003-04, there was a slight increase in the home detention (HD) figures from the previous year, although the uptake of HD has still been slower than expected resulting in higher costs per HD day. It is anticipated in 2004-05 that demand will significantly increase as it becomes available as an option for persons on remand. A legislative review of the HD scheme, undertaken in September 2003, concluded that the provisions in the legislation operate effectively.

The ACT continues to focus on the development of rehabilitation programs for offenders and remand prisoners. An initiative was developed to tackle high volume, recidivist property offenders, and it is anticipated that this will lead to a reduction in the overall rates of property crime in the ACT. The initiative reflects increased cooperation between agencies, in particular police, housing and health. This evidence-based initiative will be launched in 2004-05.

The greater emphasis on offence-related programs shows that the increased cost per offender day reflects the greater investment of resources being made by the ACT to rehabilitate offenders, rather than decreased efficiency. This is illustrated by the significant increase in the successful completion of community corrections orders from 78.8 to 86.9 per cent. The average daily number of Indigenous offenders managed by Community Corrections was 98, six fewer offenders than the previous year.

The ACT is examining its current policies and procedures in light of the introduction of the *Human Rights Act 2004*. ”

Northern Territory Government comments

“ Correctional Services in the NT is influenced by: high levels of geographic separation and isolation, limited access to support services in regional areas, the strong Indigenous presence including a significant traditional homelands community and the distance between the two major administrative regions.

Prisoners and Community Corrections clients are managed in two correctional centres located in Darwin and Alice Springs and through ten Community Corrections offices located in metropolitan and regional areas across the Territory.

Each correctional centre has a bed capacity of 400, with a realistic capacity of approximately 380 each, depending on security classifications. In 2003-04 the average occupancy was 90 per cent a figure that falls within the preferred range of design capacity. At the Darwin Correctional Centre (DCC), the daily average number of prisoners was 374 and at Alice Springs Correctional Centre (ASCC), the daily average was 345.

During 2003-04 the NT Government commissioned a review of Adult Custodial Services in the Northern Territory. The 71 recommendations of the review aim to raise the professional status and recognition afforded to prison officers through increased training and professional development opportunities, improve systems and reduce reoffending through rehabilitation programs. Cabinet endorsed the recommendations in March 2004 with funding of \$26.5 million provided to implement the recommendations over four years.

Other significant highlights and achievements in 2003-04 were:

- Commissioned an intercom system at the Low Security Cottage facility at the ASCC.
 - Introduced a Drug Prevention Strategy and procedures at both DCC and ASCC.
 - Prisoners provided over 38 000 hours of work through the Community Support Program. Work included: aid to non-profit organisations, help the elderly and disabled, removing graffiti, environmental clean ups, building improvements and regeneration of native wildlife environments in Darwin and Alice Springs.
 - Introduced a Prisoner Driver Education and Training program at ASCC for the purpose of prisoner reintegration into the community by allowing prisoners to obtain a driver's licence. This initiative has been very successful with a number of prisoners obtaining their licences for the first time. This program will be introduced at DCC during 2004-05.
 - Provided administrative support to facilitate the expansion of the Parole Board as a result of legislative amendments in February 2004.
- ”

7.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

24-hour court cell	A place of detention located in court and/or police complexes managed by correctional officers and that accommodates sentenced/unsentenced prisoners/offenders for short periods of time (not including holding cells).
Assault	<p>An act of physical violence committed by a prisoner resulting in a physical injury that may or may not require short term medical intervention of a non-hospitalised nature. An assault is recorded where either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• a charge is proved either by a jurisdictional correctional authority, a Governor's hearing or a court of law, or• there is evidence that an assault took place because at least one of the following circumstances apply:<ul style="list-style-type: none">– there is at least one apparently reliable witness to the assault, or the victim claims assault and there is no obvious reason to doubt this claim, or– a visible injury has occurred and there is sufficient circumstantial or other evidence to make an assault the most likely cause of the injury on the basis of the balance of probabilities. <p>The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the total number of assaults by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.</p>
Average number of hours to be worked per offender	The balance of community work hours to be worked per offender with active work orders containing community hours on the first day of the counting period and/or imposed new community work hours ordered during the counting period.
Average number of hours actually worked per offender	The number of actual hours worked per offender with a work order in the counting period.
Capital cost per prisoner/offender	The daily cost per prisoner/offender, based on the user cost of capital (calculated as 8 per cent of the value of government assets), the depreciation cost for government owned prisons/facilities, and debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities.
Community corrections	Community-based management of court-ordered sanctions, post-prison administrative arrangements and fine conversions for offenders, which principally involve the provision of one or more of the following activities: supervision, programs or community work.
Community corrections rate	The annual average number of offenders per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.

Community corrections staff	Operational staff refers to staff whose main responsibility involves the supervision or provision of support services directly to offenders, for example, probation/parole/community corrections officers, home detention officers, case managers, program co-ordinators, and court advice workers. Other staff refers to staff based in Head Office or officers in the field whose responsibilities are managerial or administrative in relation to offender management. Staff members who perform a mix of caseload and administrative functions are allocated proportionately to each category based upon the workload assigned to that position.
Community custodial facilities	Correctional custodial facilities where prisoners are prepared for post-release by participating in work release programs and educational activities, performing community service, engaging in family visits and attending community-based rehabilitation programs. They include transitional centres in NSW and community custody centres (including Work Outreach Camps, Women's Community Custody Centres, and Indigenous Community Placement Centres) in Queensland.
Completion rate of community orders	The proportion of community orders successfully completed (by order type) within the counting period.
Cost per movement	The average cost per movement of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services. Includes the costs of contracted transport services.
Cost per report	The average cost per report prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.
Daily average prisoner/periodic detention/offender population	The average number of prisoners, periodic detainees and/or offenders during the counting period.
Education rate	<p>The number of prisoners actively participating in education as a proportion of those who are eligible for educational opportunities. Those excluded from the count include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • those in centres where the policy is not to provide education programs or where education programs are not available (that is, remand centres, 24-hour court cells) • remandees for whom access to education is not available • hospital patients who are medically unable to participate • fine defaulters (who are incarcerated for only a few days at a time) • subgroups of the above categories.
Employment (community corrections)	The number of community work hours worked per offender during the counting period.

**Employment
(prisoners and
periodic detainees)**

The average number of prisoners or periodic detainees employed on the first day of each month as a proportion of those eligible to participate in employment. Prisoners excluded as ineligible for employment include those undertaking full time education and prisoners whose situation may exclude their participation in work programs, for example:

- remandees who choose not to work
- hospital patients or aged prisoners who are unable to work
- prisoners whose protection status prohibits access to work
- fine defaulters (who are only incarcerated for a few days at a time), and
- subgroups of the above categories.

**Escapes/absconds
rate (open/secure)**

A person who escapes or absconds from corrective services' custody (including under contract). The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the number of escapes/absconds by the daily average open/secure prison population, multiplied by 100.

Home detention

A corrective services program requiring offenders to be subject to supervision and monitoring by an authorised corrective services officer while confined to their place of residence or a place other than a prison.

Imprisonment rate

The annual average number of prisoners per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.

**Inactive order
and/or in suspense**

Those orders awaiting breach or court hearing, interstate transfers or sentence to prison where prison sentence is less than the current active order.

Indigenous

Persons identifying themselves as either an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander person if they are accepted as such by an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander community. Counting was by self-disclosure.

**New offender
registrations-to-staff
ratio**

The level of staff supervision based on the number of staff employed and the total number of new offender registrations (that is, the number of new and/or existing offenders registered with community corrections during the counting period with a new set of orders).

**Number of
correctional facilities**

A facility gazetted as a prison, remand centre or periodic detention centre for adults, operated or administered by State/Territory correctional agencies and including community custodial facilities and 24-hour court cell centres .

**Number of
reports recorded**

The number of pre- and post-sentence reports prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.

**Offence-related
programs**

A structured, targeted, offence focused learning opportunity for prisoners/offenders, delivered in groups or on a one-to-one basis, according to assessed need.

Offender

An adult person with a current community-based corrections order (including bail supervision by corrective services).

Offender-to-staff ratio	The level of staff supervision based on the number of staff employed and the average number of offenders.
Open custody	A custodial facility where the regime for managing prisoners does not require them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier, irrespective of whether a physical barrier exists.
Out-of-cell hours	The time during which prisoners are not confined to cells, averaged over all days of the year.
Periodic detainee	A person subject to a periodic detention order.
Periodic detention	An order of confinement, imposed by a court of law, requiring that a person be held in a legally proclaimed prison or periodic detention facility for two consecutive days within a one-week period.
Periodic detention rate	The annual average number of periodic detainees per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.
Periodic detention utilisation rate	The extent to which periodic detention capacity is meeting demand for periodic detention accommodation, calculated as the total daily average periodic detention population attending a residential component of the order, divided by average periodic detention design capacity.
Personal development	The percentage of offenders taking personal development courses provided by, or on referral from, corrective services.
Prison	A legally proclaimed prison or remand centre which held adult prisoners, excluding police prisons or juvenile detention facilities.
Prison design capacity utilisation rate	The extent to which prison design capacity meets demand for prison accommodation, calculated as the total daily average prisoner population divided by average prison design capacity.
Prisoner	A person with a court-issued authority held in full time custody under the jurisdiction of an adult corrective service agency.
Private prison	A government or privately owned prison (see prison) managed under contract by a private sector organisation.
Rate of return to community corrections	The proportion of offenders completing a community order, not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon completion, who return to community corrections with a new correctional sanction within two years of the last community order completion date.
Rate of return to corrections	<p><i>Prisoners:</i> The proportion of sentenced prisoners not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon release who return to corrective services with a new correctional sanction within two years of completing a prison sentence.</p> <p><i>Community corrections:</i> The proportion of offenders not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon completion of an order who return to corrective services with a new correctional sanction within two years of the last community order completion date.</p>

Rate of return to prison	The proportion of sentenced prisoners not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon release who return to prison with a new correctional sanction within two years of completing a prison sentence.
Ratio of number of hours ordered to actual hours worked per offender	The ratio of number of hours ordered to be worked to number of hours actually worked during the counting period per offender with a work order.
Recurrent cost per prisoner/offender	The daily cost of managing a prisoner/offender, calculated against recurrent expenditure net of consolidated funds and receipts (that is, own source revenue), payroll tax and capital costs.
Recurrent expenditure	Expenditure of an ongoing nature incurred in the provision of government services or programs, including salaries, maintenance and working expenses, grants and subsidies, other services, expenditure incurred by other departments on behalf of corrective services, contracted management services, and relevant expenditure by umbrella and other departments, but excluding payroll tax.
Reparation (i)	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to all offenders with a community service bond/order or fine option that requires them to undertake unpaid work.
Reparation (ii)	In the broader context of this data collection, refers to work undertaken by prisoners or offenders that benefits the community directly or indirectly by reducing costs to the taxpayer.
Restricted movement	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to offenders who are subject to a system of restricted movement, including supervision and/or electronic monitoring.
Secure custody	A custodial facility where the regime for managing prisoners requires them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier.
Serious assault	<p>An act of physical violence committed by a prisoner against another prisoner or staff member resulting in actual bodily harm, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) harm requiring medical treatment and assessment by a medical officer resulting in overnight hospitalisation in a medical facility (for example, prison clinic, infirmary, hospital or a public hospital) (b) harm requiring extended periods of ongoing medical treatment, or (c) all acts of sexual assault. <p>The same requirements of (a) and (b) (above) for assault apply.</p>
Supervision (compliance)	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to all offenders (other than those categorised as restricted movement or reparation (i)).
Total cost of service	Includes the combined prison and community corrections recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts and payroll tax), the cost of transport and escort services, and capital costs comprising (for this item only) depreciation on government owned facilities, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges and other associated capital expenses, but excluding user cost of capital.

**Transitional
Centre**

Facilities administered by corrective services for the purpose of accommodating prisoners prior to their release from custody.

**Unnatural
deaths rate**

The death wherever occurring (including hospital) of a person:

- who is in prison custody
- whose death is caused or contributed to by traumatic injuries sustained, or by lack of proper care, while in such custody
- who dies or is fatally injured in the process of prison officers attempting to detain that person
- who dies or is fatally injured in the process of that person escaping or attempting to escape from prison custody, and
- there is sufficient evidence to suggest, subject to a Coroner's finding, that the most likely cause of death is homicide, suicide, an accidental cause or a drug overdose. The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the number of deaths by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.

Work order

A community service order or bond that imposes work upon an offender. (In some jurisdictions, fine options and expiations also require an undertaking by the offender to pay off the fine through community work).

Source: NCAG (2004).

7.7 Reference

NCAG (National Corrections Advisory Group) 2004, *Data Collection Manual 2003-04*, Canberra, unpublished.

8 Emergency management

Emergency management aims to reduce the level of risk to the community of emergencies occurring, reduce the adverse effects of emergency events, and improve the level and perception of safety in the community. This chapter reports on selected emergency events, including fire, ambulance (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport) and emergency road rescue events. While section 8.1 contains some information on the scope of emergency services organisations' (ESOs) activities, the chapter does not report on the total range of State and Territory ESO activities.

An overview of emergency management appears in section 8.1. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 8.2. The data are discussed in sections 8.3, 8.4 and 8.5, and future directions for performance reporting are discussed in section 8.6. Jurisdictions' comments are provided in section 8.7. The chapter concludes with definitions in section 8.8.

Changes for the 2005 Report

The major change to the chapter for this Report has been a restructuring of the performance reporting model. Under the new structure, performance reporting is based on emergency event types (fire events, ambulance events and road rescue events), rather than on ESOs (fire service organisations, ambulance service organisations and road rescue organisations) as reported in 2004. The purpose of the new structure is to allow for a more complete assessment of the performance of government resources committed to the management of emergency events.

Other changes include improved comparability of the survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest data (section 8.4), and the inclusion for the first time of descriptive information on the number of accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations per 100 000 households (section 8.3).

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 8 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as

\Publications\Reports\2005\Attach8A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2005\Attach8A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 8A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

8.1 Overview of emergency management

Emergency management is defined as a range of measures to manage risks to communities and the environment (EMA 2003). The emergency management sector includes a range of ESOs engaged in areas as diverse as risk assessment, State and city governance, legislation, community development, emergency response, urban development and land use management, and community recovery.

The range of events addressed by emergency management includes fires, medical transport and emergencies, rescues, other natural events (such as floods, earthquakes, landslides, heatwaves, cyclones and other storms), consequences of acts of terrorism, technological and hazardous material incidents (such as chemical spills, harmful gas leaks, radiological contamination, explosions and spills of petroleum and petroleum products), and the quarantine and control of diseases and biological contaminants. Emergency management aims to create and strengthen safe, sustainable and resilient communities that can avoid or minimise the effects of emergencies and, at the same time, have the ability to recover quickly by restoring their socioeconomic vitality.

Roles and responsibilities

The practice of emergency management requires cooperation among Australian, State, Territory and local governments, industry, community organisations and the community in general.

Australian Government

The primary role of the Australian Government is to support and develop national emergency management capability. This is achieved by a range of activities, including:

- coordinating the Australian Government's material and technical assistance to states and territories in the event of large scale emergencies (through Emergency Management Australia [EMA], which is a division within the Australian Attorney-General's Department)
- providing financial assistance to states, territories and authorities for natural disaster and flood prevention/mitigation (through the Natural Disaster Mitigation Program and the Regional Flood Mitigation Program of the Department of Transport and Regional Services [DOTARS]) and for helping to bear the costs of natural disasters (through DOTARS's Natural Disaster Relief Arrangements)
- providing information, best practice materials and training programs (through EMA)
- providing funding for risk management (through the DOTARS's Natural Disaster Risk Management Studies Program) and undertaking comprehensive risk assessment (through DOTARS and Geoscience Australia)
- supporting community awareness activities (through EMA, the Bureau of Meteorology and Geoscience Australia).

Australian Government agencies also have specific emergency management responsibilities, including: the control of exotic animal diseases; aviation and maritime search and rescue; the management of major marine pollution and meteorological and geological hazards; the provision of firefighting services at some airports and some defence installations; human quarantine; and research and development.

State and Territory governments

State and Territory governments are responsible for instituting regulatory arrangements for the protection of life, property and the environment, and they have the primary responsibility for delivering emergency services (including fire and ambulance services) directly to the community. Australian, State and Territory governments are also jointly responsible for developing building fire safety codes, undertaking fire-related research, formulating policies and providing advice on fire safety.

Local governments

Local governments in most states and territories are involved to varying degrees in emergency management. Their roles and responsibilities include:

- considering community safety in regional and urban planning by assessing risks, and developing mitigation measures and prevention plans to address emergencies such as bushfires and structure fires, floods, storms, landslips and hazardous materials incidents
- improving community preparedness through local emergency and disaster plans
- issuing hazard reduction notices to private land holders and clearing vegetation in high risk public areas
- collecting statutory levies to fund fire and other emergency services
- allocating resources for response and recovery activities
- providing financial and operational assistance to rural fire brigades and/or other voluntary emergency service units.

Emergency service organisations

State and Territory governments and local governments provide emergency management services to the community through a range of ESOs. The structure and reporting lines of ESOs vary across jurisdictions. These organisations range from government departments to statutory authorities, and to smaller branches, agencies or services within larger departments or authorities. In some instances, non-government organisations are also involved in the provision of emergency management services, such as St John Ambulance in WA and the NT.

In all jurisdictions, there is considerable cooperation and coordination among ESOs in response to major emergency events. There can also be substantial cooperative efforts across government, particularly in the recovery stages after a major incident. Events of considerable magnitude and duration, such as earthquakes, cyclones and bushfires, can involve interstate cooperation and support.

Fire service organisations

State and Territory governments provide a range of emergency management activities through agencies historically considered as fire service organisations, including prevention, preparedness, response and recovery (see section 8.2). The role of fire service organisations varies across jurisdictions and includes

involvement in an expanding variety of activities (table 8A.35). Fire service organisations are involved in:

- developing building fire safety codes and inspecting fire safety equipment and practices
- training and educating the community to achieve community awareness and behavioural change in relation to fire safety and road safety issues
- assisting individuals and communities to prepare for bushfires
- responding to structure, bush, vehicle and other fires
- providing rural land management advice on the role and use of fire
- providing road accident rescue and other rescue services
- managing hazardous material incidents
- administering legislation relating to fire safety, hazardous materials facilities and hazard mitigation.

Fire service organisations work closely with other government departments and agencies — including ESOs such as the State Emergency Service/Territory Emergency Service (SES/TES), police and ambulance services, and community service organisations — to minimise the impact of fire and other emergencies on the community. Their management structure differs across jurisdictions (box 8.1).

Box 8.1 Delivery and scope of activity of primary fire service organisations^a		
	Urban	Rural
	<i>Attend residential and commercial structure fires; incidents involving hazardous materials; and road accidents within major urban centres.</i>	<i>Attend local structure fires and other events outside major urban centres; rural non-structure fires (including crop, bushland and grassland fires on private property); and fires in national parks and State forests.</i>
NSW	<i>NSW Fire Brigades</i> — this government department reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.	<i>NSW Rural Fire Service</i> — this government department reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.
Vic^b	<i>Metropolitan Fire and Emergency Services Board</i> — this statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services and the Emergency Services Commissioner. <i>Country Fire Authority</i> — this statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services and the Emergency Services Commissioner.	<i>Department of Sustainability and Environment</i> — this department is responsible for public lands.

(Continued on next page)

Box 8.1 (Continued)

<i>Qld</i>	<i>Queensland Fire and Rescue Service</i> — this service, incorporating the Rural Fire Service, is a division of the Department of Emergency Services, reporting to the Director-General, who reports to the Minister for Emergency Services.
<i>WA^c</i>	<i>Fire and Emergency Services Authority of WA (FESA)</i> — this umbrella statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services directly.
<i>SA</i>	<i>Metropolitan Fire Service</i> — this statutory authority reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly. <i>Country Fire Service</i> — the board of this authority reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.
<i>Tas</i>	<i>Tasmania Fire Service</i> — this is the operational arm of the State Fire Commission, which reports to the Minister for Health and Human Services.
<i>ACT</i>	<i>ACT Fire Brigade and ACT Bushfire Service</i> — these are agencies of the ACT Emergency Services Bureau, which reports to the ACT Minister for Police and Emergency Services.
<i>NT^d</i>	<i>NT Fire and Rescue Service</i> — this is a branch of the larger Department of Police, Fire and Emergency Services. The Chief Fire Officer reports to the Commissioner for Police, who reports to the Minister for Police, Fire and Emergency Services. <i>Bushfires Council</i> — this is a board, which reports to the Minister for Infrastructure, Planning and Environment.

^a Excludes brigades employed by large scale public and private land managers; port, mining and other infrastructure brigades; and land management departments and brigades operating under Australian jurisdiction (for example, airport and defence installations). ^b The Metropolitan Fire and Emergency Services Board provides urban fire services coverage from the Melbourne Central Business District through to the middle and outer suburbs. The Country Fire Authority provides urban and rural fire services coverage for all parts of Victoria other than the Melbourne Metropolitan Fire District and public lands. This includes outer metropolitan Melbourne and regional centres. ^c As the primary fire service organisation in WA, FESA incorporates the Fire and Rescue Service (FRS) and the Bush Fire Service in one Fire Services Division. The FRS career (paid) firefighters serve the gazetted fire districts in the Perth metropolitan area and five major urban regional centres. Volunteers in FRS serve in gazetted fire districts in smaller urban centres in regional areas. FESA provides funding and Bush Fire Service support to local government volunteer bush fire brigades, which are responsible for fire response in all other regional areas apart from National parks and forests. Fire response in the latter is the responsibility of the Department of Conservation and Land Management. ^d The NT Bushfires Council is primarily a land management organisation and responds only to grass fires and bushfires on land outside the Fire and Rescue Service response areas. The NT statistics in this chapter do not apply to the Bushfires Council unless stated.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Separate urban and rural fire service organisations deliver fire services in most jurisdictions. Land management departments also typically provide rural fire services (although data on these agencies are not reported in this chapter unless stated). Jurisdictions with more than one fire authority may separate services in different ways — for example, NSW separates fire services based on service function and geographic area, whereas Victoria separates fire services by geographic area only.

Some jurisdictions have particular arrangements for the provision of fire services to Indigenous communities. (For more information on fire services provided to Indigenous communities, see SCRCSSP 2002, p. 572.)

Ambulance service organisations

The role of ambulance service organisations across jurisdictions generally includes:

- providing emergency pre-hospital patient care and transport in response to sudden injury and illness
- retrieving emergency patients
- accessing emergency pre-hospital patients (for example, in confined spaces and hazardous environments)
- undertaking interhospital patient transport
- conducting road accident rescue
- planning and coordinating patient services in multi-casualty events.

Some government ambulance service organisations also provide first aid training courses, as do non-government providers such as St John Ambulance Australia and the Australian Red Cross. The Royal Flying Doctor Service responds to medical emergencies in remote inland areas of Australia. It was contracted in 1999-2000, for example, by the Ambulance Service of NSW for routine and emergency work in the north west sector of NSW. Similarly, the Queensland and Tasmanian ambulance services contract the Royal Flying Doctor Service to provide aircraft and pilots for their air ambulance services, and the costs of those services are included in the ambulance costs reported for these jurisdictions. Data relating to other Royal Flying Doctor Service activities are not included in the Report.

State and Territory governments provide ambulance services in most jurisdictions. In WA and the NT, St John Ambulance is under contract to the respective governments as the primary provider of ambulance services (box 8.2).

Some jurisdictions have particular arrangements for the provision of ambulance services to Indigenous communities. (For an example of ambulance services provided to Indigenous communities in Queensland, see SCRCSSP 2002, p. 574. For information on Indigenous access to air medical services, see SCRCSSP 2003, pp. 8.7–8.8.)

Box 8.2 Relationships of primary ambulance response and management organisations to government

<i>NSW</i>	<i>Ambulance Service of NSW</i> — a statutory authority reporting to the Minister for Health
<i>Vic</i>	<i>Metropolitan Ambulance Service, Rural Ambulance Victoria, and Alexandra and District Ambulance Service</i> — separate statutory bodies reporting to the Minister for Health
<i>Qld</i>	<i>Queensland Ambulance Service</i> — a division of the Department of Emergency Services, reporting to the Director-General, who reports to the Minister for Emergency Services
<i>WA</i>	<i>St John Ambulance</i> — an incorporated not-for-profit organisation under contract to the WA Government
<i>SA</i>	<i>SA Ambulance Service (SAAS)</i> — SAAS is the trading name of SA St John Ambulance Service Inc, established under the <i>Associations Incorporations Act 1985 (SA)</i> . The <i>Ambulance Services Act 1992 (SA)</i> authorises and licenses SAAS to provide an ambulance service in SA.
<i>Tas</i>	<i>Tasmanian Ambulance Service</i> — a statutory service of the Hospital and Ambulance Division of the Department of Health and Human Services
<i>ACT</i>	<i>ACT Ambulance Service</i> — an agency of the ACT Emergency Services Bureau, reporting to the ACT Minister for Police and Emergency Services
<i>NT</i>	<i>St John Ambulance</i> — an incorporated not-for-profit organisation under contract to the NT Government

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

State Emergency Services and Territory Emergency Services

State and Territory governments contribute to a range of emergency management activities through SES/TES. The activities of SES/TES (table 8A.36) include prevention, preparedness, response and recovery (see section 8.2). The role of SES/TES across jurisdictions encompasses a variety of activities. SES/TES are primarily the combat agencies responsible for flood and storm operations but also have a role in attending road rescue incidents and performing extrications.

Other ESOs

The Review does not yet report on the performance of Australian Government or local government emergency management services or their agencies.

Volunteers in emergency management

Volunteers play a significant role in the provision of emergency services in Australia, across the areas of prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. The input by volunteers is particularly important in rural and remote service provision, where caseload/incident levels are low but community safety needs are still a high priority. In Victoria's Country Fire Authority, for example, approximately 85 per cent of its 61 657 volunteers in 2001-02 functioned in rural areas (CFA, VRFBA and VUFBA 2001) (table 8.1).

Volunteers in many ESOs — including fire, ambulance, SES/TES, marine rescue, and recovery and relief agencies — provide services relating to emergency situations and disasters resulting from natural hazards such as wildfires, floods, severe storms, earthquakes, cyclones, and human caused and technological events. In total, over 500 000 volunteers from ESOs and other organisations (such as the Red Cross) participate each year in the management of a broad range of emergency situations and disasters (EMA 2001).

Table 8.1 **Volunteers in emergency service organisations**

	NSW ^a	Vic ^b	Qld ^c	WA	SA ^c	Tas ^c	ACT	NT ^c	Aust
2001-02									
ASOs	67	358	352	2 705	1 753	516	–	24	5 775
FSOs	68 710	61 657	46 534	21 676	17 000	4 866	650	461	221 554
Total	68 777	62 015	46 886	24 381	18 753	5 382	650	485	227 329
2002-03									
ASOs	57	387	403	2 748	1 654	530	–	22	5 801
FSOs	68 676	58 000	46 677	23 608	12 244	4 912	650	455	215 222
SES/TES	9 072	5 129	18 265	2 308	6 808	485	180	539	42 786
Total	77 805	63 516	65 345	28 664	20 706	5 997	830	1 016	263 809
2003-04									
ASO	115	501	445	2 720	1 583	567	–	20	5 951
FSO	73 059	58 583	44 286	21 987	11 161	4 766	810	521	215 173
SES/TES	10 026	4 839	17 211	2 039	2 050	464	180	582	37 391
Total	83 200	63 923	61 942	26 746	14 794	5 797	990	1 123	258 515

ASO = ambulance service organisation. FSO = fire services organisation. ^a For NSW, fire service organisation numbers include community fire unit members. ^b Victorian ambulance service organisation data include remunerated volunteers. These volunteers were remunerated for some time (usually response time), but not for other time (usually on-call time). There were 362 remunerated volunteers in 2003-04, 335 in 2002-03 and 328 in 2001-02. ^c Fire service organisation numbers include part paid volunteers. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.5, 8A.21 and 8A.31.

Governments incur costs in supporting volunteers to deliver emergency services in their communities by providing funds and support through infrastructure, training, uniforms, personal protective equipment, operational equipment and support for other operating costs. The cost to the Tasmanian Government in 2000-01 of services

wholly provided by ambulance volunteers, for example, was \$1385 flagfall per case, compared with \$781 flagfall per case in the mixed career/volunteer stations, and only \$535 flagfall per case in the urban areas, where every crew has two salaried ambulance personnel (TAS and KPMG 2001). (For more information on estimates of volunteer participation in the provision of emergency services, see SCRCSSP 2003, pp. 8.16–8.19.)

Emergency management events

This chapter focuses on the performance of emergency management in relation to three emergency events: fire events (section 8.3), ambulance events (section 8.4), and road rescue events (section 8.5). There are, however, many other categories of emergency management that are not currently reported, including: rescues on land (other than road rescues) and at sea; natural events (such as floods, earthquakes, landslides, heatwaves, cyclones and other storms); the consequences of acts of terrorism; technological and hazardous material incidents (such as chemical spills, harmful gas leaks, radiological contamination, explosions and spills of petroleum and petroleum products); and the quarantine and control of diseases and biological contaminants.

8.2 Framework for measuring the performance of emergency management

The broad aim of emergency management is to reduce the level of risk to the community from emergencies. The framework of performance indicators in this chapter is based on the objectives for emergency management, which are common to all Australian ESOs (box 8.3). These objectives are nationally agreed and developed by the Emergency Management Working Group.

Box 8.3 Objectives for emergency management

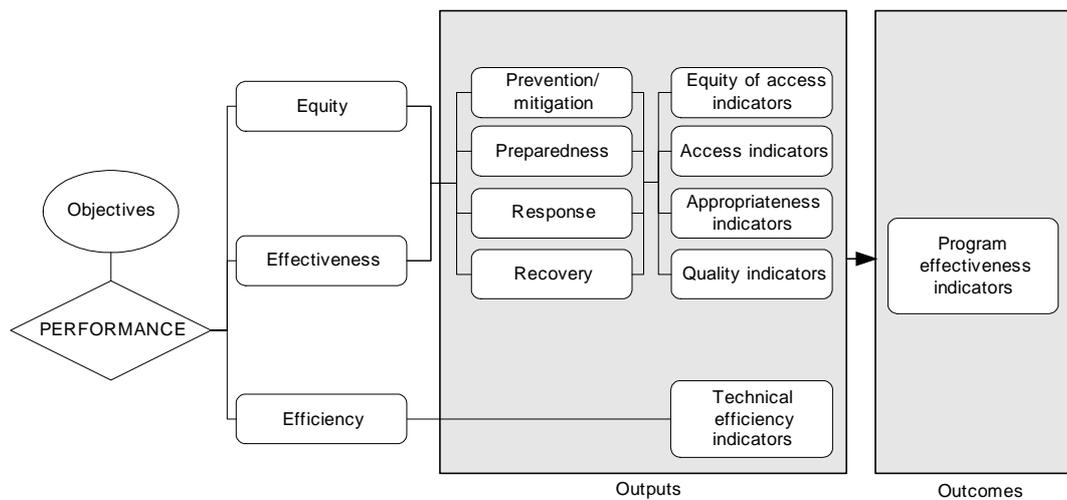
Emergency management services aim to provide highly effective, efficient and accessible services that:

- reduce the adverse effects of emergencies and disasters on the Australian community (including people, property, infrastructure, economy and environment)
- contribute to the management of risks to the Australian community
- enhance public safety.

Emergency service organisations aim to reduce the number of emergency events through prevention activities, and to reduce the impact of emergency events through community and operational preparedness. Fast, effective response and recovery services are critical to containing hazards and managing the consequences of emergency events. The prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery performance indicator framework (figure 8.1) used in this chapter reflects all these activities.

The general performance indicator framework presented in figure 8.1 has been applied to fire events (section 8.3), ambulance events (section 8.4) and road rescue events (section 8.5). The outcome indicators in the performance framework provide an indication of the effects of ESOs on the community, economy and environment. Those currently reported are the ‘fire death rate’, the ‘fire injury rate’, the ‘median dollar losses from structure fire’, ‘total property losses from structure fire’, and the ‘survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest’.

Figure 8.1 **General performance indicator framework for emergency management**



The framework uses the widely accepted ‘comprehensive approach’ (prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery) to classify the key functions common to ESOs in managing emergency events. Outputs in the emergency event frameworks are grouped accordingly.

- *Prevention and mitigation* — the results of measures taken in advance of an emergency aimed at decreasing or eliminating its impact on the community and the environment. Activities that contribute to outputs of prevention and mitigation include: advice on land management practice for hazard reduction and prevention; the inspection of property and buildings for hazards, compliance

with standards and building codes, and levels of safe practices; the preparation of risk assessment and emergency management plans; risk categorisation for public information campaigns; and public information campaigns and educational programs to promote safe practices in the community.

- *Preparedness* — the results of measures to ensure, if an emergency occurs, that communities, resources and services are capable of responding to, and coping with, the effects. Activities that contribute to outputs of preparedness include: public education and training; emergency detection and response planning (including the installation of smoke alarms and/or sprinklers); hazardous chemicals and material certification, and the inspection of storage and handling arrangements; the exercising, training and testing of emergency service personnel; and standby and resource deployment and maintenance. Preparedness also involves establishing equipment standards and monitoring adherence to these standards.
- *Response* — the results of strategies and services to control, limit or modify the emergency to reduce its consequences. Activities that contribute to outputs of response include: the implementation of emergency plans and procedures; the issuing of emergency warnings; the mobilisation of resources in response to emergency incidents; the suppression of hazards (for example, fire containment); the provision of immediate medical assistance and relief; and search and rescue.
- *Recovery (ESOs)* — the results of strategies and services to return agencies to a state of preparedness after emergency situations. Activities that contribute to outputs of emergency services recovery include: critical incident stress debriefing; and the salvage and restoration of an emergency site to a safe state.
- *Recovery (community)* — the results of strategies and services to support affected individuals and communities in their reconstruction of physical infrastructure and their restoration of emotional, social, economic and physical wellbeing. Activities that contribute to outputs of community recovery include: the restoration of essential services; counselling programs; temporary housing; long term medical care; and public health and safety information.

Effective prevention activities reduce the requirement to respond to, and recover from, emergency events. Efficient resource use reduces the risk to the community by supporting a greater availability of services. Every jurisdiction is placing a greater emphasis on preventative activities.

8.3 Fire events

This section contains information on the performance of ESOs in providing emergency management services for fire events. A fire event is an incident that is reported to a fire service organisation and requires a response. Fire events include (but are not limited to):

- structure fires (that is, fires inside a building or structure), regardless of whether there is damage to the structure
- landscape fires, including bushfires and grass fires, regardless of the size of the area burnt.

Emergency management services for fire events

Fire service organisations are the primary agencies involved in providing emergency management services for fire events. A range of other agencies may also be involved, including ambulance service organisations, SES/TES and police services (table 8A.38).

Full reporting would ideally include information on the resources allocated by all ESOs to the management of fire events. Although this information is currently unavailable, work is underway to improve this information for future reports. The descriptive information provided below on funding, incidents and human resources relate to fire service organisations only (although, as discussed in section 8.1, fire service organisations are involved in other activities not directly related to fire events).

Funding

Total funding of the fire service organisations covered in this Report was \$1.6 billion in 2003-04 (excluding funding for land management agencies). Nationally, over the period 1999-2000 to 2003-04, funding increased with an average annual growth rate of 4.8 per cent. Within jurisdictions, funding increased (in real terms) both each year and overall in Victoria and Queensland, and increased overall for all other jurisdictions except the NT (table 8.2).

**Table 8.2 Real funding of fire service organisations (2003-04 dollars)
(\$ million)^a**

	<i>NSW</i> ^b	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i> ^c	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i> ^d
1999-2000	482.0	312.3	251.1	110.6	119.6	39.1	23.5	22.1	1 360.3
2000-01	466.7	336.7	259.5	105.3	119.9	40.7	26.9	22.7	1 378.3
2001-02	586.6	356.9	272.4	99.0	112.2	42.9	26.3	14.4	1 510.7
2002-03	662.8	390.6	294.2	103.1	123.8	49.6	26.5	16.0	1 666.6
2003-04	568.4	433.7	296.4	116.4	129.2	48.1	34.4	15.7	1 642.3

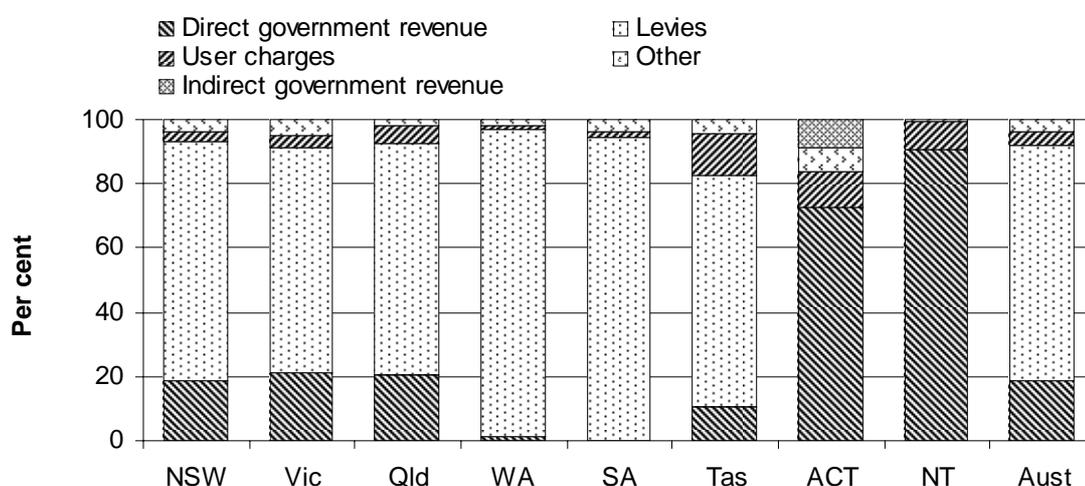
^a Real funding is based on the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) gross domestic product price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26). ^b Data for NSW provide a distorted representation of trends in fire service funding. NSW Fire Services data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 are artificially inflated by significant abnormal grants associated with natural disasters. ^c For WA, data for 2003-04 include operational and recurrent costs of local government Bush Fire Brigades, now funded by the Emergency Services Levy (ESL). ^d Totals may not sum as a result of rounding.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.1.

Levies on insurance companies were the primary source of funding for NSW and Victoria in 2003-04. WA was in a transitional year, phasing out levies on insurance companies and introducing a property-based levy. In Queensland, SA and Tasmania, levies on property owners were the largest contributors of funds to fire service organisations. Territory governments were the most important source of funds for the ACT and the NT (table 8A.1). In addition to relying on funded resources, all states and territories rely on volunteer firefighters, who make a significant contribution to the community.

Nationally, 18.7 per cent of funding for fire service organisations was provided directly by government in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the highest proportion of direct government funding was in the NT (90.7 per cent) and the lowest was in SA (0.3 per cent) (figure 8.2).

Figure 8.2 Major sources of fire service organisation funding, 2003-04^{a, b}



^a Indirect revenue is counted in government grants in table 8A.1. Funding reported is the sum of government grants, levies, user charges and miscellaneous revenue. Indirect revenue is shown separately (where government grants are shown net of indirect revenue, and indirect revenue is included in indirect government and other revenue) so is not to be interpreted as an additional amount. ^b In WA, a property-based ESL began on 1 July 2003; insurance fire levies ended on 31 December 2003. For this transitional year, 2003-04 funding includes part insurance fire levy and part ESL.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.1.

Fires and other emergency incidents

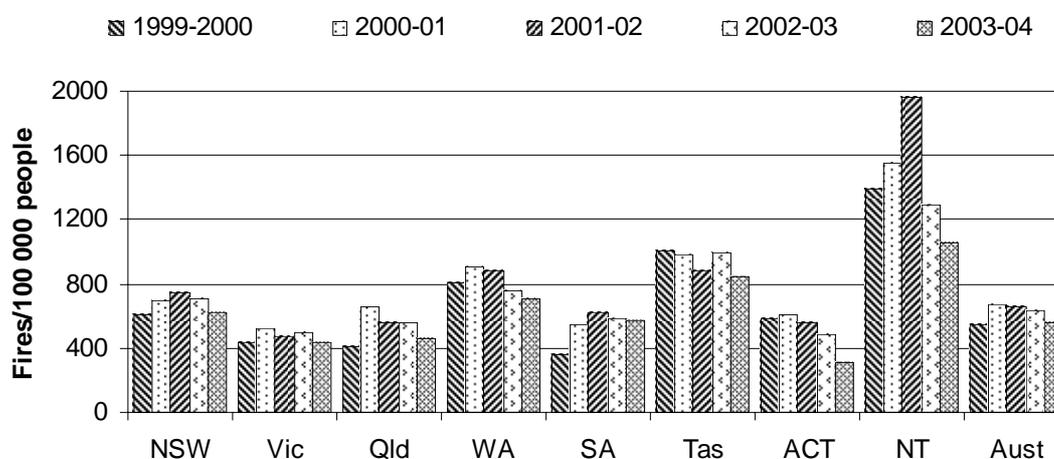
Information on reported fires and other incidents was provided separately for fire service organisations in each jurisdiction, but data were not available for all fire service organisations across jurisdictions. Fire service organisations are required by legislation to respond to all calls, and an incident cannot be deemed to be a false report until the fire service organisation has responded and investigated the site. Nationally, 31.1 per cent of the 353 628 reported incidents were fires and 67.8 per cent were other emergencies and incidents in 2003-04 (table 8A.2).

The proportion of incident types varied substantially across jurisdictions in 2003-04. In WA, for example, fire service organisations attended 25 703 incidents, of which 53.9 per cent were fires and 46.1 per cent were other emergencies and incidents. By comparison, in the ACT, fire service organisations attended 9485 incidents, of which 10.6 per cent were fires and 89.4 per cent were other emergencies and incidents. In Queensland, WA, Tasmania and the NT, the highest proportion of fires attended were landscape, bushfires and grass fires. In all other jurisdictions, other fires constituted the most attendances. Fires within or involving a structure were the least attended type of fire for all jurisdictions, except the ACT (table 8A.2). The historic emphasis on structure fires in this chapter is due to their high threat to life and property.

Total fire incidents attended by fire service organisations per 100 000 people

Nationally, 553 fire incidents per 100 000 people were reported in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the rate was highest in the NT (1055 per 100 000 people) and lowest in the ACT (311 per 100 000 people). The rate fell in all jurisdictions between 2002-03 and 2003-04 (figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 **Total fire incidents attended by fire service organisations^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



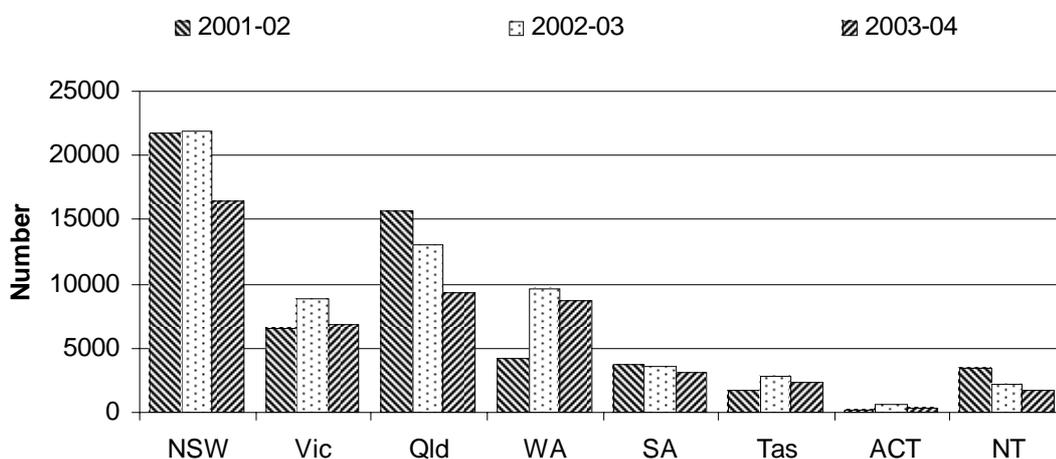
^a Total fire incidents data include landscape fire incidents attended by fire service organisations. ^b Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except the ACT and the NT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^c Due to data collection issues, 1999-2000 data for the NSW Fire Brigades are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of incidents, and 2000-01 data for the NSW Fire Brigades are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. NSW 2000-01 data for areas serviced by the NSW Rural Fire Service have been derived from one third of Rural Fire Districts. The increase in incident levels for 2001-02 was due to the expansion of the incident reporting system to all NSW Rural Fire Districts. ^d In Queensland, accurate identification of incidents attended by both Queensland Fire and Rescue Service (QFRS) urban and rural crews is not possible at this stage. Reporting of incident attendance by QFRS rural crews is incomplete due to voluntary reporting procedures. The extent of under-reporting is unknown. ^e In the NT data, the high number of incidents per 100 000 people can be attributed to the large number of grass fires in central Australia caused by drought conditions during the reporting period, and to the improved monitoring of previously faulty fire alarms. ^f The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.10.

Total reported landscape fire incidents

Nationally, 32 348 landscape fire incidents were reported in 2003-04 (table 8A.3). Across jurisdictions, the total number was highest in NSW (16 529 incidents) and lowest in the ACT (238 incidents) (figure 8.4). Landscape fire incidents reported to land management agencies are excluded for some jurisdictions.

Figure 8.4 Fire service organisations and land management agencies reported total landscape fire (bush and grass) incidents^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



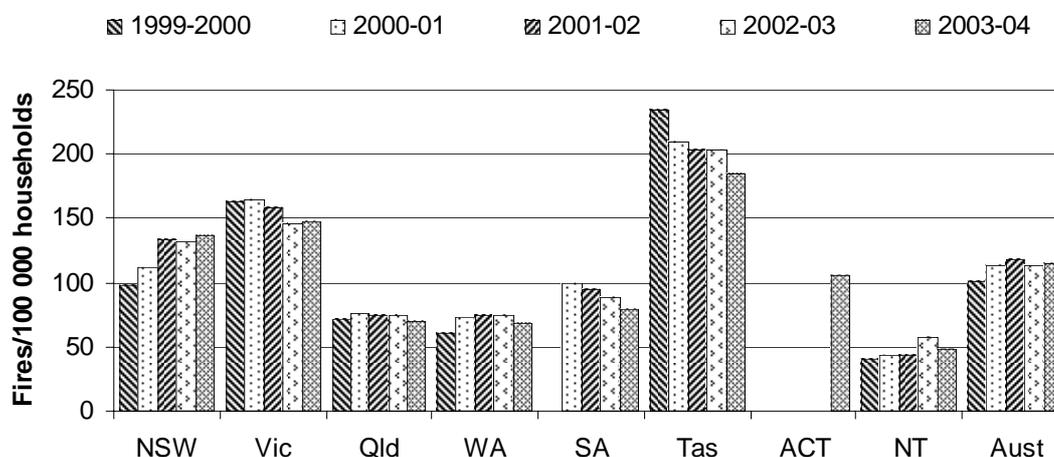
^a These data may be different to those reported elsewhere in the chapter because these data reflect responses from fire and other services for some jurisdictions. ^b NSW data include fires from the NSW Department of Environment and Conservation, the NSW Rural Fire Service and the NSW Fire Brigades for all bushfires and grass fires regardless of size of area burnt. ^c Victorian landscape fires data for 2001-02 do not include incidents from the Department of Sustainability and Environment (DSE). Victorian landscape fires data for 2002-03 include 857 incidents from DSE (which burnt nearly 1.2 million hectares) and landscape fires for 2003-04 include 705 incidents from DSE. ^d Queensland data include QFRS urban stations and rural brigades. Accurate identification of incidents attended by both QFRS urban and rural crews is not possible at this stage. Reporting of incident attendance by QFRS rural crews is incomplete due to voluntary reporting procedures. The extent of under-reporting is unknown. Land management agency data are not available to QFRS. ^e Data for WA include 353 landscape fires in 2003-04, for which the Department of Conservation and Landscape Management was the lead agency. ^f For Tasmania, data refer to all fire brigades, both full time and volunteer. ^g NT data exclude the NT Bushfires Council and some NT Fire and Rescue Service volunteer brigades.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.3.

Accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations per 100 000 households

Nationally, 114.9 accidental residential structure fires per 100 000 households were reported in 2003-04 (table 8A.4). Across jurisdictions, the rate was highest in Tasmania (185.3 incidents) and lowest in the NT (47.6 incidents) (figure 8.5).

Figure 8.5 **Accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations^a**



^a Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except the ACT, which reports data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both).

Source: ABS Cat. no. 4102.0 (various years); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.4.

Human resources

Human resources refers to any person delivering a firefighting or firefighting-related service, or managing the delivery of this service, including:

- firefighters (qualified paid and volunteer firefighters)
- support personnel (any paid person or volunteer directly supporting the operational provider, including technical and communications personnel and personnel staff).

Nationally, 13 447 full time equivalent (FTE) paid personnel were involved in the delivery of fire services in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the number of FTE paid personnel ranged from 4714 in NSW to 214 in the NT. Nationally, the majority of paid personnel were firefighters (76.3 per cent). Across jurisdictions, this proportion was highest in SA (96.6 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (65.1 per cent) (table 8A.5).

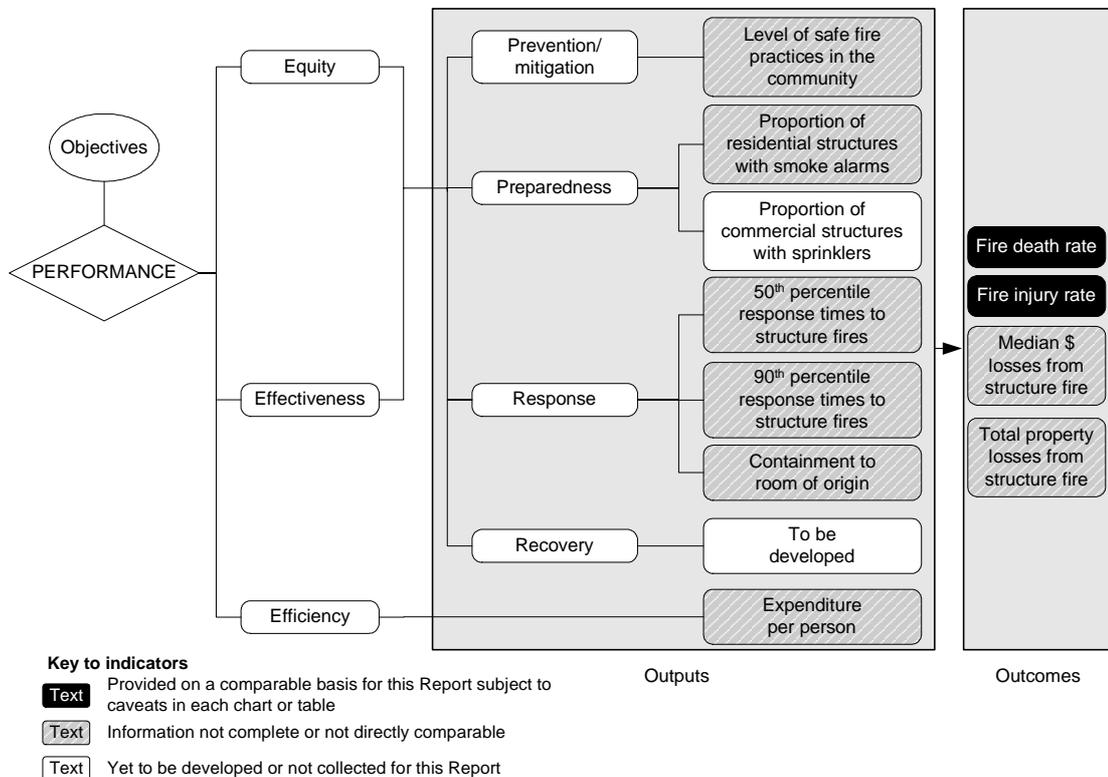
Volunteer firefighters (215 173 people) also participated in the delivery of fire services in 2003-04. The number of volunteer firefighters varied across jurisdictions, from 73 059 in NSW to 521 in the NT (table 8A.5).

Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.6 presents the performance indicator framework for fire events that has been developed from the general framework for all emergency events. Definitions of all indicators are provided in section 8.8.

Performance information has been reported for a number of indicators. These results might have been influenced by factors such as differences in climatic and weather conditions, the sociodemographic and topographic composition of jurisdictions, property values and dwelling construction types. Importantly, jurisdictions also have diverse legislative fire protection requirements.

Figure 8.6 Performance indicators for fire events



Results need to be interpreted with care because data might have been derived from small samples (for example, jurisdictions' fire safety measures surveys) or may be highly variable as a result of the relatively small populations (as in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT).

The role of volunteers, particularly for country and rural fire brigades, also needs to be considered when interpreting some indicators (such as fire service organisation expenditure per 1000 people). Specifically, volunteer personnel provide a substantial proportion of fire services (and emergency services more generally)

(ABS 2001a). While costs such as the training and equipment associated with volunteers are included in the cost of fire service provision, the labour costs of providing fire services would be much greater without volunteers (assuming these functions were still performed).

Further, information has not been reported for all fire events in each jurisdiction consistently over time. Reported results sometimes exclude rural fire events, so performance data are not always directly comparable across jurisdictions. Fire service organisations are cooperating to improve and enhance the standards for the collection of fire events data, which is evident by the inclusion of rural fire service organisations data for more jurisdictions in more current years. Differences in counting rules are expected to be minimised in future reports.

The performance indicator framework for fire events shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report (figure 8.6). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Key performance indicator results

Outputs — equity and effectiveness

Outputs are measured by the ‘level of safe fire practices in the community’; ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’; ‘the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers’; ‘the 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires’; ‘containment to the room of origin’; and ‘expenditure per person’.

Prevention/mitigation — level of safe fire practices in the community

One measure of the extent of preparedness in the community is ‘the level of safe fire practices in the community’ (box 8.4). Selected fire risk management/mitigation strategies across jurisdictions are identified in table 8A.33. Nationally consistent data on household fire safety measures installed or prevention procedures followed were previously available from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Population Survey Monitor (table 8A.12), which has been discontinued. Nationally consistent data are not currently available.

Data for 2001-02 were collected by some jurisdictions and collated by the Australasian Fire Authorities Council. Differences in the survey methods and

instruments of these two collections mean that the data are not fully comparable over time. Comparison across jurisdictions also need to be treated with caution because sample size influences the accuracy of sample estimates. Table 8A.12 contains data for 2001-02 for Victoria and Queensland, and Population Survey Monitor data for households with a fire safety measure, by fire safety measure installed or followed.

Box 8.4 Level of safe fire practices in the community

‘The level of safe fire practices in the community’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and manage the risk of fires.

Fire prevention output indicators focus on the level of fire safety practices in the community. Selected fire risk management/mitigation strategies across jurisdictions are identified in table 8A.33. Data are also reported on the proportion of households with a fire safety measure installed or prevention measure followed: the Steering Committee has identified this indicator for development and reporting in future.

Holding other factors constant, the higher the proportion of households with a fire safety measure installed or prevention measure followed, the less likely are fires to occur or cause excessive damage. This indicator does not provide information on the degree to which practices under consideration contribute to fire prevention and mitigation.

Preparedness — proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms

Another measure of the extent of preparedness in the community is ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’ (box 8.5).

Box 8.5 Proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms

‘The proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through preparedness measures.

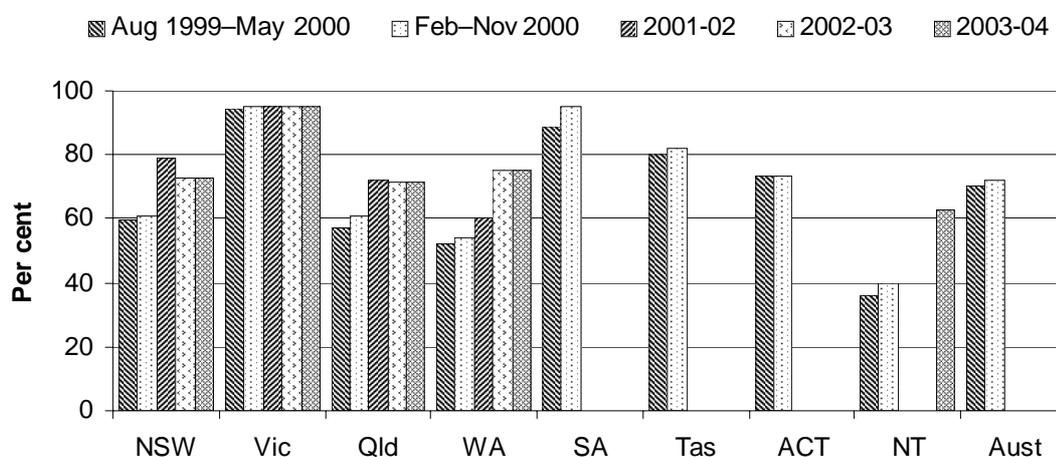
The indicator is defined as the number of households with an operational smoke alarm installed, divided by the total number of households.

The higher the proportion of households with an operational smoke alarm installed, the greater is the likelihood that the adverse effects of fire will be avoided or reduced.

Nationally consistent and complete data are not currently available on ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’. Nationally consistent data were last available in 2000 (from the discontinued ABS Population Survey Monitor). Since 2001-02, a number of jurisdictions have undertaken surveys on the number of households with an operational smoke alarm installed (table 8A.11); some jurisdictions did not undertake a survey in 2003-04, however, because ‘the proportion of total households with a fire safety measure’ is close to 100 per cent (as in SA) and, in any case, is a slow moving indicator. Caution needs to be exercised when interpreting this survey data, given changes in sources over time and the reliability of sample data.

Four jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland and WA) conducted surveys in 2003-04, collecting data on total households that had an operational smoke alarm or smoke detector installed. Across those jurisdictions that undertook a survey, the proportion of total households that had an operational smoke alarm or smoke detector installed was highest in Victoria (95.9 per cent) and lowest in the NT (63.0 per cent). The proportions in 2003-04 were virtually unchanged from the proportions reported by jurisdictions in 2002-03 (figure 8.7).

Figure 8.7 Households with an operational smoke alarm installed^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Caution needs to be used where there are small differences in the Population Survey Monitor results, which are affected by sample and estimate size (see section 11.8 of the *2002 Report on Government Services*). The Population Survey Monitor ceased in the final quarter for 2000. From 2001-02, data are from jurisdictional collections and are not strictly comparable with the Population Survey Monitor data, because the two sets of survey instruments used to collect the data differ. ^b Data for 2001-02 are sourced from the 2002 NSW Department of Health's Continuous Health Survey Program. Data for 2002-03 are sourced from the NSW Health Survey 2002 (HOIST), Centre for Epidemiology and Research, NSW Department of Health. Data for 2001-02 represent six months of 2002: 95 per cent of these data fell within the following confidence interval — 77.8–80.2 per cent of households that had at least one smoke alarm. Data for 2002-03 represent the full 12 month period of 2002: 95 per cent of these data fell within the following confidence interval — 71.8–74.0 per cent of households that had at least one smoke alarm. Data for 2003-04 represent the full 12 month period of 2003: 95 per cent of these data fell within the following confidence interval — 71.6–73.9 per cent of households that had at least one smoke alarm. ^c Victorian 2001-02 data are sourced from a random telephone survey of 2304 respondents residing within the 23 local government areas significant to the metropolitan fire district. The MFESB commissioned Crime Prevention Victoria to develop a survey around fire safety issues through its Local Safety Survey. The 2003-04 data are based on the results of the most recent survey conducted in April 2004. ^d For Queensland, data are collected by the Office of Economic and Statistical Research as part of the November quarter Queensland Household Survey each year. ^e For WA, 2003-04 data are sourced from a random telephone survey of both metropolitan Perth and regional residents.

Source: ABS (2001b); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.11.

Preparedness — proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers

The Steering Committee has identified 'the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers' as an indicator of preparedness for fire events (box 8.6). Data for this indicator, however, were not available for the 2005 Report.

Box 8.6 Proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers

'The proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers' will provide an output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through preparedness and mitigation.

The indicator is defined as the number of commercial structures with sprinklers installed, divided by the total number of commercial structures.

The higher the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers installed, the greater is the likelihood that the adverse effects of fire are reduced. This indicator will not provide information on the operational status of sprinkler systems or their contribution to fire prevention.

Response

Response times and containment of structure fires (to the object or room of origin) are indicators of the effectiveness of fire service organisations in terms of their ability to respond to and suppress fires. Response times to structure fires are reported first, followed by containment to room of origin.

Response — 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires

The 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires provide an important measure of response activities (box 8.7). The data relate to the performance of the reporting agency (or agencies) only, not necessarily to the performance of all fire service organisations within each jurisdiction. Response time data need to be viewed with care because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions, given the following:

- Response time data for some jurisdictions represent responses to urban, rural and remote areas.
- Responses may include career firefighters, auxiliary/part time firefighters and volunteers.
- While definitions on response times are consistent, not all jurisdictions have systems in place to capture all components of response time for all cases from the time of the call to arrival at the scene.
- The definition of response times varies across jurisdictions (that is, the data provided by jurisdictions may diverge from the definitions agreed for the Report). This occurs partly because some agencies use a manual system to calculate response time figures, while other services retrieve the data from computer aided dispatch (CAD) systems.

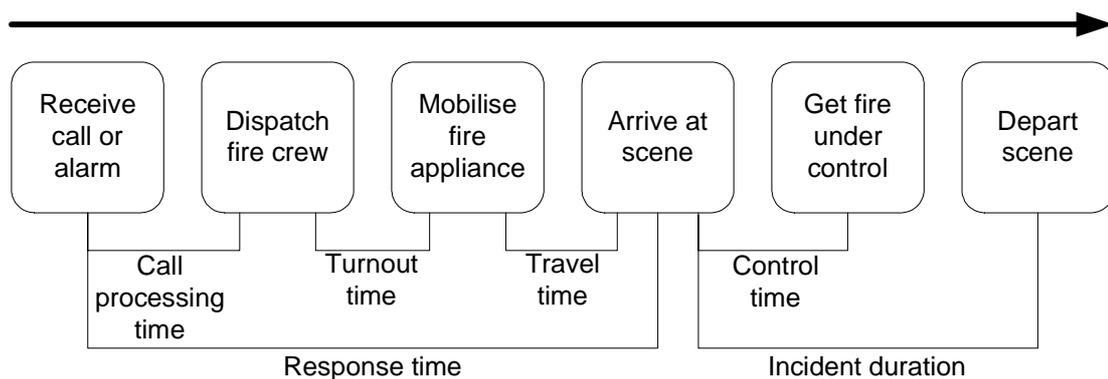
Box 8.7 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires

50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires are included as output indicators of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through timely response.

The indicator '50th percentile response time', is defined as the time within which 50 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrive at the scene of structure fires. Similarly, '90th percentile response time', refers to the time within which 90 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrive at the scene of structure fires. Structure fires are those fires in housing and other buildings. The response time is defined as the interval between the receipt of the call at the dispatch centre and the arrival of the vehicle at the scene (that is, when the vehicle is stationary and the handbrake is applied). This and other intervals are illustrated in figure 8.8.

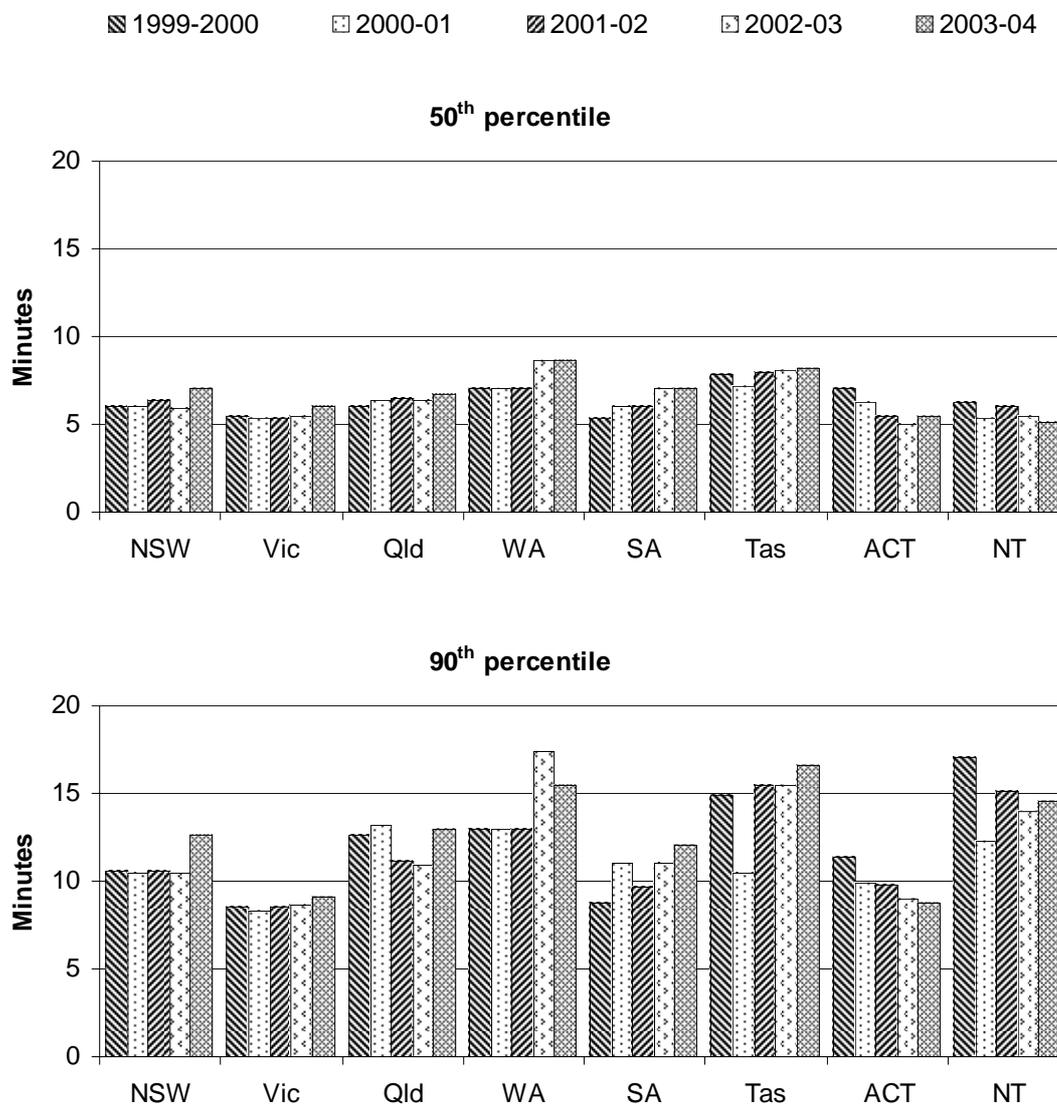
Shorter response times are more desirable.

Figure 8.8 Response time points and indicators for fire events



The 50th percentile response time in 2003-04 was highest in WA (8.6 minutes) and lowest in the NT (5.1 minutes) (figure 8.9). The 90th percentile response time in 2003-04 was highest in Tasmania (16.6 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (8.8 minutes) (figure 8.9). Response times vary within a jurisdiction depending on the remoteness of the area in which the responses occur (among other factors). Response times are segmented into remoteness areas, based on the ABS Australian Standard Geographical Classification.

Figure 8.9 Response times to structure fires^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a Differences between jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix, and system type (manual or CAD) affect the comparability of response times data. ^b Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except Queensland and the ACT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^c NSW data for 1999-2000 to 2001-02 are for NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire district. Due to data collection issues, 1999-2000 data are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of the incidents, and data for 2000-01 are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. Data for 2002-03 and 2003-04 include responses from the NSW Fire Brigades and the NSW Rural Fire Service. ^d Victorian data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 are not uniformly consistent with the nationally agreed definition. Specifically, some inner metropolitan calls do not include all of the call processing time (approximately 36-40 seconds per response time), due to the time stamp generated by the computer aided dispatch system. Response times figures for 2003-04 are consistent with the nationally agreed definition and now include call handling time across the State. ^e For Queensland, collection procedures do not differentiate between responses made under normal road conditions and emergency responses. ^f WA data exclude reports with incorrect time details. Data for 1999-2000 are for urban services only. From 2000-2001, data include both urban and rural fire services. ^g Tasmanian data for 2000-01 exclude the Rural Fire Brigades.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.13.

For major cities, the 50th percentile response time in 2003-04 was highest in WA (8.0 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (5.4 minutes). For outer regional areas, it was highest in Tasmania (10.3 minutes) and lowest in the NT (5.2 minutes), and for very remote areas it was highest in WA (13.0 minutes) and lowest in the NT (5.0 minutes) (figure 8.10).

For major cities, the 90th percentile response time in 2003-04 was highest in WA (12 minutes) and lowest in Victoria (8.2 minutes). For outer regional areas, it was highest in WA (23 minutes) and lowest in Victoria (14 minutes), and for very remote areas, it was highest in WA (60 minutes) and lowest in Tasmania (17.2 minutes) (figure 8.10).

Response — containment to room of origin

Another indicator of response effectiveness is ‘containment to the room of origin’ (box 8.8).

Box 8.8 Containment to the room of origin

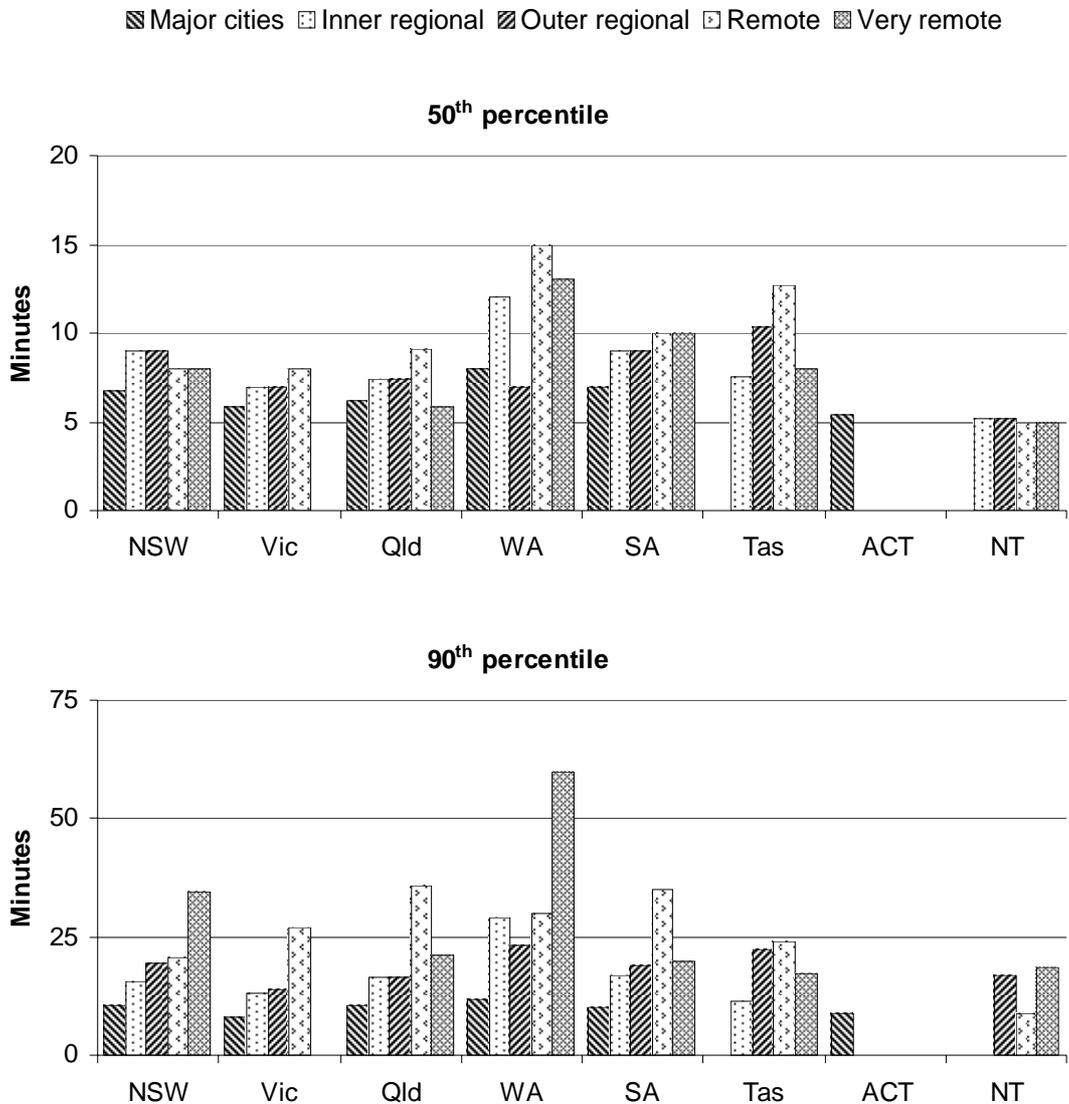
‘Containment to the room of origin’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire emergency events on the Australian community by response and mitigation strategies.

The indicator is defined as the number of structure fires contained to the object or room of origin divided by the total number of structure fires. Structure fires are those fires in housing and other buildings.

A higher proportion of structure fires contained to the object or room of origin is more desirable.

Nationally, the proportion of fires contained to the object or room of origin was 72.8 per cent in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the proportion was highest in the ACT (81.0 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (63.5 per cent) (figure 8.11).

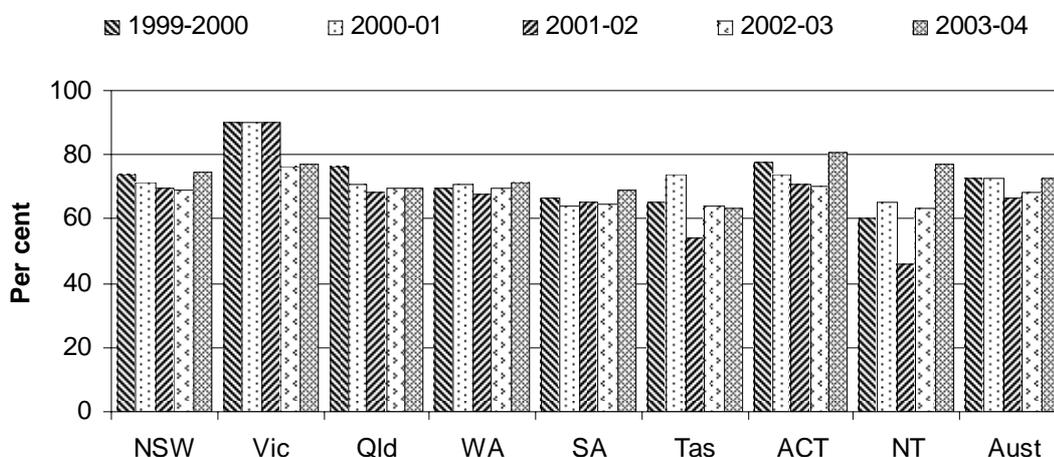
Figure 8.10 Response times to structure fires, by geographic area, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}



^a Differences between jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix, and system type (manual or CAD), affect the comparability of response times data. ^b NSW data include responses from the NSW Fire Brigades and the NSW Rural Fire Service. ^c For Victoria, response times figures for 2003-04 are consistent with the nationally agreed definition. Previously, Victorian data were not uniformly consistent with the nationally agreed definition because some inner metropolitan calls did not include all of the call processing time. ^d For Queensland, data collection procedures do not differentiate between responses made under normal road conditions and emergency responses. ^e WA data include both career (full time) and volunteer brigades. Response times in inner and outer regional, remote and very remote areas may be affected by the availability of volunteers, who have to travel from remote home or work locations to stations before they respond to an incident, which may also be at a distant location. ^f In SA, the Country Fire Service and the Metropolitan Fire Service do not have geocoded data. SA data include incident records with both alarm and arrival times. ^g For Tasmania, figures include data provided by all fire brigades, both full time and volunteer. ^h For the NT, data include auxiliary stations where response is generally made from home to station and then to the incident. Data do not include the NT Bushfires Council and some NT Fire and Rescue Service volunteer stations.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.14.

Figure 8.11 Structure fires contained to the object/room of origin^{a, b, c, d}



^a Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, SA and the ACT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^b NSW data exclude the NSW Rural Fire Service, but include responses to calls outside the NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. Due to data collection issues, 1999-2000 data are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of the incidents, and 2000-01 data are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. ^c Victorian data for 1999-2000 and 2001-02 exclude the Country Fire Authority. Data for 2002-03 and 2003-04 include the Country Fire Authority. ^d The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.15.

Outputs — recovery

The Steering Committee has identified recovery as a key area for further development in future reports (box 8.9).

Box 8.9 Performance indicator — recovery

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community through recovery has yet to be developed.

Outputs — efficiency

Efficiency indicators report on the unit cost of service delivery. The calculation of unit costs requires the specification of outputs. For fire service organisations, this is a difficult task, given the diversity of activities undertaken. The fire sector has considered a range of options for specifying outputs.

Expenditure per person

'Expenditure per person' is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering emergency management services (box 8.10). Fire service organisation funding per 1000 people is reported to show the contribution of governments and other funding sources. The quality of efficiency data improved for the 2003 Report, with the adoption of a consistent basis for reporting payroll tax. In the 2004 Report, total expenditure per person was reported for the first time (replacing total government expenditure per person less indirect and government and non-government revenue per person). Efficiency data are not fully comparable, however, because there are differences in the reporting of asset related costs.

Box 8.10 Expenditure per person

'Expenditure per person' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to deliver efficient emergency management services. The indicator is defined as fire service organisation expenditure per 1000 people.

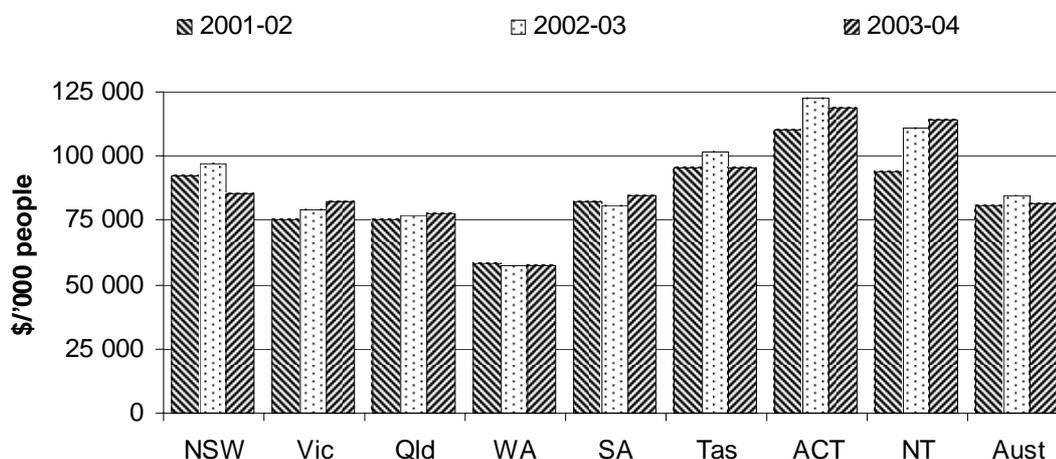
Expenditure is employed as a proxy for efficiency. Expenditure per fire is not used as a proxy for fire service organisation efficiency because an organisation that devotes more resources to the prevention and preparedness components to reduce the number of fire incidents could erroneously appear to be less efficient.

Holding other factors constant, lower expenditure per person represents greater efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high or increasing expenditure per person may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in aspects of the service (such as improved response) or the characteristics of fire events (such as more challenging fires). Similarly, low or declining expenditure per person may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (response times) or less challenging fires.

Expenditure is reported as the total cost (total direct and indirect government and other fire expenditure) of fire service organisations. Cost to government is reported as total government funding of fire service organisations. Total expenditure is a measure of efficiency for fire service organisations, and government funding is a measure of the cost to government of fire service organisations. Both are reported, because revenue from other sources is significant for a number of jurisdictions.

Nationally, the total expenditure on fire service organisations per 1000 people in 2003-04 was \$81 352. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$119 140 in the ACT to \$57 232 in WA (figure 8.12).

Figure 8.12 **Real fire service organisations expenditure (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Total fire expenditure includes levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges, fundraising and donations, and indirect revenue. ^b NSW fire service organisations data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 are artificially inflated by significant abnormal grants associated with natural disasters. ^c A property-based ESL was introduced in WA on 1 July 2003; insurance fire levies ended on 31 December 2003. For this transitional year, 2003-04 funding includes part insurance fire levy and part ESL. ^d User cost of capital in the NT includes assets for the NT Fire and Rescue Service only. Revenue from user charges includes the NT Fire and Rescue Service only, and other revenue includes the Bushfires Council only.

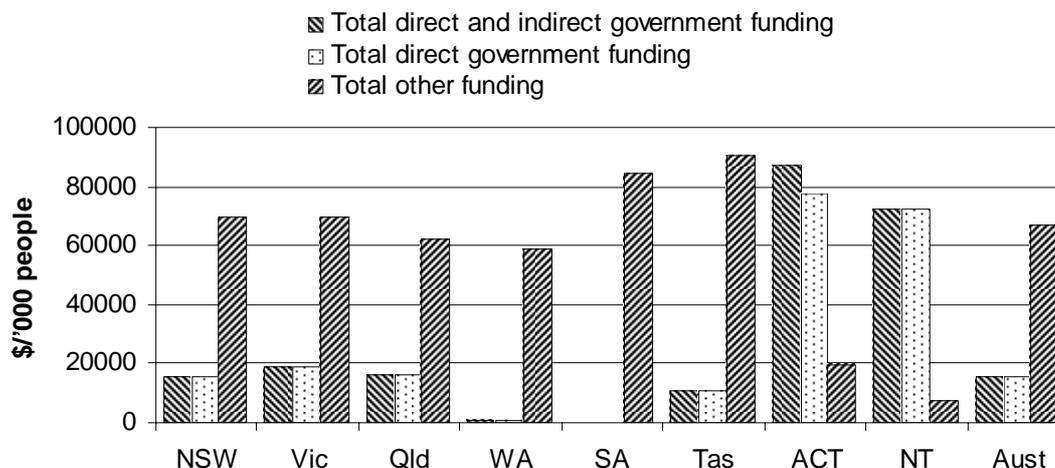
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.17.

Nationally, direct and indirect government funding of fire service organisations per 1000 people in 2003-04 was \$15 454. Across jurisdictions, it ranged from \$87 213 in the ACT to \$221 in SA. Direct government funding per 1000 people in 2003-04 was \$15 299 nationally, ranging across jurisdictions from \$77 663 in the ACT to \$221 in SA. Other funding per 1000 people was \$67 154 nationally, ranging across jurisdictions from \$90 281 in Tasmania to \$7381 in the NT (figure 8.13).

Outcomes

The indicators of outcomes reported here relate to the objective of ESOs to minimise the effect of fire on life, property and the environment. The ‘fire death rate’, ‘fire injury rate’, ‘median dollar losses from structure fire’ and ‘total property losses from structure fire’ are indicators of outcomes in terms of the effect of fire on life, property and the environment. Caution in interpreting data for some indicators must be exercised (given, for example, the relatively small number of deaths and the significant fluctuations from year to year), particularly for jurisdictions with relatively smaller populations.

Figure 8.13 Fire service organisation funding 2003-04^{a, b, c}



^a Total fire expenditure includes levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges, fundraising and donations, and indirect revenue. ^b A property-based ESL was introduced in WA on 1 July 2003; insurance fire levies ended on 31 December 2003. For this transitional year, 2003-04 funding includes part insurance fire levy and part ESL. ^c User cost of capital in the NT includes assets for the NT Fire and Rescue Service only. Revenue from user charges includes the NT Fire and Rescue Service only, and other revenue includes the Bushfires Council only.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.18.

Fire death rate

The 'fire death rate' is an indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fire events on the Australian community (box 8.11).

Box 8.11 Fire death rate

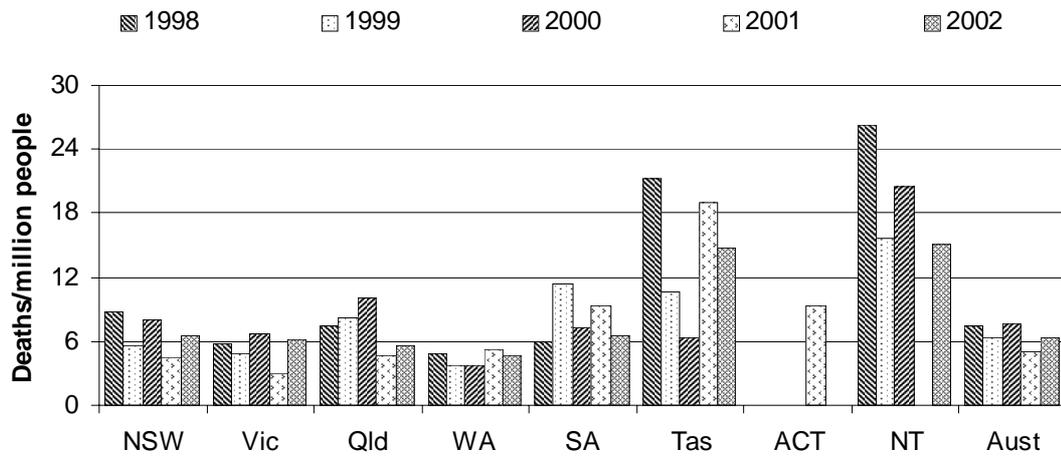
The 'fire death rate' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and enhance public safety.

The indicator is defined as the number of fire deaths per million people. A lower fire death rate represents a better outcome.

Nationally, there were 123 fire deaths in 2002. Exposure to smoke, fire and flames accounted for the largest proportion (81.3 per cent), followed by fire deaths from intentional self-harm by smoke, fire and flames (16.3 per cent) (table 8A.6). Nationally, the fire death rate was 6.3 deaths per million people in 2002. Across jurisdictions, the rate was highest in the NT (15.1 fire deaths per million people) and lowest in the ACT (no fire deaths) (figure 8.14).

Fire deaths data are volatile over time, given the small number of fire deaths. To overcome data volatility, a three year average fire death rate is reported. Nationally, the three year average fire death rate was 6.3 per million people for 2000–2002. Across jurisdictions, the three year average rate was highest in Tasmania (13.4 deaths per million people) and lowest in the ACT (3.1 deaths per million people) (table 8A.6).

Figure 8.14 Fire death rate^{a, b, c, d}



^a Fire deaths data are reported by the State or Territory of the deceased's usual residence, and by the year in which the death was registered. ^b The small number of deaths means it is difficult to establish patterns and provide detailed analysis. The rates fluctuate from year to year. This fluctuation demonstrates the data volatility, which must be taken into account in any interpretation of data. ^c The ACT had no fire deaths in 1998, 1999 and 2002. ^d The NT had no fire deaths in 2001.

Source: ABS Cat. no. 3303.0 (unpublished); table 8A.6.

Fire injury rate

The 'fire injury rate' is an indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fire events on the Australian community (box 8.12). Fire injuries are represented by hospital admissions and are reported by the State or Territory where the admission occurs (a person injured by fire may be treated more than once, and in more than one State or Territory).

Nationally, there were 2706 hospital admissions for fire injuries in 2002-03, or 13.6 admissions per 100 000 people. Among those jurisdictions for which data were available, the fire injury hospitalisation rate was highest in SA (17.2 fire injuries per 100 000 people) and lowest in Victoria (10.9 per 100 000 people) (figure 8.15).

Fire injury rates are volatile over time, given the small number of fire injuries. To overcome data volatility, a three year average fire injury rate is reported. Nationally,

the three year average rate for 2000-01 to 2002-03 was 14.5 per 100 000 people. Across jurisdictions, the three year average fire injury rate was highest in WA (18.3 fire injuries per 100 000 people) and lowest in Victoria (10.3 fire injuries per 100 000 people) (table 8A.7).

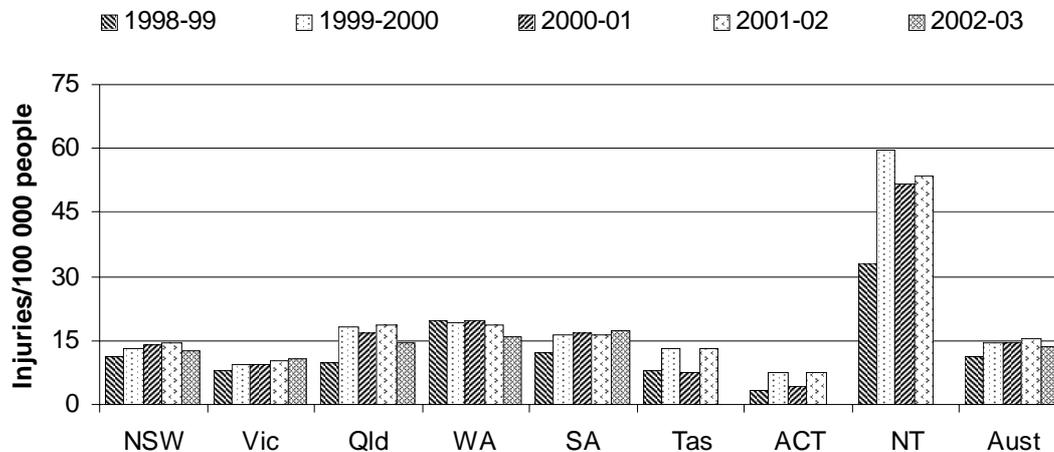
Box 8.12 Fire injury rate

The 'fire injury rate' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and enhance public safety.

The indicator is defined as the number of fire injuries per 1000 people. A lower fire injury rate represents a better outcome.

Fire injuries are represented by hospital admissions (excluding emergency department non-admitted casualties). Deaths from fire injuries after hospitalisation have been removed from the fire injuries data for the time series because these are counted in the fire death rate.

Figure 8.15 Fire injury rate^a



^a Fire injuries are defined as the number of hospital admissions to public and private hospitals. The data exclude emergency department non-admitted casualties and fire injuries arising from arson, secondary fires resulting from explosions, and transport accidents. Fire injuries are reported by the State or Territory in which the fire injury is treated.

Source: ABS (unpublished); AIHW (unpublished); table 8A.7.

Losses from structure fire

The 'median dollar losses from structure fire' (box 8.13) and the 'total property loss from structure fire' (box 8.14) are indicators of outcomes in terms of the effect of fire on property. These data (expressed in real terms) have not been adjusted for jurisdictional differences in the costs and values of various types of building. In addition, NSW, Queensland and the NT were able to provide data for urban fire services only, so the results across jurisdictions are not directly comparable. Further, the method of valuing property loss from fire varies across jurisdictions.

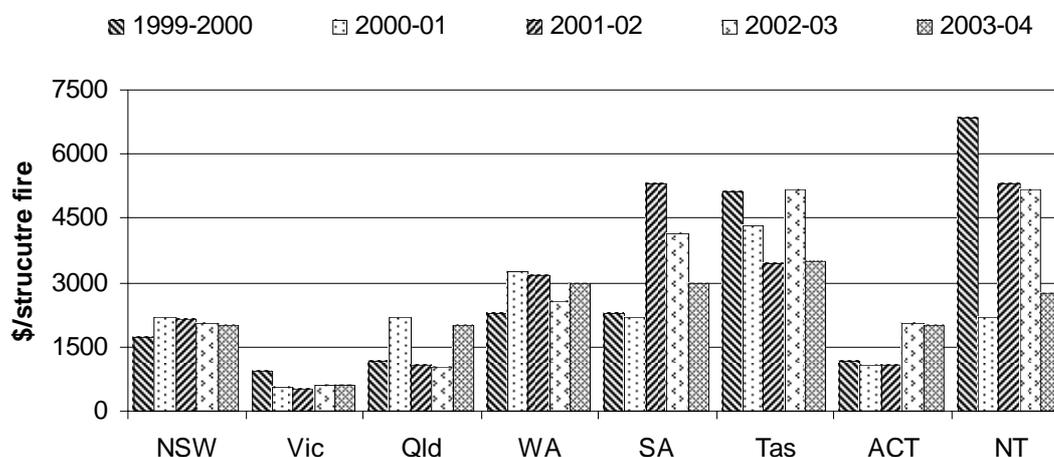
Box 8.13 Median dollar losses from structure fire

'Median dollar losses from structure fire' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community.

This indicator is defined as the median dollar losses from structure fire (a fire in housing or a building), adjusted for inflation. Lower median dollar losses represent a better outcome.

The median dollar loss in 2003-04 was highest in Tasmania (\$3500 per structure fire) and lowest in Victoria (\$600 per structure fire) (figure 8.16). Across jurisdictions, the real median dollar loss increased in Queensland and WA from 2002-03 to 2003-04, and decreased in all other jurisdictions (table 8A.8).

Figure 8.16 Real median dollar loss from structure fire (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}



- a** Real expenditure is based on the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26). Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences.
- b** Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, the ACT and the NT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both).
- c** NSW data are for the NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. Due to data collection issues, data for 1999-2000 are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of the incidents, and data for 2000-01 are from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. Data for 2001-02 include an outlier that resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million.
- d** For the ACT, data for 2002-03 exclude the January 2003 wildfire that destroyed over 500 houses and resulted in losses in excess of \$200 million.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.8.

Box 8.14 Total property losses from structure fire

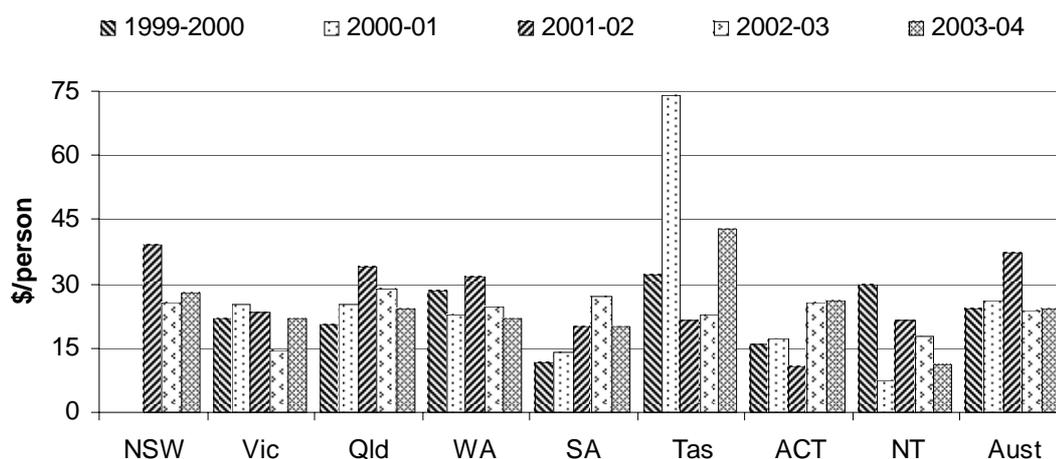
'Total property losses from structure' fire is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community.

This indicator is defined as the total property loss from structure fire (a fire in housing or a building) per person adjusted for inflation. Lower total property losses from structure fire per person represent better outcomes.

Nationally, the total property loss from structure fire in 2003-04 was \$24 per person. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in Tasmania (\$43 per person) and lowest in the NT (\$11 per person). The real total property loss increased from 2002-03 to 2003-04 in NSW, Victoria and Tasmania, and decreased in all other jurisdictions except the ACT, where it remained the same (figure 8.17).

Nationally, the three year average total dollar loss from structure fire to 2003-04 was \$28 per person. Across jurisdictions, the three year average total dollar loss from structure fires was highest in NSW (\$31 per person) and lowest in the NT (\$17 per person) (table 8A.9).

Figure 8.17 **Real total property loss from structure fire (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}**



a Real expenditure is based on the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26). Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences. **b** Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, the ACT and the NT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). **c** NSW data are for the NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. Data for 2001-02 include an outlier that resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million. No data are available for NSW for 1999-2000 and 2000-01. **d** For Queensland, data for all years except 2003-04 exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Services. Incidents with missing or nil dollar losses have been excluded. **e** For Tasmania, the small population size means figures are affected by single large-loss events. Increases have been influenced by rising property prices. **f** For the ACT, data for 2002-03 exclude the January 2003 wildfire which destroyed over 500 houses and resulted in losses in excess of \$200 million. **g** The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.9.

8.4 Ambulance events

This section provides information on the performance of ESOs in providing emergency management services for ambulance events. Ambulance events are incidents that result in demand for ambulance services to respond. They include the provision of emergency pre-hospital patient care and transport in response to sudden injury and illness; the retrieval of emergency patients; and the accessing of emergency pre-hospital patients (for example, in confined spaces and hazardous environments).

Emergency management services for ambulance events

Ambulance service organisations are the primary agencies involved in providing emergency management services for ambulance events. In a limited number of cases, however, other organisations provide services such as medical transport for emergencies (table 8A.38). The descriptive information provided below on funding, incidents and human resources are for ambulance service organisations only (although, as discussed in section 8.1, these organisations are involved in other activities in addition to providing ambulance event services).

Funding

Total funding of ambulance service organisations covered in this Report was \$1.2 billion in 2003-04. Nationally, real funding increased each year from 1999-2000 to 2003-04, with an average annual growth rate of 5.8 per cent. Across jurisdictions, real funding increased both each year and overall in Victoria, Queensland, WA, Tasmania and the NT; for all other jurisdictions, real funding did not increase every year, but it did increase overall between 1999-2000 to 2003-04 (table 8.3).

Table 8.3 **Real funding of ambulance service organisations (2003-04 dollars) (\$ million)^{a, b, c}**

	NSW ^d	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust ^e
1999-2000	294.5	224.6	223.8	64.0	78.2	16.8	9.8	9.8	921.5
2000-01	315.3	262.7	246.5	67.9	84.6	17.6	16.4	9.8	1 020.7
2001-02	298.4	283.5	247.9	68.9	92.1	17.6	10.4	10.2	1 030.0
2002-03	327.6	308.6	266.5	72.0	83.5	19.1	15.4	11.3	1 104.0
2003-04	331.2	319.6	286.1	77.7	93.7	19.6	13.1	11.6	1 152.5

^a Real funding is based on the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26).

^b Indirect revenue is counted in government grants in table 8A.19. Funding reported is the sum of government grants, subscription fees, transport fees, donations and miscellaneous revenue. ^c Due to differences in definitions and counting rules, data reported may differ from data in agency annual reports and other sources.

^d NSW has a subscription scheme but funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury.

^e Totals may not sum as a result of rounding.

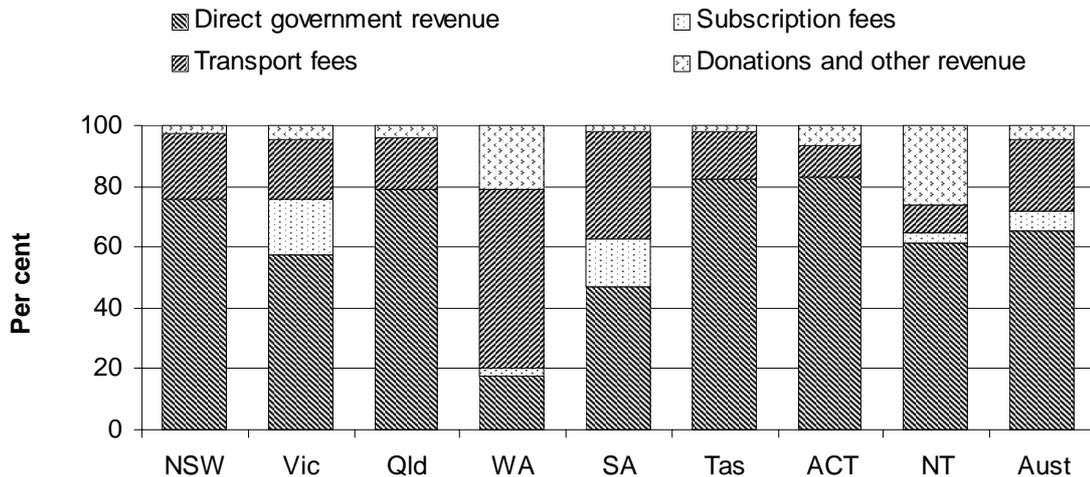
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.19.

Ambulance service organisations are funded by a variety of sources, with non-government sources making a significant contribution. The primary sources of funding across all jurisdictions in 2003-04 were grants from State and Territory governments, subscriptions, transport fees (from government hospitals, private citizens and insurance) and donations.

State and Territory governments were the largest contributors to ambulance service organisation funding in all states and territories except WA. The contribution from this level of government in 2003-04, including direct and indirect funding, was highest in the ACT (83.1 per cent) and lowest in WA (17.7 per cent). The primary source of funds in WA was transport fees (59.3 per cent) (figure 8.18).

All jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland and Tasmania received funding from subscriptions in 2003-04 (table 8A.19). There is an ambulance subscription scheme in NSW, but these funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury. Nationally, 64.4 per cent of funding for ambulance service organisations in 2003-04 was provided directly by government (figure 8.18).

Figure 8.18 **Major sources of ambulance service organisation funding, 2003-04^a**



^a NSW has a subscription scheme but funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.19.

Incidents

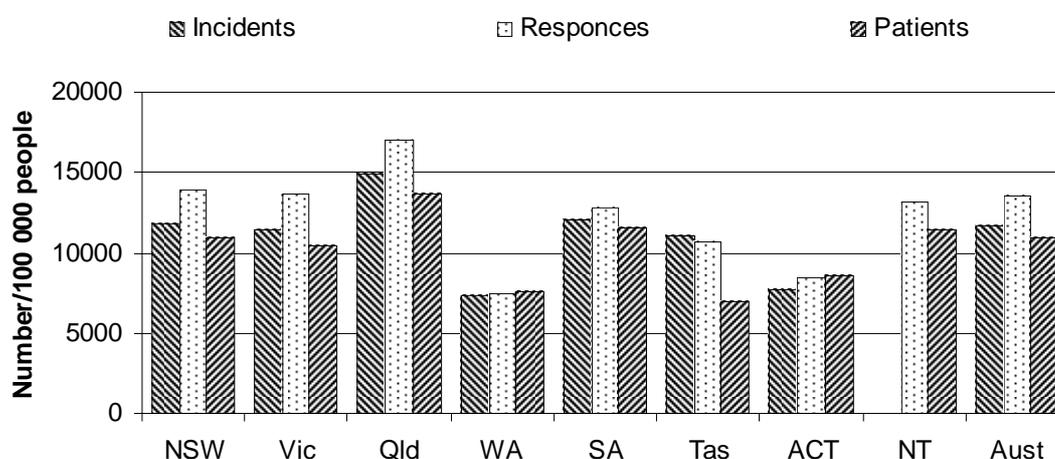
Ambulance services organisations attended 2.3 million incidents nationally in 2003-04. Most of these were emergency incidents (43.6 per cent), followed by non-emergency incidents (23.9 per cent) and urgent incidents (20.6 per cent). The proportion of emergency incidents was highest in NSW (65.5 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (25.6 per cent) (table 8A.20). Data for NSW are not strictly comparable with the data of other jurisdictions because NSW does not triage emergency calls. Urgent incident and response caseload data for NSW are included in emergency caseload figures.

Ambulance incidents, responses and patients per 100 000 people

The numbers of incidents, responses and patients are interrelated. Multiple responses/vehicles may be sent to a single incident, and there may be more than one patient per incident. There may also be responses to incidents that do not have people requiring treatment (so no patients).

Nationally, there were 11 682 incidents per 100 000 people, 13 547 responses per 100 000 people and 10 940 patients per 100 000 people in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the number of incidents per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (14 921) and lowest in WA (7387), and the number of responses per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (17 057) and lowest in WA (7398) (figure 8.19). For jurisdictions that were able to provide complete data, the number of patients per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (13 710) and lowest in WA (7520) (the number of patients per 100 000 people reported for Tasmania is not complete due to an extended period of industrial action resulting in loss of data).

Figure 8.19 **Reported ambulance incidents, responses and patients, 2003-04**^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



^a An incident is an event that results in a demand for ambulance resources to respond. An ambulance response is a vehicle or vehicles sent to an incident. Multiple responses/vehicles may be sent to a single incident. A patient is someone assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service. ^b NSW does not triage emergency calls. Urgent incident and response caseload are included in emergency caseload figures. ^c For Queensland, 2002-03 incidents, response and patient data are extracted from the Ambulance Integrated Information Management System, based on patient care records. Incident and response data for 2003-04 are extracted from the Queensland Ambulance Case Information Reporting system using CAD data, so data are not directly comparable. Total fleet road kilometres include operational vehicles only. ^d WA does not have a policy of automatically dispatching more than one unit to an incident unless advised of more than one patient. ^e For Tasmania, the number of patients transported in 2003-04 may not be complete because an extended period of industrial action may have resulted in loss of data. ^f For the NT, a response is counted as an incident.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.20.

Nationally, between 2002-03 and 2003-04, the number of incidents fell by 9.0 per cent, the number of responses increased by 3.9 per cent and the number of patients increased by 1.2 per cent (table 8A.20).

Human resources

Data on human resources for ambulance service organisations are reported by operational status on an FTE basis to provide a detailed description of the human resources profile for ambulance service organisations. Human resources include any person involved in delivering an ambulance service or managing the delivery of this service, including:

- ambulance operatives (including patient transport officers, students and base level ambulance officers, qualified ambulance officers, other clinical personnel and communications operatives)
- operational and corporate support personnel (including management, operational planners and coordinators, education and training personnel, corporate support personnel, non-operative communications and technical personnel)
- remunerated and non-remunerated volunteers (including any paid and unpaid volunteer personnel providing ambulance services on an on-call basis, and corporate support).

Nationally, 10 088 FTE salaried personnel were involved in the delivery of ambulance services in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, the number of FTE salaried ambulance personnel ranged from 3301 people in NSW to 117 people in the NT. The majority of salaried ambulance personnel in 2003-04 were ambulance operatives (81.6 per cent). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 86.8 per cent in NSW to 63.3 per cent in the NT (table 8A.20).

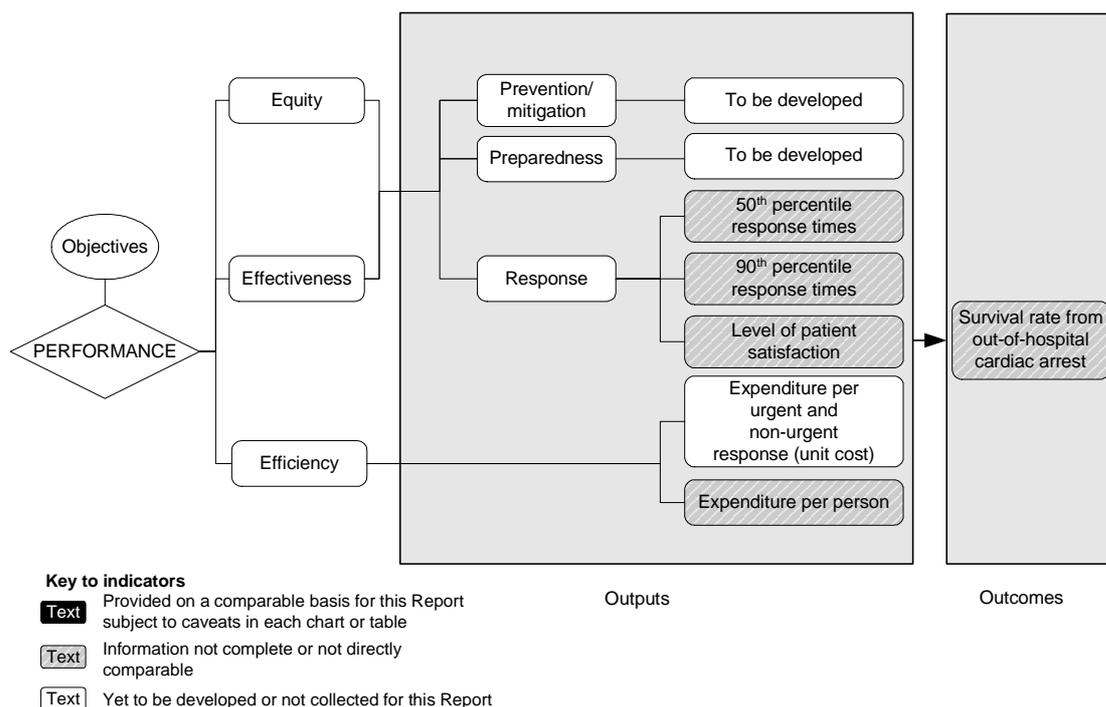
Nationally, 5951 volunteer ambulance personnel (comprising 4724 ambulance operatives and 1227 support personnel) participated in the delivery of ambulance services in 2003-04. The number of volunteers varied across jurisdictions, from 2720 in WA to zero in the ACT. In addition to ambulance operative volunteers, operational and corporate support volunteers participated in service delivery in WA (1026), SA (200) and the NT (one). Given the decentralised structure of its ambulance service operations, WA has a high number of volunteer operational and corporate support personnel (table 8A.21).

Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.20 presents the performance indicator framework for ambulance events that has been developed from the general framework for all ESOs (figure 8.1). Definitions of all indicators are provided in section 8.8. Performance has been reported for a number of indicators, but different delivery contexts, locations and types of client may affect these indicators. Appendix A contains demographic and socioeconomic data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this section.

The performance indicator framework for ambulance events shows which data are comparable in the 2005 Report. For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 8.20 Performance indicators for ambulance events



The performance indicators for ambulance events have been provided at the State and Territory government level in the Report since 1998. Evaluation of performance has been limited, however, by factors that make comparisons difficult. Comparison of the small, urban Government operated ACT Ambulance Service with the privately operated St John Ambulance Service in the NT or the large Statewide NSW Ambulance Service, for example, is limited by both demographic and corporate governance issues.

The effect of volunteer activity has implications for the interpretation of financial and non-financial performance indicators in this chapter. Notional wages costs for volunteers are not reflected in monetary estimates of inputs or outputs, which means that some data for performance indicators may be biased where the input of volunteers is not counted but affects outputs and outcomes. This issue may be explored in the future as the Review continues to examine data on rural and remote service provision in the emergency services sector.

There are difficulties in identifying useful and reliable indicators of prevention/preparedness, given that other elements of both the health and justice systems are involved in these areas.

Key performance indicator results

Outputs — equity and effectiveness

Prevention/mitigation

The Steering Committee has identified prevention/mitigation as a key area for development in future reports (box 8.15).

Box 8.15 Performance indicator — prevention/ mitigation

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of emergencies requiring ambulance services on the Australian community through prevention and mitigation strategies has yet to be developed.

Preparedness

The Steering Committee has identified preparedness as a key area for development in future reports (box 8.16).

Box 8.16 Performance indicator — preparedness

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the effects of emergencies requiring ambulance services on the Australian community through preparedness strategies has yet to be developed.

Response

Indicators of response include the times during which 50 per cent and 90 per cent of first responding ambulance resources respond in code 1 situations, and the level of patient satisfaction (figure 8.20).

Response — 50th and 90th percentile response times

The 50th and 90th percentile response times for ambulance service organisations provide an important measure of response activities (box 8.17). Response time data need to be viewed with care, however, because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions:

- Response time data for some jurisdictions represent responses to urban, rural and remote areas, while others include urban areas only.
- Responses in some jurisdictions include responses from volunteer stations where turnout times are generally longer because volunteers are on call rather than on duty.
- Response times can be affected by the dispersion of the population (particularly rural/urban population proportions), topography, road/transport infrastructure and traffic densities.

While definitions of response times are consistent, not all jurisdictions have systems in place to capture all components of response time for all cases from the time of the call to arrival at the scene.

Box 8.17 50th and 90th percentile response times

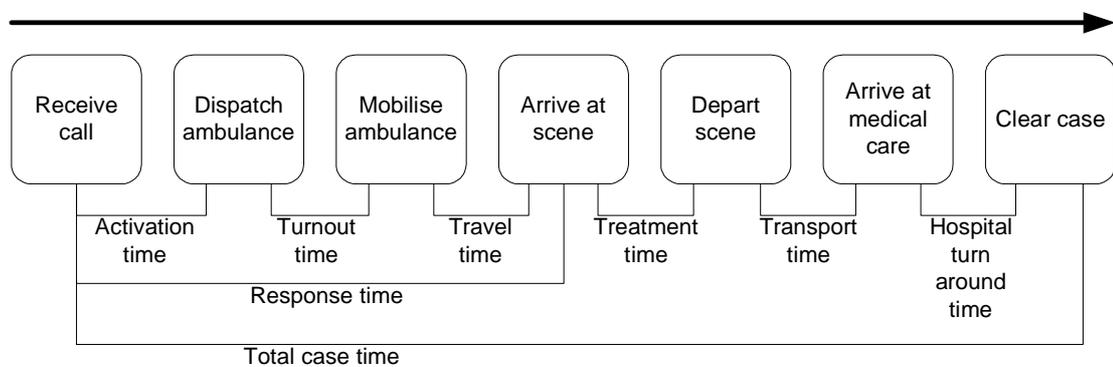
The 50th and 90th percentile response times are included as output indicators of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of emergencies requiring ambulance services on the Australian community through timely response.

The indicator '50th percentile response time', is defined as the time within which 50 per cent of the first responding ambulance resources arrive at the scene of an emergency in code 1 situations. Similarly, '90th percentile response time', is the time within which 90 per cent of the first responding ambulance resources arrive at the scene of an emergency in code 1 situations. Shorter response times are more desirable.

The response time is defined as the time taken between the initial receipt of the call for an emergency ambulance and the ambulance's arrival at the scene of the emergency (figure 8.21). Emergency responses are categorised by an assessment of the severity of the medical problem:

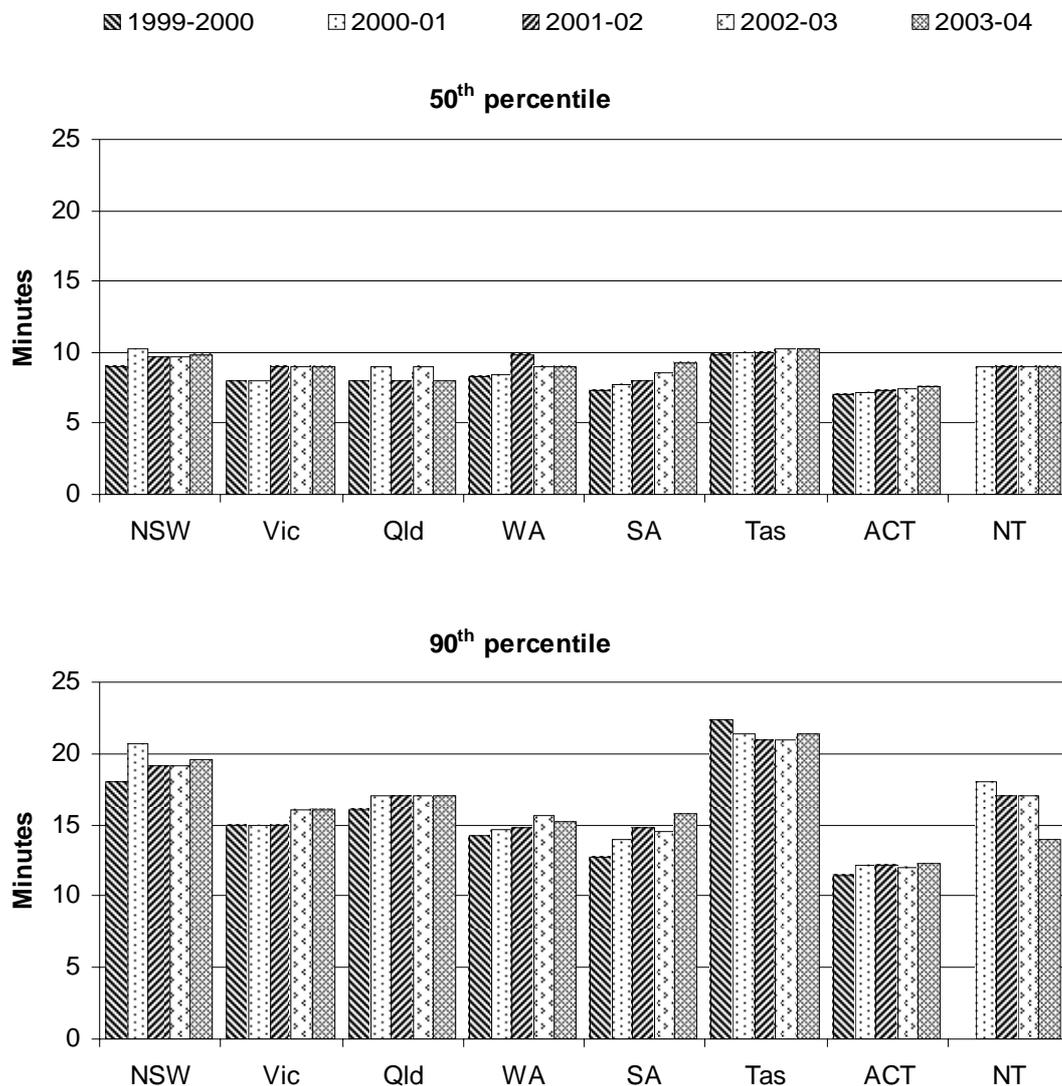
- code 1 — responses to potentially life threatening situations using warning devices
- code 2 — responses to acutely ill patients (not in life threatening situations) where attendance is necessary but no warning devices are used.

Figure 8.21 Response time points and indicators for ambulance events



In 2003-04, the '50th percentile response time' was highest in Tasmania (10.3 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (7.5 minutes). The '90th percentile response' time was also highest in Tasmania (21.3 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (12.3 minutes) (figure 8.22).

Figure 8.22 Ambulance response times^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Differences across jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix and system type for capturing data affect the comparability of response time data. ^b NSW does not triage emergency calls. Results for code 1 cases represent '000' and urgent medical incidents. ^c For Queensland, casualty room attendances are not included in response count, so are not reflected in response times data. Response times are reported from the CAD data. ^d WA data relate to urban responses only. ^e Most of Tasmania's population lives in regional areas (appendix A).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.24.

Response — level of patient satisfaction

Another indicator of response is the 'level of patient satisfaction' (box 8.18). The performance of ambulance service organisations in providing response services can be measured in terms of the satisfaction of those people who directly used the service (table 8A.25). Data for 2002 to 2004 were collected by jurisdictions and collated by the Convention of Ambulance Authorities (CAA).

Box 8.18 Level of patient satisfaction

The 'level of patient satisfaction' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of emergencies requiring ambulance services on the Australian community by meeting patient needs.

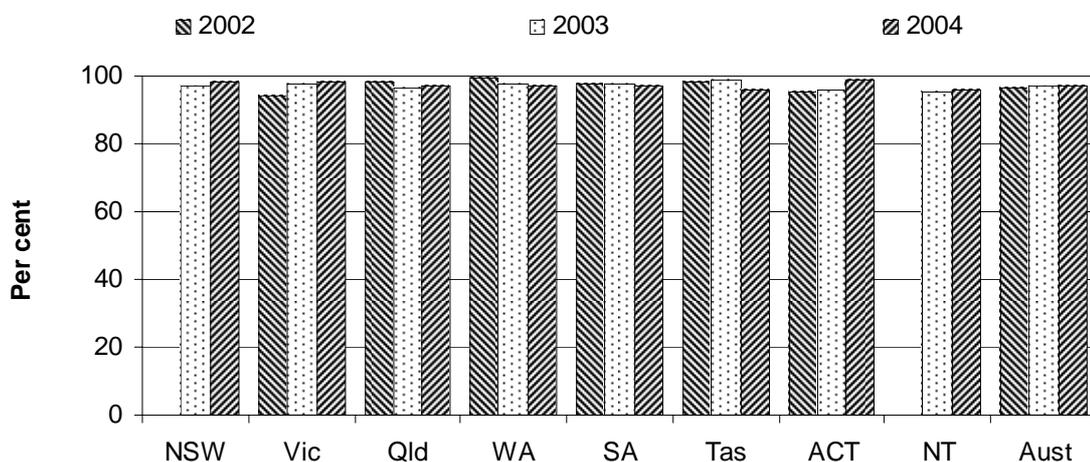
The indicator is defined as the total number of patients who were either 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with ambulance services they had received in the previous 12 months, divided by the total number of patients.

A higher level or increase in the proportion of patients who were either 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' suggests greater success in meeting patient needs.

This indicator does not provide information on why some patients were not satisfied. It also does not provide information on the level of patient expectations.

The CAA surveyed approximately 4183 of the 2.2 million ambulance patients nationally who used an ambulance service in 2004 (table 8A.25). The satisfaction level for ambulance patients nationally increased slightly to 97.3 per cent in 2004 from 97.1 per cent in 2003 (figure 8.23).

Figure 8.23 Proportion of ambulance users who were satisfied or very satisfied with the ambulance service^{a, b, c}



^a Based on a survey of people who used an ambulance service in the previous 12 months. Jurisdictions conducted the surveys at various times during 2002, 2003 and 2004. ^b Reported categories differ from 2002 to 2003, enabling comparisons of these years in two aggregated categories only. ^c Data for NSW and the NT were not available for 2002.

Source: CAA (2002, 2003); table 8A.24.

Across jurisdictions, the proportion of ambulance users who were either very satisfied or satisfied increased in 2004 in all jurisdictions except WA, SA and

Tasmania. The proportion was highest in the ACT (99.0 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (96.0 per cent) (table 8A.25).

Outputs — efficiency

The main efficiency indicator is expenditure by ambulance service organisations per 1000 people. Funding of ambulance service organisations per 1000 people is also reported to show the contribution of governments and other funding sources. Care needs to be exercised when interpreting efficiency data, however, because differences in the reporting of asset-related costs mean data are not fully comparable across jurisdictions.

Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response

The Steering Committee has identified ‘expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response’ as an indicator of the efficiency with which governments deliver ambulance services. Data for this indicator, however, were not available for the 2005 Report (box 8.19).

Box 8.19 Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response

‘Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response’ has been identified for development as an output indicator of governments’ objective to deliver efficient emergency management services.

Expenditure per person

‘Expenditure per person’ is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering emergency management services (box 8.20). Care needs to be taken when comparing data across jurisdictions, however, because there are differences in the reporting of a range of cost items and funding arrangements (funding policies and taxing regimes). Some jurisdictions, for example, have a greater proportion of government funding compared with other jurisdictions.

Nationally, total expenditure on ambulance service organisations per 1000 people was \$58 664 in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, Queensland had the highest expenditure rate (\$73 059) and WA had the lowest (\$34 217) (figure 8.24).

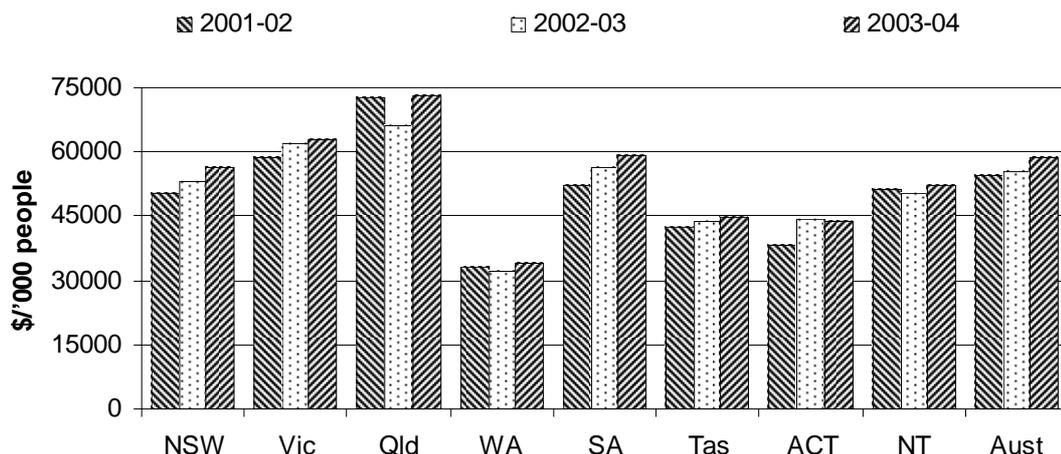
Box 8.20 Expenditure per person

'Expenditure per person' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to deliver efficient emergency management services.

The indicator is defined as ambulance service organisation expenditure per 1000 people. Expenditure is reported as the total cost (total direct and indirect government and other ambulance expenditure) of ambulance service organisations. The cost to government is reported as total government funding of these organisations. Total expenditure is a measure of efficiency for ambulance services, and government funding is a measure of the cost to government of ambulance service organisations. Both are reported, because revenue from other sources is significant for a number of jurisdictions.

Holding other factors constant, a decrease in expenditure per person represents an improvement in efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high or increasing expenditure per person may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in aspects of the service (such as improved response) or changes in the characteristics of emergencies requiring ambulance services (such as more serious para-medical challenges). Similarly, low or declining expenditure per person may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (slower response times) or less severe cases.

Figure 8.24 Real ambulance service organisations expenditure (2003-04 dollars)

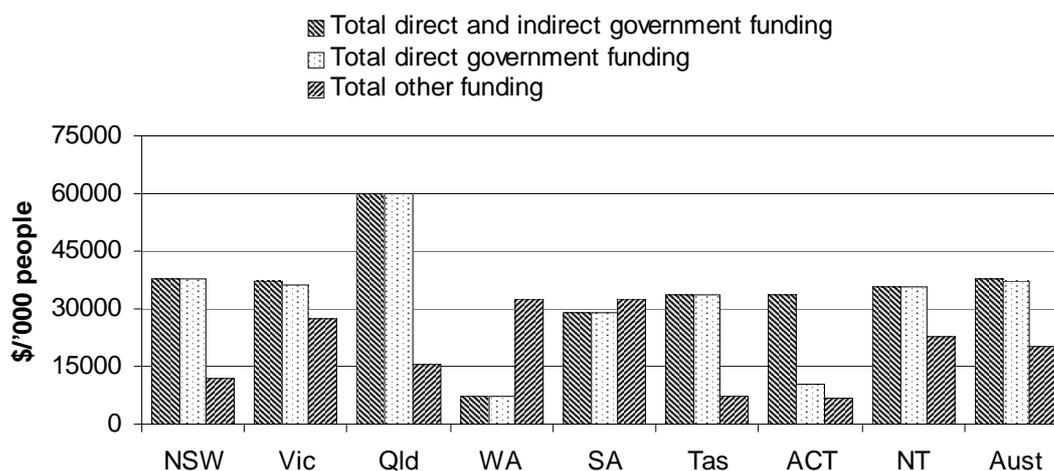


Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.26 and 8A.27.

Nationally, direct and indirect government funding on ambulance service organisations per 1000 people was \$37 936 in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in Queensland (\$59 764) and lowest in WA (\$7033). Nationally, direct government funding per 1000 people was \$37 319. Across jurisdictions,

Queensland had the highest funding rate (\$59 764) and WA had the lowest (\$7033) (figure 8.25).

Figure 8.25 **Ambulance service organisations funding, 2003-04^a**



^a Total government ambulance expenditure per person was reported in the 2004 Report for the time series, replacing total ambulance service organisation expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue per person. Non-government revenue is now termed 'other revenue' because some items in this category (for example, the Department of Veterans' Affairs) are not strictly non-government.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.28.

Outcomes

Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest

The measure of outcomes for ambulance events is the survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest (box 8.21).

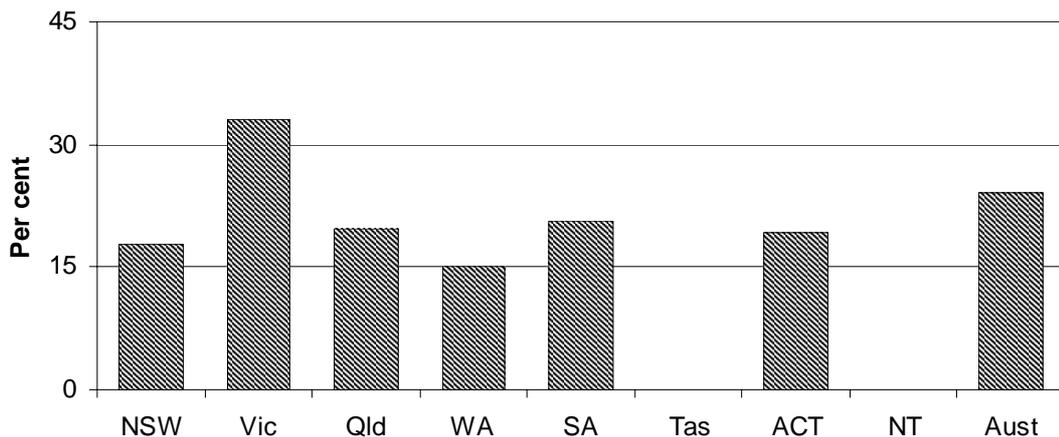
Box 8.21 Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest

'Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of emergencies requiring ambulance services on the Australian community.

The indicator is defined as the percentage of patients aged 16 years and over in bystander (not paramedic) witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac origin on whom resuscitation was attempted and who had vital signs on arrival at hospital. Higher survival rates represent better outcomes.

Nationally, the survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest was 24.1 per cent in 2003-04. Across jurisdictions that provided data, the survival rate was highest in Victoria (33.1 per cent) and lowest in WA (15.1 per cent) (figure 8.26).

Figure 8.26 **Cardiac arrest survival rate, 2003-04^{a, b, c}**



^a Data published in the 2005 Report for this indicator are not comparable with data published in previous reports. ^b The definition of witnessed cardiac arrest survival rates relates to the percentage of patients aged 16 years or over in bystander (not paramedic) witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac origin on whom resuscitation was attempted and who had vital signs on arrival at hospital. ^c The ACT survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrests data is a six year rolling average.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.23.

8.5 Road rescue events

A road rescue event is an accident or incident involving a motor vehicle and the presumption that there are injuries or that assistance is required from ESOs.

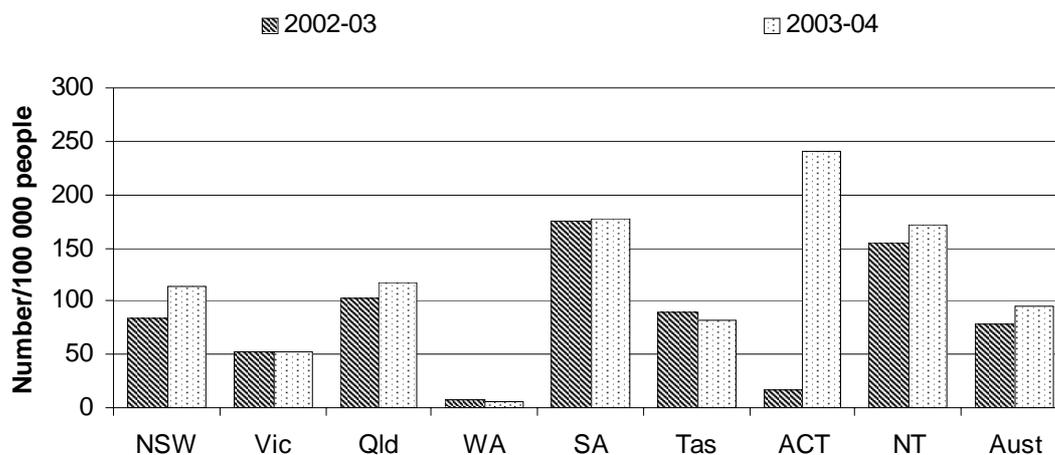
Emergency management services for road rescue events

In all jurisdictions, a diverse range of ESOs provide emergency management services for road rescue events. In some jurisdictions several agencies provide road rescue services, although the trend is towards consolidation. In most jurisdictions, SES/TES have an important role in providing road rescue services, although this is not always the case. In Tasmania, for example, the State ambulance service provides road rescue services, while in NSW road rescue services are provided by five organisations: the NSW Ambulance Service, NSW Fire Brigades, NSW SES, the Volunteer Rescue Association and the NSW Police Service.

Number of reported road rescue incidents

Nationally, there were 18 915 road rescue incidents in 2003-04, or 95.1 incidents per 100 000 people (table 8A.29). Across jurisdictions, the number of road rescue incidents per 100 000 people was highest in the ACT (239.8) and lowest in WA (6.1) (figure 8.27).

Figure 8.27 **Reported road rescue incidents** ^{a, b, c}



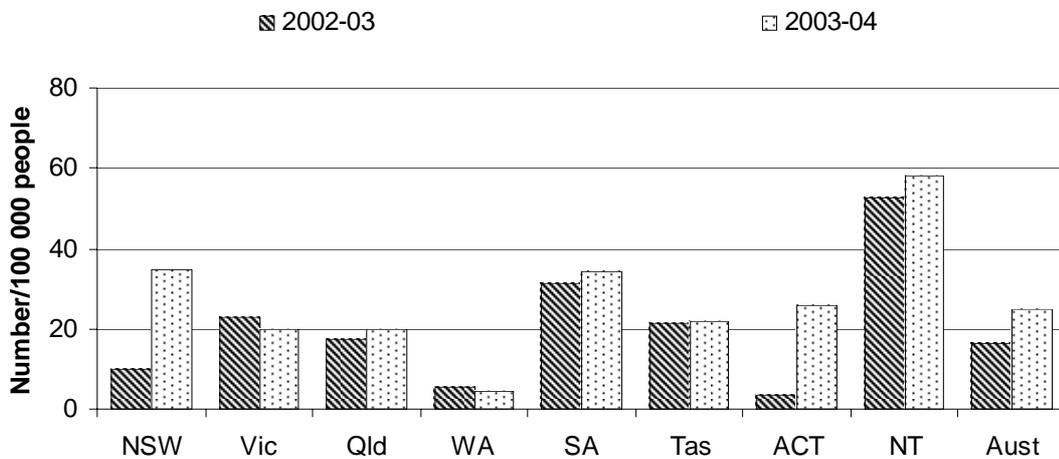
^a Five organisations provide road rescue services in NSW. Data for 2002-03 have been reported by the NSW Ambulance Service and the NSW Fire Brigades, and data for 2003-04 data have been reported by all five organisations: NSW Ambulance Service, NSW Fire Brigades, NSW SES, the Volunteer Rescue Association and the NSW Police Service. ^b WA data for 2002-03 include 42 road rescues by SES and 2003-04 data include 32 road rescues by SES. ^c For Tasmania, data include responses by fire service organisations, ambulance service organisations and SES.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.29.

Number of reported road rescue extrications

Nationally, there were 4986 extrications in 2003-04, or 25.1 extrications per 100 000 people (table 8A.29). The number of extrications per 100 000 people was highest in the NT (58.0) and lowest in WA (4.6) (figure 8.28).

Figure 8.28 Reported road rescue extrications ^{a, b, c}



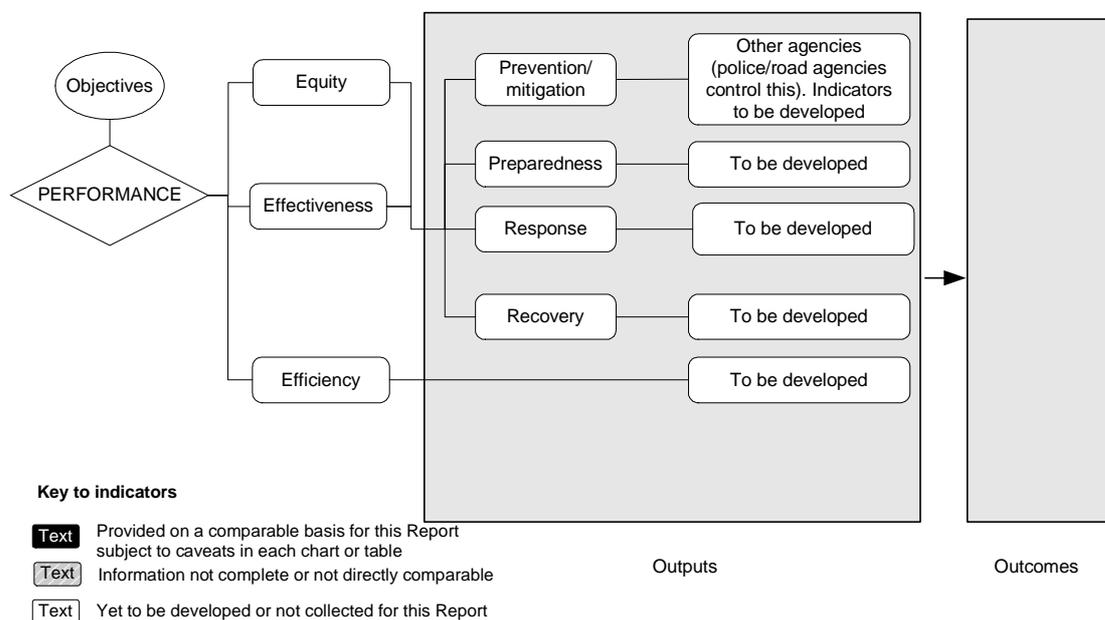
^a Five organisations provide road rescue services in NSW. Data for 2002-03 have been reported by the NSW Ambulance Service and the NSW Fire Brigades, and data for 2003-04 data have been reported by all five organisations: NSW Ambulance Service, NSW Fire Brigades, NSW SES, the Volunteer Rescue Association and the NSW Police Service. ^b WA data for 2002-03 include 12 extrications by SES, and 2003-04 data include eight extrications by SES. ^c For Tasmania, data include responses by fire service organisations, ambulance service organisations and SES.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.30.

Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.29 presents the performance indicator framework for road rescue events that has been developed from the general framework for emergency management (figure 8.1).

Figure 8.29 Performance indicators for road rescue events



Key performance indicator results

No performance indicators are reported this year for road rescue services. Work is being undertaken to develop and report performance indicators for road rescue events for future reports. Prevention/mitigation indicators for road safety and traffic management, however, are reported in chapter 5 ('Police services'). Road rescue data are closely related to the road safety and traffic management data reported.

8.6 Future directions in performance reporting

A number of developments are underway to improve data quality and comparability, and to expand the scope of reporting on emergency services.

Performance reporting of emergency events

The 2005 Report is the first year for which performance reporting is based on emergency events, rather than on the performance of ESOs. An aim of future reporting is to provide more information on the range of government resources committed to the management of emergency events. Financial indicators, for example, are expected to be developed based on total jurisdiction expenditure on the various types of events reported rather than on the type of ESO as reported in the 2005 Report.

Expanding the scope of reporting

The Survey of Emergency Management Activities undertaken in 2000 identified the agencies involved in various event-type services (table 8A.38). Road rescue was selected as the next event-type service to report, and initial reporting has occurred. The road rescue performance indicator framework is expected to be reported against more fully in the future.

Other event-type services for which performance reporting has yet to be developed include: rescues (other than road rescues); natural events (other than landscape fires); technological and hazardous material incidents; emergency relief and recovery; and quarantine and disease control.

Improving data comparability and completeness

Work to improve the comparability and accuracy of data is underway. Performance indicators for fire, ambulance and road rescue service organisations are being improved with the assistance of Australasian Fire Authorities Council, the CAA and the Australian Council for State/Territory Emergency Services. These organisations will continue to expand the scope of the road rescue data collected, and to refine data items and data definitions.

8.7 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter. These data cover a range of demographic and geographic characteristics, including age profile, geographic distribution of the population, income levels, education levels, tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (including Indigenous and ethnic status).

New South Wales Government comments

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The NSW Government continues its commitment to enhancing community safety, quality of life and confidence, by minimising the impact of hazards and emergency incidents on the people, environment and economy of NSW. In support of this commitment emergency service organisations in 2003-04 undertook the following:

- introduced a phone-in online reporting system for SES Road Crash Rescue accredited units to report call-out details and ensure the collection of timely and quality data
- introduced a Critical Incident Support Program to provide counselling support to all SES volunteers but primarily Road Crash Rescue Teams
- continued implementation of the reforms arising from the *Rural Fires and Environmental Assessment Legislation Amendment Act 2002* which requires the NSW Rural Fire Service to advise on and in some circumstances approve development applications in bush fire prone areas, and streamlining the approval process for hazard reduction activities
- implemented a further 25 community fire units taking the total to 250 units operated by 4200 volunteer members, and
- the Ambulance Service of NSW, which comes within the Health portfolio, strengthened systems to improve the safety and quality of pre-hospital emergency clinical practice and established over 100 new ambulance officer and clinical training positions.

The recommendations from the national Review of Natural Disaster Relief and Mitigation Arrangements are welcomed and supported by the emergency service organisations, and will ensure that Australia has a world-class national framework for natural disaster management thus achieving safer, more sustainable communities, and reduced risk, damage and losses.

The Federal Government's commitment to fund, in partnership with the states and territories, the National Aerial Fire-fighting Strategy will also contribute to the achievement of emergency management outcomes. The strategy establishes a national aerial fire fighting response resource to ensure fire-fighting aircraft are strategically located across Australia according to the prevailing fire conditions, and that these resources are deployed more effectively around the nation.

A decline in the rate of fire incidents per 100 000 persons in NSW over recent times parallels increased investment in prevention and risk management. Each incident averted represents a reduction in the loss and cost borne by people and businesses in NSW. However, emergency service organisations need better information to assess these social costs and to identify which prevention and risk management activities work best. To improve this information, NSW emergency service organisations and the NSW Office of the Australian Bureau of Statistics have initiated development of a national Information Development Plan for Emergency Management, and all other jurisdictions are now actively participating in this initiative.

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Victorian Government comments

“ The Report of the Inquiry into the 2002–2003 Victorian Bushfire was published in October 2003. This independent inquiry that was chaired by the Emergency Services Commissioner Bruce Esplin made 148 separate recommendations, all of which have been accepted by Government. Initiatives include; extra fuel reduction burning, increased fire fighting capacity and general forest stewardship, fire road upgrades, new equipment, fire trucks and fire stations as well as a number of other projects to be delivered by a range of emergency management agencies. The 2004-05 Victorian State Budget allocated \$168 million over the next four years to fund the recommendations of the Esplin Inquiry.

A new independent statutory Emergency Services Telecommunications Authority (ESTA) is being established to improve Victoria's emergency call taking and dispatch services. ESTA will have legislative responsibility for handling emergency calls referred from Telstra's '000' call system and dispatching police, fire and ambulance, formerly the function of Emergency Communications Victoria (ECV), a state owned enterprise.

ESTA will also support phase one of the government's \$400 million Statewide Integrated Public Safety and Communications Strategy (SIPSaCS) that includes deploying data terminals in emergency services vehicles, a digital radio network and a new emergency alerting system for Victoria's emergency services volunteers. ESTA will commence operations in early 2005 and provide a single point of responsibility for the management of emergency services telecommunications ensuring increased accountability and transparency in service delivery. ESTA will be subject to performance monitoring by the Office of the Emergency Services Commissioner as well as the Auditor-General.

2003-04 saw the expansion of Victorian ambulance services. In rural Victoria this included the provision of additional professional paramedics in major urban centres and the upgrade of a number of regional stations from one to two officer crews. The Metropolitan area saw the establishment of two new 24-hour teams, with four additional teams to be fully operational in new locations in 2004-05.

Following the successful implementation of four Community Emergency Response Teams (CERT's) in 2002-03 (a volunteer-based basic life support service in isolated Victorian townships), the program was further expanded throughout Victoria. A Non-emergency Patient Transport Act was passed which provides for the licensing of non-emergency providers' accreditation of public duty attendance services. In consultation with the patient care transport industry and statutory bodies, work has commenced on the development of draft standards as the basis for the regulation of the non-emergency patient transport sector.

Amendments were also made to the *Ambulance Services Act 1986* to strengthen the governance provisions, increase the protection of paramedics from assault and to improve the ability of the ambulance services to collect fees for services provided.

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Queensland Government comments

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The Queensland Government continues its commitment to ensuring safer and more secure Queensland communities through the delivery of cost effective, coordinated and integrated emergency services, and the further strengthening of governance arrangements.

Demand for ambulance services continued to escalate at a rate consistent with the trend of previous years. In response, Queensland Ambulance Service (QAS) employed an additional 110 paramedics during 2003-04, and will recruit a further 240 paramedics over the following three financial years to enhance operational service delivery. QAS is also addressing roster reform, review of station work practices and further developing the Patient Transport Service. QAS has continued to establish and support Community First Responders to enhance service delivery in rural and remote areas. QAS is also continuing its work, in conjunction with other agencies, to develop strategies that increase community awareness of injury and illness prevention and increase individual and community capacity to intervene appropriately should injury or sudden illness occur.

Queensland Fire and Rescue Service (QFRS) spent approximately 162 000 hours carrying out fire safety, safety promotion and public education activities in 2003-04, including 11 161 building fire safety inspections of premises (other than private dwellings). Following the Childers incident in 2000, fire safety laws in Queensland were reviewed. Consequently the *Building and Other Legislation Amendment Act 2002* (BOLA) was established and commenced in July 2002 to ensure assessment and compliance of a range of fire safety criteria for budget accommodation. The second upgrade to budget accommodation is due by 1 July 2005. For some buildings this may involve structural alterations or additional fire safe features to comply with the remaining fire safety requirements.

In 2003 the Queensland Government endorsed a whole-of-Government approach to counter terrorism measures. A State Counter Terrorism Plan will follow the endorsement of a State Counter Terrorism Strategy. The Strategy and the Plan are supported by the newly proclaimed *Disaster Management Act 2003*, which provides the structures, functions and powers required to facilitate the prevention of, preparedness for, response to and recovery from disaster events, including those caused by human acts or omissions. QFRS has established the Special Operations Unit to manage and coordinate counter terrorism related issues on behalf of the Queensland Department of Emergency Services. This includes technical rescue, hazardous materials management and major event planning. In addition, QFRS continues to develop urban/rural interface (iZone) initiatives, including community awareness initiatives, to build readiness, response and recovery capabilities, which will mitigate the risk of bushfire in these areas.”

Western Australian Government comments



The WA Government works with the people of Western Australia to improve community safety practices and to provide timely, quality and effective emergency services to a state with an area of over 2.5 million square kilometres and 12 000 kilometres of coastline. Over 500 000 people live outside the Perth metropolitan area, but populations are widely scattered with only 149 settlements having over 200 people. Increasingly multi-skilled and multifunctional emergency services units are being introduced to address the problem of declining volunteers in rural and remote areas.

A major success this year has been the further enhancement of the State's counter terrorism capability. Many firefighters in WA received varying levels of training for chemical, biological, radiological and explosive hazards as well as urban search and rescue. New protective suits, other sensing equipment and specialist rescue gear were provided through State and Federal funding.

2003-04 was the transitional year for the new property-based Emergency Services Levy (ESL). Although the ESL was introduced on 1 July 2003, for the first six months funding was also still received via the old insurance fire levy. Despite the complicated nature of the reform, the introduction was remarkably smooth. The messages of greater transparency, accountability and more emphasis on resource allocation based on need, rather than ability to pay, were successfully conveyed to the community. Generally the new arrangements have met with a positive response from emergency services volunteers and the majority of local governments.

This year also marked the launch of a dedicated emergency rescue helicopter service, primarily operating in a 200 km radius of Perth, servicing 90 per cent of the State's population of 2 million people. However, with refuelling en route, rescues have also been undertaken in Esperance, Carnarvon and Albany. A critical care paramedic is onboard to support the primary use of the helicopter in providing the best specialist medical care in the shortest possible time following an emergency. The helicopter can be used for other emergencies such as fire, but the preservation of life always takes precedence over any other mission.

Ambulance services in Western Australia are comprised of road and fixed wing air ambulance services. As in a number of other states, the Royal Flying Doctor Service provides air ambulance services. Non-government providers supply road ambulance services for most of the State. St John Ambulance Australia — WA Ambulance Service is the principal provider of ambulance services in WA. Three smaller private providers also deliver non-emergency ambulance services. Data included in this report relate only to the activities of St John Ambulance. Metropolitan road ambulance services are provided almost entirely by paid ambulance officers and paramedics. Outer metropolitan and country services are provided by nearly 3000 volunteers who contribute over 3 million hours of service annually, a much greater contribution than in other jurisdictions.



South Australian Government comments



To improve Public Safety the South Australian Government's vision is for emergency services:

- Comprising dedicated, highly trained people;
- Using modern technology and equipment;
- Providing a community focus for positioning and aligning emergency services across Prevention, Preparedness, Response and Recovery;
- Efficiently working together and with the community;
- Efficiently managed and supported; and
- Efficiently meeting modern challenges.

The Government is establishing a Fire and Emergency Services Commission (SAFECOM) to enhance community safety and make the best possible use of resources.

SA Ambulance Service (SAAS) transferred from the SA Department of Justice to the SA Department of Health in April 2004 following a review of SAAS in 2003. SAAS's transfer facilitates collaboration and coordination with health service agencies. SAAS continues to work closely with the other emergency service agencies to ensure effective management of incidents. SAAS conducts and is party to, state disaster planning and regular exercises involving all emergency agencies and is heavily involved in a number of multi-agency projects.

Major emergency management initiatives for 2004–2005 include:

- Preparing to implement the recommendations of the COAG Reviews of Natural Disaster Management and Bushfires;
- Implementing arrangements under the *Emergency Management Act 2004*;
- Planning SAAS's ambulance service delivery model, including: a new service delivery model through a review of SAAS's clinical governance, strategy and operational development; identifying opportunities for linkages and involvement with government and health agencies from the Generational Health Review; and implementing improved and integrated out-of-hospital patient care services;
- The SA Computer Aided Dispatch (SACAD) project to replace computer aided despatch systems for Police, Ambulance and SAFECOM (comprising the SA Metropolitan Fire Service, the Country Fire Service and the State Emergency Service);
- Promoting long-term retention and recruitment of volunteers, including volunteer induction, recruitment and selection, reward and recognition, flexible learning and conflict resolution; and
- Working closely with the Convention of Ambulance Authorities and the Australasian Fire Authorities Councils' initiatives for service excellence.



Tasmanian Government Comments

“ Tasmania has a number of key issues which impact on the provision of emergency services throughout the State. These issues include the small population (and subsequent lack of economies of scale), the reliance on a network of dedicated volunteers in rural and remote areas (affecting turnout times) and the State’s rugged topography which also impacts on response times and infrastructure costs (for example, the radio system).

Unlike some other jurisdictions, Tasmania includes both urban and rural response times for both fire and ambulance data. As Tasmania has the largest proportion of rural population of all jurisdictions this affects response time comparisons significantly.

Tasmania Fire Service (TFS) is comprised of four career brigades and 234 volunteer brigades that respond to fires in all metropolitan and rural areas. All incidents attended by these brigades are reported, and the TFS bears the full cost of funding both the operating and capital costs of its brigades.

Despite a widespread wet spring, significant bushfires occurred from mid-November 2003. Many of these occurred in the remote west coast region on Crown Land under the control of the Parks Service and Forestry Tasmania, and did not threaten private tenures. The TFS participated in many of these fires. Rain early in 2004 fore-shortened the fire season on the normally volatile east coast.

TFS continues to deliver a broad range of programs to assist at-risk sectors of the community to prevent fires and minimise the impact of fires when they occur. Figures indicate that fire prevention programs targeting at-risk households are particularly effective, with significant decreases in residential fires experienced over the last ten years.

Tasmania is the only State that provides free ambulance services to the general public, and as a consequence there is a far greater reliance on government funding for ambulance services than in all other jurisdictions.

Unlike most other jurisdictions expenditure on ambulance service provision in Tasmania does not include expenditure on operating an ambulance subscription scheme but it does include operating an aeromedical service.

Tasmania continues to train a far greater proportion of its salaried ambulance personnel to paramedic level than most jurisdictions, with up to 70 per cent of all emergencies in Tasmania responded to at paramedic level. The government announced a major increase in ambulance staffing in the north west which will impact in next years report.

The road accident rescue role is shared by the Tasmanian Ambulance Service (urban areas) and the State Emergency service (rural areas), with TFS doing one area.”

Australian Capital Territory Government Comments

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The ACT is unique and fundamentally different to other jurisdictions in a number of aspects relevant to Emergency Management. The relatively small geographic size of the Territory, it combines city/state functions and contains a high proportion of urban area. These elements all impact on the provision of emergency services to the Territory. There are no other counterparts in Australia that provide both territorial (state) and municipal functions from the one government structure. In addition the revenue raising capabilities of some other jurisdictions are greater and more flexible than those of the ACT.

In the ACT the focus in Emergency Management is on the delivery of outputs through cooperation of all emergency agencies in partnership with a prepared community. Output classes for the ACT Emergency Services Bureau are based on the national emergency management principles of Prevention/Mitigation, Preparedness, Response and Recovery and are not individually identified against the specific emergency agency. The Emergency Management arrangements in the ACT are such that the Emergency Services Bureau budget reflects both territorial (state) and municipal type contributions that in other states are not directly reflected in Service-wide budgets. The Bureau's Standards of Emergency Response are time and risk based and the positioning of resources affects the impact of the multiple town centres, 'greenbelts' and Commonwealth assets of National importance.

Emergency activities, that in other jurisdictions are spread across many agencies, are concentrated in the fewer agencies comprising the ACT Emergency Services Bureau. Consequently the expenditure per person in the ACT for the reported fire and ambulance agencies may be inflated by the cost of those activities not yet included for other jurisdictions.

Following the 2003 bushfire tragedy, The Emergency Services Bureau received an injection of funds from the ACT Government for both capability and response to meet the community's expectations. This report is reflective of a part year effect of this increased funding.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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The Northern Territory Government continues to support its emergency service agencies through the commitment of funds for new equipment, facilities and additional staff.

The Northern Territory Government's commitment to safer communities continues with the appointment of a Public Education / Fire Awareness Officer, and with a greater emphasis on community safety strategies.

Community safety strategies, such as hazard reduction programs and school-based fire education, have assisted in substantially reducing the number of grassfires and bushfires for the second consecutive year. Community education and fire awareness will play a major role in the Northern Territory Fire and Rescue Service's fire reduction strategies in the future.

The continued threat of terrorist activities has focussed much of Government's attention over the past twelve months. Planning and training for chemical, biological and radiological incidents continues, as does equipping and training staff in urban search and rescue.

In addition, the Northern Territory Fire and Rescue Service is in the final stages of implementing an organisational restructure, and recommendations from a review into the Fire Service last year. This will place the Fire Service in a much stronger position to tackle the challenges that the future holds.

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8.8 Definitions of key terms and indicators

50th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first ambulance resources respond.
50th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first fire resources respond.
90th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first ambulance resources respond.
90th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first fire resources respond.
Alarm notification not involving fire	Fire alarm notification due to the accidental operation of an alarm, the failure to notify fire services of an incorrect test by service personnel or a storm induced voltage surge.
Ambulance expenditure	Includes salaries and payments in the nature of salaries to ambulance personnel, capital expenditure (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) and other operating expenditure (such as running expenditure, contract expenditure, provision for losses and other recurrent expenditure). Excludes interest on borrowings.
Ambulance incident	An event that results in a demand for ambulance resources to respond.
Ambulance non-government revenue	Includes revenue from subscription fees, transport fees, donations and other non-government revenue. Excludes funding revenue from Australian, State and local governments.
Ambulance patient	A person assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service.
Ambulance personnel	Any person employed by the ambulance service provider who delivers an ambulance service, manages the delivery of this service or provides support for the delivery of this service. Includes salaried ambulance personnel, remunerated volunteer and nonremunerated volunteer ambulance personnel.
Ambulance response	A vehicle or vehicles sent to an incident. There may be multiple responses/vehicles sent to a single incident.
Ambulance services	Pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services.
Emergency ambulance response	An emergency ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident that necessitates the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
Events in which extrication(s) occurred	An event in which the assisted removal of a casualty occurs. An incident with multiple people extricated is counted the same as an incident with one person extricated.
Extrication	Assisted removal of a casualty.
False report	An incident in which the fire service responds to and investigates a site, and may restore a detection system.

Fire non-government revenue	Includes revenue from levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges (such as subscriptions and other fees) and other non-government revenue (such as the sale of plant and equipment, donations and industry contributions). Excludes funding revenue from Australian, State and local governments.
Fire death	A fatality where fire is determined to be the underlying cause of death. This information is verified by coronial information.
Fire death rate	The number of fire deaths per 100 000 people in the total population.
Fire expenditure	Includes salaries and payments in the nature of salaries to fire personnel, capital expenditure (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) and other operating expenditure (such as running expenditure, training expenditure, maintenance expenditure, communications expenditure, provision for losses and other recurrent expenditure). Excludes interest on borrowings.
Fire incident	A fire reported to a fire service that requires a response.
Fire injury	An injury resulting from a fire or flames, requiring admission to a hospital. Excludes emergency department outpatients.
Fire injury rate	The number of fire injuries per 100 000 people in the total population.
Fire personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any person employed by the fire service provider who delivers a firefighting or firefighting-related service, or manages the delivery of this service. Includes paid and volunteer firefighters and support personnel.
Fire safety measure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operational smoke alarm or detector • Fire sprinkler system • Safety switch or circuit breaker • Fire extinguisher • Fire blanket • Fire evacuation plan • External water supply • The removal of an external fuel source • External sprinkler • Other fire safety measure
Indirect revenue	All revenue or funding received indirectly by the agency (for example, directly to treasury or other such entity) that arises from the agency's actions.
Landscape fires	Vegetation fires (for example, bush, grass, forest, orchard and harvest fires), regardless of the size of the area burnt.
Median dollar loss per structure fire	The median (middle number in a given sequence) value of the structure loss (in \$'000) per structure fire incident.
Non-emergency ambulance response	A non-emergency ambulance response that does not necessitate the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
Non-structure fire	A fire outside a building or structure, including fires involving mobile properties (such as vehicles), a rubbish fire, a bushfire, grass fire and an explosion.

Other incident	An incident (other than fire) reported to a fire service that requires a response. This may include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • overpressure ruptures (for example, steam or gas), explosions or excess heat (no combustion) • rescues (for example, industrial accidents or vehicle accidents) • hazardous conditions (for example, the escape of hazardous materials) • salvages • storms or extreme weather.
Paramedic response	A level of emergency care categorised as advanced life support.
Response time	The interval between the receipt of the call at the dispatch centre and the arrival of the vehicle at the scene (that is, when the vehicle is stationary and the handbrake is applied).
Road rescue	An accident or incident involving a motor vehicle and the presumption that there are injuries or that assistance is required from emergency services organisations.
Structure fire	A fire inside a building or structure, whether or not there is damage to the structure.
Structure fire contained to object or room of origin	A fire where direct fire/flame is contained to the room of origin (that is, excludes wildfires and vehicle fire in unconfined spaces). A room is an enclosed space, regardless of its dimensions or configuration. This category includes fires in residential and non-residential structures.
Survival rate for out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest incidents	The percentage of patients with cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac cause, who have vital signs on arrival at hospital. Excludes incidents to children (younger than 16 years), drownings, trauma and other cases where aetiology is known (for example, asthma).
Urgent ambulance response	An urgent ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident that does not necessitate the use of ambulance warning devices.
User cost of capital	The opportunity cost of funds tied up in the capital used to deliver services. Calculated as 8 per cent of the current value of noncurrent physical assets (including land, plant and equipment).

8.9 References

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