

Report on Government Services 2003

Volume 1:
*Education, Justice,
Emergency Management*

*Steering Committee
for the Review of
Commonwealth/State
Service Provision*

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Suggestions:

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

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Foreword

The Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision was established by heads of government in 1993 to develop objective and consistent data on the performance of services that are central to the wellbeing of Australians. The collaborative efforts of more than 80 government agencies from the Commonwealth, States and Territories have contributed to this, the eighth *Report on Government Services*.

The services covered by the Review span education, health, justice, community services, emergency management and housing. Collectively they amounted to nearly \$70 billion or around 24% of total government expenditure in 2001-02.

Every year sees some improvements in the Report. This year, there is reporting for the first time against performance indicators in the areas of emergency management, disability services, aged care, and corrective services, while the quality of data in other areas of the Report has been further improved.

It is pleasing that this year we have also been able to report on nationally comparable learning outcomes in school education. These data, derived from a survey undertaken under the auspices of the international Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, represent a significant step forward — one that can hopefully be emulated on a regular basis at the national level.

As ever, there is room for improvement. For example, over the next year we will be looking at ways to ensure that up-to-date validated data on specialist mental health services will be available in time for the next Report.

We continue to make progress in improving reporting on Indigenous people. While for the most part our data continues to be drawn from mainstream collections, this year the Report includes data on community housing for Indigenous people along with data from the Aboriginal Rental Housing Program (reported for the first time last year).

Early in the New Year the Review intends to publish on its website for the first time, a compendium of all the Indigenous data included in the Report.

The most important development on Indigenous reporting, however, has been the commissioning by the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) of a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage. The development of a draft

framework for COAG's consideration is now well underway. Development of the framework has involved input from senior people in all Australian governments along with representatives from the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission and the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs.

Importantly, the development of the framework has also entailed extensive consultations with key Indigenous leaders and organisations. Their input to the framework will be a critical factor in its efficacy and credibility.

Producing a report of this size and scope each year depends on the cooperation and support of many people including government agencies and bodies such as the Australian Bureau of Statistics and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. The Secretariat, drawn from the Productivity Commission, relies heavily on their advice and cooperation in pulling this Report together.

I would like to thank everyone involved for their continuing contribution to this important joint undertaking.

Gary Banks
Chairman

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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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Acronyms and abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACAP	Aged Care Assessment Program
ACAT	Aged Care Assessment Team
ACC	Australian Crime Commission
ACCHS	Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Services
ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
ACHS	Australian Council on Healthcare Standards
ACIR	Australian Childhood Immunisation Register
ACPR	Australian Centre for Policing Research
ACSQHC	Australian Council for Safety and Quality in Health Care
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
AFAC	Australasian Fire Authorities Council
AGPAL	Australian General Practice Accreditation Limited
AGPS	Australian Government Publishing Service
AHA	Aboriginal Housing Authority (SA)
AHCA	Australian Health Care Agreements
AHMAC	Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council
AIC	Australian Institute of Criminology
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
AIMS	Australian Incident Monitoring System
AJJA	Australasian Juvenile Justice Administrators
ANTA	Australian National Training Authority
ANTA MINCO	Australian National Training Authority Ministerial Council
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework
AR-DRG	Australian revised diagnosis related group
ARHP	Aboriginal Rental Housing Program

ARIA	Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia
ATLAS	Audit Training, Learning and Support Program (NSW)
ATSIC	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission
Aust	Australia
BEACH	Bettering the Evaluation and Care of Health
BRC	Belconnen Remand Centre (ACT)
CAA	Convention of Ambulance Authorities
CACP	Community Aged Care Package (Program)
CCCCS	Commonwealth Census of Child Care Services
CD-ROM	Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CFA	Country Fire Authority
CFU	Community Fire Unit (NSW)
CGC	Commonwealth Grants Commission
CHINS	Community Housing and Infrastructure Survey
CHOGM	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting
CIS	Complaints Information System
CMF	Command Management Framework
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CRA	Commonwealth Rent Assistance
CRF	Common Reporting Framework
CRROH	Centre for Remote and Rural Oral Health (WA)
CSDA	Commonwealth–State Disability Agreement
CSHA	Commonwealth State Housing Agreement
CSTDA	Commonwealth–State–Territory Disability Agreement
DALE	Disability Adjusted Life Expectancy
DALY	Disability Adjusted Life Years
DCIS	Ductal carcinoma in situ
DCS	Department of Correctional Services (SA)
DEA	data envelopment analysis
DES	Department of Emergency Services (Qld)

DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DFaCS	Department of Family and Community Services
DHA	Department of Health and Ageing
DHAC	Department of Health and Aged Care
DHS	Department of Human Services (Vic)
DMMR	Domiciliary Medication Management Review
DNRE	Department of Natural Resources and Environment (Vic)
DoCS	Department of Community Services (NSW)
DoH	Department of Health (WA)
DRG	Diagnosis related group
DSQ	Disability Services Queensland
DVA	Department of Veterans' Affairs
EACH	Extended Aged Care at Home
ERP	estimated resident populations
ESL	Emergency Services Levy
FACS	Family and Community Services (NT)
FESA	Fire and Emergency Services Authority (WA)
FTE	full time equivalent
FWE	full time workload equivalent
GAP	Government Action Plan (NSW)
GDP	gross domestic product
GP	general practitioner
GPA	General Practice Australia
GPMoU	General Practice Memorandum of Understanding
GST	goods and services tax
HACC	Home and Community Care (program)
HRSCEET	House of Representatives Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training
ICD	International classification of diseases
ICD-10-AM	international statistical classification of diseases and related health problems, 10th revision, Australian modification

ICMS	Integrated Court Management System
ICT	information and communication technology
IHANT	Indigenous Housing Authority of the NT
IMP	Information Management Plan
ITAB	Industry Training Advisory Bodies
KPI	Key Performance Indicators
LAC	local area command
LLEN	Local Learning and Employment Networks
LLISC	Learning Lessons Implementation Steering Committee
LSI	Likert Summation Index
MAP	Multilevel Assessment Program
MBS	Medicare Benefits Schedule
MCATZIA	Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MDS	minimum data set
NAC	National Advisory Committee to BreastScreen Australia
NACCHO	National Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Organisation
NAGATSIHID	National Advisory Group Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Information and Data
NATSEM	National Centre for Social and Economic Modelling
NBCC	National Breast Cancer Centre
NCA	National Crime Authority
NCIS	National Coroners Information System
NCJSF	National Crime and Justice Statistical Framework
NCPASS	National Child Protection and Support Services
NCSIMG	National Community Services Information Management Group
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research

NDCA	National Data Collection Agency
NESB	non-English speaking background
NGO	non-Government organisation
NHCDC	Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care, National Hospital Cost Data Collection
NHIMG	National Health Information Management Group
NHPC	National Health Performance Committee
NHPF	National Health Performance Framework
NIDP	National Information Development Plan
NMDS	national minimum data set
NMHS	National Mental Health Strategy
NPDDC	National Perinatal Data Development Committee
NPS	National Prescribing Service
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
NTDAB	NT Disability Advisory Board
NTFRS	NT Fire and Rescue Service
NTPFES	Northern Territory Police, Fire and Emergency Services
OCR	Operations and Crime Review (NSW)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OHCWA	Oral Health Centre of Western Australia
OMP	Other Medical Practitioner
PACT	Police Accountability Community Team (NSW)
PBS	Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme
PIP	Practice Incentives Program
PIPS	Performance Indicators for Primary Schools
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment

PMRT	Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce
PSM	Population Survey Monitor
QIAS	Quality Improvement and Accreditation System
Qld	Queensland
RACGP	Royal Australian College of General Practitioners
RCS	Resident Classification Scale
Review	Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision
RRMA	Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Area Classification System
SA	South Australia
SAAP	Supported Accommodation Assistance Program
SAAS	SA Ambulance Service
SACHA	South Australian Community Housing Authority
SAHT	South Australian Housing Trust
SAPOL	South Australia Police
SCRCSSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision
SDA	service delivery area
SES/TES	State Emergency Service/Territory Emergency Service
SHMT	State Health Management Team (WA)
SLA	statistical local area
SMART	SAAP Management and Reporting Tool
SRCSSP	Secretariat for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision
STRC	Symonston Temporary Remand Centre (ACT)
SWPE	standardised whole patient equivalent
TAFE	technical and further education
Tas	Tasmania
TCP	Transitional Care Program (WA)
TFS	Tasmania Fire Services
VCAL	Victorian Certificate of Learning
VCE	Victorian Certificate of Education

VET	vocational education and training
VHC	Veterans' Home Care (program)
VHS	Victorian Homelessness Strategy
Vic	Victoria
WA	Western Australia
WHO	World Health Organisation
YLD	years of life lost due to disability
YLL	years of life lost due to premature mortality

Glossary

Constant prices	See ‘real dollars’.
Current prices	See ‘nominal dollars’.
Descriptors	Statistics included in the Report that relate to the size of the service system, its client mix and the environment within which government services are delivered. They 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.
Efficiency	A reflection of how well organisations use their resources to produce services.
Unit costs	An indicator of efficiency, as used throughout this Report.
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.
Process	The way in which a service is produced or delivered.
Output	The service provided by a service area — for example, a treated case is an output of a public acute care 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.

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.

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

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

Australian governments established the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision (the Review) to provide information on the effectiveness and efficiency of Commonwealth, State and Territory government services (see terms of reference, p. XXI).

There are two functions of the Review:

- to provide ongoing comparisons of the performance of government services (the role of this Report); and
- to report on service provision reforms that governments have implemented or that are under consideration.

A Steering Committee, comprising senior representatives from the central agencies of all governments, was established to manage the Review with the assistance of a Secretariat provided by the Productivity Commission.

Over time, the Report has become an important tool for government. It has been used for strategic budget and policy planning, and for policy evaluation. Some users have found the Report to be instrumental in assessing the resource needs and resource performance of departments. Others have used the Report to identify other jurisdictions with whom to share information on services.

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

- 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; and
- promoting greater transparency and informed debate about comparative performance.

1.2 The role of government in delivering services

All services included in this Report 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 other services 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). This encompasses the work of the courts, police and corrective service agencies in maintaining law and order; and
 - managing adverse events, including the work of emergency services (such as fire and flood control) and some aspects of the health system; and
- enabling higher or more equitable availability and consumption of those services that governments consider to have particular merits or generating 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;

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 are able to consume the good without paying for it.

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.

-
- creating community service obligations on public and private providers; and/or
 - 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 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 and whether those policies are being implemented efficiently.

Traditionally, much of the effort to improve the effectiveness of government services has focused on increasing the level of resources devoted to them. This 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 efficient and effective use of resources to deliver desired outcomes of government services. Performance measurement can:

- provide governments with some indicators about 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; and
- promote analysis of the relationships between agencies and between programs, allowing governments to coordinate policy within and across agencies.

The two 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; and

-
- to generate additional incentives for agencies to address substandard performance.

Comparative data are particularly important for government services because of the limited information 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 inter-jurisdictional 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 also provides governments with the opportunity to assess the cost effectiveness of their service delivery.

Governments have considered a range of general policy approaches when deciding how to deliver services in recent years. 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 between services; and
- implementing user charging (for example, pricing court reporting services for Commonwealth courts).³

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

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.

1.4 Scope

This eighth Report on Government Services contains performance information on 14 key service areas (box 1.1). These government services have two important features:

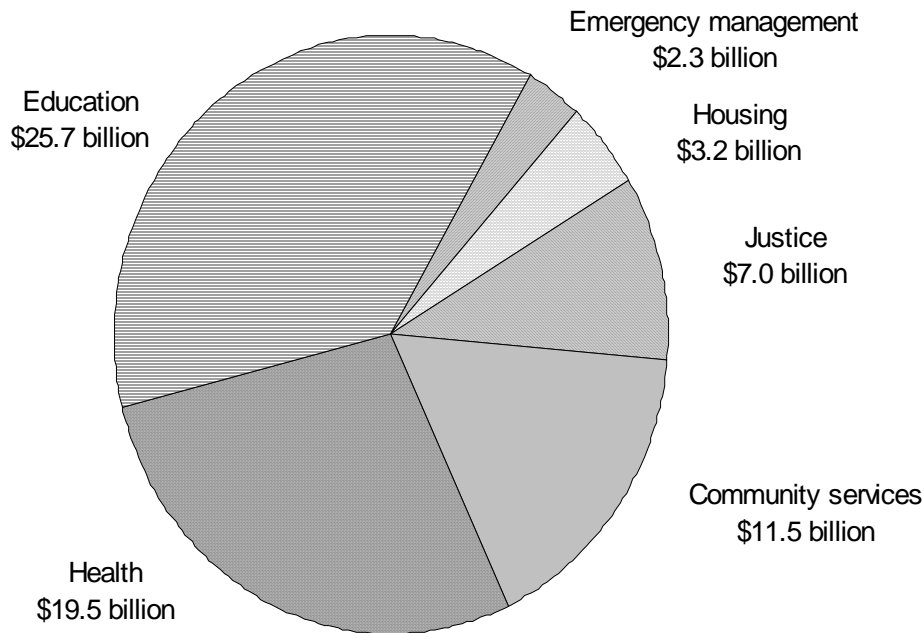
- their key objectives are common or similar across jurisdictions; and
- they make an important contribution to the community and/or economy.

Box 1.1 Services covered in the 2003 Report

Education and training	— School education (chapter 3) — Vocational education and training (chapter 4)
Justice	— Police (chapter 5) — Court administration (chapter 6) — Corrective services (chapter 7)
Emergency services	— Emergency management (chapter 8)
Health	— Public hospitals (chapter 9) — General practice (chapter 10) — Breast cancer control and mental health (chapter 11)
Community services	— Aged care (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, and Commonwealth Rent Assistance (chapter 16)

The services covered in the Report absorb a significant level of government expenditure. They accounted for approximately \$69.2 billion in 2001-02 (figure 1.1), representing around 24.4 per cent of total government expenditure and 53.8 per cent of government recurrent expenditure in that year (equivalent to about 9.7 per cent of gross domestic product).

Figure 1.1 **Estimated government recurrent expenditure on services covered by the 2003 Report^{a, b, c}**



^a Data for 2001-02 were not available for all services. The Report uses 1999-2000 data for breast cancer screening; 2000-01 data for school education, public hospitals and specialised mental health services; and 2001 data for vocational education and training. ^b The estimate for health expenditure relates only to the health services discussed in the health chapters of the Report, that is: public hospitals, general practice, public health expenditure on breast cancer screening and specialised mental health services. ^c Community services expenditure excludes juvenile justice.

Source: relevant chapters.

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 1.2.

Box 1.2 Cost to government and to non-government organisations

The Report seeks to provide information about the cost of services to government. Some argue that the Report should also account for the costs of where non-government groups such as charities, not-for-profit organisations and private providers contribute resources for the services covered by the Report.

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 be made 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.

If a government provides services directly, it is accountable for all resources used so the Report includes the full costs. 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. If a government decides to purchase, part fund or subsidise services, then it should aim to maximise the benefit to the community from this use of government funds.

The Report also compares the cost to government of services delivered by non-government and government service providers; this information can allow governments to assess 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 used by the government provider. This 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, therefore, 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). An exception is the reporting of performance information on Commonwealth Rent Assistance (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, namely:

- 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); and
- 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 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 that there is a focus on non-technical information, making it accessible to non-specialists, and that the Report is produced on a regular basis, allowing monitoring of performance over time.

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 — that is, performance indicators should focus on outcomes from the provision of government services, reflecting whether service objectives have been met;
- comprehensiveness — that is, the performance indicator framework should be as comprehensive as possible, assessing performance against all important objectives;
- comparability — that is, data should be comparable across jurisdictions wherever possible. Reporting comparable information has a higher priority than using a better indicator that allows no comparison. 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; and
- progressive data availability — that is, 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).

While the Report does not establish best practice benchmarks, the information in the Report could be used to help jurisdictions identify appropriate benchmarks (box 1.3).

Box 1.3 **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. There are three main forms of benchmarking: results benchmarking (comparing performances within and between organisations using performance indicators of effectiveness and efficiency); process benchmarking (analysing systems, activities and tasks that turn resource inputs and outputs into outcomes); and 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:

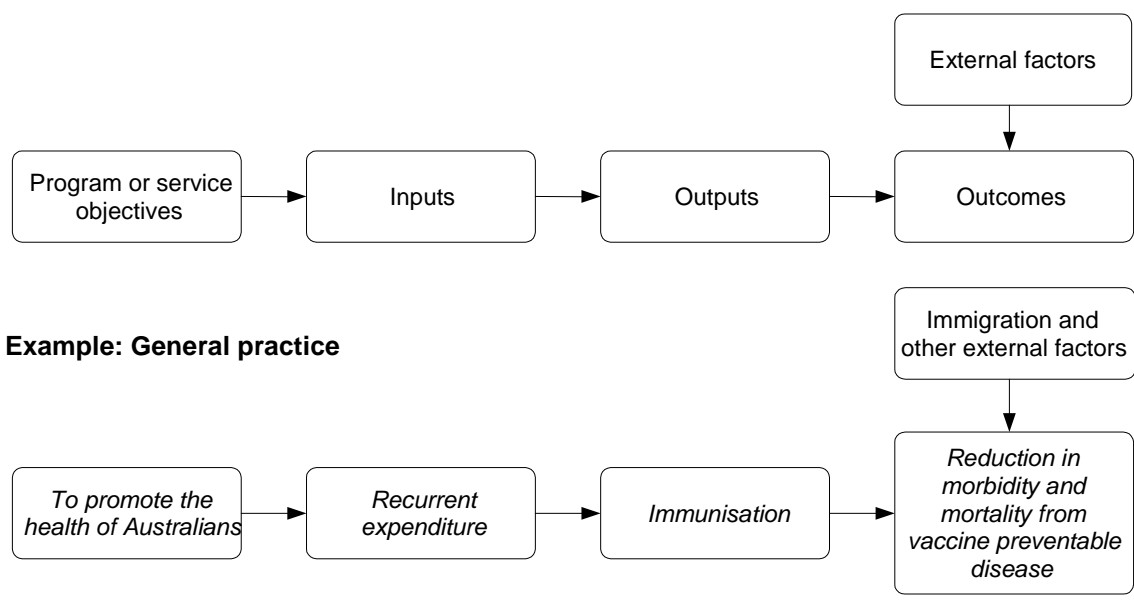
- deciding why, when, and what to benchmark;
- analysing plans and performance (reviewing objectives and identifying performance indicators and own performance);
- establishing benchmarking partners;
- obtaining the data and analysing differences;
- identifying best practices and the most useful improvements;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

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

The service process

The basic relationship between objectives, inputs, outputs and outcomes is set out in figure 1.2. Governments have a number of objectives or desired outcomes for the community. To achieve these objectives or desired outcomes, governments fund service providers and products and/or provide services. Service providers transform these funds/resources (inputs) into services (outputs), and the outputs contribute to a government's outcomes.

Figure 1.2 Service process



The general framework

A number of the objectives (or desired outcomes) for each government funded service are similar across jurisdictions, although the priority that jurisdictions give 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 area are outlined and performance indicators consistent with those objectives are reported.

The Steering Committee has developed a general framework for performance indicators (figure 1.3).⁴ Within the framework, performance is assessed in terms of effectiveness and efficiency. *Effectiveness* is a reflection of how well the outputs of a service achieve the stated objectives. *Efficiency* is a reflection of how well governments use their resources to produce units of services.

Service provision can sometimes involve a tradeoff between elements of effectiveness and efficiency. A change in service delivery may increase the level of resources per unit of output (a decrease in measured efficiency) but lead to better outcomes (an increase in effectiveness). In addition, a standard unit of service may be more costly to produce, for example but more effective in meeting each client's specific needs and, therefore, more cost effective. Performance assessment should thus consider both efficiency and effectiveness indicators.

⁴ The performance indicator framework for schools, used for the first time in the 2001 Report, is a departure from the general framework.

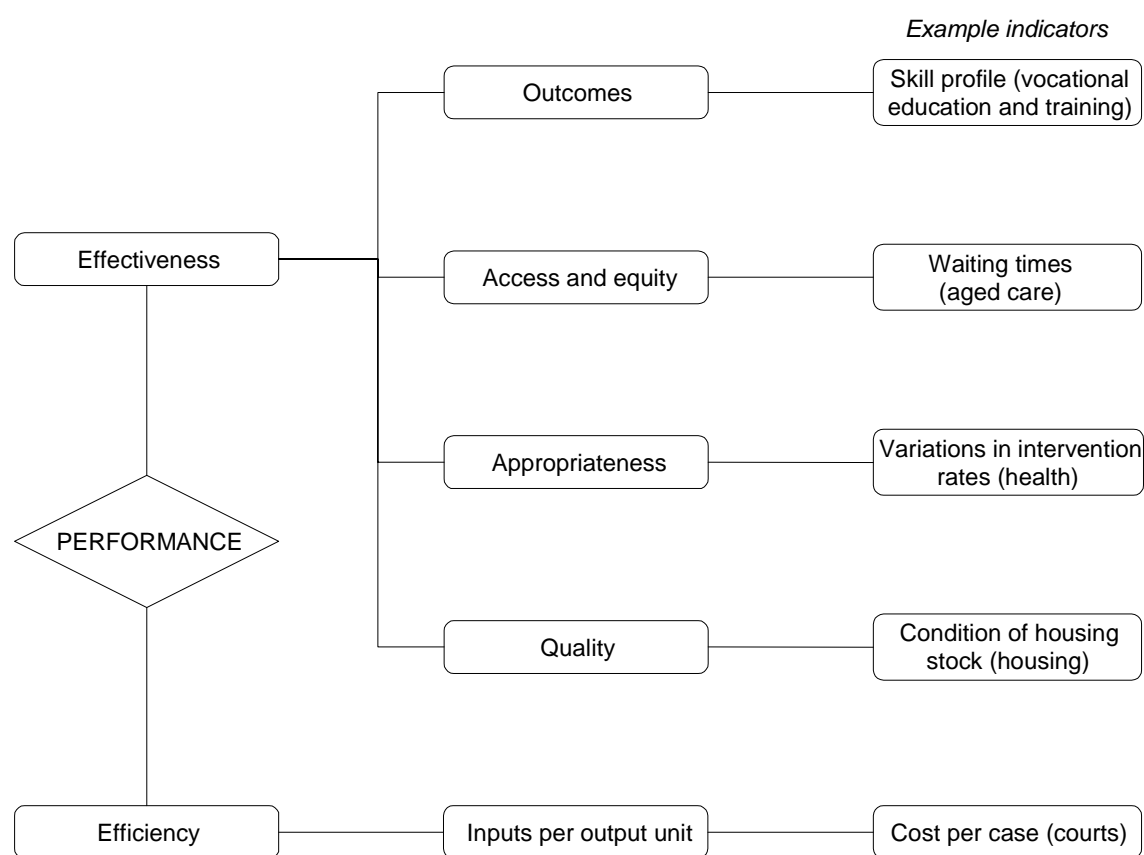
Effectiveness indicators in this Report include indicators of:

- outcomes;
- access and equity;
- appropriateness; and
- quality.

The indicator of efficiency generally used is the level of government inputs per unit of output.

Each chapter of the Report includes descriptive information about services and the context of their delivery, recent policy developments, a discussion of future directions in performance reporting, and comments from each jurisdiction.

Figure 1.3 A general framework and examples of performance indicators



During 2002, the Steering Committee reviewed the general framework of performance indicators and agreed on a number of changes. To allow time for subsequent changes to the frameworks for each service area, the revised framework will be introduced for the 2004 Report. The revised framework is designed to

highlight the distinction between outputs and outcomes, and give greater emphasis to equity.

Outcomes

The actual outcomes of a service area should align with the objectives of the service area. Appropriate 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 actual outcomes for an individual or group. Outputs are the services delivered by the service area.

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, for example, (set up relatively quickly via a reallocation of resources) may achieve the intermediate outcome of fewer drunk drivers and lead to a short term reduction in road deaths, but the final outcome of reduced road deaths will reflect external factors such as the design quality of cars and capital investment in improved roads or additional ‘booze’ buses.

The approach in this Report is:

- to use both short term (or intermediate) and long term (or final) outcome indicators where possible; and
- to 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.)

Access and equity

Enabling appropriate access to key services is an important reason for governments to fund services. The objective may be to ensure service access by everyone in the community (for example, access to school education and police services) or by a target group (for example, access to housing services for those having difficulties accessing housing in the private sector).

Access has three main dimensions, addressing discrimination, undue delay and undue cost. This Report focuses on:

- service provision to those who may have special difficulties accessing services;
- service timeliness; and
- affordability.

Groups with special difficulties

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; and
- geographic location.

In addition to reporting access indicators for those with special difficulties in accessing individual service areas, the Report has devoted a chapter to examining the effectiveness and efficiency of the specific services for people with a disability (chapter 13).

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.

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. This will be a new report, separate from the *Report on Government Services* and focusing on outcomes for Indigenous people. The *Report on Government Services* will continue to contain key indicators on the delivery of services in relation to Indigenous Australians.

Identifying service recipients as members of 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 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 proxy indicator of the group's need for a particular service. This simple assumption is clearly 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 access difficulties, access is normally compared for metropolitan, rural and remote areas. These classifications have been based on population density and distances to large population centres (DPIE and DSHS 1994). Such comparison by location has been criticised because it is an imperfect indicator of the time and cost of reaching the point of service. Further, it does 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. Many service areas in the Report are therefore moving to the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA) or ARIA Plus (see chapter 2).

Timeliness and affordability

Timeliness and affordability can also be important access issues for those in the community who rely on publicly funded services. 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 the services and their delivery meet client needs. An appropriateness indicator for the Supported Accommodation and Assistance Program, for example, is the proportion of clients receiving the services 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. However, data on differences in service levels can indicate where further work could identify possible underservicing or overservicing.

Quality

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 fairly consider all useful delivery alternatives.

One definition of quality is fitness for purpose. A comprehensive assessment of fitness for purpose requires a range of indicators. Ideally, such indicators should also directly capture the achievement of outcomes. Assessment may also involve seeking the views of clients and other stakeholders.

Data generated for quality control can often be a useful source of information about success in achieving outcomes. The extent to which aspects of the service delivery process (such as inputs, processes and outputs) conform to specifications are a test of success at delivering quality outcomes — for example, the level of accreditation of public hospitals and facilities for aged care. Assuming the specifications define an acceptable level of service, then a service conforming to the specifications is fit for the purpose for which it was designed.

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. Selecting an indicator thus requires some trade off among desirable characteristics (such as timeliness, cost and validity).

Where possible, the approach taken in the Report is to make use of acceptable (albeit imperfect) quality 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. Note, however, that 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.

Efficiency

Efficiency relates to how well organisations use their resources to produce units of services. This Report mostly focuses on the achievement of better value for the broader community from the use of government resources, so government funding per unit of service is typically used as the efficiency indicator — for example, recurrent funding per annual curriculum hour for vocational education and training. Such an indicator may not, however, encompass a service's full cost to society.

Where possible, full unit costs are used as the indicator of efficiency. 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 and staff per prisoner in corrective services). 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 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.

1.6 Using the data in this Report

Data comparability

For each service area, the performance indicator framework shows which data are provided on a comparable basis and which are not strictly comparable. Where data are not strictly comparable appropriate qualifying commentary are provided in the text or footnotes. Data may not be strictly 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); and
- 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, but the payroll tax amount can be readily calculated from payroll data. 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 subject to peer review by the working group for each service. Some data are verified and supplied by data collection agencies such as the Australian Bureau of Statistics 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 processes of 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, with appropriate qualifications. This 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 affects 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 low (or 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 is sometimes more important than whether a simple performance measure result is high or low.

The Report does not attempt to adjust results provided by jurisdictions for differences that may affect service delivery, however, 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 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: a description of the main distinguishing characteristics and 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 these best performers.

Data envelopment analysis is capable of handling the multi-input, multi-output production processes that often exist in government service provision. Moreover, this technique, unlike other more sophisticated tools, does not require outputs to be priced — an advantage that has obvious application to government services. Like any efficiency measurement tool, however, outputs (and units of measure) still need to be identified for estimation purposes.

Such analysis requires accurate data on all relevant input and output levels. Service providers that do not have a typical relationship between their inputs and outputs can have a significant impact on the results. In addition, a fairly large sample of service providers is required. This approach has been used to measure the performance of a range of service providers internationally, and its applicability in the Australian context has been examined.

The Steering Committee published a report in 1997, *Data Envelopment Analysis — A Technique for Measuring the Efficiency of Government Service Delivery* (SCRCCSP 1997a), that explains DEA's conceptual underpinnings, how to interpret the output from DEA models and the technique's strengths and weaknesses. Also, through the use of case studies on hospitals, dental services, police, motor registries and corrective services, the report provides a practical guide to developing and refining a DEA model and interpreting the results. The report is directed at those responsible for providing government services and those accountable for the delivery of these services in a cost effective manner. It aims to encourage people to think about how more detailed and rigorous analysis of performance can assist in improving the efficiency with which resources are used to provide essential services to the community.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) report *The World Health Report 2000 — Health Systems: Improving Performance* uses another efficiency measurement technique. This report outlines an approach to performance measurement by identifying two important aspects needed to judge performance: (1) attainment — that is, achievement of the objectives of good health, responsiveness and fair financial contribution — and (2) performance — that is, the comparison between what has been achieved (attainment) and the best that could be achieved with the same resources (potential attainment). The WHO derived a frontier corresponding to the most that could be expected of a health system (a level of attainment that a country may achieve but that no country surpasses), using information from many countries. Performance is measured on how far actual attainment lies from this frontier (WHO 2000).

‘Measuring Australia’s progress’

The ABS published *Measuring Australia’s Progress* for the first time in April 2002. The publication presents data on measures (or indicators) that relate to progress in three general areas; economic, social and environmental. The approach adopted is to present a suite of headline and supplementary indicators of key aspects of progress, and to discuss the links between them. The aim is to help Australians address the question: ‘Has life in our country got better, especially over the past decade?’, allowing readers to draw their own conclusions about overall progress. The Steering Committee has drawn on aspects of this approach in its review of Indigenous disadvantage (ABS 2002).

Performance monitoring in other countries

Performance reporting exercises are undertaken in other countries using various approaches. In the United Kingdom, agency performance is measured against the achievement of targets set out in public service agreements. These agreements set out the aim of the department or program, the supporting objectives and the related performance targets that are to be achieved during a specified period. There has been a shift in the emphasis of targets towards an outcome focus (The Comptroller and Auditor-General 2001).

In the United States, the *Government Performance and Results Act 1993* requires agencies to develop multi-year strategic plans, annual performance plans and annual performance reports. Performance measures are targets set by the departments (US General Accounting Office 2000).

In Canada, performance information is organised around 200 key results commitments that federal departments and agencies have made. These commitments state what departments intend to achieve with the resources they have been allocated. Each department produces an annual performance report and the Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat produces an annual report, *Managing for Results*, which provides an overview. Performance frameworks and the types of indicator used vary across departments (Treasury Board of Canada 2000).

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2 Recent developments in the Report

2.1 Developments in reporting in 2002

This is the eighth *Report on Government Services* produced by the Review. Reporting is an iterative process and each year the Review endeavours 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. Improvements in the 2003 Report can be categorised into two broad areas:

- improvements to the data used in performance indicators:
 - in the comparability, timeliness, quality of data;
 - through increased reporting for special needs groups (in particular Indigenous Australians, and people living in rural and remote areas); and
 - in reporting full costs to government; and
- improvements to performance indicator frameworks, by including new indicators, reporting against others for the first time and improving the quality of descriptive data and contextual information.

Improvements in reporting for the 2003 Report

Education

Improvements in reporting of existing performance indicators for education services include:

- reporting against nationally comparable numeracy benchmarks at primary school years three and five;
- enhanced reporting for Indigenous school students with reporting on learning outcomes for years three and five and apparent retention rates for year 10;
- providing a jurisdictional breakdown for general employer perceptions of vocational education and training (VET);

-
- modifying reporting of the indicator of employment outcomes for VET graduates to account for employment status before the course; and
 - expanding reporting for VET graduates to include national data for special needs graduates on the utility of their VET course.

New performance indicators for education services include:

- a measure of full time participation rates of young people in education and work;
- educational attainment by labour force status;
- nationally comparable learning outcomes for reading, mathematical and scientific literacy of 15 year old secondary school students;
- VET participation, classified by language spoken at home;
- VET load pass rates by gender and language spoken at home;
- employers' mean satisfaction with VET providers; and
- employer views on aspects of VET course delivery and graduate skills.

Health

Improvements in reporting of existing performance indicators for health services include:

- an additional method of reporting elective surgery waiting times;
- more comprehensive reporting on hospital accreditation;
- an effectiveness indicator for early breast cancer detection performance revised to reflect technical improvements in pre-operative diagnosis;
- modifications to the reporting of efficiency indicators for mental health to improve comparability;
- inclusion of an interim indicator for outcomes in mental health; and
- more timely data on cervical screenings in the general practice chapter.

New performance indicators for health services include:

- the overall breast cancer detection rate;
- perineal status after vaginal delivery — an indicator of service quality in the maternity services section of the public hospitals chapter; and
- the birthweights of babies by Indigenous status of mothers.

In addition, descriptive and contextual information has been included on:

- breast cancer survival rates; and
- the use by Indigenous people of general practice services.

Justice

Improvements in reporting of existing performance indicators for the courts chapter include:

- improvements in data quality as a result of revisions to the definition of the scope of the courts' administration collection and data definitions for specific performance indicators; and
- more extensive reporting on the Federal Magistrates Service and the children's courts as a result of improvements to data collection processes.

The chapter on corrective services includes more comprehensive efficiency reporting with, for example, costs per prisoner/offender now reported for both recurrent and capital cost.

The police services chapter performance framework contains new indicators on:

- hospitalisation rates per registered vehicle; and
- cost of road safety and transport service delivery area/number of fatal or serious accidents.

The police services chapter also contains data on land transport hospitalisation rates for the first time.

Emergency management

Comparability of data has been improved by:

- adoption of a consistent approach to reporting payroll tax;
- revision of definitions of data for ambulance personnel numbers, asset numbers and asset values, caseload and response times;
- reporting of geographic case-based data for ambulance response times and clarified fire data caveats indicating whether data reflect urban or urban and rural areas.

New performance indicators in the 2003 Report for emergency management include:

- landscape fire incidents; and
- ambulance incidents per 100 000 people.

Descriptive data for ambulance services have been improved by the inclusion of data on the number of ambulance patients transported and/or treated.

Community services

There are improvements to the comparability of data in the disability services chapter with:

- revised definitions and counting rules for accommodation support services;
- adoption of a method for accounting for differences in payroll tax; and
- some quality assurance data for existing indicators included for the first time.

Improvements to the performance indicator frameworks in community services include:

- the protection and support chapter providing Supported Accommodation and Assistance Program data relating to Indigenous clients in the areas of income, housing, and labour force status;
- data for geographic indicators of access to employment services in the disability services chapter; and
- a children's services chapter efficiency measure for jurisdictional total expenditure per child.

Housing

Significant improvements have been introduced to the housing chapter this year, including:

- data from the 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey on Indigenous community housing;
- revised performance indicators for Commonwealth Rent Assistance, including more information on client satisfaction with housing, and accessibility and affordability outcomes for special needs groups; and

-
- more comprehensive reporting against the framework for the community housing sector, with reporting against 10 of the 12 performance indicators compared with eight in the 2002 Report and four in the 2001 Report.

2.2 Progress on key data issues

The Review has identified key data issues that affect the Report: the comparability of data; full costing of government services; reporting of data for particular target population groups; and accounting for the goods and services tax (GST). There are also some issues associated with changes to the administrative data collections on which the Review relies to publish the Report.

Changes to administrative data collections

There are some instances where reporting has been affected in the past year by the discontinuation of some data sets used by the Review. One example is the Population Survey Monitor which was produced by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) but discontinued in 2001. Data from this collection made up a considerable part of the police services chapter and although this survey has been replaced in the chapter by the AC Nielson Survey ‘Community satisfaction with policing’, significant differences in methodology between the two surveys have resulted in a break in the chapter’s time series data.

Review requirements are sometimes not a priority in the development or refinement of national minimum data sets or other types of information infrastructure. There is, for example, sometimes significant delay between the first data collection period and when data from a new data set become publicly available. In part this is due to implementation problems that can affect data quality for several years. In other cases, collection of data is staged, so that 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.

Comparability of data

To facilitate more informed policy making, where feasible, data are reported on a comparable basis across service areas and jurisdictions. Table 2.1 summarises the Review’s progress in reporting comparable data against the performance indicators for efficiency and each of the four categories of effectiveness — outcomes, access

and equity, appropriateness and quality. Data are considered to be comparable where they are collected using the same definition across jurisdictions.

Some service areas have not explicitly adopted the above categories in their frameworks. Where services have adopted their own categories (such as in breast cancer management and emergency management), the service's performance indicators have been allocated to the most suitable broad category. Response times, for example, are a 'response' performance indicator in emergency management, but in table 2.1 they are reported as a 'quality' performance indicator.

Table 2.1 indicates the first year in which at least one indicator under each category was reported across all jurisdictions on a comparable basis and sourced from a regularly published report or data collection and not from a one-off collection. However, assessment is not made of the quality of the indicator itself (for example, whether it is necessarily the most appropriate indicator).

The pace of improvements in reporting across services is also illustrated in table 2.1. With the exception of the NT, all services in all jurisdictions report on an accrual basis. Some service areas, however, are still unable to provide comparable data for a number of specific performance indicators. Despite the inclusion of some descriptive data, the housing chapter, for example, still does not report nationally comparable data on mainstream community housing for any performance indicators, seven years after the inclusion of these measures in the Review.

Table 2.1 First reporting of at least one comparable indicator^{a, b}

Framework service	When at least one nationally comparable indicator was first reported ^c						
	First coverage of service	Outcomes	Access and equity	Appropriateness	Quality	Client views	Efficiency
<i>Education</i>							
School education	1995	1995	2001	na	na	na	1995
VET	1995	1995	1995	1995	1995	1995	1997
<i>Health</i>							
Public hospitals	1995	na	1995	1995	1995	na	1995
Maternity services	2001	2001	na	na	na	na	na
General practice	1999	1999	1999	2000	2000	na	2000
Breast cancer	1998	2000	2002	na	2000	na	na
Mental health	1999	1999	na	1999	2000	na	1999
<i>Justice</i>							
Police services	1995	1995	1999	na	1995	1997	1997
Courts administration	1995	na	1995	na	1995	na	1995
Corrective services	1995	1995	1998	na	1995	na	1995
<i>Emergency management</i>							
Fire services	1998	1999	na	na	na	2000	2001
Ambulance services	1998	na	na	na	na	2000	2001
<i>Community services</i>							
Aged care services	1997	na	1999	2000	2000	2000	2000
Services for people with a disability	1997	1997	1997	1997	2000	2000	na
Children's services	1997	na	1997	na	2002	na	2003
Child protection and out-of-home care	1995	na	na	na	1997	na	na
Supported accommodation	1995	1998	na	1999	1998	na	na
<i>Housing assistance</i>							
Public housing	1995	1995	1995	1995	1997	1997	1997
Community housing	1997	na	na	na	na	na	na
State and Territory owned and managed Indigenous housing	2002	2002	2002	2002	na	na	2002
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	1999	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000

^a In the *Report on Government Services*. ^b Not all frameworks in this Report necessarily follow the general framework set out in chapter 1, however, all services report indicators that cover these general areas. Where this framework is not followed, the service's performance indicators have been allocated to the most suitable broad category. ^c Refers to year in which Report was published, not year of data. **na** Nationally comparable data are not available.

Costing of services

In addition to the objective that funding or costs for delivery of services be measured and reported on a comparable basis, a further objective of the Review is that they reflect the full costs to government. The Review 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); and
- 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; and
- 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. Cash accounting, in contrast, recognises revenue and expenses when they are collected and paid. The majority of agencies and jurisdictions have adopted or have 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 for 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 from 1998-99 onwards with pre-1998-99 data, but also in cases where some agencies adopted accrual accounting at some later point in time.

Table 2.2 provides an overview of the Review's progress in reporting on an accrual basis, meeting the principle of reporting full cost to government (with the incorporation of 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 2.2 Progress of unit cost comparability in the 2003 Report

Framework/service	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>Health</i>					
Public hospitals	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Maternity					
General practice ^b	Accrual
Breast cancer	Accrual	na	na	na	x
Mental health	Accrual	x	x	✓	?
<i>Justice</i>					
Police services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Courts administration	Accrual	✓	x	✓	✓
Corrective services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Emergency management</i>					
Fire services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ambulance services	Accrual	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Community services</i>					
Aged care ^c	Accrual
Services to people with a disability	Accrual	✓	x	✓	✓
Children's services	Accrual	✓	x	✓	na
Child protection and out-of-home care ^c	Accrual	✓	x	✓	✓
Supported accommodation and assistance ^c	Accrual
<i>Housing assistance</i>					
Public housing	Accrual	✓	✓	na	✓
Community housing	Transition	x	x	x	x
State and Territory owned and managed	Accrual	x	x	na	✓
Indigenous housing					
Commonwealth Rent Assistance ^b	Accrual

✓ The 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 reported in accrual terms for the data in the 2003 Report. Cash: the majority of jurisdictions reported in cash terms for the data in the 2003 Report. Transition: the majority of jurisdictions did not report on either a pure cash or accrual basis. ^b Costs comprise mostly Commonwealth transfer payments to private service providers or households. ^c Costs comprise mostly Commonwealth, State or Territory transfer payments to private service providers or 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 can therefore 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 organisations may differ.

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

1. 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; or
2. when the majority of services are tax exempt, deduct the payroll tax amount from the costs of those government services that are taxable.

The VET, schools and corrective services chapters add a hypothetical payroll tax amount for exempt jurisdictions.

The police, courts administration and emergency management chapters deduct the amount from those services which are taxable. The disability services chapter presents the data adjusted in both ways.

Capital costs

Under the accrual accounting methodology, the focus is on the capital used (or consumed) in a particular year rather than 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).

As a matter of principle, it is important to incorporate the full impact of capital costs in cost comparisons. Capital can be a significant component of service delivery costs. Since capital 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 expenditures underestimate the underlying costs to governments. Inclusion of capital expenditures 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 estimates (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). 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. The study considered the likely materiality of differences in asset measurement techniques in the areas of corrective services, housing, police services and public hospitals.

The study found 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. Results of the study suggest that the differences created by these asset measurement effects were generally relatively small in the context of total unit costs as, except for housing, capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost. 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 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 reporting of accrued benefits to employees, the apportionment of costs that are 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 these revenues from their estimates of unit costs where the revenues are relatively small (for example, in police services and courts). 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 lead to the ability to make an adequate assessment of cost 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 cost efficiency.

People with special needs

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, rural and remote communities).

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. This was reinforced by the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) 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 the progress made in this area.

Table 2.3 provides a stocktake of data on Indigenous Australians in the Review, indicating which services have reported on at least one comparable performance indicator, or have descriptive data, for all jurisdictions. It does not signify the quality of the data.

Table 2.3 Reporting of at least one comparable data item on Indigenous Australians for the 2003 Report

<i>Framework/service</i>	<i>Descriptive data</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Access and equity</i>	<i>Appropriateness</i>	<i>Quality</i>	<i>Client views</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>							
School education	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
VET	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>							
Public hospitals	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Maternity services							
General practice	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
Breast cancer	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Mental health	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Justice</i>							
Police services	x	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
Courts administration	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Emergency management</i>							
Fire services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ambulance services	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>							
Juvenile justice	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
Aged care services	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Services for people with a disability	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Children's services	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
Child protection and out-of-home care	x	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
Supported accommodation	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
<i>Housing assistance</i>							
Public housing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community housing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
State and Territory owned and managed Indigenous housing	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	✓
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x

✓ Indicates that at least one nationally comparable data item is available. x Indicates that no nationally comparable data are available (although jurisdictions may report data specific to their jurisdiction).

COAG Report on Indigenous Disadvantage

In April 2002, COAG commissioned the Steering Committee to prepare a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage as part of the COAG

reconciliation commitment. This will be a new report, separate from the *Report on Government Services*.

The Steering Committee established a working group to advise on the Indigenous report, comprised of senior officials from each jurisdiction, as well as representatives from the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, the Australian Local Government Association, the Ministerial Council for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs (MCATSIA), and an observer from the ABS.

The Steering Committee released a draft consultation framework during October and November 2002. The draft consultation framework was largely based on an earlier framework developed by MCATSIA. After considering suggestions made during the consultation process, the Steering Committee will seek endorsement of the framework by COAG in early 2003 in order to meet the due date for publication of the first report in September 2003.

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, and when they do, may not provide for sufficient sampling to imbue the results with an adequate confidence interval.

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

- an ongoing program to develop and improve Indigenous data flowing from Commonwealth, State and Territory administrative systems;
- work with other agencies to ensure that 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 hospitals, 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; and
- expanding 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.

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 2.4 indicates which service sectors are reporting at least one comparable data item on services delivered to rural and remote communities. The table also shows whether the data available are in the form of descriptive information or a performance indicator.

Reporting data on rural and remote communities is complicated by the number of classifications systems that exist. Rural Remote Metropolitan Areas classification (or a variant) is still used in the majority of services in the Report (VET, public hospitals, general practice, health management, aged care services, children's services and public housing). Emergency services has moved to the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA Plus) and the other services, such as schools and children's services, are working towards reporting future data using ARIA Plus.

Table 2.4 Reporting of at least one comparable data item on rural and remote communities for the 2003 Report

<i>Framework/service</i>	<i>Descriptive data</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Access and equity</i>	<i>Appropriateness</i>	<i>Quality</i>	<i>Client views</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>							
School education	✓	✓	✓	X	x	x	✓
VET	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>							
Public hospitals	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
General practice	x	x	✓	x	✓	x	x
Breast cancer	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Mental health	x	✓	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Justice</i>							
Police services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Courts administration	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Emergency management</i>							
Fire services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ambulance services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>							
Aged care services	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Services for people with a disability	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Children's services	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Child protection and out-of-home care	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Supported accommodation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Housing assistance</i>							
Public housing	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community housing	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
State and Territory owned and managed	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x
Indigenous housing							
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x

✓ Indicates that at least one nationally comparable data item is available. x Indicates that no nationally comparable data are available (although jurisdictions may report data specific to their jurisdiction).

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 2.5 indicates which services have reported at least one comparable performance indicator, or descriptive data, for all jurisdictions.

Reporting data on people from a non-English speaking background is complicated by the number of classifications systems that exist. People speaking a language other than English at home (VET, health management, aged care and children's services) and people born in a non-English speaking country (protection and

support, VET and disability services) are the classifications currently adopted in the Report. However, some services are considering reporting future data using the cultural and language diversity classification (for example, protection and support) or the language background other than English classification (schools).

Table 2.5 Reporting of at least one comparable data item on people from a non-English speaking background for the 2003 Report

<i>Framework/service</i>	<i>Descriptive data</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Access and equity</i>	<i>Appropriateness</i>	<i>Quality</i>	<i>Client views</i>	<i>Efficiency</i>
<i>Education</i>							
School education	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
VET	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
<i>Health</i>							
Public hospitals	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Maternity services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
General practice	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Breast cancer	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Mental health	x	✓	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Justice</i>							
Police services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Courts administration	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Corrective services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Emergency management</i>							
Fire services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ambulance services	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
<i>Community services</i>							
Juvenile justice	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Aged care services	x	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Services for people with a disability	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Children's services	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Child protection and out-of-home care	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Supported accommodation	x	x	✓	✓	x	x	x
<i>Housing assistance</i>							
Public housing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Community housing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
State and Territory owned and managed Indigenous housing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Commonwealth Rent Assistance	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

✓ Indicates that at least one nationally comparable data item is available. x Indicates that no nationally comparable data are available (although jurisdictions may report data specific to their jurisdiction).

'Cross-cutting' issues

The management of issues that cut across more than one service area is an area of increasing interest for governments. These are issues that cannot solely be

addressed within any particular service area or ministerial portfolio. They include, for example, government policies aimed at specific client constituencies or social groups (such as the elderly, women, children, Indigenous Australians, people in rural and remote areas, and people from non-English speaking backgrounds) whose needs are seen as meriting comprehensive, integrated services and programs.

Improving the management of these issues can contribute to more cost effective (that is, more efficient, higher quality, and client focused) service provision. Greater efficiency and user friendliness is expected to come from a more holistic client focus with clearly defined priorities, and the elimination of duplicated or contradictory programs.

To date, data limitations have meant that the Review is yet to develop a performance indicator framework that cuts across more than one service area. However, work is progressing that may lead to improved data in this area. The National Community Services Data Committee is undertaking work involving the matching of relevant data elements in existing national data sets to common classifications and promoting consistency of definitions. It is anticipated that this will lead to better identification of the extent to which target groups use multiple services and may provide greater nationally comparable data in the future. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare is developing a national minimum data set for juvenile justice which is currently in the pilot test stage (due to be completed in 2003) and is also in the early stages of developing a performance indicator framework based on this data set. In the interim, and with a view to reporting performance related data in future reports, the 2003 Report continues to include descriptive information on juvenile justice.

Impact of the Goods and Services Tax (GST)

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 GST. Under the GST, government agencies are treated in the same manner as other businesses. That is, there are no exemptions from the GST for government agencies on their purchases and government agencies are able to 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. It appears that the GST has had little quantifiable impact on the performance indicators in this Report.

2.3 Related Review projects

The Steering Committee has also undertaken research into other issues relevant to the performance of government services.

In previous years the Steering Committee published reports on:

- an examination of 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 satisfaction of clients of disability services jointly with the National Disability Administrators (Equal and Donovan Research 2000);
- the use of activity surveys used 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; and
- Data Envelopment Analysis — a report on a technique for measuring the efficiency of government services delivery (SCRCSSP 1997b).

Earlier research has 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; and
- 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 disability services; and
- pricing court reporting services in Commonwealth courts.

The Steering Committee has also developed checklists on some 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; and
 - charging users (SCRCSSP 1998a).

The Steering Committee will continue to focus on research that is related to performance measurement, which should assist in improving reporting for individual services.

2.4 References

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, AusInfo, Canberra.

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

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

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

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

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

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

B Education preface

Education is a lifelong activity, delivered both informally (for example, by family, through the community or at work) and formally by the education system (for example, by schools, technical and further education [TAFE] institutes, registered training providers or universities). The education sector has a range of objectives, some of which are common across all levels of education (for example, to increase knowledge) while others are more specific to a particular level of education (for example, in vocational education and training [VET] to provide skills and knowledge directly relevant to work-related competencies).

Government and non-government providers both deliver formal education services. Government education agencies include government primary and secondary schools, and TAFE institutes. Governments also fund services delivered by universities and by non-government providers in the preschool, school and VET sectors.

The education section of this Report covers the performance of the school and VET sectors. Preschool programs, which provide a variety of educational and developmental experiences for children before full time schooling, are covered in the children's services chapter (chapter 14).

Areas of government involvement in education that are not covered in the following chapters include:

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

Factors external to the education sector — including other government services (such as health and community services) — influence education outcomes. These factors are not formally part of Australia's education system and are not covered in the following chapters, but are discussed in other sections of the Report. Indigenous status, language and cultural background, disability status, socioeconomic status and geographic location are also potential influences on educational outcomes. It is

a priority of the Review to improve the reporting of data for these factors in relation to the education outputs reported in the following chapters.

The remainder of this preface provides a systemwide picture of Australia's education system and its broad outcomes.

Profile of education

Roles and responsibilities

The roles and responsibilities of administering, funding and determining the objectives of the education sector encompass different levels of government and non-government authorities and stakeholders. 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 for the school sectors. Membership of MCEETYA includes Commonwealth, State and Territory Ministers with responsibility for education, employment, training and youth affairs.

The Australian National Training Authority Ministerial Council (ANTA MINCO) is comprised of Australia's Commonwealth, State and Territory Ministers with responsibility for VET. ANTA MINCO decides strategic policy, national objectives and priorities for the training system. ANTA MINCO is also responsible for approving funding for State and Territory training systems based on the performance of the jurisdictions in meeting specific targets for VET service delivery.

The Commonwealth Government's roles and responsibilities in providing education services include:

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

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

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

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

Funding

Education is a major area of expenditure and activity. Total operating expenses for all governments in 2000-01 were approximately \$34.7 billion, which was equivalent to 5.2 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP). Private final consumption expenditure on education in 2000-01 was approximately \$9.3 billion, or 1.4 per cent of GDP (ABS 2002a).

Commonwealth Government operating expenses in 2000-01 were \$10.9 billion, with \$9.9 billion (90.9 per cent) comprising grants to other levels of government. State, Territory and local government operating expenditure was \$24.9 billion for the same year. Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses were \$9.2 billion. The inter-sector transfers, such as grants, were \$10.3 billion (table B.1).

Between 1998-99 and 2000-01, the average annual growth rate of total government expenditure on education was 2.1 per cent. With the introduction of accrual accounting, the education expenditure series between 1998-99 and earlier years is not comparable.

Table B.1 Real Commonwealth, State and Territory (including local) government expenditure on education (2000-01 \$ million)^a

	1998-99 ^c	1999-2000 ^c	2000-01	Average annual real growth (%)
Commonwealth operating expenses	10 429	10 469	10 881	2.1
Transfers to other levels of government ^b	(9 674)	(9 723)	(9 889)	1.1
Commonwealth expenses after transfers	755	746	992	14.6
State and Territory (including local) operating expenses	24 046	24 473	24 898	1.8
Transfers to other levels of government ^b	(183)	(162)	(145)	-11.0
State and territory (including local) expenses after transfers	23 863	24 310	24 753	1.8
Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses	8 877	9 088	9 191	1.8
Transfers to other levels of government ^b	(247)	(262)	(249)	0.3
Multi-jurisdictional (university) expenses after transfers	8 629	8 826	8 942	1.8
Total operating expenses	33 250	33 880	34 688	2.1

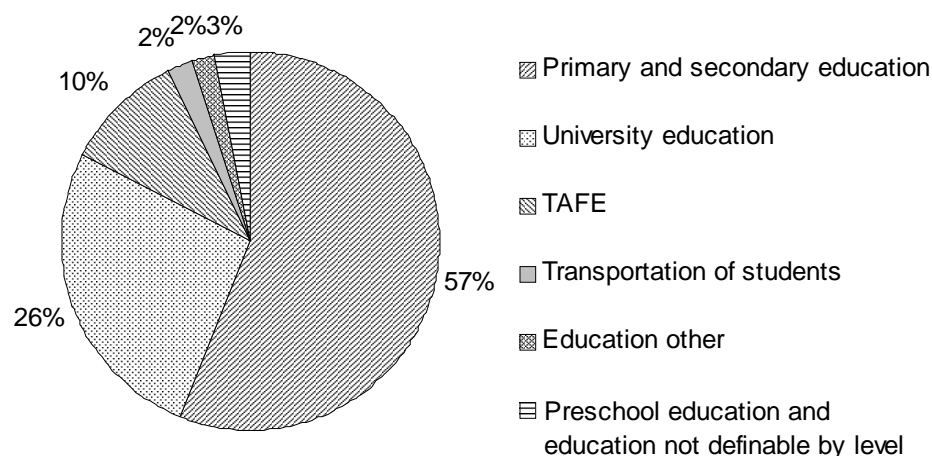
^a Based on accrual operating expenses for education. ^b Payments between levels of government within the public sector. ^c Calculated using the GDP implicit price deflator.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2000a, 2001a, 2002a).

In 2000-01, schools accounted for the highest proportion of education expenditure (57 per cent), followed by universities (26 per cent) and TAFE institutes (10 per cent) (figure B.1).

The breakdown of State and Territory government expenditure across the education sector varied across jurisdictions in 2000-01. The proportion of State and Territory expenditure allocated to total school education (including primary, secondary, preschool and education not definable by level) ranged from 85.6 per cent in Queensland to 76.7 per cent in the NT. The highest proportion of expenditure on TAFE was in WA (15.1 per cent) and the lowest proportion was in the NT (8.4 per cent). There was little difference across jurisdictions in the proportion of expenditure on university education, except in the NT, which had the highest proportion (6.7 per cent) (table B.2).

Figure B.1 Total government expenditure on education, 2000-01^{a, b}



^a Based on accrual operating expenses for education. ^b Education other includes tertiary other.

Source: ABS (2002a).

Table B.2 State, Territory and local government expenditure, 2000-01

	Unit	NSW ^a	Vic ^b	Qld	WA ^c	SA	Tas ^d	ACT	NT	Total
Preschool and not definable by level ^e	%	0.4	5.3	8.9	6.0	6.8	–	4.2	6.2	4.4
Primary and secondary	%	79.8	75.6	76.8	78.1	77.6	84.2	77.6	70.5	77.8
TAFE	%	14.3	14.6	11.2	15.1	13.8	12.3	14.5	8.4	13.7
University	%	–	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.1	1.5	6.7	0.5
Other tertiary	%	–	0.9	0.0	0.8	–	–	–	3.8	0.4
Other ^f	%	5.5	3.0	2.6	–	1.1	3.3	2.4	4.6	3.3
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	\$m	8 070	6 305	4 507	2 319	2 133	690	456	417	24 898

^a Most expenditure for preschools in NSW is contained in other budget areas and not included in this table. Some special education expenditure for preschool students and all special education expenditure for school students for NSW is included under 'primary and secondary'. ^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. The latter is defined as: adult education courses that are essentially non-vocational, other than those offered by institutes of TAFE; migrant education programs; and other educational programs not definable by level. ^f Transportation of students and education not elsewhere classified. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2002a).

Size and scope

In 2001, there were 3.3 million full time school students attending 9596 schools in Australia, including 6942 government schools (ABS 2002c). Over 1.6 million VET

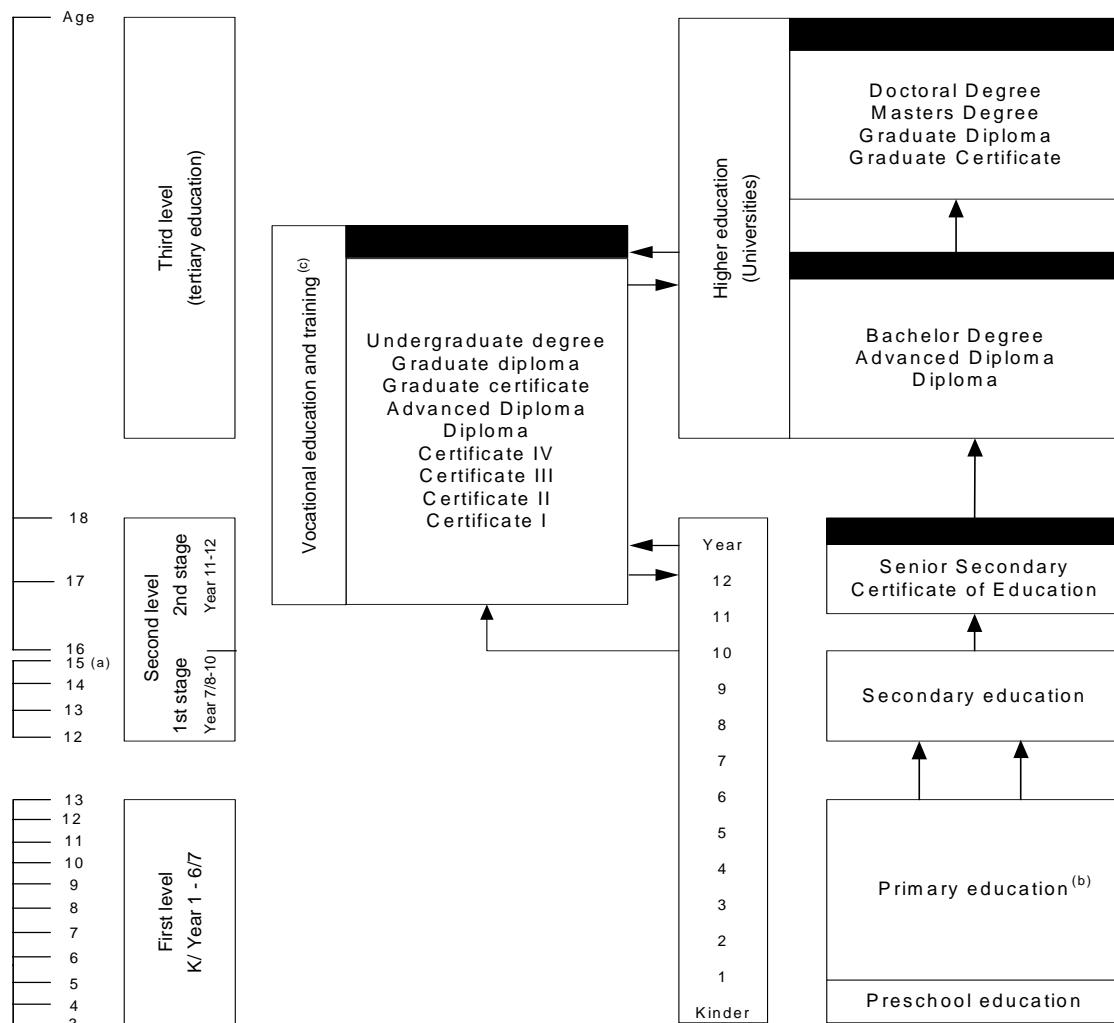
students undertook vocational programs delivered by providers in receipt of public funding allocations for VET. These programs were delivered in 87 public training institutions and associated major campuses, 985 training centres for community education providers and 5645 training locations by other registered providers (ANTA 2002; NCVER 2001). There were 726 000 higher education students, whose courses were delivered by 39 universities, four self-accrediting higher education institutions and 85 other higher education providers accredited by State and Territory educational authorities. Forty-two of these higher education institutions were eligible for Commonwealth operating grants, 38 of which were universities. All 39 universities and three other institutions were eligible for research funds through the Department of Education Science and Training (ABS 2002b; DEST 2002).

Learning pathways

Box B.1 illustrates the Australian education system, indicating the compulsory years of schooling (until 16 years of age in Tasmania and 15 years of age in all other jurisdictions), the range of pathways and the options available to students in post-compulsory education and training. 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 the senior secondary certificate, and both VET diplomas and higher education diplomas, gain credit towards a bachelors degree. Similarly, the VET sector also recognises some higher education qualifications.

Box B.1 Outline of the Australian education system



a End of compulsory schooling.

b Year 7 is part of primary school in some States and Territories and part of secondary education in others.

c Undergraduate degrees, graduate diplomas and graduate certificates are not offered within the VET system in all jurisdictions.

Source: based on NOOSR (2000).

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. Approximately 170 000 students were enrolled in VET in schools programs in 2001, representing 41 per cent of all students undertaking their senior secondary certificate and a 10.4 per cent increase from 2000. These programs were offered by 2083 schools, or 94.9 per cent of all schools offering senior secondary programs. Enrolments were highest in tourism and

hospitality programs, which accounted for 18.4 per cent of all enrolments (MCEETYA, unpublished).

In 2001, 59.6 per cent per cent of students participating in VET in schools programs undertook workplace learning. By the end of 2001, nearly 5755 students were involved in a schools-based New Apprenticeship (MCEETYA, unpublished). Care should be taken in interpreting the VET in schools data, because data definitions across States and Territories are not yet consistent.

Measuring the performance of the education system

Measuring the effectiveness and efficiency of the Australian education sector is a complex task. Individual performance indicator frameworks for the schools and VET sectors have been developed for the purposes of the Review, but there is significant interaction between these two sectors, and between these sectors and the university sector. Socioeconomic factors, geographic location, age, language background and the performance of other service sectors (particularly the health and housing sectors) also contribute to an individual's overall education outcomes.

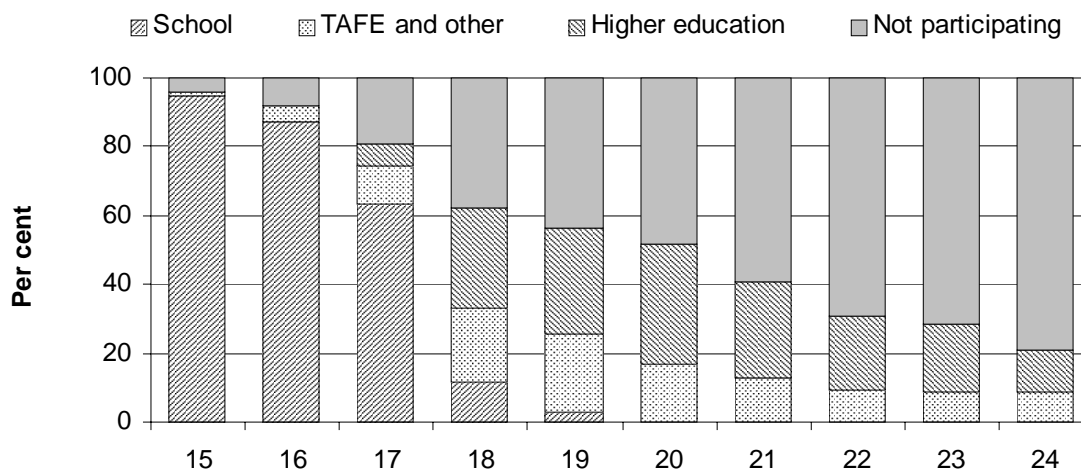
Effectiveness

Participation in education and training

Successive Australian governments have viewed education as a key means to improve economic and social outcomes, as well as to improve the equity of outcomes in society. They have sought, therefore, to increase rates of participation in education.

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. In 2001, the participation rate was 62.5 per cent for 18 year olds and 21.4 per cent for 24 year olds (figure B.2).

Figure B.2 **Participation in education and training by people aged 15–24 years, by sector, 2001^a**



^a 'Other' includes all education or training participation at institutions other than schools, higher education institutions, or TAFE institutes.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

Participation in education, training and work

Research undertaken by bodies such as the Dusseldorp Skills Forum and the Australian Council for Educational Research has indicated 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-twenties. A full time participation measure has thus 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 both part time education or training and part time work.

Table B.3 shows a fairly consistent pattern, with full time participation rates declining from 15 years through to age 18 years, and remaining relatively stable from 18 years through to 24 years. The full time participation rate for 15–24 year olds in 2001 was highest in Victoria (85.5 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (76.0 per cent).

Table B.3 Full time participation rates, 2001 (per cent)^a

<i>age (years)</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA^b</i>	<i>Tas^b</i>	<i>ACT^b</i>	<i>NT^{b, c}</i>	<i>Aust</i>
15	97.6	97.3	97.5	92.5	97.5	98.6	100.0	96.1	97.0
16	94.5	95.9	92.7	91.1	95.4	94.4	95.5	91.6	94.2
17	89.7	94.7	77.0	81.3	85.0	91.7	96.0	84.3	87.3
18	75.9	85.4	71.3	80.9	74.7	78.7	68.2	68.4	77.7
19	79.8	83.8	72.5	78.3	63.8	67.0	73.2	68.2	77.4
20	80.8	80.7	72.8	75.2	67.7	76.9	74.3	63.1	77.5
21	82.3	86.5	68.6	74.6	69.1	64.2	75.2	81.8	78.5
22	78.2	80.2	66.2	74.7	73.3	57.8	67.5	81.1	75.2
23	82.4	79.7	71.8	74.1	78.2	63.1	87.0	68.5	78.1
24	76.2	72.9	69.4	73.0	63.9	65.7	97.9	57.3	73.0
15–24	83.7	85.5	76.0	79.6	77.0	76.5	83.2	76.8	81.5

^a Includes participation in full time education or full time work, or both part time education and part time work.

^b The relative standard errors are between 10 and 25 per cent for the estimates associated with: 19 and 24 year olds in SA; 19, 21, 22, 23 and 24 year olds in Tasmania; 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 year olds in the ACT; and 17, 21 and 22 year olds in the NT. ^c The relative standard errors are between 25 and 50 per cent for the estimates associated with 18, 19, 20, 23 and 24 year olds in the NT. These estimates need to be used with caution.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

School leaver destinations

Approximately 271 600 students left school in the year to May 2001 to work, attend university or VET institutions, or undertake combinations of work and education. Of these students, 31.7 per cent were early school leavers. Males were more likely to be early school leavers, making up 68.0 per cent of the total. Higher education institutions attracted around 85 900 school leavers in 2001, or 31.6 per cent of all school leavers. Institutes of TAFE attracted 67 300 school leavers (24.8 per cent). While 71.1 per cent of year 12 leavers went on to post-school education and training, only 36.7 per cent of early school leavers undertook any further study (table B.4).

Table B.4 School leaver destination (15–24 year olds), 2001^{a, b}

Type of institution attended in May 2001	Year 12 leavers			Early school leavers ^c			All school leavers			
	Unit	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Higher education ^d	%	41.8	49.2	45.7	1.1	1.7	1.3	25.5	38.8	31.6
TAFE institutes	%	27.3	17.7	22.2	32.3	26.0	30.3	29.3	19.5	24.8
Other study ^{e, f}	%	3.1	3.3	3.2	5.1	5.4	5.2	3.9	3.7	3.8
Not attending	%	27.8	29.8	28.9	61.6	66.9	63.3	41.3	37.9	39.8
Total	'000	87.6	98.1	185.6	58.5	27.4	86.0	146.1	125.5	271.6

^a Data for people who attended school in 2000 and were not attending school in May 2001. ^b Those attending in May 2000 include those studying for nonrecognised qualifications. ^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 and female year 12 leavers, and male, female and total early school leavers have relative standard errors of between 25 and 50 per cent and need to be used with caution.

Source: ABS (unpublished).

Education enrolment experience

In 2001, approximately 2.6 million people aged 15–64 years applied to enrol in an educational institution. Of the people who applied to enrol, 2.3 million (90.5 per cent) were studying in 2001, while 6.4 per cent deferred study and 3.1 per cent were unable to gain placement (down from 3.4 per cent in 2000) (table B.5).

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

	Unit	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Applied to enrol for 2001	'000	2 389.3	2 402.8	2 537.5	2 527.8	2 552.9
Studying in May 2001	%	89.2	89.2	89.0	89.3	90.5
Gained placement but deferred study	%	7.6	7.3	7.4	7.3	6.4
Unable to gain placement ^a	%	3.1	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.1
Study would lead to an educational qualification	%	2.6	2.9	3.1	2.9	2.6
TAFE	%	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.4
Other ^b	%	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Higher education	%	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8
Study would not lead to a recognised qualification	%	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Did not apply to enrol in 2001	'000	9 797.7	9 938.1	9 945.1	10 124.9	10 235.4
Total	'000	12 187.0	12 340.9	12 482.6	12 652.7	12 788.3

^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.

Source: ABS (1998, 1999, 2000b, 2001b, 2002d).

Educational attainment in Australia

Another 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 or courses not leading to a formal qualification.

There were approximately 5.0 million people aged 15–64 years in 2001 whose highest level of educational attainment was a post-school qualification. Of this group, 43.9 per cent had a higher degree, postgraduate diploma or bachelor degree as their highest qualification (ABS 2002d). Of the 7.6 million people in this age group without post-school qualifications, 2.5 million had completed the highest level of secondary school.

Over four million of those whose highest level of educational attainment was a post-school qualification were employed in 2001, representing 45.9 per cent of employed people aged 15–64 years. People with a bachelor or higher degree were more likely to be employed (84.8 per cent) and people who did not complete secondary school the least likely (56.8 per cent) (table B.6).

Table B.6 Level of highest educational attainment of people aged 15-64 years, by labour force status, 2001^a

Labour force status	Unit	Post-school qualifications				School year level		Total ^b
		Bachelor degree or higher	Advanced diploma/diploma	Certificate III or IV	Certificate I, II or nfd	Year 12	Year 11 or below	
Employed	%	84.8	78.9	83.0	57.1	71.9	56.8	69.8
Unemployed	%	2.4	3.6	4.0	9.9	5.8	6.7	5.2
Not in labour force	%	12.7	17.6	13.0	33.0	22.4	36.5	25.0
Total	'000	2 179.7	854.6	1798.6	135.5	2521.7	5 108.2	12788.3

^a At May. ^b Includes people who never attended school and people whose highest level of educational attainment could not be determined. NFD = not further defined.

Source: ABS (2002d).

People employed as professionals were most likely to have completed a bachelor or higher degree as their highest qualification in 2001 (67.5 per cent), while the highest qualification for the majority of tradespeople and related workers was a certificate III or IV (54.8 per cent). People employed as clerical sales and service workers, intermediate production and transport workers, and labourers and related workers were most likely to have year 11 or below as their highest level of educational attainment (table B.7).

Table B.7 Level of highest educational attainment of employed persons aged 15–64 years, by occupation, 2001^a

Occupation in current job	Post-school qualifications				School year level		Total ^b '000
	Bachelor degree or higher	Advanced diploma./ diploma	Certificate III or IV	Certificate I, II or nfd	Year 12	Year 11 or below	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Managers and administrators	28.3	9.2	14.7	0.6	15.5	29.4	655.3
Professionals	67.5	12.5	4.9	0.3	8.9	4.6	1675.8
Associate professionals	19.2	12.1	16.7	0.7	23.5	26.3	1031.7
Trades people and related workers	3.0	3.1	54.8	0.8	12.1	25.1	1150.7
Advanced clerical, sales and service workers	11.6	9.3	7.4	1.8	27.9	39.6	415.2
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	10.4	8.6	11.5	1.2	30.7	36.5	1527.4
Intermediate production and transport workers	2.8	2.2	18.5	1.0	19.8	54.6	771.5
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers	4.7	4.0	7.5	0.9	31.6	50.1	886.8
Labourers and related workers	3.5	2.7	11.8	1.3	20.0	59.4	812.5
Total	20.7	7.5	16.7	0.9	20.3	32.5	8927.0

^a At May. ^b Includes people who never attended school and people whose highest level of educational attainment could not be determined. NFD = certificate not further defined.

Source: ABS (2002d).

International comparisons of education

The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) is an initiative of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). In 2000, PISA conducted a survey of the reading, mathematical and scientific literacy of 15 year olds across 32 countries, including 28 OECD countries. Almost 6200 students from 231 Australian schools participated in the survey (Lokan *et al.* 2001).

Table B.8 shows the mean scores for Australian students compared to those for the other OECD countries for which results are available. Care should be taken in interpreting the table because differences in the scores are not always statistically significant. Australia's result was significantly above the OECD average in reading,

mathematical and scientific literacy. Finland was the only country that significantly outperformed Australia in reading literacy, and Japan was the only country that significantly outperformed Australia in mathematical literacy. Korea and Japan significantly outperformed Australia in scientific literacy (Lokan *et al.* 2001). Further information on PISA is included in chapter 3.

Table B.8 Achievement of 15-year-old students by country, PISA, 2000^a

<i>Reading literacy</i>		<i>Mathematical literacy</i>		<i>Scientific literacy</i>	
<i>OECD countries</i>	<i>mean score</i>	<i>OECD countries</i>	<i>mean score</i>	<i>OECD countries</i>	<i>mean score</i>
<i>Countries significantly higher than Australia</i>					
Finland	546	Japan	557	Korea	552
				Japan	550
<i>Countries not significantly different from Australia</i>					
Canada	534	Korea	547	Finland	538
New Zealand	529	New Zealand	537	United Kingdom	532
Australia	528	Finland	536	Canada	529
Ireland	527	Australia	533	New Zealand	528
Korea	525	Canada	533	Australia	528
United Kingdom	523	Switzerland	529	Austria	519
Japan	522	United Kingdom	529	Ireland	513
Sweden	516	Belgium	520		
United States	504				
<i>Countries significantly lower than Australia</i>					
Austria	507	France	517	Sweden	512
Belgium	507	Austria	515	Czech Republic	511
Iceland	507	Denmark	514	OECD average	500
Norway	505	Iceland	514	France	500
France	505	Sweden	510	Norway	500
OECD average	500	Ireland	503	United States	499
Denmark	497	OECD average	500	Hungary	496
Switzerland	494	Norway	499	Iceland	496
Spain	493	Czech Rrepublic	498	Belgium	496
Czech Republic	492	United States	493	Switzerland	496
Italy	487	Germany	490	Spain	491
Germany	484	Hungary	488	Germany	487
Hungary	480	Spain	476	Poland	483
Poland	479	Poland	470	Denmark	481
Greece	474	Italy	457	Italy	478
Portugal	470	Portugal	454	Greece	461
Luxembourg	441	Greece	447	Portugal	459
Mexico	422	Luxembourg	446	Luxembourg	443
		Mexico	387	Mexico	422

^a A probability level of 5 per cent has been used to test for the significance of differences.

Source: Lokan *et al.* (2001).

Efficiency

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 the scope to improve their efficiency performance. Special characteristics within jurisdictions, however, mean it would be hard for all jurisdictions to attain the same level of unit costs while achieving similar outcomes. One way of better understanding how special circumstances 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 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.

Table B.9 Education institution recurrent unit costs, 2000-01^{a, b}

	<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>
<i>Government primary schools</i>										
In-school cost per FTE student ^c	\$	5 976	5 862	6 051	6 162	6 893	6 811	6 428	9 866	6 118
Difference from national average	%	-2.3	-4.2	-1.1	0.7	12.7	11.3	5.1	61.3	-
<i>Government secondary schools</i>										
In-school cost per FTE student ^c	\$	8 211	7 683	7 703	8 499	8 828	7 986	8 901	13 667	8 079
Difference from national average	%	1.6	-4.9	-4.7	5.2	9.3	-1.2	10.2	69.2	-
<i>VET^d</i>										
Cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour ^e	\$	13.03	10.75	12.91	13.73	11.37	14.32	12.46	19.74	12.42
Difference from national average	%	4.9	-13.4	3.9	10.6	-8.5	15.3	0.4	58.9	-

^a Based on accrual data. ^b Includes recurrent costs only, for information on capital costs (such as the user cost of capital), see chapters 3 and 4 ^c Excludes capital charges for Victoria, Queensland and the ACT, and includes payroll tax estimates for WA and the ACT ^d Data are based on 2001 calendar year. ^e Includes payroll tax estimates for the ACT. FTE students are full time equivalents. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Sources: Chapters 3 and 4.

Unit cost differences across education sectors should be used as a starting point for further analysis, rather than interpreted in isolation from the outcomes and outputs of the service areas (see chapters 3 and 4). Further, comparing the performance of

education sectors requires a cross-sectoral approach to measuring and classifying educational participation and attainment. Considerable attention is being given to cross-sectoral measurement issues with the establishment of the National Centre for Education and Training Statistics (within the ABS), and with the introduction of the Australian Standard Classification of Education.

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3 School education

This chapter focuses on performance information — 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 available for:

- government primary and secondary schools;
- non-government primary and secondary schools; and
- 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; and
- developing their capacity to contribute to Australia’s social, cultural and economic development.

This year, the Report has been enhanced by the inclusion of nationally comparable learning outcomes for:

- numeracy for years 3 and 5; and
- reading, mathematical and scientific literacy for 15 year olds.

Reporting on outcomes for Indigenous students has also been improved.

Following a discussion of the profile of school education in Australia in section 3.1, recent policy developments are discussed in section 3.2. These two sections provide the context for the assessment of performance indicators in the subsequent sections. Section 3.3 includes the framework of performance indicators for school education and section 3.4 presents and discusses the available data relating to this framework. In section 3.5, future directions in the development and reporting of performance indicators for school education are discussed. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions’ comments in section 3.6 and definitions of terms in section 3.7.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 3 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel 97 format as \Publications\Reports\2003\Attach3A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2003\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; and
- 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 2002a).

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 contextual background for the performance information presented later in the chapter. Further information is provided in appendix A.

Roles and responsibilities

The State and Territory governments have constitutional 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 receive significant Commonwealth, State and Territory government funding.

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

Funding

Commonwealth, State and Territory government expenditure on school education in 2000-01 was \$21.9 billion (table 3.1). Expenditure on government schools was \$17.3 billion, or 78.6 per cent of the total. Government schools account for most of the expenditure by State and Territory governments, but 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 Commonwealth spending on Indigenous-specific programs, can be found in tables 3A.5 and 3A.6.

Nationally, State and Territory governments provided 89.1 per cent of total government expenditure on government schools in 2000-01, and the Commonwealth Government provided 10.9 per cent. In contrast, government expenditure on non-government schools in that year was mainly provided by the Commonwealth (71.8 per cent), with States and Territories providing 28.2 per cent (table 3.1). The expenditure figures for this Report are based on accrual accounting and are not comparable with expenditure figures included in reports up to and including the 2001 Report (which were based on cash accounting).

Some data are presented on government funding of non-government schools. Caution needs to be taken in examining data on the efficiency of government and non-government schools because governments provide only part of the funding for non-government schools. Governments provided 57 per cent of non-government

school funding in 2000, with the remaining 43 per cent sourced from private fees and fundraising (MCEETYA 2002a).

Table 3.1 Government expenditure on school education, 2000-01 (\$ million)^{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>
Government schools									
Commonwealth	629	431	351	186	155	54	32	34	1 872
States and Territories	4 836	3 677	3 056	1 458	1 275	444	305	328	15 379
Total	5 465	4 108	3 407	1 644	1 430	498	337	362	17 251
Non-government schools									
Commonwealth	1 121	886	613	339	252	64	69	30	3 373
States and Territories	480	270	258	152	82	29	27	24	1 322
Total	1 600	1 156	871	491	333	93	96	54	4 695
All schools									
Commonwealth	1 750	1 316	964	525	407	118	101	64	5 245
States and Territories	5 316	3 947	3 314	1 610	1 357	473	331	352	16 701
Total	7 065	5 264	4 279	2 135	1 764	591	433	416	21 946

^a See notes to table 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Based on accrual accounting.

Source: MCEETYA 2002b (unpublished); Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.8.

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 begins with 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 noncompulsory components based on age, not grade. School education is compulsory in all States and Territories for people between 6 and 15 years of age (and to 16 years of age in Tasmania).

Figure 3.1 Structure of primary and secondary schooling, 2001

<i>Level</i>	<i>NSW, Vic, Tas, ACT</i>	<i>SA, NT</i>	<i>WA, Qld</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 ^a	Kindergarten (NSW, ACT) Preparatory (Vic, Tas)	Reception (SA) Transition (NT)	

^a Pre-year 1 is not included in the pattern of study in Queensland. Pre-year 1 is called 'pre-primary' in WA (where students attended on a four-day week basis in 2001). From 2002, pre-primary students in WA will be attending five days a week, at which time students and staff will be included within the scope of MCEETYA's National School Statistics Collection.

Source: MCEETYA (2001).

Schools

At the beginning of August 2001, there were 9596 schools in Australia. The majority of schools were government owned and managed (72.3 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 2001, the NT had the highest proportion of very small primary schools (those having 20 or fewer students) at 14.7 per cent and the highest proportion of secondary schools with 300 or fewer students, at 25.0 per cent. Nationally, 61.3 per cent of all secondary schools enrolled over 600 students (table 3A.11). A breakdown of primary and secondary schools by size for government, non-government and all schools is reported in tables 3A.9, 3A.10 and 3A.11 respectively.

Table 3.2 Summary of school characteristics, August 2001

	<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	1648	1233	981	516	441	141	66	94	5120
Combined ^a	64	49	76	89	77	26	3	40	424
Secondary	394	264	187	96	73	39	22	10	1085
Special schools ^b	80	79	49	68	20	8	4	5	313
Total	2186	1625	1293	769	611	214	95	149	6942
Non-government schools (no.)									
Primary	531	448	238	157	119	32	27	15	1567
Combined ^a	200	129	112	84	56	27	8	11	627
Secondary	144	103	76	40	22	7	6	6	404
Special schools ^b	31	16	2	2	3	1	1	0	56
Total	906	696	428	283	200	67	42	32	2654
All schools (no.)									
Primary	2179	1681	1219	673	560	173	93	109	6687
Combined ^a	264	178	188	173	133	53	11	51	1051
Secondary	538	367	263	136	95	46	28	16	1489
Special schools ^b	111	95	51	70	23	9	5	5	369
Total	3092	2321	1721	1052	811	281	137	181	9596
Proportion of schools that are government schools (%)									
Primary	75.6	73.3	80.5	76.7	78.8	81.5	71.0	86.2	76.6
Combined ^a	24.2	27.5	40.4	51.4	57.9	49.1	27.3	78.4	40.3
Secondary	73.2	71.9	71.1	70.6	76.8	84.8	78.6	62.5	72.9
Special schools ^b	72.1	83.2	96.1	97.1	87.0	88.9	80.0	100.0	84.8
All schools	70.7	70.0	75.1	73.1	75.3	76.2	69.3	82.3	72.3
Proportion of primary schools (%)									
Government	75.4	75.9	75.9	67.1	72.2	65.9	69.5	63.1	73.8
Non-government	58.6	64.4	55.6	55.5	59.5	47.8	64.3	46.9	59.0
All schools	70.5	72.4	70.8	64.0	69.1	61.6	67.9	60.2	69.7

^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: Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2002a).

Student body

There were 3.3 million full time equivalent student enrolments in primary and secondary schools in August 2001 (table 3.3). The proportion of students enrolled in government schools was greater in primary schools (72.4 per cent) than in secondary schools (64.0 per cent). The proportion of students in government schools was highest in the NT (77.4 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (62.6 per cent).

Differences in schooling structures influence enrolment patterns. Primary school education in SA and the NT, for example, involves an additional year of schooling.

As a result, the proportion of students enrolled in primary school education would be expected to be higher in these jurisdictions than in others (table 3.3).

Total full time equivalent student enrolments in schools in Australia were relatively stable over the five years to 2001 — up by about 0.8 per cent each year between August 1997 and August 2001. Enrolments in individual jurisdictions grew at different rates, with total enrolments increasing by 1.5 per cent each year in Queensland and declining by 0.2 per cent each year in Tasmania and the ACT (table 3A.13).

Table 3.3 Full time equivalent student enrolments, August 2001^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>
Total full time equivalent student enrolments at level of education ('000)									
Primary schools	630.4	454.1	372.6	191.6	159.5	46.9	32.6	25.7	1913.5
Secondary schools	470.6	357.1	240.1	128.7	93.6	37.5	28.2	11.7	1367.4
All schools	1101.0	811.2	612.7	320.3	253.1	84.4	60.8	37.4	3280.9
Proportion of full time equivalent students who were enrolled in government schools (%)									
Primary schools	71.8	69.4	75.8	74.4	71.7	77.7	66.0	80.2	72.4
Secondary schools	64.6	61.3	64.4	64.6	66.2	72.2	58.7	71.3	64.0
All schools	68.7	65.8	71.3	70.4	69.6	75.2	62.6	77.4	68.9
Proportion of full time equivalent students who were female (all schools) (%)									
Primary schools	48.7	48.6	48.7	48.6	48.5	48.7	48.9	48.7	48.7
Secondary schools	49.7	50.0	49.5	49.6	50.1	50.8	49.3	49.8	49.8
All schools	49.1	49.2	49.0	49.0	49.1	49.6	49.1	49.0	49.1
Proportion of full time equivalent students who were enrolled in primary education (%)									
Government schools	59.8	59.0	64.6	63.2	64.9	57.4	56.5	71.1	61.3
Non-government schools	51.6	50.1	51.3	51.9	58.8	50.2	48.9	60.3	51.7
All schools	57.3	56.0	60.8	59.8	63.0	55.6	53.7	68.7	58.3

^a Students enrolled in special schools are included in this table, with special school students of primary school age included in the primary figures and those of secondary school age included in the secondary figures.

Source: ABS (2002a).

The proportion of students enrolled in non-government schools increased between 1997 and 2001 in all States and Territories except Tasmania. Total non-government school enrolments expanded by an average of 2.1 per cent each year, while the expansion in government school enrolments was 0.2 per cent each year (table 3A.13). The expansion of enrolments in non-government schools, however, is from a lower base than that for government schools.

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 year 11 or year 12 short courses (lasting 5–22 weeks).

The proportion of secondary school students who were part time in 2001 varied considerably across jurisdictions, partly because each education authority had different policy and organisational arrangements for part time study. The number of part time courses available also varied considerably across jurisdictions. The NT, South Australia and Tasmania had the highest proportions of part time government secondary school students in 2001 (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									
1997	2 204	2 185	6 911	4 447	6 054	2 824	3	663	25 291
1998	3 029	2 044	4 276	4 157	5 909	2 607	10	961	22 993
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
Proportion of secondary school students in government schools who were part time students (%)									
1997	0.7	1.0	4.7	5.2	9.5	9.4	–	7.7	2.8
1998	1.0	0.9	2.8	4.8	9.2	8.7	0.1	10.9	2.6
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

^a Absolute number of part time secondary students (not full time equivalent). – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2002a).

Special needs groups

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

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

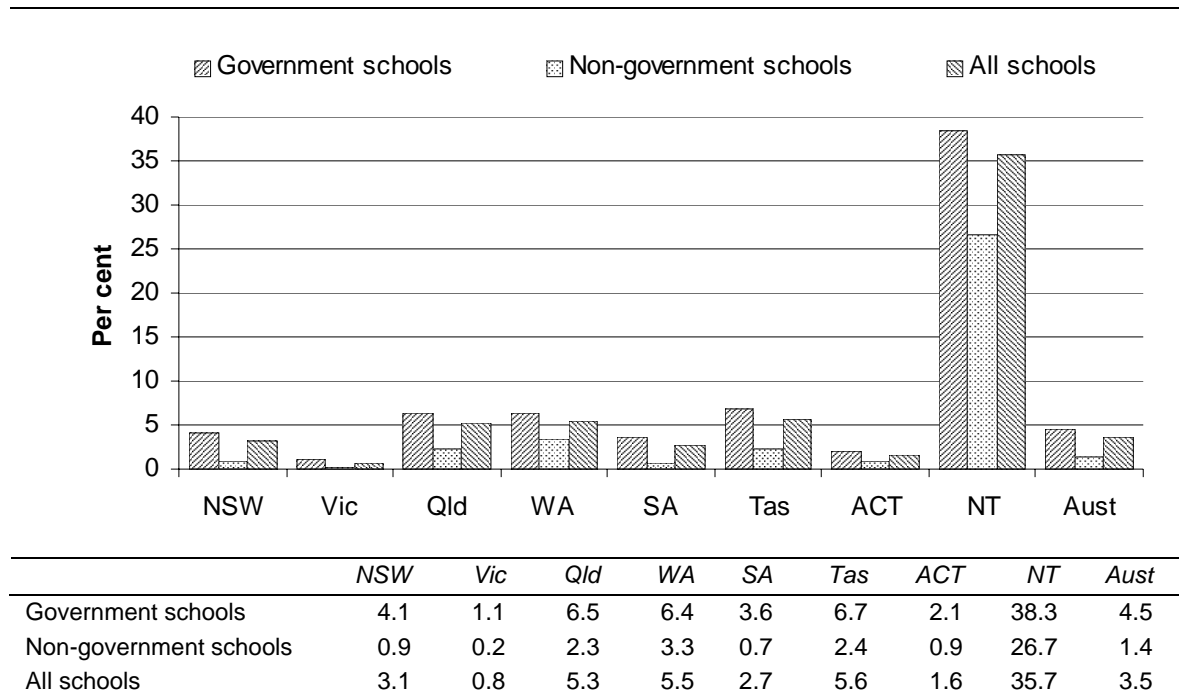
Government schools provide education for a high proportion of students from special needs groups. Around 88 per cent of Indigenous students and 82 per cent of students with disabilities, for example, attended government schools in 2001 (table 3A.14 and table 3A.16). This chapter reports on the proportions of Indigenous students, students from a language background other than English, students with disabilities and students who are geographically remote. Care needs to be taken in

interpreting this information because some definitions for groups of ‘special needs’ students differ across States and Territories.

Indigenous students

The proportion of Indigenous students in NT schools was 35.7 per cent in 2001 — far higher than the proportion in any other jurisdiction. The jurisdictions with the next highest proportions of Indigenous students were Tasmania and WA (5.6 per cent and 5.5 per cent respectively) (figure 3.2). In absolute terms, NSW (33 910) and Queensland (32 147) had the largest numbers of Indigenous students, together accounting for 57.2 per cent of all Indigenous students enrolled in Australian schools. To assist the interpretation of figure 3.2, the underlying data are presented below the figure. Table 3A.14 provides additional information on Indigenous enrolments.

Figure 3.2 Indigenous students as a proportion of all students, 2001^a



^a Full time students.

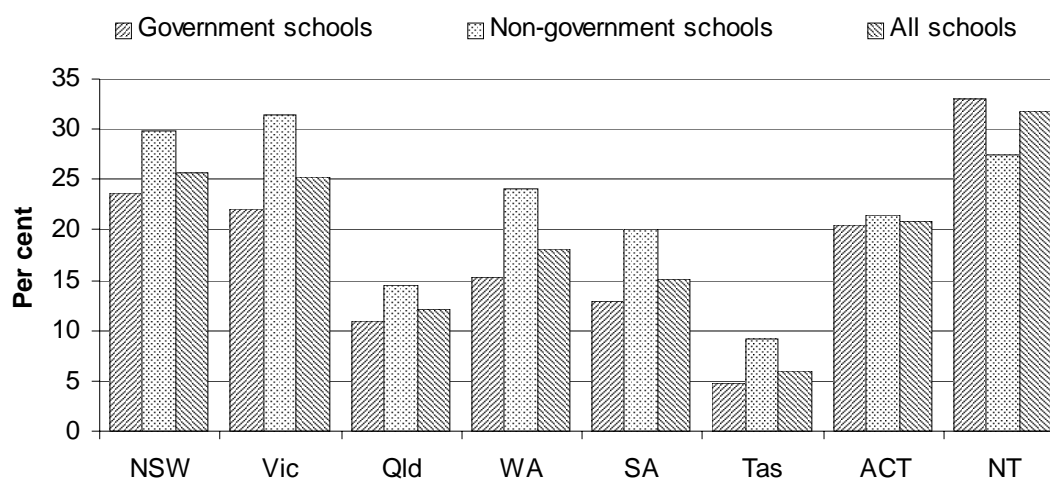
Source: ABS (2002a); table 3A.14.

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 4.5 per cent for government schools and 1.4 per cent for non-government schools.

LBOTE students

Figure 3.3 shows proportions of LBOTE students based on data from the 2001 Census. In 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 was born in a non-English speaking country. Across school education as a whole, the NT had the highest proportion of LBOTE students (31.8 per cent) in 2001 (which may reflect the inclusion of Indigenous students whose home language is not English in the definition of LBOTE students). 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



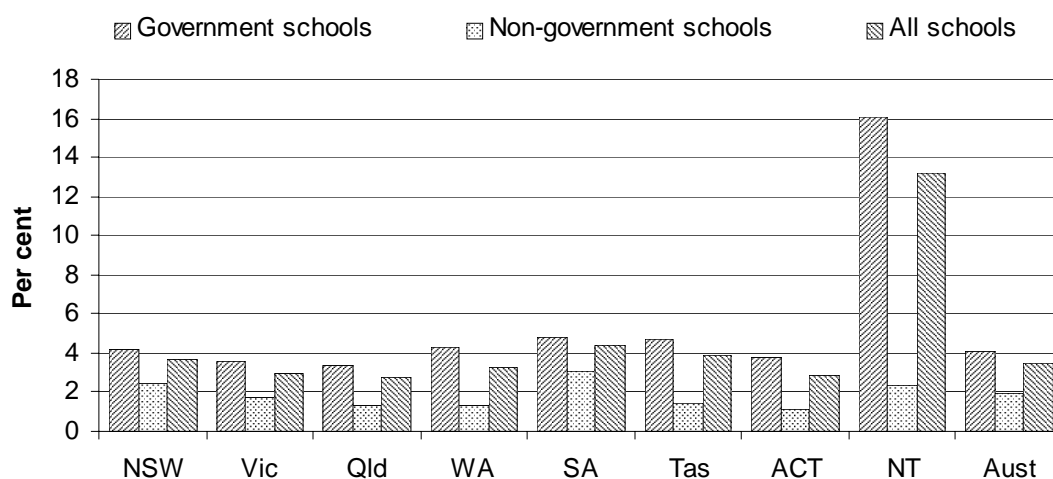
Source: Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) (unpublished) based on the ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing; table 3A.15.

Students with disabilities

Students with disabilities are educated in both mainstream and special schools. In figure 3.4, students with disabilities were those that satisfied the criteria for enrolment in special education services provided in the State or Territory in which they resided. These criteria vary across jurisdictions. Criteria relating to social or emotional impairment, for example, exist in some jurisdictions (including NSW) but not others (including the ACT). The NT had the highest proportion (13.2 per cent) of students with disabilities in 2001, while Queensland and the ACT had the lowest proportion (2.8 per cent) (figure 3.4). Nationally, the proportion of

students with disabilities was around twice as high in government schools compared with non-government schools.

Figure 3.4 **Students with disabilities as a proportion of all students, 2001**



Source: DEST (unpublished); table 3A.16.

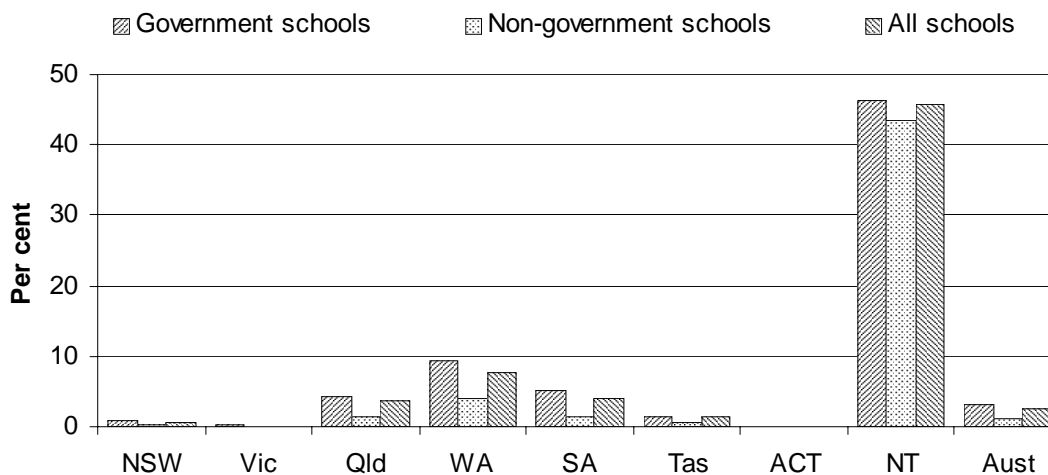
Geographically remote students¹

Data on geographically remote students are included in this chapter for the first time this year. The classification structure used is consistent with that agreed in principle by Education Ministers for the purposes of nationally comparable reporting of the outcomes of schooling.

The NT had by far the highest proportion (45.7 per cent) of students attending schools in remote areas in 2001, while WA had the next highest proportion (7.8 per cent) for all schools. The ACT had no remote students and Victoria had the next lowest proportion (0.1 per cent) for all schools (figure 3.5). Nationally, the proportion of remote students was more than twice as high in government schools compared with non-government schools. To assist the interpretation of figure 3.5, the underlying data are presented below the figure. Table 3A.17 includes data relating to metropolitan and provincial areas as well as remote areas (see section 3.7 for definitions of remoteness and other geographic classifications).

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

Figure 3.5 Students attending schools in remote areas as a proportion of all students, 2001



	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Government schools	0.8	0.2	4.4	9.4	5.2	1.5	..	46.4	3.2
Non-government schools	0.4	-	1.4	3.9	1.4	0.6	..	43.4	1.2
All schools	0.7	0.1	3.6	7.8	4.0	1.3	..	45.7	2.6

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

Source: DEST (unpublished); table 3A.17.

3.2 Policy developments in school education

Agreed framework of principles for funding schools

Education Ministers have endorsed a framework of principles for funding school education. The five principles contained in the framework are as follows.

- The total level of resources available for schooling is adequate so that achievement of the National Goals for Schooling is a realistic objective for all students.
- Public funding across different schools and sectors is distributed fairly and equitably through a consistent approach to assessing student needs and through having regard to the total level of resources available for students.
- The total level of funding for government schooling is adequate to ensure access to high quality government schooling for all, and all governments' funding policies recognise this as a national priority.

-
- Public funding for schooling supports the right of families to choose non-government schooling and supports non-government schools on the basis of need, within the context of promoting a socially and culturally cohesive society and the effective use of public funds.
 - Resourcing for all students is adequate for meeting the National Goals for Schooling, notwithstanding the school or school sector they attend.

3.3 Framework of performance indicators

This chapter provides comparable indicators on the effectiveness and efficiency of government expenditure for 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 efficiency and effectiveness of their operation. In addition, governments are committed to providing access to education for all students. Box 3.1 shows the national goals for schooling, as endorsed by MCEETYA.

Box 3.1 National goals for schooling in the twenty-first century

The Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs 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.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

Common and agreed goals for schooling establish a foundation for action among State and Territory governments with their constitutional responsibility for schooling, the Commonwealth, 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;
- 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.

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;

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

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.

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.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

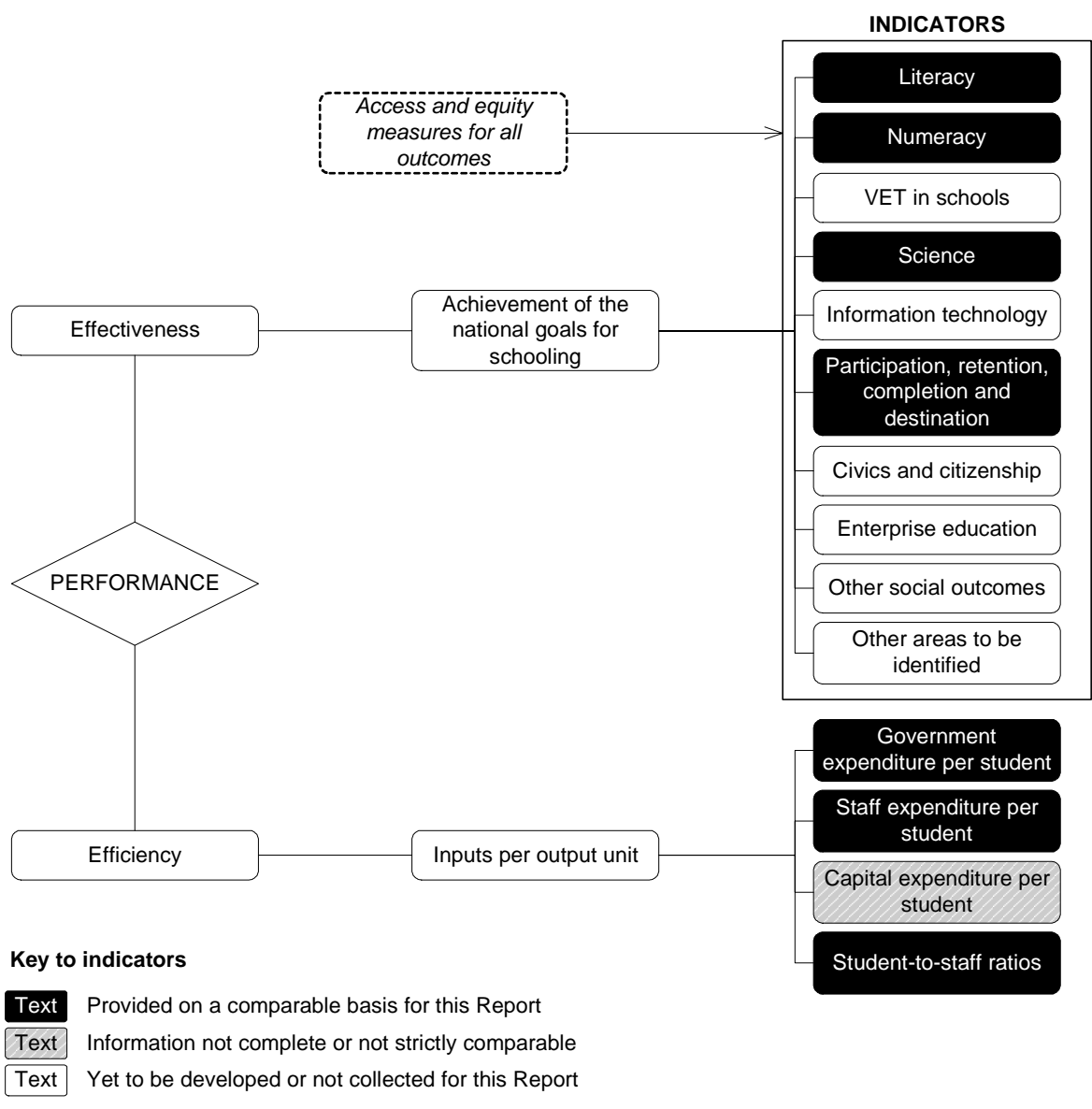
3. Schooling should be socially just, so that:

- 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;
- 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: 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)

Figure 3.6 Performance indicators for all schools



3.4 Key performance indicator results

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

The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 3.6). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text

includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report wide perspective (section 1.6).

Effectiveness

The effectiveness indicators for school education in this chapter are based on the achievement of the national goals for schooling.

Access and equity

Access and equity objectives of school education can be assessed by comparing outcomes for special needs groups, such as Indigenous and LBOTE students, to those for all students through indicators such as literacy, numeracy, completion rates, apparent retention rates and age participation rates. Outcomes are compared for special needs groups for available indicators where possible. Learning outcomes for special needs groups are also reported for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and the NT in tables 3A.45, 3A.55–3A.58, 3A.69, 3A.79, 3A.81 and 3A.131.

State and Territory specific learning outcomes

The reporting of test result data by jurisdiction may help an understanding of trends within jurisdictions over time, but the general noncomparability of data across States and Territories limits the usefulness of this information. Where jurisdictions provided updated information on jurisdiction-specific learning outcomes, that information is reported in attachment 3A.

Nationally comparable learning outcomes

This Report includes nationally comparable learning outcomes data for literacy, numeracy and science. Data for years 3 and 5 relate to agreed national benchmarks developed to assess student performance at these year levels. Data for 15 year olds have been sourced from the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA). All of the nationally comparable learning outcomes data are for the year 2000, no data for 2001 were available for inclusion in this Report.

In July 1996, the Commonwealth, State and Territory Education Ministers agreed to develop national benchmarks for use in reporting years 3, 5 and 7 students' performance. Benchmarks have been developed for reading, writing, spelling and numeracy. These benchmarks describe the nationally agreed minimum acceptable standard in the aforementioned areas of study, at a particular year level — that is, the standard without which a student will have difficulty making sufficient progress

at school. Given that the benchmarks represent *minimum* acceptable standards, Education Ministers have determined that the national goal is that all students achieve at least the benchmark level of performance.

PISA is an initiative of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). PISA focuses on students' ability to apply their knowledge and skills to real-life problems and situations, rather than on how much curriculum-based knowledge they possess. In 2000, PISA conducted a survey of the reading, mathematical and scientific literacy of 15 year olds across 32 countries. Reading literacy was the major domain, accounting for almost 70 per cent of total assessment time. Almost 6200 students from 231 Australian schools participated in the survey (Lokan et al. 2001). The main sample of Australian students represented approximately 2.3 per cent of 15 year old secondary school students in Australia. PISA operates on a three-year assessment cycle, with the next survey planned for 2003. Mathematical literacy will be the major domain in 2003.

Care should be taken in interpreting the learning outcomes data presented in this chapter, because differences in student achievement may sometimes be the result of sampling or measurement error. To assist with interpretation, 95 per cent confidence intervals are presented, indicating the likely size of these errors. A result of 80 with a confidence interval of ± 2 , for example, means there is a 95 per cent chance that, if all students were tested, the result would be between 78 and 82. The result for a State, therefore, can be thought of in terms of a range. If one State's range is 78 to 82 and another's is 77 to 81, then it is not possible to say that one clearly out scored the other (because there is no statistically significant difference). Where ranges do not overlap, there is a high likelihood that there is a statistically significant difference.

In the commentary accompanying the learning outcomes data in this chapter, comparisons are made between the results for particular jurisdictions and the overall national result, and attention is drawn to cases where there is no overlap between confidence intervals (that is, where 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.

Literacy

An indicator of performance is the proportion of students who reach a benchmark standard. Table 3.5 shows the percentage of assessed year 3 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2000, reported by gender, Indigenous status and LBOTE

status. (For further information and caveats to table 3.5, see tables 3A.18, 3A.19 and 3A.20.)

The proportion of students who achieved the year 3 reading benchmark in WA (95.8 per cent) was demonstrably higher than the national proportion (92.5 per cent), in 2000. The results for the NT (65.3 per cent) and SA (86.8 per cent) were demonstrably lower than the national proportion (table 3.5). Taking confidence intervals into account, the results for the other five jurisdictions were not demonstrably different from the national proportion. The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 3 reading benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students in all States and Territories. Results for LBOTE students were generally similar to those for all students. The main exception was in the NT, where a substantial proportion of LBOTE students are Indigenous.

The proportions of students who achieved the year 5 reading benchmark in the ACT (94.0 per cent), WA (93.6 per cent) and Victoria (92.1 per cent) were demonstrably higher than the national proportion (87.4 per cent) in 2000. The results for the NT (71.2 per cent), Queensland (78.5 per cent) and Tasmania (81.4 per cent) were demonstrably lower than the national proportion (table 3.6). In 2000, the gap between the reading benchmark results of Indigenous students and those of all students was generally greater at year 5 than at year 3 (tables 3.5 and 3.6). A higher proportion of female students than of males achieved the benchmark standard in all jurisdictions at both year levels.

Table 3.5 Proportion of year 3 students who achieved the reading benchmark, 2000 (per cent)^a

<i>State/Territory</i>					
<i>1. Average age^b</i>	<i>All</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>LBOTE</i>
<i>2. Years of schooling^c</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students^d</i>	<i>students^d</i>
NSW	93.1	91.5	94.8	83.1	92.8
1. 8yrs, 9mths	± 1.9	± 2.3	± 1.5	± 4.9	± 2.1
2. 3yrs, 7mths					
Victoria	93.0	91.1	95.1	78.4	90.9
1. 8yrs, 11mths	± 1.9	± 2.3	± 1.5	± 6.1	± 2.5
2. 3yrs, 7mths					
Queensland ^e	92.6	90.8	94.4	81.0	92.2
1. 8yrs, 4mths	± 3.5	± 4.4	± 3.2	± 10.1	± 6.0
2. 2yrs, 8mths					
WA	95.8	95.2	96.5	86.6	95.1
1. 8yrs, 2mths	± 1.1	± 1.3	± 0.9	± 3.3	± 1.3
2. 2yrs, 7mths					
SA	86.8	84.4	89.3	59.2	82.4
1. 8yrs, 6mths	± 2.6	± 3.0	± 1.7	± 4.2	± 3.1
2. 3yrs, 3mths					
Tasmania	91.2	88.7	93.6	82.5	89.8
1. 9yrs, 1mths	± 2.3	± 2.9	± 2.0	± 5.5	± 5.1
2. 3yrs, 8mths					
ACT	95.1	94.0	96.2	87.5	82.5
1. 8yrs, 8mths	± 1.2	± 2.0	± 1.5	± 9.6	± 10.6
2. 3yrs, 6mths					
NT	65.3	62.2	68.6	25.6	39.7
1. 8yrs, 8mths	± 3.2	± 3.8	± 3.7	± 4.0	± 3.9
2. 3yrs, 3mths					
Australia	92.5	90.9	94.3	76.9	90.8
	± 2.2	± 2.7	± 1.8	± 6.5	± 2.6

^a The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80.0 per cent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 3A.19 contains details of test populations in all States and Territories.

^b The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.18 contains more information. ^c The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.18 contains more information. ^d The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Definitions can be found at section 3.7. Table 3A.20 contains more information. ^e Data from Queensland are based on a representative sample of approximately 10 per cent of students from government and non-government schools.

Source: MCEETYA (2002a).

Table 3.6 Proportion of year 5 students who achieved the reading benchmark, 2000 (per cent)^a

<i>State/Territory</i>					
<i>1. Average age^b</i>	<i>All</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>LBOTE</i>
<i>2. Years of schooling^c</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students^d</i>	<i>students^d</i>
NSW	89.1	87.1	91.2	70.9	86.7
1. 10yrs, 9mths	± 1.7	± 1.9	± 1.5	± 3.9	± 2.2
2. 5yrs, 7mths					
Victoria	92.1	90.6	93.7	75.1	89.0
1. 10yrs, 11mths	± 1.9	± 2.2	± 1.7	± 7.5	± 2.8
2. 5yrs, 7mths					
Queensland	78.5	75.1	81.7	54.4	74.4
1. 10yrs, 4mths	± 3.6	± 3.9	± 3.5	± 6.1	± 4.9
2. 4yrs, 8mths					
WA	93.6	92.4	94.9	70.9	89.6
1. 10yrs, 2mths	± 1.0	± 1.2	± 0.8	± 3.4	± 1.4
2. 4yrs, 7mths					
SA	84.4	82.2	86.7	55.9	81.9
1. 10yrs, 6mths	± 1.4	± 1.5	± 1.4	± 3.1	± 1.5
2. 5yrs, 3mths					
Tasmania	81.4	78.7	84.3	66.1	78.6
1. 11yrs, 0mths	± 2.9	± 3.3	± 2.8	± 7.8	± 9.2
2. 5yrs, 8mths					
ACT	94.0	93.0	98.7	83.7	81.4
1. 10yrs, 8mths	± 1.3	± 2.3	± 2.5	± 12.1	± 15.2
2. 5yrs, 6mths					
NT	71.2	69.3	73.1	34.2	46.0
1. 10yrs, 8mths	± 2.8	± 3.4	± 3.3	± 4.1	± 4.1
2. 5yrs, 3mths					
Australia	87.4	85.2	89.6	62.0	84.9
	± 2.1	± 2.3	± 1.9	± 4.8	± 2.6

^a The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80.0 per cent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 3A.19 contains details of test populations in all States and Territories.

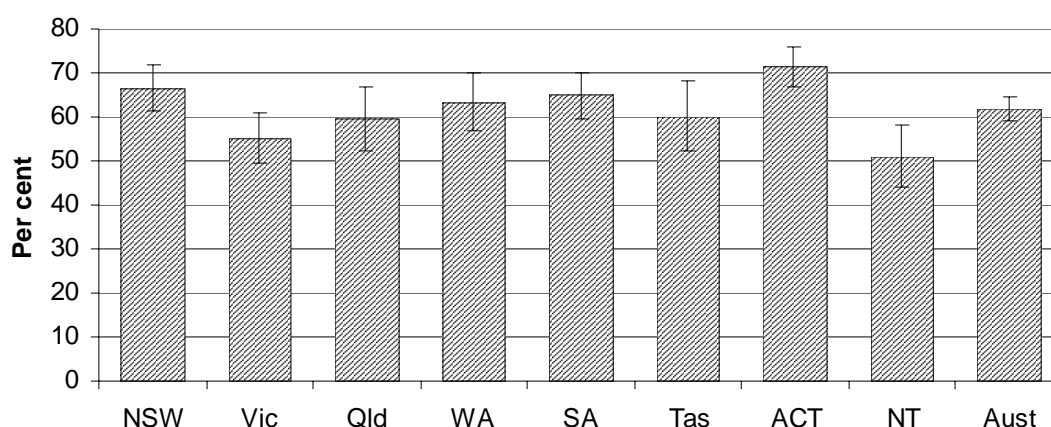
^b The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.18 contains more information. ^c The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.18 contains more information. ^d The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Definitions can be found at section 3.7. Table 3A.20 contains more information.

Source: MCEETYA (2002a).

In this chapter, PISA survey assessment results are reported in terms of the proportion of Australian students who achieved at or above the mean score for the 27 OECD countries for which data are available. These proportions were generally well above 50 per cent, indicating that Australian students performed at a high level relative to most other OECD countries. The Education preface includes further information on Australia's performance relative to other countries.

In 2000, the proportion of 15 year old students in the ACT (71.4 per cent) who achieved at or above the OECD mean for reading literacy was statistically significantly higher than the Australian proportion (61.8 per cent). The results for the NT (51.0 per cent) were statistically significantly lower than the national proportion (figure 3.7). Female students outperformed males in all States and Territories. Nationally, the proportion of females who achieved at or above the OECD mean was 13.6 percentage points higher than the proportion of males (table 3A.24). The national proportions for Indigenous students (30.7 per cent), geographically remote students (44.3 per cent) and students from low socioeconomic status families (45.5 per cent) were all below the proportion for all students (although the difference was not statistically significant for geographically remote students). Individual State and Territory data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.24.

Figure 3.7 **Reading literacy of 15 year olds — proportion of students who achieved at or above the OECD mean, 2000^{a, b}**



^a PISA assessed students reading literacy in three subcategories: retrieving information, interpreting texts, and reflecting on and evaluating texts. This chapter reports on combined results across these subcategories.

^b 95 per cent confidence intervals are shown on the bars in this figure.

Source: Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (unpublished); table 3A.24.

Numeracy

Table 3.7 shows the percentage of assessed year 3 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2000 reported by gender, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. (For further information and caveats to table 3.7, see tables 3A.21, 3A.22 and 3A.23.)

The proportion of students who achieved the year 3 numeracy benchmark in Victoria (96.5 per cent) was demonstrably higher than the national proportion (92.7 per cent) in 2000. The results for the NT (81.4 per cent) and SA (85.3 per cent) were demonstrably lower than the national proportion (table 3.7). The proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the year 3 numeracy benchmark was lower than the proportion for all students in all States and Territories.

The proportion of students who achieved the year 5 numeracy benchmark in Victoria (94.3 per cent) was demonstrably higher than the national proportion (89.6 per cent) in 2000. The results for the NT (74.1 per cent) and SA (83.0 per cent) were demonstrably lower than the national proportion (table 3.8). Nationally, the proportion of Indigenous students who achieved the numeracy benchmark was below the proportion for all students by 19.0 percentage points at year 3 and 26.8 percentage points at year 5 (tables 3.7 and 3.8).

Table 3.7 Proportion of year 3 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark, 2000 (per cent)^a

<i>State/Territory</i>					
<i>1. Average age^b</i>	<i>All</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>LBOTE</i>
<i>2. Years of schooling^c</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students^d</i>	<i>students^d</i>
NSW	93.2	93.1	93.3	83.4	91.9
1. 8yrs, 9mths	± 1.7	± 1.7	± 1.7	± 4.2	± 2.1
2. 3yrs, 7mths					
Victoria	96.5	96.7	96.1	89.1	94.9
1. 8yrs, 11mths	± 1.3	± 1.3	± 1.5	± 5.7	± 1.7
2. 3yrs, 7mths					
Queensland ^e	91.4	91.5	91.8	71.0	88.0
1. 8yrs, 4mths	± 3.2	± 3.6	± 3.4	± 12.4	± 7.4
2. 2yrs, 8mths					
WA	90.5	90.2	90.8	69.4	88.1
1. 8yrs, 2mths	± 2.2	± 2.2	± 2.3	± 5.3	± 2.6
2. 2yrs, 7mths					
SA	85.3	84.9	85.8	56.8	80.0
1. 8yrs, 6mths	± 2.3	± 2.3	± 2.4	± 5.0	± 3.0
2. 3yrs, 3mths					
Tasmania	92.8	92.3	93.2	85.6	85.8
1. 9yrs, 1mths	± 1.7	± 2.0	± 1.9	± 4.7	± 5.7
2. 3yrs, 8mths					
ACT	95.7	95.2	96.3	88.1	84.5
1. 8yrs, 8mths	± 1.1	± 2.1	± 2.3	± 9.9	± 10.6
2. 3yrs, 6mths					
NT	81.4	80.6	82.4	48.1	56.8
1. 8yrs, 8mths	± 2.0	± 2.5	± 2.6	± 4.5	± 3.9
2. 3yrs, 3mths					
Australia	92.7	92.7	92.8	73.7	90.3
	± 2.0	± 2.1	± 2.1	± 7.1	± 2.7

^a The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80.0 per cent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 3A.22 contains details of test populations in all States and Territories.

^b The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.21 contains more information. ^c The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.21 contains more information. ^d The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Definitions can be found at section 3.7. Table 3A.23 contains more information. ^e Data from Queensland are based on a representative sample of approximately 10 per cent of students from government and non-government schools.

Source: MCEETYA (2002a).

Table 3.8 Proportion of year 5 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark, 2000 (per cent)^a

<i>State/Territory</i>					
<i>1. Average age^b</i>	<i>All</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Indigenous</i>	<i>LBOTE</i>
<i>2. Years of schooling^c</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students</i>	<i>students^d</i>	<i>students^d</i>
NSW	91.1	90.8	91.5	73.5	89.7
1. 10yrs, 9mths	± 1.4	± 1.4	± 1.4	± 3.5	± 1.6
2. 5yrs, 7mths					
Victoria	94.3	94.1	94.4	82.2	92.4
1. 10yrs, 11mths	± 1.4	± 1.4	± 1.4	± 6.2	± 1.8
2. 5yrs, 7mths					
Queensland	86.2	86.0	87.0	58.9	82.1
1. 10yrs, 4mths	± 2.2	± 2.4	± 2.4	± 5.2	± 3.5
2. 4yrs, 8mths					
WA	87.5	87.5	87.5	57.2	82.6
1. 10yrs, 2mths	± 2.1	± 1.1	± 2.2	± 4.0	± 2.2
2. 4yrs, 7mths					
SA	83.0	83.1	82.7	50.4	80.2
1. 10yrs, 6mths	± 2.3	± 2.2	± 2.6	± 4.2	± 2.8
2. 5yrs, 3mths					
Tasmania	87.6	87.9	87.2	76.6	84.1
1. 11yrs, 0mths	± 1.8	± 2.1	± 2.1	± 6.9	± 7.5
2. 5yrs, 8mths					
ACT	91.3	91.0	91.6	79.5	74.9
1. 10yrs, 8mths	± 1.7	± 2.5	± 2.5	± 13.7	± 6.8
2. 5yrs, 6mths					
NT	74.1	74.5	73.7	37.0	50.4
1. 10yrs, 8mths	± 2.5	± 3.0	± 3.4	± 4.2	± 3.9
2. 5yrs, 3mths					
Australia	89.6	89.4	89.8	62.8	87.1
	± 1.7	± 1.7	± 1.8	± 4.5	± 2.1

^a The achievement percentages reported in this table include 95 per cent confidence intervals (for example, 80.0 per cent ± 2.7 per cent). Table 3A.22 contains details of test populations in all States and Territories.

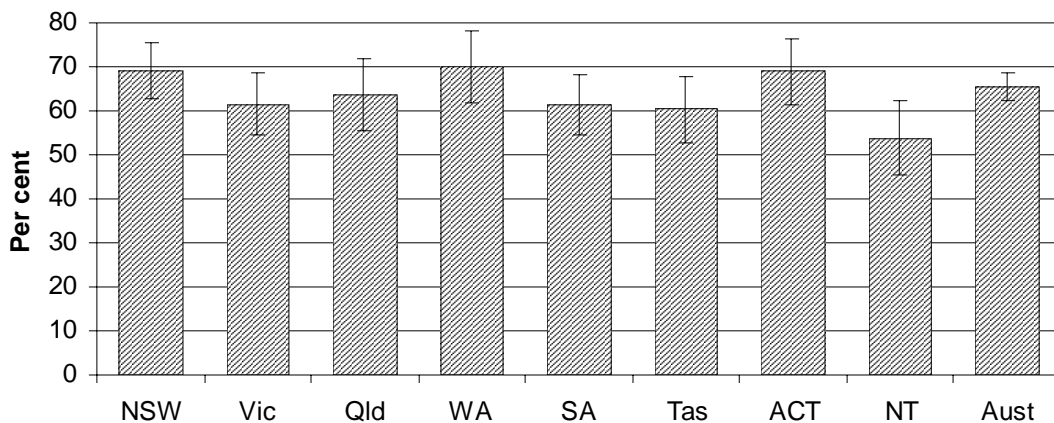
^b The typical average age of students at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.21 contains more information. ^c The typical average time that students had spent in schooling at the time of testing (expressed in years and months). Table 3A.21 contains more information. ^d The methods used to identify Indigenous students and LBOTE students varied across jurisdictions. The two categories are not mutually exclusive. Definitions can be found at section 3.7. Table 3A.23 contains more information.

Source: MCEETYA (2002a).

For the PISA 2000 assessment of the mathematical literacy of 15 year old students, the proportion of NT students (53.8 per cent) who achieved at or above the OECD mean was statistically significantly lower than the Australian proportion (65.4 per cent) (figure 3.8). Male students outperformed females in all jurisdictions except Queensland and Tasmania, although the differences were not statistically significant (table 3A.25). The national proportions for Indigenous students

(26.2 per cent) and students from low socioeconomic status families (48.4 per cent) were below the proportion for all students. Individual state and territory data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.25.

Figure 3.8 **Mathematical literacy of 15 year olds — proportion of students achieving at or above the OECD mean, 2000^a**



^a 95 per cent confidence intervals are shown on the bars in this figure.

Source: ACER (unpublished); table 3A.25.

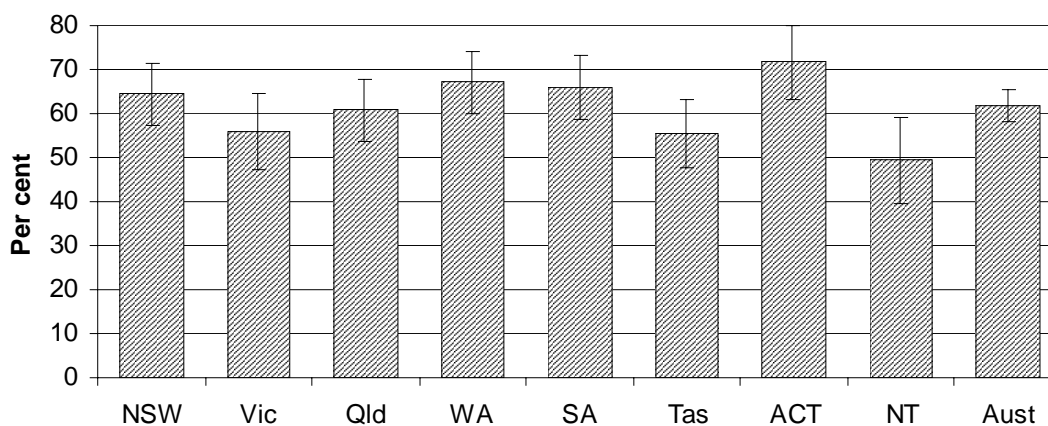
Vocational Education and Training (VET) in schools

Indicators for VET in schools are being developed, see section 3.5 for details.

Science

For the PISA 2000 assessment of the scientific literacy of 15 year old students, there were few statistically significant differences between jurisdictions (figure 3.9). Results for male and female students were generally similar (table 3A.26). The national proportions of Indigenous students (29.1 per cent), students from low socioeconomic status families (49.0 per cent) and geographically remote students (51.2) who achieved at or above the OECD mean were below the proportion for all students (although the difference was not statistically significant for geographically remote students). Individual State and Territory data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.26.

Figure 3.9 **Scientific literacy of 15 year olds — proportion of students achieving at or above the OECD mean, 2000^a**



^a 95 per cent confidence intervals are shown on the bars in this figure.

Source: ACER (unpublished); table 3A.26.

Information technology

Indicators for information and communications technology are being developed — see section 3.5 for details.

Participation, retention, completion and school leaver destination

Participation rates

The participation rate of 15–19 year olds (for whom school attendance is no longer compulsory) measures the number of full time school students in that age group, as a proportion of the estimated resident population of the same age. Care needs be taken in interpreting participation rates in school education because rates are influenced by jurisdictional differences in:

- year and age/grade structures;
- other options for delivering post-compulsory education and training — for example, work-based training and enrolment in technical and further education (TAFE) delivered programs; and
- the extent of part time enrolment in schools (see table 3.4 for part time student enrolments).

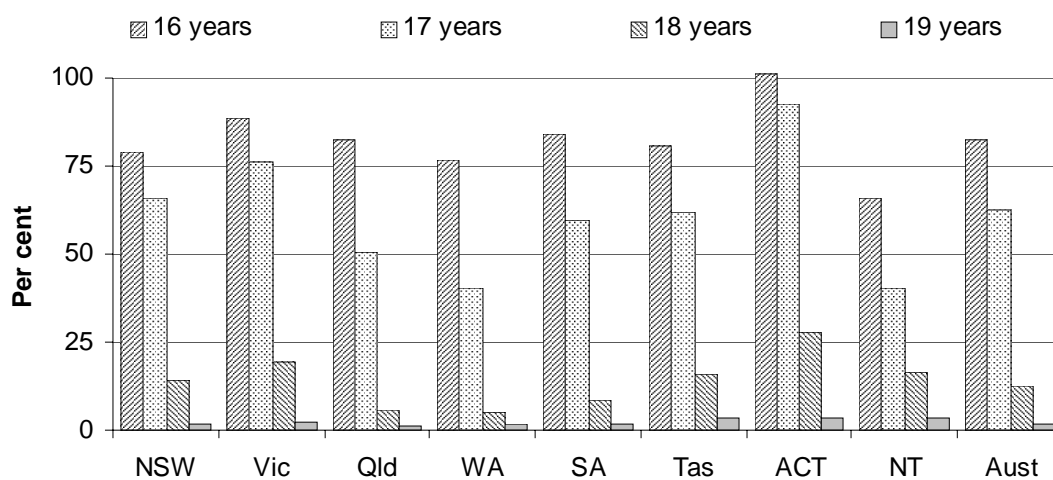
The participation rate may understate the extent of participation in post-compulsory schooling for these reasons. Work to develop an alternative participation indicator that accounts for some of these factors is discussed in section 3.5.

Nationally, 49.9 per cent of 15–19 year olds were enrolled in schools in 2001 (table 3A.27). Actual participation rates varied by jurisdiction, age and gender.

- The ACT had the highest overall participation rate of 15–19 year olds (62.8 per cent) and the NT had the lowest rate (40.8 per cent).
- Participation rates for females were typically 2–4 percentage points higher than those for males in all jurisdictions.
- Participation rates declined significantly as students exceeded the maximum compulsory school age (16 years for Tasmania and 15 years for other jurisdictions) (figure 3.10).

Participation rates in the ACT in 2001, as in the past, were higher than those in other jurisdictions for all ages (exceeding 100 per cent for 16 year olds). This is partly a result of the enrolment in the ACT of NSW residents from surrounding areas.

Figure 3.10 **School participation rates, by age of students, all schools, 2001^{a, b}**



^a Proportion of the population who were not of compulsory school age but were enrolled as full time students in August 2001. ^b School is compulsory for 16 year olds in Tasmania.

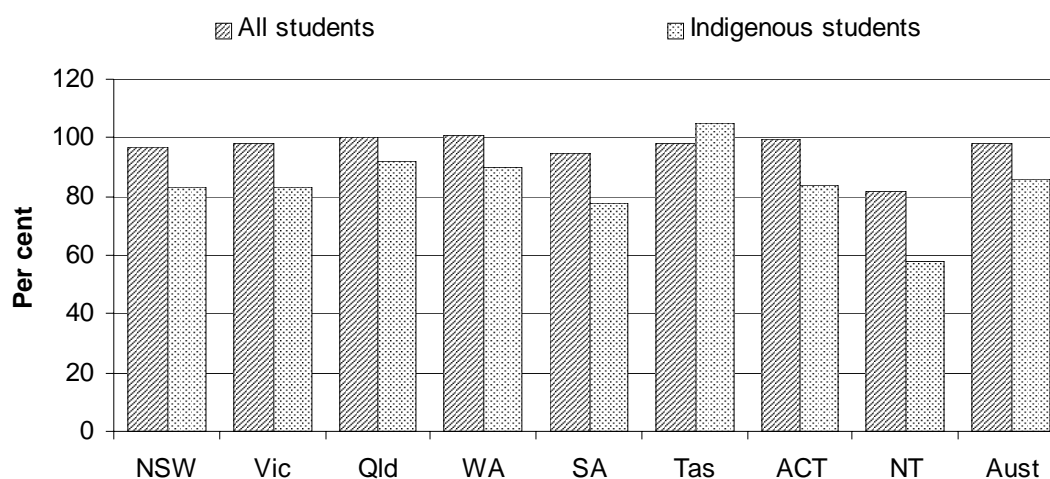
Source: ABS (2002a); table 3A.27.

Apparent retention rates

Apparent retention rates estimate the percentage of full time students that continue from a specified year level to a higher year level. The term ‘apparent’ is used because no adjustments are made for migration, student movements between jurisdictions or students repeating year levels. Apparent retention rates from the commencement of secondary school to year 10 and from year 10 to year 12 are shown in figures 3.11 and 3.12 respectively.

Apparent retention rates 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 most commonly between 95 and 100 per cent in 2001, with a national proportion of 98.1 (figure 3.11). High rates are to be expected as, with normal year level progression, students in year 10 are generally of an age where schooling is compulsory. Rates for Indigenous students, however, are considerably lower than for all students in all jurisdictions except Tasmania. The national retention rate for Indigenous students was 85.7 per cent, or 12.4 percentage points lower than for all students.

Figure 3.11 **Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students to year 10, all schools, 2001^{a, b, c}**



^a 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. Retention rates can exceed 100 per cent for a variety of reasons, including student transfers between jurisdictions after the base year. ^b The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has particular implications for the interpretation of results for SA. ^c Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This has particular implications for the NT, where around 50 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of around 4 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the actual retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2002a); DEST (unpublished); table 3A.28.

The apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12 has been derived by expressing the number of full time school students enrolled in year 12 in 2001 as a proportion of the number of full time school students enrolled in year 10 in 1999. Progression to final years of schooling is 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. Apparent retention to year 12 is a long standing measure which is presented as an indicator of the extent to which students progress to their final year of schooling. It has been consistently reported over time, but it does not reflect factors such as:

- students repeating a year of education or returning to education after a period of absence and hence being included in the year 10 cohort in 1999 but not in the year 12 cohort in 2001;
- differing enrolment policies across jurisdictions (which contribute to different age/grade structures);
- students enrolled in year 12 on a part time basis (see table 3.4 for the proportions of part time students in government schools in each jurisdiction);
- interstate movement of students;
- movement from the government school sector to non-government school sector;
- impacts of migration and full-fee paying overseas students; and
- varying enrolment patterns in which students choose to complete their secondary schooling in TAFE institutes.

All these factors can combine to result in a year 12 cohort that is significantly different in composition from the corresponding year 10 cohort — for example:

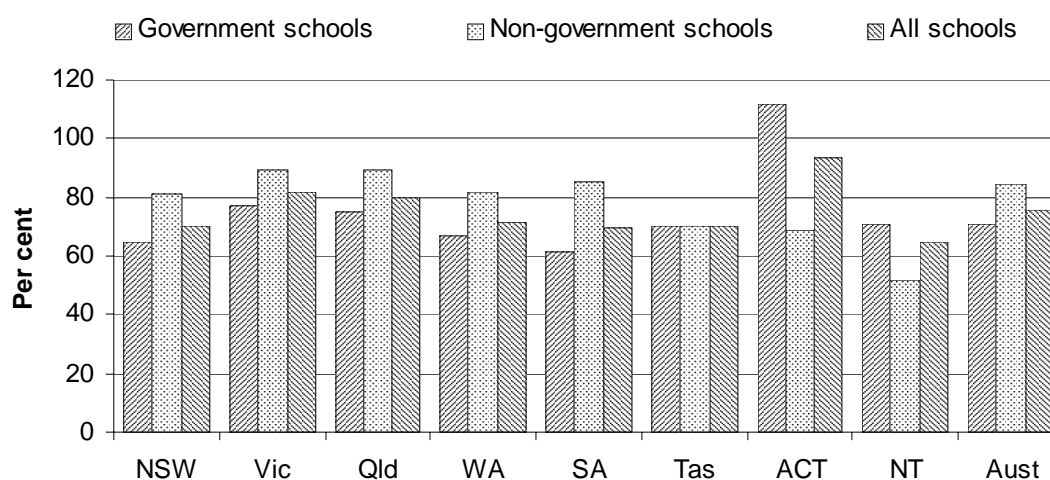
- in SA in 2001, 84.9 per cent of all students, including part time students, had continued their schooling from year 10 to year 12, compared with 69.6 per cent for full time students only (ABS 2000, 2002a); and
- in NSW, a significant number of students use the TAFE system to complete their post-compulsory schooling in preference to enrolling in years 11 and 12 in the school system. In 2001, 4646 students aged 15–19 years who undertook Higher School Certificate studies or other tertiary preparation studies in NSW did so through TAFE institutes.

Work being undertaken to improve this measure is discussed in section 3.5.

Apparent retention rates from year 10 to year 12 in all schools ranged from 93.3 per cent in the ACT to 64.9 per cent in the NT in 2001. The apparent retention rates for government schools ranged from 112.1 per cent in the ACT to 61.7 per cent in SA (figure 3.12). One reason for the ACT rate for government schools exceeding 100 per cent is that a number of non-government schools do not enrol students beyond year 10 and students need to change schools to continue to years 11 and 12. This has the effect of reducing the retention rate for non-government schools and increasing the retention rate for government schools.

For all schools, apparent retention rates from year 10 to year 12 for Indigenous students in 2001 ranged from 59.1 per cent in Queensland to 26.9 per cent in WA (figure 3.13). In interpreting this indicator, note that about 10–20 per cent of Indigenous students leave school before year 10 (figure 3.11) and, therefore, are not included in the base year for apparent retention from year 10 to year 12. Nationally, Indigenous retention from year 10 to year 12 for all schools in 2001 was 43.6 per cent (figure 3.13), or 31.8 percentage points lower than for all students.

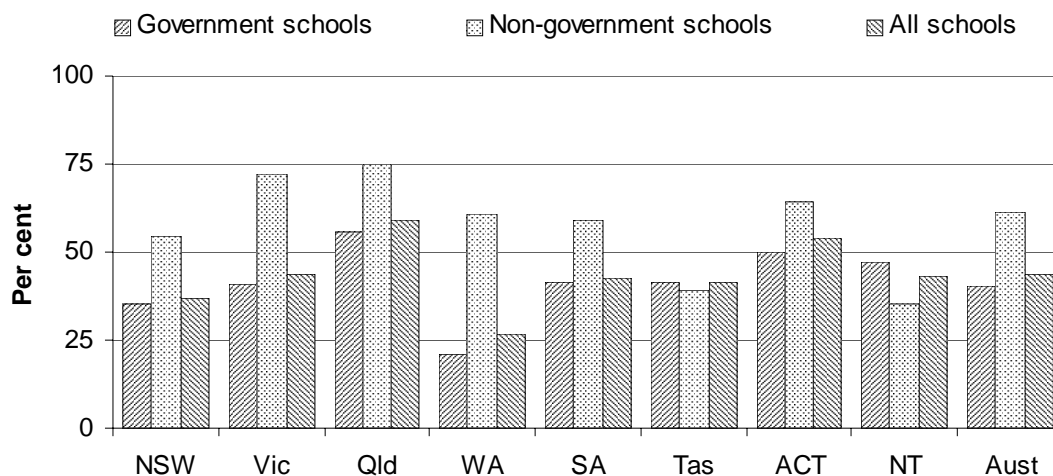
Figure 3.12 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students from year 10 to year 12, 2001^{a, b}



a 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. 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. **b** The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has particular implications for the interpretation of results for SA.

Source: ABS (2002a); DEST (unpublished); table 3A.29.

Figure 3.13 **Apparent retention rates of Indigenous full time secondary students from year 10 to year 12, 2001^{a, b, c}**



a 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 particular implications for the interpretation of results for SA. **c** Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This has particular implications for the NT, where around 50 per cent of Indigenous students are ungraded (compared with an average of around 4 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the actual retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

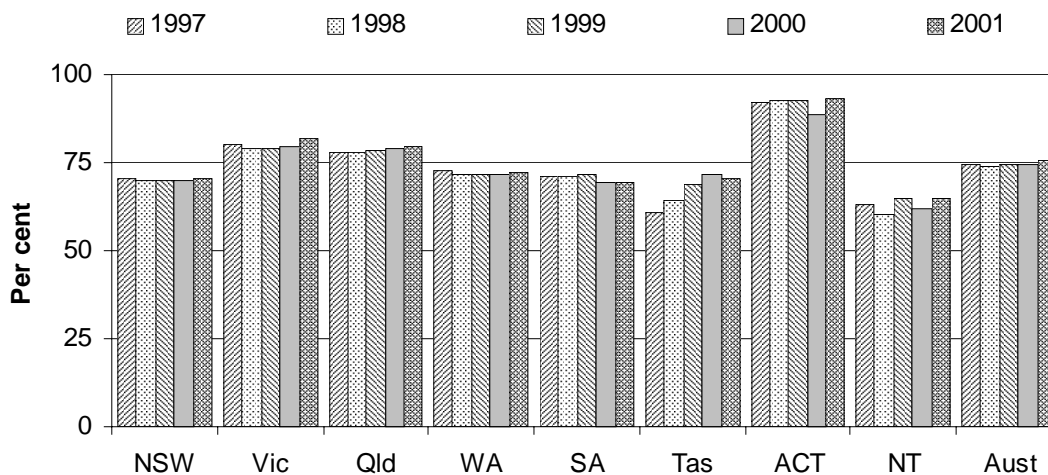
Source: ABS (2002a); DEST (unpublished); table 3A.29.

Between 1997 and 2001, apparent retention rates from year 10 to year 12 in all schools increased in Tasmania and remained fairly steady in all other jurisdictions (figure 3.14).

Completion of secondary schooling

The Commonwealth Government has developed a method for estimating the proportion of young Australians who complete year 12, disaggregated by locality, socioeconomic background and gender. Completion rates are estimated by expressing the number of students who obtain a year 12 certificate as a percentage of the potential year 12 population. (For the definition of the potential year 12 population, see section 3.7.)

Figure 3.14 Apparent retention rates of full time secondary students from year 10 to year 12, all schools



Source: ABS (2002a); tables 3A.38, 3A.50, 3A.63, 3A.74, 3A.87, 3A.101, 3A.112 and 3A.124.

The Commonwealth develops completion rates because information on participation and retention rates is generally not available by socioeconomic background or geographic location. Completion rates are primarily used as indicators of trends. Comparisons across jurisdictions need to be made with care as:

- assessment, reporting and requirements for obtaining year 12 certificates vary across States and Territories;
- small changes in population or completions can affect completion rates quite significantly, particularly for smaller States and the Territories; and
- students completing their secondary education in TAFE institutes are not included, and the proportion of these students varies across jurisdictions.

Geographic isolation is determined using the method developed by the former Department of Primary Industries and Energy. Socioeconomic status is determined according to the Index of Relative Socioeconomic Disadvantage developed by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Low socioeconomic status is the average of the three lowest deciles and high socioeconomic status is the average of the three highest deciles. 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.

Year 12 completion rates in 2001 by socioeconomic background, location and gender are provided in tables 3.9 and 3.10. Table 3.9 highlights differences in completion rates on the basis of socioeconomic background. Completion rates for students from a low socioeconomic background were 15 percentage points below those for students from a high socioeconomic background in 2001. The completion rates in both socioeconomic categories were higher for female students; the female completion rate in the low socioeconomic category was only 5 percentage points behind the male rate in the high socioeconomic category in 2001.

Table 3.9 also indicates that the 2001 completion rates varied substantially across jurisdictions. Rates in the low socioeconomic status deciles ranged from 70 per cent in Queensland to 10 per cent in the NT. Rates for the high socioeconomic status deciles (for jurisdictions with available data) ranged from 88 per cent in Tasmania to 73 per cent in NSW.

Table 3.9 Year 12 estimated completion rates, by socioeconomic status and gender, 2001 (per cent)^a

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT ^b	NT ^c	Aust
Low socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	56	58	65	44	49	59	..	8	56
Female	69	70	76	54	68	72	..	13	68
All students	62	64	70	49	58	65	..	10	62
High socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	69	73	76	74	78	88	74	na	73
Female	77	85	78	83	92	88	81	na	82
All students	73	79	77	79	85	88	77	na	77
Total									
Male	59	64	68	58	59	67	73	22	62
Female	70	78	76	68	78	78	78	34	74
All students	64	71	72	63	68	73	75	28	68

^a The ABS Index of Relative Socioeconomic Disadvantage has been used to calculate socioeconomic status on the basis of students' home addresses. Low socioeconomic status is the average of the three lowest deciles and high socioeconomic status is the average of the three highest deciles. ^b On the basis of this index, the ACT has only medium and high socioeconomic status deciles. ^c Small increases in the estimated resident population can cause significant fluctuations in the data. As a result, high socioeconomic status rates for the NT are unreliable and have been excluded. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: DEST (unpublished).

In 2001, completion rates were generally higher in capital cities than other areas. Gender differences are also evident in table 3.10. In other rural and remote areas, female completion rates were 21 percentage points higher than male completion rates. In capital cities, there was a 10 percentage point gender difference. Time series data on completion rates are shown in tables 3A.30 and 3A.31.

Table 3.10 Year 12 estimated completion rates by locality and gender, 2001 (per cent)

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA ^a	SA ^a	Tas ^a	ACT ^b	NT ^c	Aust
Capital city									
Male	62	66	69	60	63	78	73	35	64
Female	72	77	76	69	78	82	78	50	74
All students	67	72	72	64	70	80	75	43	69
Other metropolitan									
Male	52	60	63	57
Female	63	75	66	65
All students	57	67	65	61
Rural centres									
Male	53	58	71	47	46	61	59
Female	65	74	75	64	69	70	70
All students	59	66	73	55	57	65	65
Other rural and remote areas									
Male	56	60	67	53	48	55	..	13	57
Female	77	87	83	68	82	82	..	22	78
All students	66	73	75	60	64	68	..	17	67
All areas									
Male	59	64	68	58	59	67	73	22	62
Female	70	78	76	68	78	78	78	34	74
All students	64	71	72	63	68	73	75	28	68

^a There are no Other Metropolitan Areas in this jurisdiction. ^b All of the ACT is defined as a Capital City. ^c There are no Other Metropolitan or Rural Centres in the NT. .. Not applicable.

Source: DEST (unpublished).

School leaver destinations

The Education preface of this Report discusses the destinations of year 12 leavers and early school leavers in 2001 at the national level, and examines the proportions of male and female students attending other educational institutions in 2001 after leaving school in the previous year (table B.4).

Civics and citizenship

Indicators for civics and citizenship are under development — see section 3.5 for details.

Enterprise education

Indicators for enterprise education are under development — see section 3.5 for details.

Social objectives of schooling

In 1996, the Commonwealth Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, on behalf of MCEETYA, commissioned an investigation ‘to define and describe aspects of the social objectives of schooling’. The purpose of this investigation was to obtain baseline data on achievements against the selected social objectives and to investigate the role and influence of schools in this regard (Ainley *et al.* 1998, p. xiii). The 1999 Report includes a summary of these results.

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 for the Review 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 is best estimated on a consistent basis.

Significant effort has been made to improve the comparability of expenditure data across States and Territories. Table 3.11 shows information on the comparability of the source expenditure data used for this chapter. The main areas of non-comparability for 2000-01 were:

- the NT used cash accounting (supplemented by selected accrual information), while all other jurisdictions used accrual accounting;
- WA and the ACT are the only jurisdictions that were not subject to payroll tax; and
- Victoria, Queensland and the ACT were the only jurisdictions that included a capital charge.

For the efficiency indicators included in this chapter, however, adjustments were made to improve comparability with respect to payroll tax and capital charges. These adjustments involved including an estimate of payroll tax for WA and the ACT, and excluding capital charges for those jurisdictions to which they apply. This chapter deals with capital costs separately by reporting the user cost of capital for all jurisdictions (table 3A.8).

Table 3.11 Comparability of expenditure — items included, 2000-01

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA ^a	SA	Tas	ACT ^a	NT
Superannuation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Basis of estimate</i>	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Accrual	Cash
Workers compensation	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Payroll tax ^b	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	x	✓
<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	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
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^c</i>	Formula	Formula	Formula	Formula	Per student	Per FTE student	Formula	Per student
Capital charge ^b	x	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	x

^a Education departments in WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^b Differences for payroll tax and capital charges are adjusted for efficiency indicators included in this chapter. ^c Umbrella department costs are apportioned according to: departmental program structure in NSW; use (including enrolment) in Victoria; and activity-based costing in the ACT. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable. **✓** Included. **x** Excluded. **FTE** = full time equivalent.

Source: State and Territory governments.

Government recurrent expenditure per student

A number of factors may influence government recurrent expenditure per student (box 3.2).

Box 3.2 Factors that may influence the level of expenditure per student

Differences in the costs of educating students can be driven by:

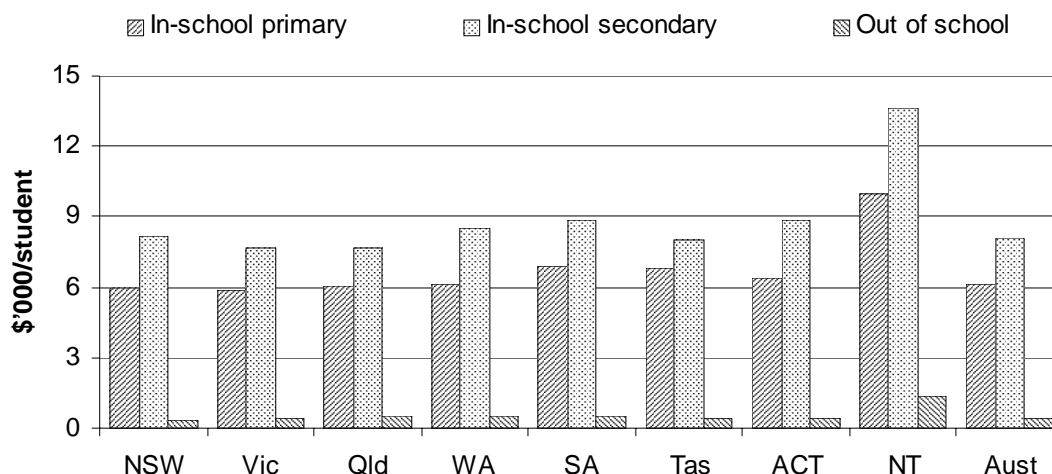
- influences beyond the control of governments, such as a high proportion of geographically remote students and/or a dispersed population;
- policy changes in education, such as tradeoffs between reducing costs and improving the quality of education, or between reducing costs and increasing the accessibility of education; and
- how well the education department and schools manage resources.

The Commonwealth Grants Commission, when calculating relativities between States and Territories to distribute Commonwealth general purpose grants, accounts for influences beyond a jurisdiction's control (called disabilities) that affect its cost of providing services and its capacity to raise revenue. In relation to education, the assessment includes 'service delivery scale' disability factors. These factors allow for the effects on relative cost differences among jurisdictions that have to service small and remote schools because they have a small and dispersed 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.

A proxy indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). In-school government expenditure per full time equivalent student in government primary schools ranged from \$9975 in the NT to \$5862 in Victoria in 2000-01. In-school government expenditure per full time equivalent student in government secondary schools ranged from \$13 667 in the NT to \$7683 in Victoria. Out-of-school departmental overheads per full time equivalent student in government schools ranged from \$1370 in the NT to \$324 in NSW (figure 3.15).

Figure 3.16 shows that government expenditure per full time equivalent student in government schools increased (in real terms) between 1998-99 and 2000-01 in all jurisdictions except the ACT. Nationally, the average real increase over this period was 1.1 per cent per year.

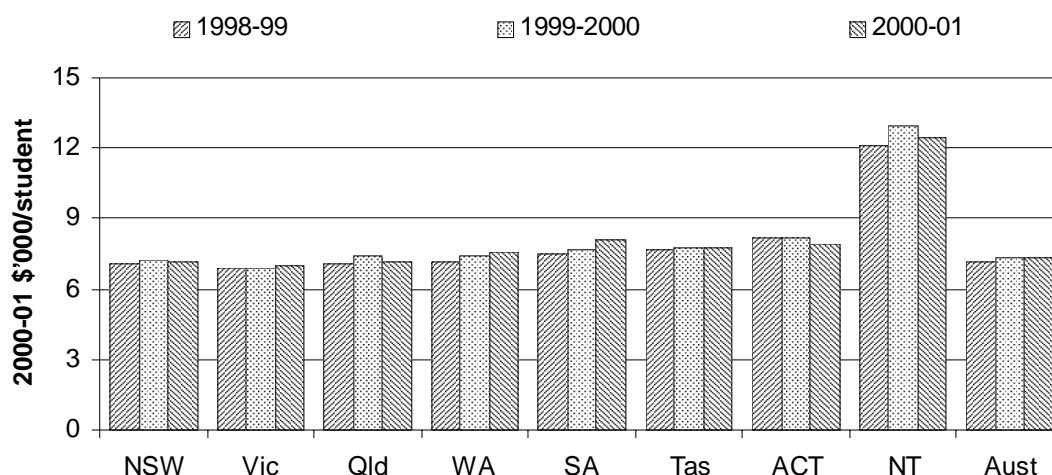
Figure 3.15 Government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student, government schools, 2000-01^{a, b, c}



^a See notes to tables 3A.6 and 3A.7 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Excludes capital charges for comparability reasons. ^c Includes payroll tax estimates for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: MCEETYA (2002b); ABS (2002a); table 3A.7.

Figure 3.16 Real government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student, government schools^{a, b, c, d}



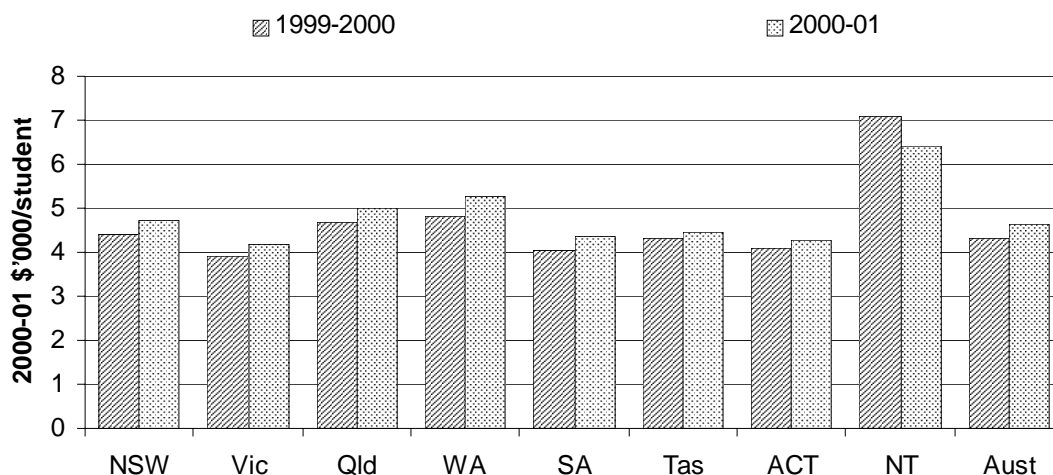
^a See notes to table 3A.6 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Data for 1998-99 and 1999-2000 have been adjusted to 2000-01 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator. ^c Capital charges have been excluded for comparability reasons. ^d Payroll tax estimates have been included for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: MCEETYA (2002b); ABS (2002a); table 3A.8.

In 2000-01, government expenditure per full time equivalent student in non-government schools ranged from \$6422 in the NT to \$4196 in Victoria

(figure 3.17). Figure 3.17 shows that government expenditure per full time equivalent student in non-government schools increased (in real terms) between 1999-2000 and 2000-01 in all jurisdictions except the NT.

Figure 3.17 Real government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student, non-government schools^a



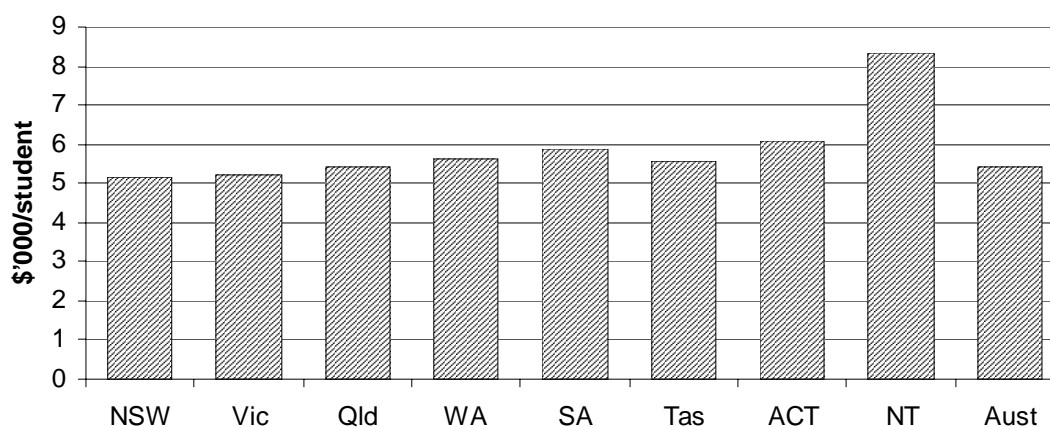
^a The sum of Commonwealth specific purpose payments for non-government schools, and State and Territory payments to non-government schools. Data on State and Territory payments to non-government schools are not fully comparable across jurisdictions.

Source: DEST (unpublished); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.8.

Staff expenditure per student

Expenditure on staff is the major component of government recurrent expenditure on government schools, accounting for 70.2 per cent of the total in 2000-01. Of this expenditure on staff, 80.2 per cent was expenditure on in-school teachers (table 3A.6). Government expenditure on staff per full time equivalent student ranged from \$8347 in the NT to \$5155 in NSW (figure 3.18).

Figure 3.18 **Government recurrent expenditure on staff per full time equivalent student, government schools, 2000-01**



Source: MCEETYA (2002b); ABS (2002a); table 3A.7.

User cost of capital of school education

The user cost of capital 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 user cost of capital 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 user cost of capital because:

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

An indicative user cost of capital for government schools in 2000-01 was calculated for all jurisdictions. This was done by applying a nominal cost of capital rate of 8 per cent to the value of government assets used in the delivery of education in government schools. The indicative user cost of capital per full time equivalent government school student in 2000-01 averaged \$1288 nationally. It was highest in NSW (\$1805) and lowest in SA (\$636) (table 3A.8).

The Steering Committee accepts that the asset valuation data, from which the user cost of capital has been calculated, are not fully comparable across jurisdictions

(table 3A.32). It also recognises, however, that the treatment of costs has not fully recognised the cost of public capital used by departments to deliver services — that is, capital has generally been considered ‘free’. This can lead to significant underestimation of costs for those services for which government capital is a major input. Using an imperfect costing is thus preferable to not costing government capital and also provides an incentive to improve data over time. Work is planned to improve the comparability of capital costs for future reports (section 3.5).

Student-to-staff ratios

The student-to-teacher ratio presents the number of students per person classified as a teacher² in a way that can be compared across jurisdictions. A low ratio means that there are a small number of students per teacher. (The ratio is not a measure of class size.) Table 3A.33 contains student-to-staff ratios for 2001.

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. A large proportion of small rural schools, for example, can significantly lower the overall average student-to-teacher ratio. Conversely, a large proportion of students in metropolitan schools can raise the ratio;
- the proportions 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;
- the degree to which administrative work is undertaken by people classified as teachers (such as principals, deputy principals and senior teachers); and
- other inputs to school education (for example, non-teaching staff, computers, books and laboratory equipment).

Interpretation of student-to-teacher ratios is usually accompanied by assumptions about efficiency and quality.

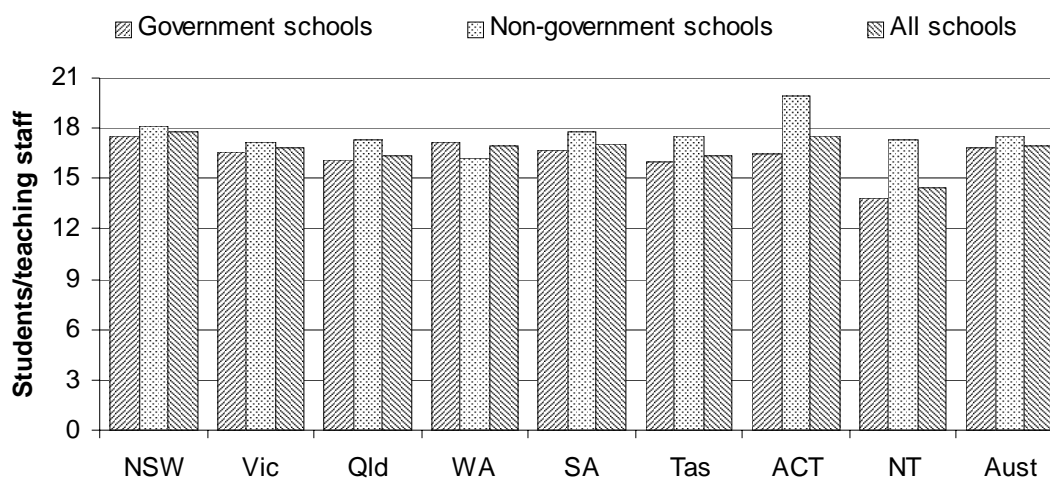
² Teaching staff have teaching duties (that is, they are engaged to impart the school curriculum) and spend the majority of their time in contact with students. They support students, either by direct class contact or on an individual basis. Teaching staff include principals, deputy principals and senior 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).

- A high 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.
- A low 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 of student-to-teacher ratios would be enhanced by more comprehensive student outcome data, as well as information on teacher quality, experience and qualifications. The ratio is an aggregate across all subjects and year levels, so it does not reflect the fact that a lower ratio may be more important for certain subjects and year levels.

For primary schools in both government and non-government sectors combined, NSW had the highest (17.7) student-to-teacher ratio and the NT had the lowest (14.4) in 2001 (figure 3.19).

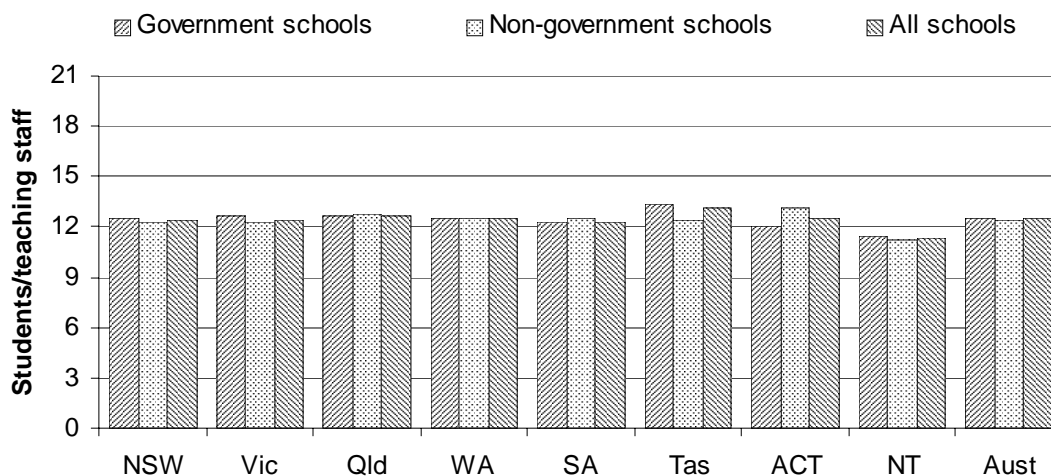
Figure 3.19 Ratio of full time equivalent students to full time equivalent teaching staff, primary schools, 2001



Source: ABS (2002a); table 3A.33.

For secondary schools in both government and non-government sectors combined, Tasmania had the most students per teacher (13.1) and the NT had the least (11.4) in 2001 (figure 3.20).

Figure 3.20 Ratio of full time equivalent students to full time equivalent teaching staff, secondary schools, 2001



Source: ABS (2002a); table 3A.33.

The ratio of full time equivalent students to full time equivalent non-teaching³, in-school staff 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
- the degree to which schools contract out services.

For all schools, the ratio of students to non-teaching, in-school staff in 2001 ranged from 59.7 in NSW to 34.9 in Queensland (table 3A.33).

³ Non-teaching staff include administrative and clerical staff (teacher aides and assistants who perform functions that are of benefit to students and teaching staff, including assisting in the development of school curriculum); building operations, general maintenance and other staff; and special support staff. In-school staff include staff who spend more than half their time actively engaged in duties in one or more schools.

3.5 Future directions in performance reporting

Retention and participation rates

It is important that any measure of the extent to which students progress through the post-compulsory education system captures the impact of the significant changes that are occurring in the Australian education system. The participation and apparent retention rates reported in this Report may not reflect changes such as increased part time enrolments and moves to undertake post-compulsory schooling in TAFE institutes. During 2003, other measures will be examined.

Nationally comparable reporting of learning outcomes

The Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce (PMRT), established by MCEETYA, is developing performance measures to assess outcomes in a range of learning areas. This work will provide additional nationally comparable data that will align with the performance indicator framework.

VET in schools

The PMRT, in consultation with other groups, is reviewing key performance measures for VET in schools. Participation and attainment data for VET in schools are expected to be collected and reported annually from 2004.

Science

Education Ministers have agreed to an approach to measuring students' scientific literacy at year 6. The first full assessment will be undertaken in 2003, with further assessments at three-year intervals.

Information and communication technology

Education Ministers have agreed to data collection via a national assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. The PMRT will develop assessment instruments and key performance measures for consideration by Ministers, with a view to a full assessment cycle taking place in 2005.

Civics and citizenship

Education Ministers have agreed to data collection via a national assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. A trial assessment will be conducted in 2003, with a view to a full assessment cycle taking place in 2004.

Enterprise education

The PMRT will work with the Transition from School Taskforce on developing key performance measures for enterprise education.

Nationally consistent definitions

Collecting nationally comparable data depends on, among other factors, nationally consistent definitions of groups against which educational achievement and outcomes can be reported. To date, Education Ministers have endorsed national definitions for: sex; Indigenous status; geographic location; language background, culture and ethnicity; and components of socioeconomic status. Progress has also been made towards the development of a common definition of, and approach to, the measurement of outcomes for students with disabilities.

With most definitions agreed, the focus is shifting to implementation and reporting issues. In July 2002, for example, Education Ministers approved the adoption of ABS standard questions and coding procedures for enrolment and other forms, to support some of the above definitions.

Capital costs

The user cost of capital included in this chapter is based on asset values that are not fully comparable across jurisdictions (table 3A.32). During 2003, work will be undertaken, in consultation with the PMRT, to seek to improve comparability for future reports.

3.6 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data which 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).

Commonwealth Government comments

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In 2002, in accordance with the stronger reporting and accountability requirements under the States Grants (Primary and Secondary Education Assistance) Act 2000, all States and Territories released, through MCEETYA, benchmark data from the 2000 full population testing of years 3 and 5 students in Reading and Numeracy. Benchmark data from the 1999 and 2000 testing of Writing for years 3 and 5 and the 2001 testing of years 3, 5 and 7 students in Reading, Writing, and Numeracy is scheduled to be released in late 2002 or early 2003. All States and Territories will report data on the full cohort of year 7 students from 2003 testing.

The Commonwealth Government is encouraging all States and Territories to provide parents with information about how their child is performing against national minimum standards in literacy and numeracy.

During 2002 MCEETYA approved a programme for developing, trialling and mounting national assessments in the priority areas of science, information and communication technology (ICT) and civics and citizenship education over the period 2002–09. The skills and knowledge of year 6 and year 10 students in the areas of ICT and civics and citizenship education will be measured through three-yearly sample assessments.

Australia's participation in the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is a joint activity of the Commonwealth and States and Territories. Within this assessment framework PISA will provide the regular national measure of the reading and mathematical literacy of 15 year old (year 9/10) students. MCEETYA endorsed the national monitoring of student knowledge, skills and understanding in science at primary school by means of a three-yearly sample assessment of year 6 students, and approved the development of assessment instruments and key performance measures. Data from Australia's participation in PISA will provide measures of students' performance in science at the end of compulsory schooling.

On 14 November 2002, the Commonwealth Minister for Education, Science and Training, Dr Brendan Nelson, tabled a National Report to Parliament on Indigenous Education and Training. This report was the first in an annual series required under the Indigenous Education (Targeted Assistance) Act 2000 and covered educational outcomes and programme funding for the year 2001. The report provided a comprehensive 'state-of-play' of Indigenous education and training in 2001. It includes a range of data available to the Commonwealth from national data sources and some jurisdictional level data reported to the Commonwealth under the Indigenous Education Strategic Initiatives Programme.

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New South Wales Government comments

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The NSW Government's expenditure on education and training accounts for approximately one quarter of total government expenditure, amounting to more than \$7.1 billion in 2000-01. The Government's commitment to providing high quality school education services throughout NSW has been demonstrated by a 29 per cent increase in expenditure for primary and secondary schools over the five years to 2001.

The school education chapter improves the comparability of unit cost data across States and Territories by adjusting MCEETYA figures to include notional payroll taxes for WA and ACT and exclude the actual capital charges for Victoria, Queensland and WA. A notional user cost of capital based on 8 per cent of capital assets is also calculated for each jurisdiction and reported separately. The Report shows that NSW has the highest notional user cost of capital of all States and Territories of \$1805 per student. This is a reflection of the continued investment in capital works in NSW schools.

NSW Treasury recently undertook an analysis of the MCEETYA figures to further improve unit cost comparability and ensure that the States and Territories are compared on an equal basis. This was achieved by including a notional user cost of capital of 8 per cent in the calculation of unit costs. The NSW Treasury analysis confirms that NSW total expenditure per student is considerably higher than shown in the MCEETYA figures. In 2000-01, NSW spent an average of \$8571 per student, which is above the Australian average of \$8429 and more than Queensland and Victoria.

NSW also had the most efficient school administration with expenditure on out of school administration costs of \$324 compared to the national average of \$431.

The continuing high level of expenditure on schools is supported by the implementation of a number of major policy initiatives including almost \$500 million over four years for the State's Literacy and Numeracy Plan. The Basic Skills Test results in 2002 were the best ever recorded in the history of State-wide testing and the performance of NSW 15 year olds on the OECD PISA tests was among the best in the country.

The first examinations for the New Higher School Certificate were conducted in 2001. Over 58 000 students in NSW schools were awarded the New HSC. The NSW Government has provided \$21.6 million over four years for individual school to work plans for students as part of the Ready for Work Plan. This plan is designed to assist students in organising their study in a way that will help develop their career paths. In this respect, vocational courses in government schools are becoming increasingly popular with students, with more than 55 000 students in NSW schools undertaking vocational education and training courses in years 11 and 12 during 2001.

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Victorian Government comments

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The Government's vision for education is to provide all Victorians with access to quality and innovative schooling. In particular, school education is aimed at ensuring that all students leave school literate, numerate and socially skilled, and progress to further education and employment.

The priorities for Department of Education and Training include improving the standard of literacy and numeracy in primary schooling, increasing the percentage of young people who successfully complete year 12 or its equivalent, and increasing the level of participation and achievement in education and training in rural and regional Victoria and among groups where it is presently low.

The Government has allocated \$291.5m over four years to fund 925 additional teachers in its 2002-03 Budget. Employing these teachers targets reduction of class sizes in years Preparatory – year 2, early years numeracy coordination, improving literacy and numeracy in the middle years and the Statewide implementation of a new post-compulsory pathway — the Victorian Certificate of Learning (VCAL).

The overall teacher-student ratio in primary schools has been reduced to 1:16.6, which is below the national average. Significant progress has been made in improving literacy and numeracy standards. Victorian students are at or above the national average for year 3 and year 5 in both reading and numeracy. The Restart initiative was introduced in 2002 in 100 targeted secondary schools to improve the literacy standards of year 7 students.

The VCAL was launched and trialled in selected schools and TAFE institutes in 2002 in preparation for statewide implementation in 2003. This qualification provides a flexible and challenging alternative pathway to the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE).

Victoria's apparent retention rate for the year 2001 for students from years 7 to 12 was 79.3 per cent, well above the national average of 73.4 per cent and the highest of any State or Territory (with the exception of the ACT). Similarly, participation in schooling by 15 to 19 year olds was higher than the national average and the highest of any State or Territory (with the exception of the ACT).

In this context, further progress was made in 2002 in establishing 31 Local Learning and Employment Networks (LLEN) which provide coverage across Victoria. They bring together all relevant providers and employer representatives at the local level to maximise employment and training outcomes for students.

To ensure improved outcomes for students, the Government is implementing enhanced accountability arrangements aimed at recognising and rewarding quality programs, and promoting ongoing school improvement.

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Queensland Government comments

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Education and training are at the heart of the Smart State vision and that means providing the very best learning opportunities possible for every young Queenslander regardless of their economic or social circumstances.

In July 2002, the government released Destination 2010, Education Queensland's action plan for implementing changes in State education. It identifies the outcomes we want to achieve and the measures we will use to assess performance. The action plan builds on significant activities already well advanced in schools, and links them to the achievement of student outcomes and key targets.

In November 2002 the government released Education and Training Reforms for the Future - A White Paper. This is a landmark education and training reform in which all young people should be 'learning or earning'.

The Queensland Government wants all young people to complete year 10 and then to go on to gain at least a Senior Certificate or a Certificate III vocational qualification. To achieve this we will change the compulsory school leaving requirements and we will change the law to require young people to participate in education and training after year 10.

While legislative changes will not come into effect until 2006, we will start implementing the reforms through trials in selected areas across the state from semester 2, 2003.

We are building an unprecedented partnership between parents, students, State schools, non-State schools, TAFE, training providers, the Queensland Studies Authority, community organisations, universities, and employers to trial and implement the package of reforms outlined in the White Paper.

Queensland is committed to delivering an innovative and vibrant education and training system to provide students with an excellent foundation for future successes.

Our commitment starts with better preparation for children before they enter school so they can achieve more in the early years and set the foundations for their successes in school. Planning is already well underway for 59 trials of a preparatory year in schools across the State, starting from 2003.

The government will also strengthen the middle years of schooling by focusing on students' learning needs and assisting in a smooth transition to the senior years. The Ministerial Advisory Committee for Educational Renewal will provide advice to the Minister for Education by June 2003 on a range of educational matters.

The Queensland government's education and training commitment builds on our Smart State vision of a state of prosperity and social justice with a commitment to equality of opportunity.

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Western Australian Government comments

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Following the report of a Ministerial taskforce established to review the structures that support government schools, the Department has acted to sharpen its focus on its core business of educating students through five key objectives: high standards of student achievement; motivated and engaged students; a motivated and capable work force; inclusive, safe and stimulating learning environments; and an organisational capability for school support.

There is a strong emphasis on improving literacy and numeracy standards and under the Getting it Right initiative 50 FTE specialist teachers commenced work in primary schools at the beginning of the 2002 school year.

Schools continued to move toward outcomes-based education, with full implementation expected by 2004-2005.

A new School Accountability Framework was distributed to all schools, requiring them to report annually to their community on their performance. The reports will give parents and other members of local communities a clear sense of the standards being achieved and the schools' effectiveness in reaching the objectives set out in their school plans.

Clear system requirements for schools in relation to reporting to parents are being developed. Schools will provide written reports to parents which clearly describe the standards being achieved by their children.

In the drive for higher retention and participation rates, there is a growing acceptance of the value of Vocational Education and Training pathways to many students. The Department is working to strengthen its links with the TAFE sector in supporting this trend. The report of the Post-compulsory Education Review, *Our Youth, Our Future* – which will introduce a much more flexible framework for years 11 and 12 studies – has been released and implementation will begin in 2003, with the completion of progress maps and the development of course of study outcomes.

As in most school systems, there is concern about student alienation, particularly in the lower secondary years, and a comprehensive behaviour management program is being mounted.

An eLearning program aims to increase the knowledge teachers must have if they are to use digital curriculum resources effectively to meet the needs of students. Initiatives include better access to the Internet, affordable notebook computers for teachers and remote access to a range of on-line services.

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South Australian Government comments

“ A new Education and Children’s Services department was formed following a State election in March 2002. At this time the incoming government made a commitment to making education a top priority for South Australia. This commitment was reflected in immediate budget allocations for education and children’s services. Over the next four years the increase in funds will be used to provide a raft of new and ongoing initiatives that will ensure that the 176 221 students attending South Australian government schools have access to the highest quality teaching and learning environments.

Key initiatives announced by the new Minister include:

- A renewed focus on, and increased support for, the early years of education. Class sizes in reception to year 2 will be reduced through the provision of extra teachers. Schools with a high level of social and educational disadvantage will be the major beneficiaries of this initiative.
- Extra intervention for students with learning difficulties, particularly in the early years in the areas of literacy and numeracy;
- More speech pathology and behaviour management services offered to schools, thereby reducing the impact of communication difficulties and challenging behaviours on students’ ability to learn successfully.
- The school leaving age will be raised to 16, which will be supported by funding to introduce alternative education programs and extra teachers in the senior years. Secondary schools will also benefit from funding commitments to address student absenteeism and to update computer technology in schools.

In 2001, a new index of disadvantage was introduced into the global budget to allocate funding to address the educational needs of students from low-socio-economic backgrounds. The index was developed through extensive consultation with school communities and includes measures of parental income, education and income.

Schools continued to progress successfully through the South Australian Curriculum, Standards and Accountability framework, which provides curriculum continuity and reporting against standards from birth to year 12.

Literacy and numeracy testing was extended to year 7 in 2001 and a written literacy assessment introduced for year 3 and year 5 students. This extension of literacy and numeracy testing will enable the department to measure students’ progression through the primary years and, as a consequence, more effectively target funding according to need.

Information and communication technologies continue to be part of all students’ learning. All metropolitan and country sites now have Internet access with four remote sites linked by satellite. The department has also been successful in achieving its aim of providing one computer for every five students making it one of the best computer-student ratios in the world.

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Tasmanian Government comments

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In 2001 the focus of activity for the Department of Education was the implementation of initiatives contained in *Learning Together*, the Government's vision statement and planning framework for the education, training and information system into the 21st century. This comprehensive framework underpins the implementation of new programs and improvement to existing services and programs in the Tasmanian education system.

The Department implemented an intensive literacy support program for children not achieving expected standards of literacy. A program was also established whereby the ultimate aim is to have a trained teacher with “reading recovery” skills in every primary school. This reflected continuing work on implementation of the Department's Literacy and Numeracy Plan which was developed to ensure that there is continuing improvement in each Tasmanian student's literacy and numeracy throughout the period of their school education. The plan aims to develop and explain an approach for resource allocation, management and teaching based on “strategic intervention” to meet set outcomes.

The issue of student behaviour was addressed through the establishment of a behaviour support team to further develop effective programs and strategies that help students feel safe and supported. Improved provision for students with challenging behaviours was introduced through professional learning for teachers, a wider range of alternative provision and a wider range of preventative and early intervention programs. The program also provided for projects at district level to trial approaches to behaviour support that are appropriate to the individual school and surrounding community.

The Tasmanian curriculum review process continued and the next phase implemented was the production of a curriculum framework, the New Essential Learnings statement and indicative outcomes to support the work of teachers.

The Department recognised the changing nature of the teacher workforce and the need to support the growing number of young teachers entering the profession. A new program of time release for all beginning teachers was established to enable them to have extra time to work and learn with experienced teachers and to undertake planning.

The wide range of initiatives contained in *Learning Together* provide a balanced approach to development of the Tasmanian education system recognising the need to address programs to support students, teachers and schools and the education system broadly.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The Department of Education, Youth and Family Services is responsible for the seamless provision of school and vocational education, family, youth and children's services.

One of the most significant initiatives in recent times has been the decision to lower class sizes in kindergarten to year 3 average to no more than 21 students.

Three major planning initiatives were finalised during this year: guiding ACT government school education, supporting students at risk and improving services to Indigenous people. The three plans have been launched under the overarching title *Within Reach Of Us All, 2002-2004*.

New learning support units for students with special needs have been opened at mainstream schools. Additional policy direction and support for schools in meeting the needs of students at risk of not achieving positive educational outcomes have been provided.

Improvements in student outcomes continue to be validated through the ACT Assessment Program in Literacy and Numeracy and ICT Competencies; 97 per cent of year 10 students achieved ICT competency in 2000. Baseline data for measuring improvement through schooling is now being collected through the PIPS (Performance Indicators in Primary Schools) program. This program was introduced for kindergarten students in 2001 and initial evaluation and research being undertaken confirms that PIPS data will be reliable.

Improvements in the provision of technology for teachers have continued, with a tender to replace all teachers' computers with the latest desktop or laptop models, and the launch of ACTivED, a web site that provides online ICT training, a Digital Resource Databank and examples of teaching resources and best practice. A successful pilot of enhanced broadband services for schools, carried out in 2001, will be extended to all schools, providing greater access to local and national resources for ACT students. A Centre for Teaching and Learning Technologies was established.

Finally, this Report suggests that participation rates for school education vary because of a range of different factors that can be considered policy in nature. The ACT disagrees with this, based on evidence in a report by the National Centre for Social and Economic Modelling (NATSEM, Education Participation Study, 2002) suggesting that the drivers of post-compulsory participation rates were non-policy in nature.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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2001 has seen considerable changes in the public service structure within the NT, including the development of the Department of Employment, Education and Training from three organisations to a single department. This merger enables the implementation of priorities with better coordinated resources and more targeted effort. In particular, Indigenous education outcomes, improved training in remote communities and better targeting of resources to enable youth to participate in the growth of the Territory. The new department recognises the requirement to build better pathways between schools, training and skilled jobs. The inclusion of a Work Health unit also provides a focus on a safe and skilled workforce.

Territory schools still have a higher proportion of Indigenous students than any other jurisdiction. In 2001, Indigenous students represented 38 per cent of the NT Government's total student population.

In late 2001 the Learning Lessons Implementation Steering Committee (LLISC) was established with a charter to oversee implementation of a reform program. This was based on a comprehensive response to recommendations from Learning Lessons – An Independent Review of Aboriginal Education in the Northern Territory. There are 14 members on the LLISC, 12 of whom are Indigenous leaders in their fields. Together, the members make decisions and take action aimed at improving Indigenous education outcomes based on wide Terms of Reference.

A small population sparsely dispersed across the Territory presents very significant challenges to service delivery. The ABS classification of remoteness shows that 49 per cent of the NT population live in remote (24 per cent) or very remote (25 per cent) regions. In terms of providing quality services to large numbers of geographically dispersed, isolated, small communities the Territory faces specific challenges. These disadvantages are due to diseconomies of scale, isolation and the costs of obtaining goods and services in remote areas, and additional staffing and infrastructure costs such as housing, transport, and relocation costs.

In 2001, the NT recorded 32 726 enrolments in government schools and 8692 in non-government schools. The NT continues to have one of the highest proportion of government school enrolments in Australia at 79 per cent.

For the first time in 2001, individual Territory student Multilevel Assessment Program (MAP) results and national benchmark achievements were reported to parents. NT MAP 2001 results show an overall increase of students meeting the national benchmarks in reading, writing, spelling and numeracy.

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3.7 Definitions

Table 3.12 Terms

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 full time equivalent of a full time student is 1.0. The method of converting part time student numbers into full time equivalents should be based on the student's workload compared with the workload usually undertaken by a full time student. Note that the full time equivalent 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>A new classification of geographic location has been adopted for nationally comparable reporting of outcomes of schooling. This classification divides Australia into three zones: metropolitan, provincial and remote. The metropolitan and provincial zones are each subdivided into two categories as outlined below.</p> <p><i>Metropolitan zone</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mainland State Capital City regions (Statistical Divisions): Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth. 2. Major urban Statistical Districts (population of 100 000 and above). <p><i>Provincial zone</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Provincial City Statistical Districts plus Darwin (population of 25 000 to 99 999). 4. Other provincial areas (Census Collection Districts with ARIA Plus score less than or equal to 5.92). <p><i>Remote zone</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Remote Zone (Census Collection Districts with ARIA Plus score greater than 5.92). <p>'ARIA Plus' refers to the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia developed by the ABS (ABS 2001).</p> <p>The new classification is yet to be fully implemented and other classifications, based on individual jurisdiction's definitions, are included in this chapter.</p>

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Table 3.12 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student	Total government recurrent expenditure divided by the total number of full time equivalent students. Expenditure is based on the National School Statistics Collection (MCEETYA 2002b), with adjustments for capital charge and payroll tax. Capital charges are excluded 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 an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander or as being from an Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander background. Administrative processes for determining Indigenous status varies across jurisdictions.
Language background other than English (LBOTE) student	A status that is determined by administrative processes that vary across jurisdictions.
Part time student	A student undertaking a workload that is less than that specified as being full time in their 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 (sourced from ABS Cat. 3201.0).
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 tables 3.9, 3A.24, 3A.25 and 3A.26, which provide definitions specific to each table. Elsewhere in the Report, socioeconomic status data is 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 Commonwealth or State and Territory governments. Commonwealth 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 Commonwealth funding.
Student-to-staff ratios	The number of full time equivalent students per full time equivalent teaching and non-teaching staff. Students at special schools are allocated to primary and secondary. The full time equivalent 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 who 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 age, unless otherwise identified.

(Continued on next page)

Table 3.12 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Student, primary	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 SA and the NT, and year 1 to year 7 in Queensland and WA.
Student, secondary	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 DEST. The definitions of students with disabilities are based on individual State and Territory criteria, so data are not comparable across jurisdictions.

3.8 References

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- 2002b, *National Schools Statistics Collection, 2000*, Melbourne, unpublished.

4 Vocational education and training

This chapter focuses on the education and training system that delivers employment-related skills. The vocational education and training (VET) system provides Australians with the skills to enter or re-enter the labour force, to retrain for a new job, or to upgrade skills for an existing job. It includes publicly and privately funded VET delivered by a wide range of training institutions and enterprises through a number of delivery methods.

This chapter reports on the VET services delivered by providers receiving public funding allocations for VET. These services include the provision of vocational programs of study (see definitions in section 4.7) in publicly owned technical and further education (TAFE) institutes and universities with TAFE divisions, other government and community institutions, and publicly 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 the schools chapter).

A profile of VET is presented in section 4.1, followed by a brief discussion of recent policy developments in section 4.2. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 4.3 and the data for these indicators are discussed in section 4.4. Most of the data for these performance indicators are derived from Volume 3 of the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) *Annual National Report 2001* (ANTA 2002). Future directions in performance reporting are presented and discussed in section 4.5. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions' comments in section 4.6. A list of definitions is in section 4.7.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 4 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel 97 format as `\Publications\Reports\2003\Attach4A.xls` and in Adobe PDF format as `\Publications\Reports\2003\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 (<http://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).

4.1 Profile of vocational education and training

Service overview

The VET system involves the interaction of employers, Commonwealth, State, Territory and local governments (as both purchasers and providers) and an increasing number of specialist private 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 full time study). All training levels in the VET system need to be assessed because many students complete modules or units of competency (which do not provide a course award) 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 publicly owned TAFE institutes and agricultural colleges, private registered training organisations and adult and community education providers) to secondary schools and universities. Schools and universities have started to 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, employers in the workplace deliver much informal on-the-job training that does not lead to a qualification.

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; and

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

Funding

Government recurrent expenditure on VET in 2001 totalled \$3.5 billion, a real increase of 0.6 per cent from 2000 (table 4A.1). Recurrent government expenditure per person aged 15–64 years ranged from \$511.2 in the NT to \$237.0 in Queensland in 2001. Expenditure per person in NSW, WA, the ACT and the NT was higher than the national average of \$264.9 (table 4A.2).

Size and scope

There were approximately 1.6 million¹ people participating in publicly funded and/or provided VET programs in 2001 (a decrease of 1.4 per cent from 2000). Of the target population for VET (15–64 year olds), 11.8 per cent (approximately 1.5 million people) participated in VET in 2001 (table 4A.7).

The VET programs were delivered in 87 public training institutions and associated major campuses, 985 training centres by community education providers and in 5 645 training locations by other registered providers — that is, all other registered training providers, including private providers, who receive government funding for VET delivery (NCVER 2002a, 2002c).

The majority of VET students (73.7 per cent) were enrolled in TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions in 2001 (compared with 75.5 per cent in 2000). Community education providers accounted for 13.1 per cent of the total student enrolments, and private registered training organisations serviced the remaining 13.3 per cent of students (NCVER 2002a).

Over 377.6 million hours of VET programs were publicly funded or delivered on a fee-for-service basis by public providers in 2001, ranging from 133.3 million hours in NSW to 4.5 million hours in the NT. This represented an increase of 13.6 per cent from 2000. The number of annual hours delivered per student ranged from 354.2 in the ACT to 201.8 in SA. The national average was 230.2 hours per student, compared to 200.0 hours in 2000 (table 4A.3).

In 2001, 81.1 per cent of all VET hours were delivered through TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions (compared with about 84.0 per cent in 2000).

¹ VET student numbers exclude schools collections, and are adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Private registered training organisations provided 15.6 per cent of VET hours, and the remaining 3.4 per cent were delivered by adult and other community education providers (NCVER 2002a).

The infrastructure (non-current physical assets) of government owned TAFE institutes and TAFE divisions of universities was worth over \$5.8 billion at 31 December 2001, of which 92.3 per cent comprised the value of land and buildings (NCVER 2002b). The value of net assets at these institutes was 6.0 billion, or \$455.4 per person aged 15–64 years. The value of these assets per person aged 15–64 varied across jurisdictions, ranging from \$972.1 in the NT to \$343.7 in Queensland (table 4A.4).

Roles and responsibilities

The national VET system is a cooperative arrangement between Commonwealth, State and Territory governments, State training boards, industry (represented by Industry Training Advisory Bodies [ITABs]) and service providers. Different bodies provide services, funds, policy advice and decisions.

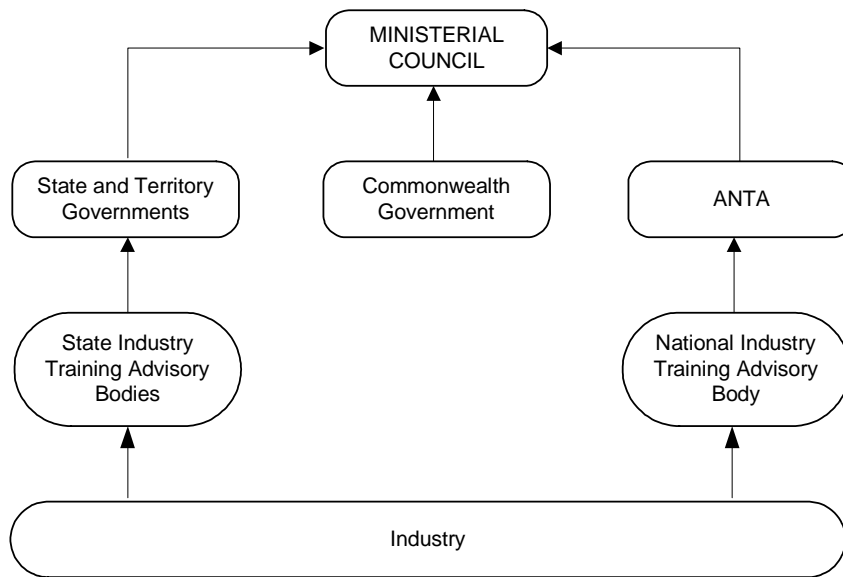
Policy advice and decision making

In the national VET system, the link between industry and the VET system is provided by ITABs as well as industry employer and employee organisations. The role of the ITABs is to provide policy advice on the training requirements of industry, as well as to keep industry informed about relevant training opportunities. The national ITABs report through ANTA, while the State and Territory ITABs report through the relevant State and Territory governments.

The Commonwealth ceased its contribution to State and Territory ITABs in 2002. Following this decision, all States and Territories are reviewing their industry training arrangements. These reviews may lead to significant changes in the policy advice arrangements in the VET system. For example, Tasmania ceased to fund their State ITABs on 30 September 2002. ANTA is in the process of reviewing the role of the national ITABs.

The Commonwealth statutory authority established to provide a national focus for VET, ANTA, reports to an industry-based board and advises the ANTA Ministerial Council of Commonwealth, State and Territory Ministers. The Ministerial Council is responsible for all decisions regarding VET policy, strategy and objectives (figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Policy advice and decision making within the VET system^a



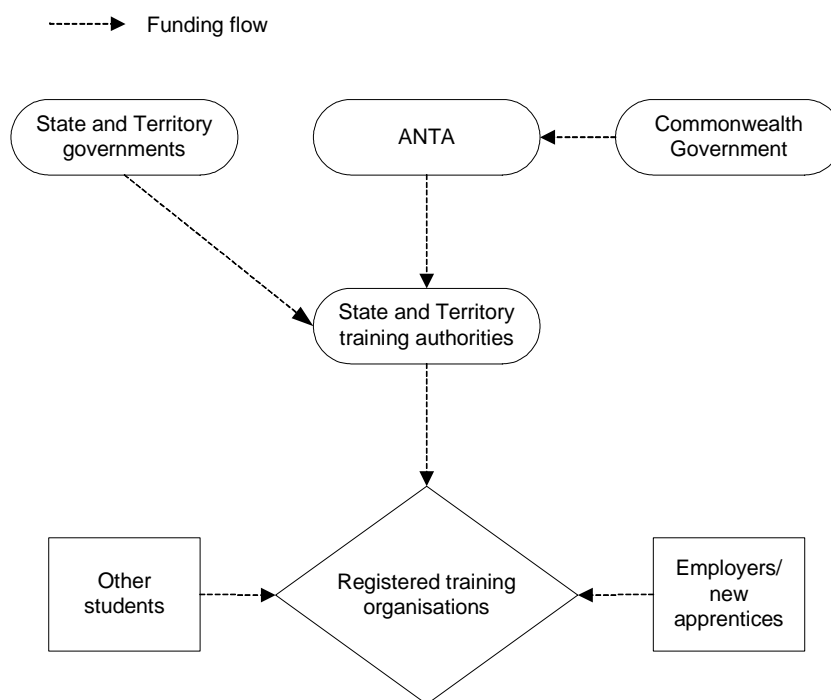
^a The policy advice arrangements for VET are undergoing review and may change in 2003.

VET funding flows

State and Territory governments provide funding for VET services through the State and Territory training authorities. State and Territory governments provided 72.0 per cent of recurrent government funding in 2001 (compared to 73.2 per cent in 2000), while the Commonwealth provided the remainder (NCVER 2002b). The Commonwealth funding of VET services is administered and allocated to the State and Territory training authorities by ANTA.

Registered training organisations also receive revenue from fees recovered from individuals and organisations for fee-for-service programs, ancillary trading revenue, other operating revenue and revenue from Commonwealth specific-purpose funds (figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Funding flows within the VET system



Allocation of VET funding

The majority of government VET funds are allocated to major public providers based on the planned activity of State and Territory training authorities (which plan the amount of annual curriculum hours to be delivered in each field of study). The proportion of total government recurrent funding allocated for payments to non-TAFE providers for VET delivery varied across jurisdictions in 2001 — Queensland had the highest proportion (11.0 per cent) and Tasmania the lowest (4.8 per cent) (table 4A.5).

The allocation of VET funding on a competitive basis was introduced in the early 1990s to allocate an additional \$21 million of Commonwealth funds to public and private registered training organisations (HRSCEET 1998).

Processes used to allocate funds on a competitive basis include:

- *competitive tendering* — where public and private registered training organisations compete for funding contracts from State and Territory training authorities in response to government offers (tenders);
- *user choice* — where the employer and apprentice/trainee choose a registered training provider and negotiate key aspects of their training. Public funds flow to that provider; and

-
- *preferred supplier arrangements* — an extension of competitive tendering, where 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 have an effect, either positive or negative, on other dimensions of VET service provision, including quality and access by equity target groups.

The proportion of VET funding that is allocated on a competitive basis has increased significantly since the early 1990s. An estimated \$768.8 million of public VET funding was allocated on a competitive basis in 2001 (including user choice arrangements), 1.6 per cent more than in 2000 (table 4A.6). The degree of competition in the tendering process varies across jurisdictions. Some funds are potentially available to both public and private registered training organisations (open competitive tendering) whereas some tendering is restricted to either public 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.

Institutes of TAFE 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).

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 publicly 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; and
- governments require publicly 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. The HRSCEET notes that a main advantage is the size and value of the public infrastructure to which they have access.

Source: HRSCEET (1998).

4.2 Policy developments in vocational education and training

As part of the planning and accountability arrangements for the national VET system, Ministers agreed in June 2001 to five national priorities for 2002. These priorities are:

- *A quality national training system that provides value for money.* The aim of this priority is to achieve quality outcomes in a cost effective way which would include the implementation of national training arrangements within the National Training Framework. Quality assurance and risk management processes will underpin the success in this area while States and Territories will contribute to improvements in national consistency, having regard to their own priorities.
- *Industry commitment to skill development.* The aim of this strategy is to foster a learning culture within enterprises, to increase industry participation and investment in training to add to the existing skill base, and to expand the New Apprenticeships program.
- *Individuals as learners.* Ministers agreed to target products and services to meet learner needs, increase opportunities and improve outcomes for targeted groups. There will also be a focus on increasing the pathways for VET learners, consistent with the National Training Framework. Pathways in VET include

learning opportunities in the workplace as well as off-the-job and VET programs in schools, facilitated by using different modes of delivery.

- *VET professionalism.* Ministers agreed that one of the priorities would be to build the capabilities of VET professional staff.
- *Support for regional development.* This involves targeting skill development to meet the needs of local enterprise, small business and communities.

The above priorities will apply in 2002 in respect of the National Strategy for Vocational Education and Training 1998–2003. These Annual National Priorities are the same as for 2001. The timeframe for the establishment of the new ANTA Agreement in 2000 did not allow for the development of new Annual National Priorities for 2002.

4.3 Framework of performance indicators

The framework of performance indicators for VET used in this Report (figure 4.3) is built around a set of shared VET objectives (box 4.3). The performance indicators reflect the national VET objectives — for example, participation by target groups is a measure of access to VET; overall employer satisfaction with VET is a measure of the preparedness of VET graduates for work; and recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour is an indicator of the extent to which the value of public VET expenditure is maximised.

Box 4.3 Objectives for VET services

Ministers agreed in 1997 on four objectives for VET services:

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

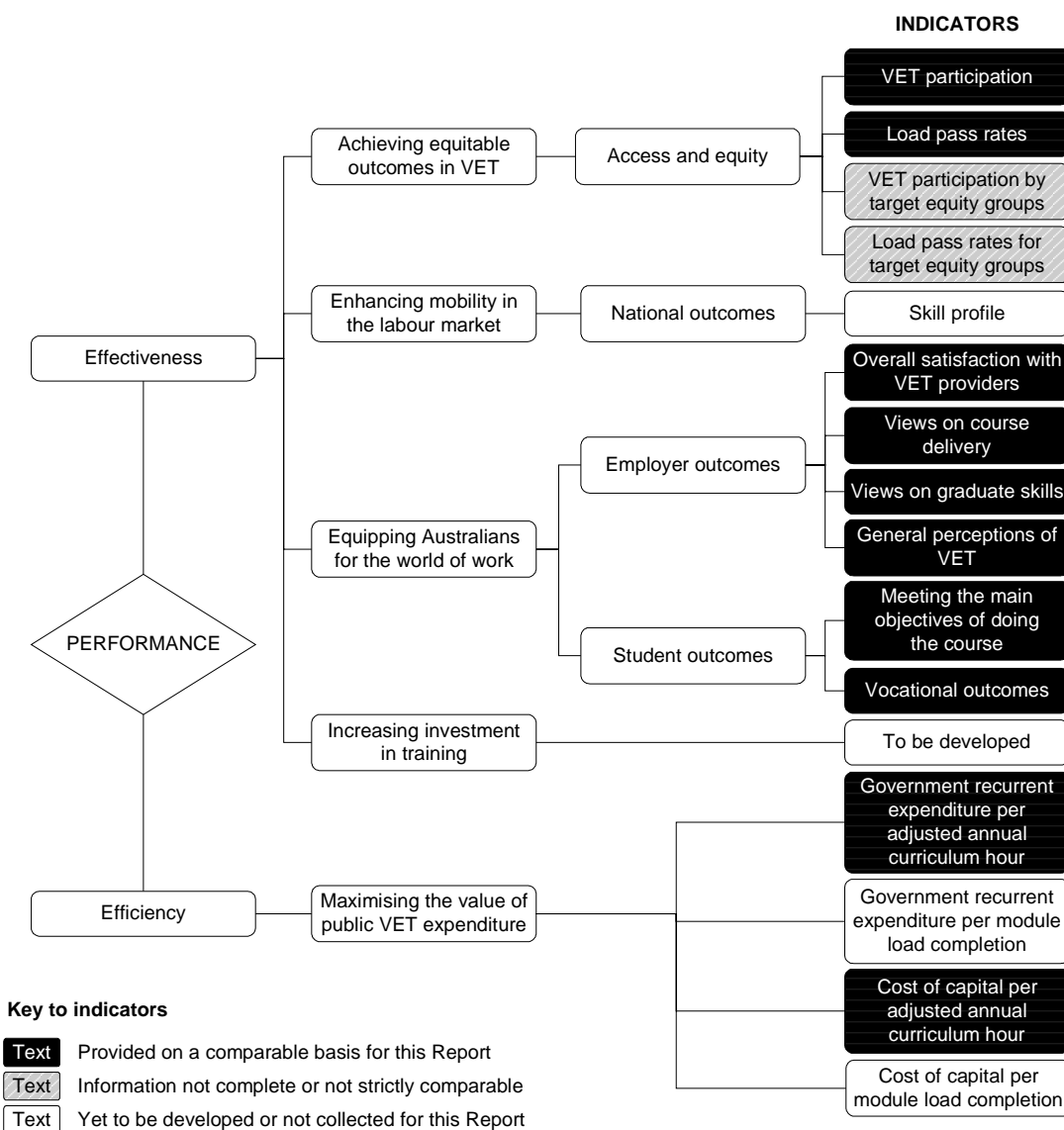
A fifth objective — to increase investment in training — was added in early 1998.

Source: ANTA (1998).

The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 4.3). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Government recurrent expenditure was reported on an accrual basis for the first time in 1998. While the move to accrual reporting represents a break in the series, both accrual and cash data are available for 1997, which will facilitate comparisons over time from 1997. Ongoing work to provide a more comprehensive set of performance indicators and to improve existing indicators and data is discussed in section 4.5.

Figure 4.3 Performance indicators for VET services^a



^a The depicted relationship between the performance indicators and objectives for VET is imperfect. In some cases, the performance indicators may relate to more than one of the objectives for VET (for example, the indicator 'Meeting the main objectives of doing the course' also reports on results for target groups that fall under the equity objective, and the access and equity indicators also relate to the objective of enhancing mobility in the labour market).

4.4 Key performance indicator results

The effectiveness and efficiency of VET services may be affected by different delivery environments, locations and types of clients. 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.

Access and 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, Indigenous people, people with a disability, residents of rural and remote communities, and people from non-English speaking backgrounds. This section provides data on the extent to which these equity groups have access to, and achieve successful outcomes in, the publicly funded VET system.

VET participation

The extent of VET participation provides an indicator of access to the VET system. This section reports on participation for the general population, and the ANTA-designated equity groups.

The number of people participating in VET nationally in 2001 was just over 1.6 million (8.5 per cent of the general population). Within the working age population (15–64 year olds), just over 1.5 million (11.8 per cent) participated in VET. Participation rates for 15–64 year olds were highest in the NT (13.8 per cent) and lowest in the ACT (8.6 per cent). Young people (15–24 year olds) comprised 36.4 per cent of all VET students. This age group had the highest VET participation rate of 21.8 per cent (table 4A.7).

VET participation by target equity groups

The VET participation of target equity groups, compared with their representation in the general population, may reflect the effectiveness of current strategies to increase access to VET for disadvantaged groups.

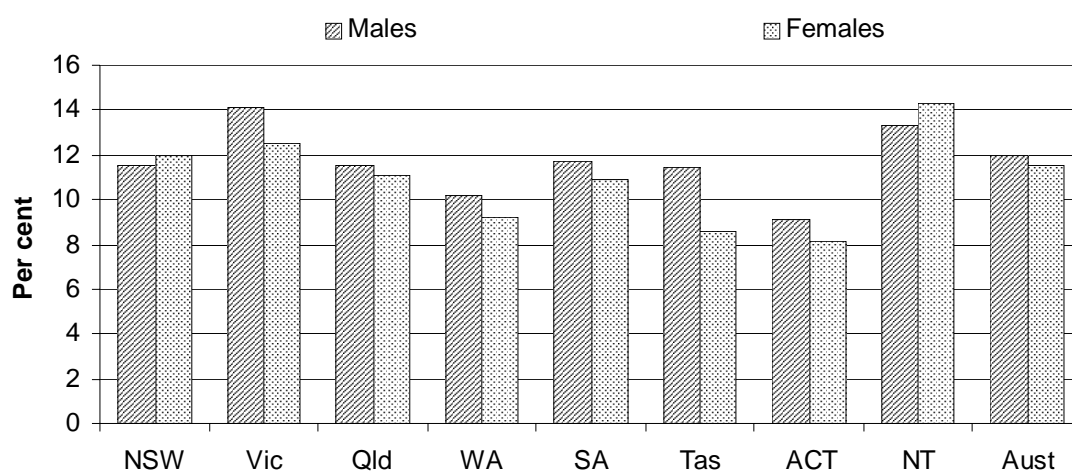
Care needs to be taken in interpreting the participation data presented for Indigenous people, people with a disability and people from a non-English speaking background because the data are dependent on self identification at the time of enrolment, and the number of nonresponses (that is, students who did not indicate

whether or not they belonged to these groups) was high and varied across jurisdictions.

Females

Traditionally, males have had a higher VET participation rate than females. Nationally, this pattern continued in 2001, with 12.0 per cent of 15–64 year old males participating in VET compared to 11.5 per cent of females in the same age group. However, in NSW and the NT, the female participation rate was higher than the male rate (figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 VET participation rates for people aged 15–64 years, by gender 2001^{a, b}



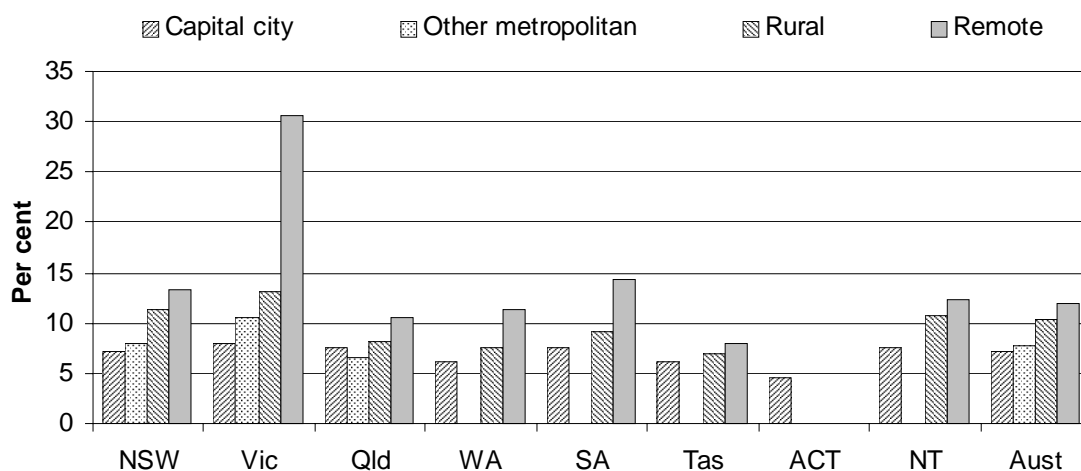
^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b The participation rates for males and females are different from those reported in ANTA (2002) because the rates reported here are calculated using data from ABS (2002a).

Source: National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) (unpublished); Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2002a); table 4A.8.

People from rural and remote areas

Nationally, the participation rate for people from remote areas was higher than for those from other geographic regions. The rate was highest in Victoria (30.7 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (8.0 per cent). The participation rate for people from rural areas ranged from 13.2 per cent in Victoria to 6.9 per cent in Tasmania (figure 4.5). Employment opportunities and the availability of other education services in rural and remote areas may affect the level of VET participation in these areas.

Figure 4.5 VET participation rates by region, 2001^{a, b, c}



^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b For WA, SA, Tasmania and the NT the number of students from other metropolitan areas is too small to calculate meaningful rates. ^c For the ACT, the number of students from other metropolitan and rural is too small to calculate meaningful rates. There are no people in remote areas in the ACT.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.9.

Indigenous people

The proportion of VET students who identified as Indigenous ranged from 41.3 per cent in the NT to 0.9 per cent in Victoria. The proportion of VET students who identified as Indigenous was greater than the proportion of Indigenous people in the population in all jurisdictions except Tasmania and the ACT, where the two rates were similar (table 4.1).

Table 4.1 VET participation by Indigenous status, 2001 (per cent)^a

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Students reported as Indigenous	3.0	0.9	4.2	5.9	3.2	3.6	1.4	41.3	3.3
Students reported as non-Indigenous	77.0	85.3	80.5	62.3	78.8	86.4	95.6	55.0	79.1
Indigenous status not reported	20.0	13.8	15.3	31.8	18.0	10.0	3.0	3.7	17.6
Proportion of the Australian population reported as Indigenous ^b	2.1	0.6	3.5	3.5	1.7	3.7	1.3	29.1	2.4

^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b The proportion of the Australian population reported as Indigenous differs from the data in ANTA (2002) because the figures reported here are calculated using ABS estimated residential indigenous population data (table A.7).

Source: ANTA (2002); ABS (unpublished); table 4A.10.

People with a disability

Nationally, 4.1 per cent of VET students identified themselves as having a 'permanent or significant disability'. Tasmania had the highest percentage of students reporting a disability (5.6 per cent) and WA the lowest (2.7 per cent) (table 4.2). In all jurisdictions, the percentage of VET students reporting a disability was below the percentage of people in the general population reporting a disability.

Table 4.2 VET participation by disability status, 2001 (per cent)^{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>
Students reported as having a disability	4.6	3.9	4.1	2.7	3.7	5.6	4.2	2.9	4.1
Students reported as not having a disability	75.6	90.1	95.9	62.6	75.7	83.4	92.1	87.1	82.7
Not reported	19.8	6.0	–	34.8	20.6	11.0	3.7	10.0	13.2
Proportion of the Australian population reported as having a disability ^c	19.3	18.0	19.9	19.5	22.4	22.3	17.2	13.3	19.3

^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b Disabilities include visual/sight/seeing; hearing; physical; intellectual; chronic illness; and other disability. ^c Includes specific restrictions: core activity (that is, communication, mobility and self care) restrictions as well as schooling or employment restrictions. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ANTA (2002), table 4A.11.

People from non-English speaking backgrounds

Nationally, 12.1 per cent of VET students identified themselves as being from a non-English speaking country. The proportions ranged from 15.1 per cent in NSW to 4.1 per cent in Tasmania. The percentage of VET students identifying themselves as born in a non-English speaking country was below the percentage for this group in the general population for all jurisdictions (table 4.3).

The percentage of VET students speaking a language other than English at home ranged from 27.7 per cent in the NT to 2.2 per cent in Tasmania. The percentage of VET students identifying themselves as speaking a language other than English at home was below the percentage for this group in the general population for all jurisdictions except the NT (table 4.4).

Table 4.3 VET participation by country of birth, 2001 (per cent)^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>
Students reported as being born in a non-English speaking country ^b	15.1	13.2	7.9	9.5	9.9	4.1	13.9	7.4	12.1
Students reported as being born in a main English speaking country ^c	65.8	68.4	81.8	57.1	73.6	92.1	71.2	86.6	70.1
Country of birth not reported	19.2	18.4	10.3	33.4	16.5	3.7	14.9	6.0	17.8
Proportion of the Australian population reported as being born in a non-English speaking country ^d	22.3	22.3	12.5	16.9	14.6	9.0	18.0	15.3	18.8

^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b All countries other than the main English speaking countries. ^c The main English speaking countries are Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Channel Islands, Isle of Man), Ireland, Canada, United States of America and South Africa. ^d The proportion of the Australian population reported as being born in a non-English speaking country differs from the data in ANTA (2002) because the figures reported here are calculated using 2001 Census data.

Source: ANTA (2002); ABS (2002b); table 4A.12.

Table 4.4 VET participation by language spoken at home, 2001 (per cent)^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>
Students speaking a language other than English at home	11.2	11.1	5.0	7.0	9.4	2.2	9.5	27.7	9.6
Speaking English at home	69.8	67.5	84.3	56.8	71.6	87.2	86.8	65.0	71.2
Language spoken at home not reported	19.0	21.5	10.7	36.2	19.0	10.6	3.8	7.3	19.1
Proportion of Australian population reported as speaking a language other than English at home ^b	19.0	20.0	7.1	11.3	11.8	3.1	13.6	22.8	15.2

^a In 2001, some jurisdictions introduced a new reporting regime — enrolment activity end date reporting. This may cause a break in the series on student numbers in these jurisdictions. ^b The proportion of the Australian population reported as speaking a language other than English at home differs from the data in ANTA (2002) because the figures reported here are calculated using 2001 Census data.

Source: ANTA (2002); ABS (2002b); table 4A.13.

Load pass rate for the general student population

Load pass rates report the extent to which students pass assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency. Care needs to be taken in comparing data because average module durations and standard of competencies achieved by students vary across jurisdictions. Load pass rates (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) are provided in this section for all students and the ANTA-designated equity target groups. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or unit of competency.

Load pass rates in 2001 ranged from 87.3 per cent in SA to 70.4 per cent in the NT. Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the ACT reported rates above the national average (75.4 per cent) (table 4A.14).

Load pass rate for target equity groups

The load pass rates for target equity groups, relative to the load pass rates of the general student population, are a measure of the effectiveness of strategies to improve outcomes for disadvantaged groups.

The load pass rates for students from remote areas (72.3 per cent), Indigenous students (61.5 per cent), students reporting a disability (66.8 per cent) and students born in a non-English speaking country (71.2 per cent) or speaking a language other than English at home (69.8 per cent) were below the national average (75.4 per cent). The load pass rates achieved by female students (76.1 per cent) and students from rural areas (77.5 per cent) were above the national average. The load pass rates for all students were highest in SA, which also reported the highest load pass rates for all the target equity groups except people speaking a language other than English at home (Tasmania) and Indigenous students (the ACT) (table 4.5). Care needs to be taken in making jurisdictional comparisons of load pass rates for Indigenous students, students reporting a disability and students from non-English speaking backgrounds because of the high nonidentification rates for these groups (tables 4A.16, 4A.17, 4A.18 and 4A.19).

Table 4.5 Load pass rates by target groups, 2001 (per cent)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^d</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
All people	74.2	74.9	75.6	71.5	87.3	79.4	78.3	70.4	75.4
Target groups									
Female students	74.7	76.1	76.5	71.7	87.5	81.0	81.4	69.3	76.1
Rural area students	74.4	78.7	77.8	74.2	91.2	77.8	..	72.4	77.5
Remote area students	74.1	81.9	72.9	69.4	92.0	79.2	..	68.1	72.3
Students who reported being Indigenous	60.0	56.4	64.7	56.1	72.1	69.9	74.1	62.6	61.5
Students who reported having a disability ^b	66.1	65.8	66.4	62.0	81.4	67.3	72.1	70.2	66.8
Students who reported being born in a non-English speaking country ^c	73.0	69.6	65.8	65.8	83.5	79.4	75.0	65.2	71.2
Students who reported speaking a language other than English at home	72.5	68.3	62.7	62.4	80.8	81.2	72.8	59.6	69.8

^a For Victoria in 2001, nominal hours supervised have not been recorded for all units of competency and instead, scheduled hours have been used to calculate load pass rates. ^b Disabilities include visual/sight/seeing; hearing; physical; intellectual; chronic illness; and other disability. ^c All countries other than the main English speaking countries which are Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Channel Islands, Isle of Man), Ireland, Canada, United States of America and South Africa. ^d For the ACT, the number of students from rural areas is too small to calculate meaningful rates. There are no people in remote areas in the ACT. .. Not applicable.

Source: ANTA (2002); tables 4A.14, 4A.15, 4A.16, 4A.17, 4A.18 and 4A.19.

Employer outcomes

Employer satisfaction is an important indicator of the quality of VET services. The National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER) 2001 *Survey of Employer Views on Vocational Education and Training* obtained views on the VET system from 6821 employers in 17 different industries nationally. The survey covered employers across a range of workforce sizes, including small (1–19 employees), medium (20–99 employees) and large (100 or more employees).

The 2001 survey, like previous surveys, focused on the opinions of employers of recent VET graduates (those who have completed a VET course of at least 200 hours within the two years prior to the survey). To provide a more complete picture of employer opinions on VET, some data on the opinions of the wider employer community (those with non-recent and no VET graduates) were also collected. Of the 6821 employers surveyed, 3271 employed a recent VET graduate, 1050 a non-recent graduate and 2500 employed no VET graduates.

Employers of recent VET graduates were asked about their overall satisfaction with the VET sector, their views on skills of graduates and their views on course delivery. All employers were asked their general perceptions of VET, allowing a

comparison of the views of employers of recent VET graduates with the view of the wider employer community.

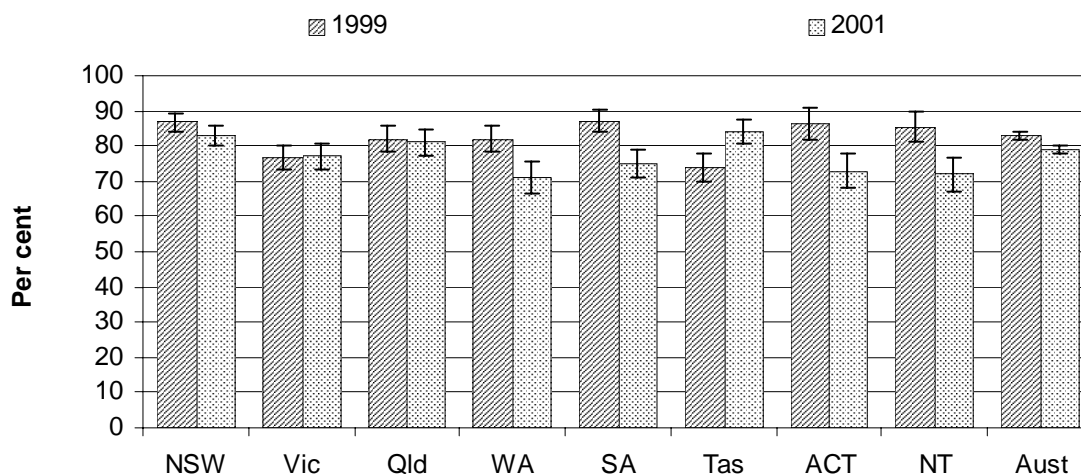
As the survey of employer views collects the opinions of a sample of employers, the results are only estimates of the opinions of the total employer population. The precision of estimates based on the survey depends on the survey sample size and the distribution of sample responses. Consequently, jurisdictional comparisons need to be made with care. The 95 per cent confidence intervals for the estimates are included in the figures and tables presenting the survey data. These confidence intervals can be used to test whether the estimates are statistically different between jurisdictions. When comparing the estimates, if the confidence intervals for the jurisdictions overlap, then there is no statistical difference detected between the estimates (at the 95 per cent confidence level). A discussion of the sampling method is provided in attachment 4A.

Overall employer satisfaction with VET providers

Like the 1999 survey, the 2001 survey (NCVER 2001a) asked employers to rate their 'overall satisfaction' with VET on a scale from one (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied). Employers rating their satisfaction as six or higher are classified by ANTA as 'satisfied'.

Nationally in 2001, 79 per cent of surveyed employers reported an overall satisfaction score of six or higher (compared to 83 per cent in 1999). The proportion of satisfied employers ranged from 84 per cent in Tasmania to 71 per cent in WA. Tasmania had a significant increase in the percentage of satisfied employers between 1999 and 2001, while WA, SA, the ACT and the NT reported a significant decrease over the same period (figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6 **Employers who ranked their satisfaction with VET providers as six or higher^{a, b, c}**



^a Only employers of recent VET graduates were surveyed on their overall satisfaction with VET providers. ^b Satisfaction is ranked on a 10 point scale where 1 = very dissatisfied and 10 = very satisfied. ^c The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

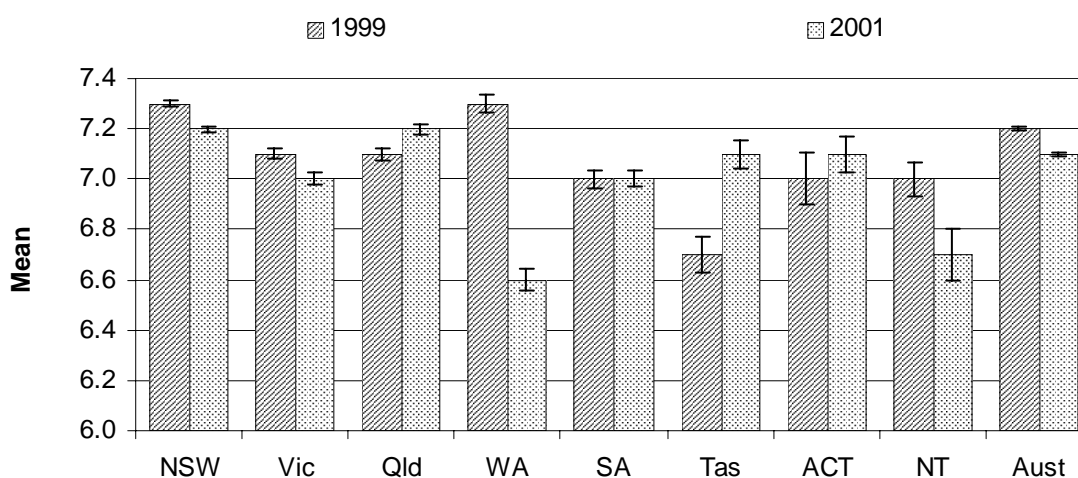
Source: NCVET (1999, 2001a); table 4A.20.

The national mean employer satisfaction in 2001 was 7.1, almost the same as the 1999 mean of 7.2. Mean employer satisfaction ranged from 7.2 in NSW and Queensland to 6.6 in WA. Tasmania reported the largest increase in mean employer satisfaction between 1999 and 2000, while WA reported the largest decrease in the same period (figure 4.7).

Mean satisfaction of surveyed employers showed little variation with industry size, with mean ratings of 7.1 for small and medium employers and 7.0 for large employers. However, the proportion of 'satisfied' employers was slightly lower for small employers (78 per cent) compared to the medium (81 per cent) and large employers (84 per cent) (table 4A.21).

The satisfaction of surveyed employers with the VET system varied across industries in 2001. Respondents from accommodation, cafes and restaurants, transport and storage, personal and other services, and wholesale trade were among the most satisfied with VET providers, while those from agriculture, forestry and fishing, and government administration and defence were the least satisfied (table 4A.22).

Figure 4.7 Mean satisfaction of employers^{a, b, c}



^a Only employers of recent VET graduates were surveyed on their overall satisfaction with VET providers. ^b Satisfaction is ranked on a ten point scale where 1 = very dissatisfied; 10 = very satisfied. ^c The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (1999, 2001a); table 4A.20.

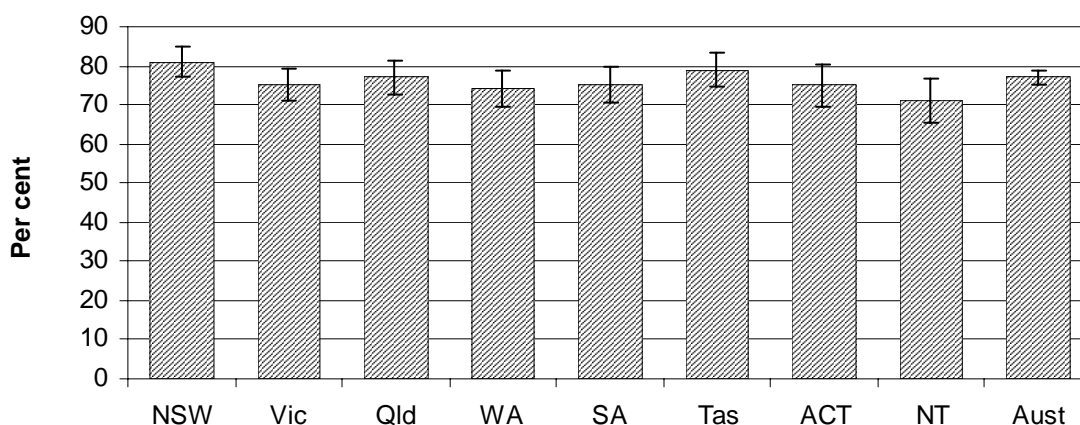
Employer views on course delivery

Employers of recent VET graduates who had completed their course after commencing their current employment (sample of 2517 employers) were asked their views on course delivery. Employers were asked to rate the importance of a number of aspects of course delivery for their organisation (table 4A.23) as well as to nominate which of these aspects they would most like to see improved (table 4A.24). Employers were also asked to rate their satisfaction with each aspect of course delivery on a five point scale.

When asked their satisfaction with course delivery overall, 82 per cent of employers reported being 'very' or 'quite' satisfied (NCVER 2001a).

The 'relevance of course content' was the aspect of course delivery recognised as extremely important by the highest percentage of employers (48 per cent) (table 4A.23). It was also the aspect most frequently nominated as the highest priority for improvement (29 per cent) (table 4A.24). Despite this, the 'relevance of course content' was the aspect of course delivery for which the highest percentage of employers reported being 'satisfied' (77 per cent). NSW had the highest percentage of employers satisfied with the relevance of course content (81 per cent), while the NT had the lowest (71 per cent) (figure 4.8).

Figure 4.8 **Employers of recent VET graduates satisfied with the relevance of VET course content, 2001^{a, b, c}**



^a Only employers of recent VET graduates who had completed the course after commencing their current employment were surveyed on their views of course delivery. ^b Includes respondents who indicated that they were very satisfied or quite satisfied with relevance of VET course content. ^c The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (2001a); table 4A.25.

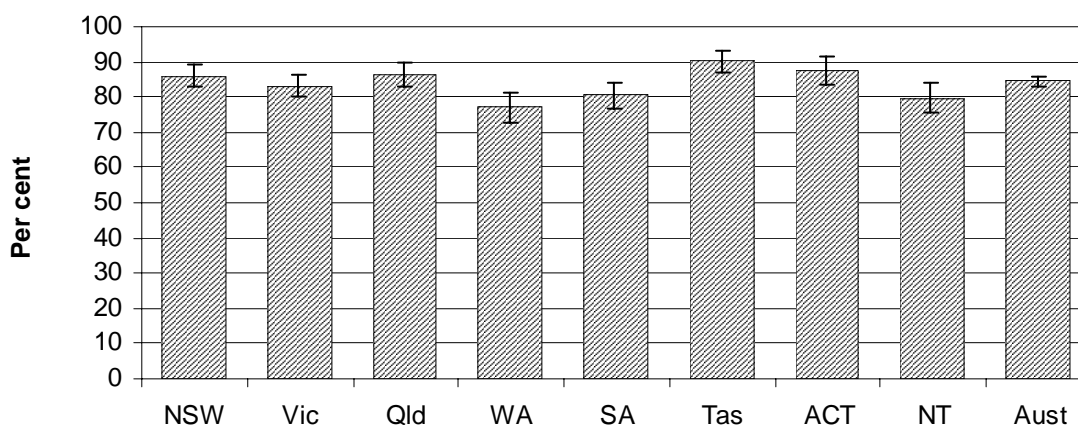
After the relevance of course content, surveyed employers were most likely to be satisfied with the balance between course theory and practice (71 per cent). Employers were least likely to be satisfied with teacher industry experience, with only 64 per cent of respondents indicating they were satisfied with this aspect of course delivery. Employers were slightly more satisfied with teacher ability, with 66 per cent of those surveyed indicating their satisfaction with this aspect of course delivery (table 4A.25).

Employer views on graduate skills

Employers of recent VET graduates were asked their views on graduate skills. For each of the skills considered, employers were asked to rate on a four point scale the importance to their organisation that the graduates gained the skill (table 4A.26). Of the skills considered, it was also requested that employers nominate the one they believed was most in need of improvement (table 4A.27). Employers were also asked to rate their overall satisfaction with skills and their satisfaction with each skill on a five point scale (table 4A.28).

Nationally, 84 per cent of surveyed employers with recent VET graduates reported being satisfied with graduates' skills overall. Employers in Tasmania were the most likely to report being satisfied (90 per cent) while employers in WA were the least likely (77 per cent) (figure 4.9).

Figure 4.9 **Employers of recent VET graduates satisfied with graduates' skills overall^{a, b}**



^a Includes respondents who indicated that they were very satisfied or quite satisfied with graduates' skills overall. ^b The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.28.

Of the skills considered in the survey, employers were most likely to report satisfaction with graduates' practical job skills (75 per cent). Employers surveyed in Tasmania were the most likely to indicate they were satisfied with this skill (89 per cent), while employers in NSW were the least likely (69 per cent). The skills with which employers were least satisfied were graduates' problem solving skills (68 per cent) and computer skills (51 per cent) (table 4A.28), however, the low satisfaction with graduates' computer skills should be viewed in the context of the high proportion of employers not commenting on this skill (17 per cent) (NCVER 2001a) and the relatively low proportion of employers rating this skill as very or extremely important (45 per cent) (table 4A.26).

General perceptions of VET

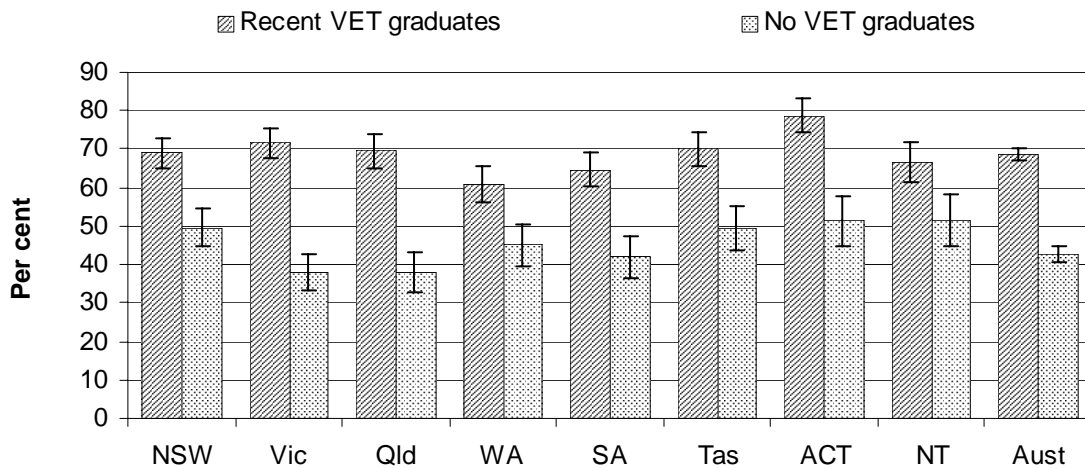
All surveyed employers were asked their level of agreement with certain statements about the VET system to ascertain their general perceptions. The survey focused on determining opinions on:

- qualifications compared to on-the-job skills;
- provision of practical skills through VET;
- employers' needs; and
- value for money.

The views of employers with recent VET graduates and those with no VET graduates are reported separately to allow for comparisons between the opinions of these two employer groups.

Employers of recent VET graduates were significantly more likely to agree that the VET system is providing graduates with skills appropriate to employer needs (68.7 per cent) than employers with no VET graduates (42.7 per cent). Of the employers with recent VET graduates, those in the ACT were the most likely to agree (78.7 per cent), while those in WA were the least likely (60.8 per cent) (figure 4.10).

Figure 4.10 **Employers who agree that the VET system is providing graduates with skills appropriate to employers' needs, 2001^{a, b}**



^a Includes employers who 'agree' or 'strongly agree' that the VET system is providing graduates with skills appropriate to employer needs. ^b The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.29:

There were similar levels of agreement among employers of recent VET graduates and employers with no graduates that 'the VET system needs to provide more practical job skills' and that 'training pays for itself through increased worker productivity'. However, there were significant differences across jurisdictions in the views of employers of recent VET graduates about the cost-effectiveness of training. Employers in the ACT were most likely to agree that training pays for itself (86.7 per cent), while employers in WA were the least likely (67.5 per cent). A higher proportion of employers with no VET graduates (72.6 per cent) agreed that 'on-the-job skills are more useful than skills obtained through formal education' than employers of recent VET graduates (63.2 per cent) (table 4A.29).

Student outcomes

The outcomes for VET graduates and module completers are an important indicator of the quality of the VET system. In 2001, ANTA commissioned NCVER to undertake the Student Outcomes Survey to ascertain training outcomes for students who completed at least one module of VET at TAFE institutes or universities in Australia in 2000.

The survey targeted students who graduated with a qualification from a course (graduates) and students who had successfully completed some training below the level of full qualification and who were no longer engaged in training at the time the survey was undertaken (module completers). The data collected about TAFE graduates and TAFE module completers describe their general characteristics, fields of study, employment outcomes, occupations, industries of employment, satisfaction with their course of study and further study outcomes.

Data collection for the 2001 survey involved the mailing of questionnaires to a randomly selected sample of graduates and module completers. The sample was stratified by TAFE institute, field of study, gender and age. Responses were received from 39 426 graduates and 30 128 module completers, resulting in national response rates of 52 per cent and 41 per cent respectively. Responses were weighted to population benchmarks to minimise nonresponse bias.

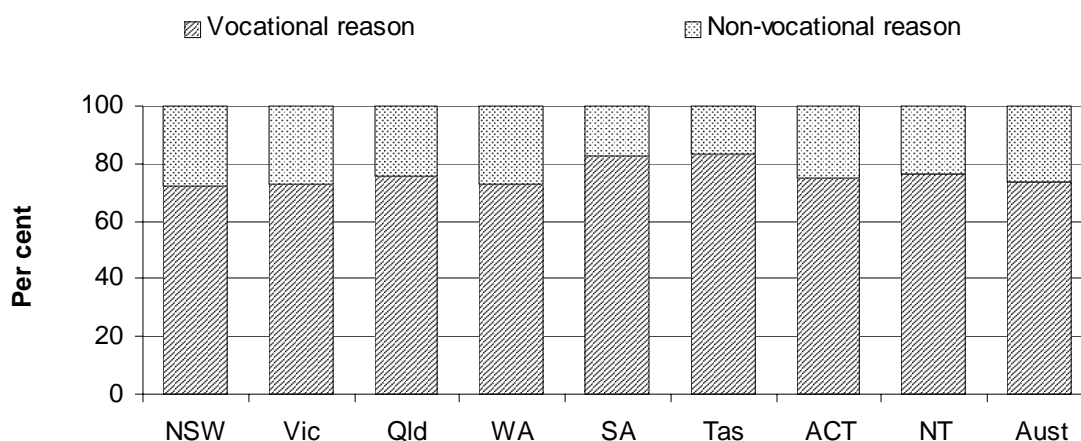
As the Student Outcomes Survey collects the opinions of a sample of students, the results are only estimates of the opinions of the total student population. The precision of estimates based on the survey depend on the survey sample size and the distribution of sample responses. Consequently, jurisdictional 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 there is no statistical difference detected between the estimates (at the 95 per cent confidence level).

Care needs to be taken when comparing State and Territory information, as 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, the indicators of employment outcomes for VET graduates may be affected by economic parameters that are beyond the control of the TAFE system.

Main reason for undertaking VET course

The 2001 Student Outcomes Survey (NCVER 2001b) asked TAFE institute students who graduated in 2000 to nominate their main reason for undertaking a VET course. Nationally, 73.7 per cent of surveyed graduates indicated that they enrolled for vocational reasons (for example, to obtain a job or promotion). This proportion ranged from 83.4 per cent in Tasmania to 71.9 per cent in NSW (figure 4.11).

Figure 4.11 **TAFE graduates' main reason for undertaking a VET course, 2001^a**



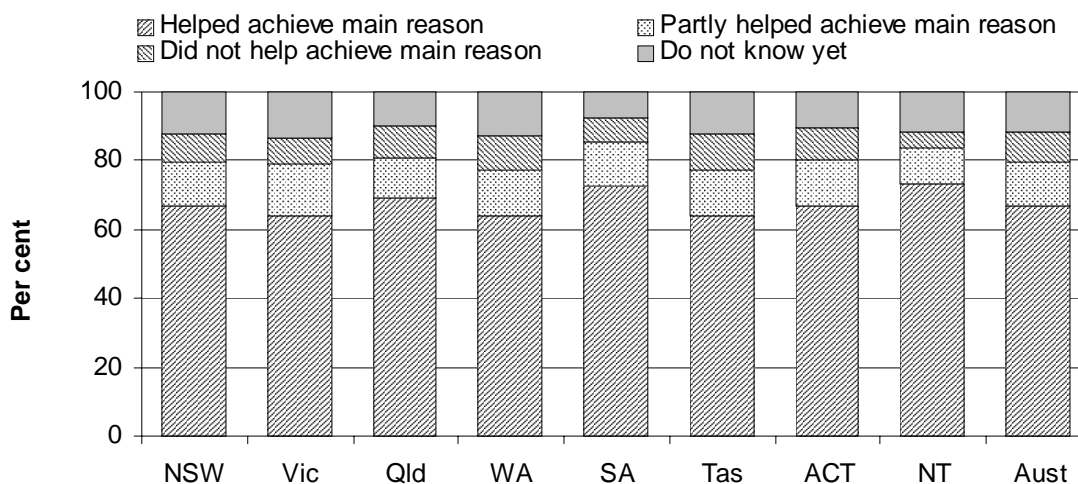
^a The 95 per cent confidence intervals for these estimates can be found at table 4A.30.

Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.30.

Meeting the main objectives of doing a VET course

Nationally, 79.9 per cent of graduates indicated that the VET course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course. The proportion ranged from 85.3 per cent in SA to 77.2 per cent in WA (figure 4.12). Of graduates from ANTA-designated equity target groups, those from remote areas were more likely to indicate the course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course (87 per cent), and graduates reporting a disability were the least likely (69 per cent) (table 4A.32).

Figure 4.12 Whether VET course helped TAFE institute graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course, 2001^a



^a The 95 per cent confidence intervals for these estimates can be found at table 4A.31.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.31.

Vocational outcomes of VET graduates

Of the surveyed TAFE institute graduates who were unemployed before the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 49.1 per cent indicated that they were employed after the course (table 4.6). Of those graduates employed prior to the course who undertook the course for vocational reasons, 89.7 per cent were still employed after the course (table 4.7). Jurisdictional comparisons of employment outcomes need to be made with care because of the high standard errors associated with these survey estimates. Any comparisons need to also take into account the general economic conditions in each jurisdiction (appendix A).

Table 4.6 Labour force status after the course of graduates who were unemployed prior to the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2001 (per cent)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas^b</i>	<i>ACT^{b,c}</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Employed	47.4 (5.7)	50.0 (6.4)	46.9 (6.6)	51.3 (8.6)	65.1 (11.9)	57.2 (14.6)	59.9 (23.5)	na na	49.1 (1.5)
Unemployed	35.8 (6.9)	35.6 (6.1)	37.9 (6.4)	31.5 (7.9)	25.5 (10.9)	28.9 (13.4)	22.1 (19.9)	na na	35.2 (1.5)
Not in labour force	15.9 (4.1)	14.0 (4.4)	14.0 (4.6)	16.6 (6.4)	8.0 (6.8)	13.2 (10.0)	18.0 (18.4)	na na	14.8 (1.1)

^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimate are reported in parentheses below the estimate. ^b The estimates for graduates not in the labour force for Tasmania and for graduates unemployed for the ACT have relative standard errors between 25 and 50 per cent and need to be used with caution. ^c The estimate for graduates not in the labour force has a relative standard error greater than 50 per cent and is considered too unreliable for general use. **na** Not available (data from the NT are not published due to the high standard errors associated with the estimates).

Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.33.

Table 4.7 Labour force status after the course of graduates who were employed prior to the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2001 (per cent)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas^b</i>	<i>ACT^b</i>	<i>NT^c</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Employed	89.5 (1.6)	90.1 (1.7)	89.5 (1.9)	87.8 (2.4)	92.8 (2.4)	91.2 (4.6)	91.7 (5.1)	94.0 (6.1)	89.7 (0.4)
Unemployed	5.6 (1.2)	5.4 (1.3)	5.5 (1.4)	6.9 (1.9)	3.4 (1.7)	4.5 (3.3)	3.7 (3.5)	2.1 (3.7)	5.5 (0.3)
Not in labour force	4.7 (1.1)	4.3 (1.2)	4.8 (1.3)	5.1 (1.6)	3.6 (1.7)	4.1 (3.2)	4.7 (3.9)	3.4 (4.6)	4.6 (0.3)

^a The relative standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimate are reported in parentheses below the estimate. ^b The estimates for graduates unemployed and not in the labour force for Tasmania and the ACT have relative standard errors between 25 and 50 per cent and should be used with caution. ^c The estimates for graduates unemployed and not in the labour force have relative standard errors greater than 50 per cent and are considered too unreliable for general use.

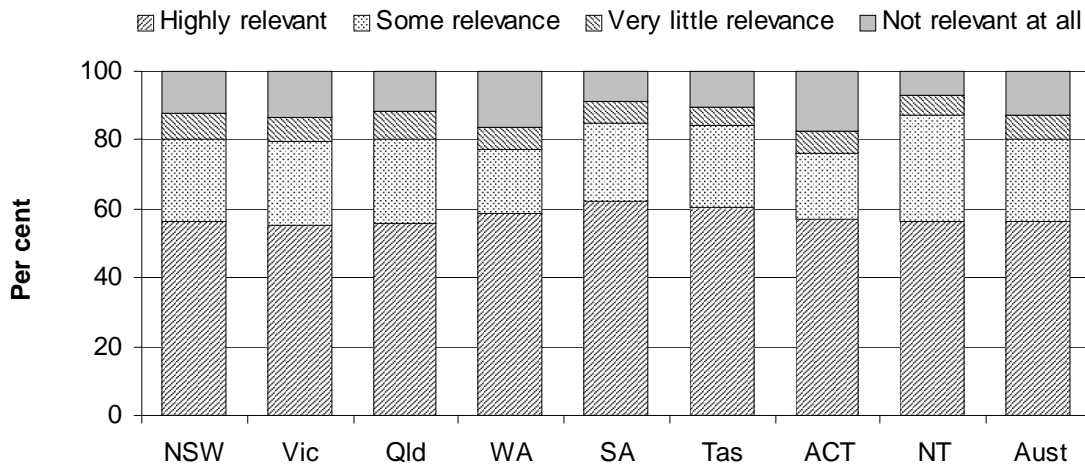
Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.34.

Of the employed TAFE institute graduates who undertook the course for vocational reasons, 80.2 per cent reported the course was highly relevant or of some relevance to their main job. The proportions ranged from 87.0 per cent in the NT to 76.3 per cent in the ACT (figure 4.13).

Nationally, 68.4 per cent of graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons reported at least one work-related benefit from completing the TAFE course. The benefits reported by graduates include 'obtained a job' (30.0 per cent); 'increase in earnings' (28.8 per cent); 'promotion' (21.3 per cent) and 'change of job' (19.2 per cent) (graduates were able to report more than one benefit). In

Queensland, the proportion of graduates citing at least one benefit was significantly below the national average (figure 4.14).

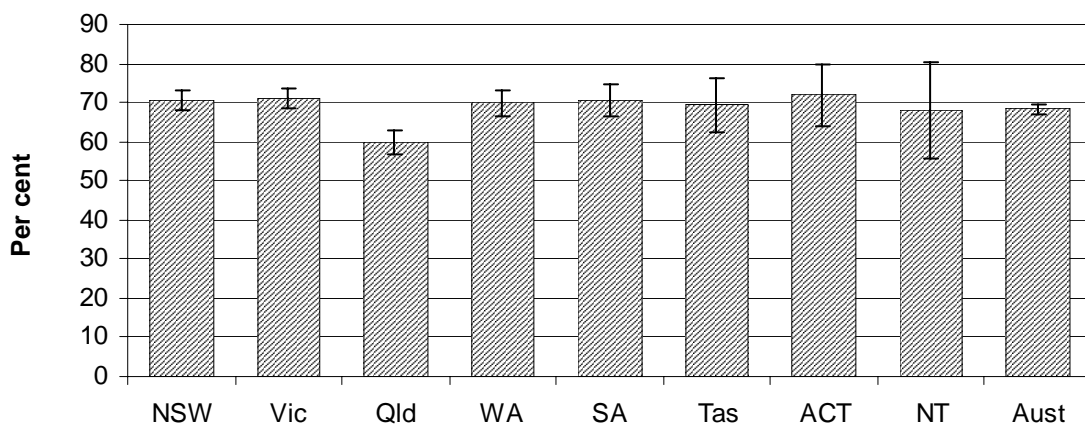
Figure 4.13 Employed TAFE institute graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons — relevance of course to main job, 2001^a



^a The 95 per cent confidence intervals for these estimates can be found at table 4A.35.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.35.

Figure 4.14 TAFE institute graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons who received at least one work related benefit from completing the course, 2001^a



^a The error bars in the chart represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.36.

Efficiency

Over the period of the current ANTA agreement (2001–2003), States and Territories have reaffirmed their commitment to maximising the value of public expenditure on VET and have agreed to achieve improved efficiency levels (ANTA 2002). An indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). The unit cost indicator reported here is recurrent cost per annual curriculum hour. Recurrent cost per government funded successful module load completion has been reported as an efficiency indicator in past reports, but is not reported this year because of data collection issues. ANTA has revised its data collection method for this measure and the 2002 financial year data will be available for next year's Report.

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 of similar types;
- differences between States and Territories, including socio-demographic composition, administrative scale, course mix and dispersion and scale of service delivery;
- the mix of industry in a jurisdiction and its effect on the nature of courses required; and
- VET policies and practices, including the level of fees and charges paid by students.

The Steering Committee decided in 1998 that a user cost of capital should be included, where possible, as part of the costs for each government service reported. The user cost of capital is calculated by applying a jurisdiction cost of capital rate to the value of government assets. 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 (box 4.4).

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.

Box 4.4 **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. Where the full costs cannot be counted, costs should be estimated on a consistent basis.

The Steering Committee has identified four areas that could diminish the comparability of costs across government and private providers.

- Superannuation costs are included in cost estimates for VET. It is recommended that superannuation 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). The user cost of capital represents the opportunity cost to government of the funds tied up in VET assets. Excluding the user cost of capital from accrued costs lowers 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. It is recommended that payroll tax be costed to unit cost estimates to achieve comparability across government and private providers and across jurisdictions (SCRCSSP 1999).

Source: SCRCSSP (1998, 1999).

Unit cost — government expenditure per hour of delivery

Unit costs are reported in terms of total recurrent government expenditure per annual curriculum hour, adjusted to account for invalid enrolments, recognition of prior learning and course mix differences across jurisdictions.² Financial and activity data from States and Territories are reported within an agreed scope to ensure unit costs accurately reflect the relative efficiency of government service provision across jurisdictions.

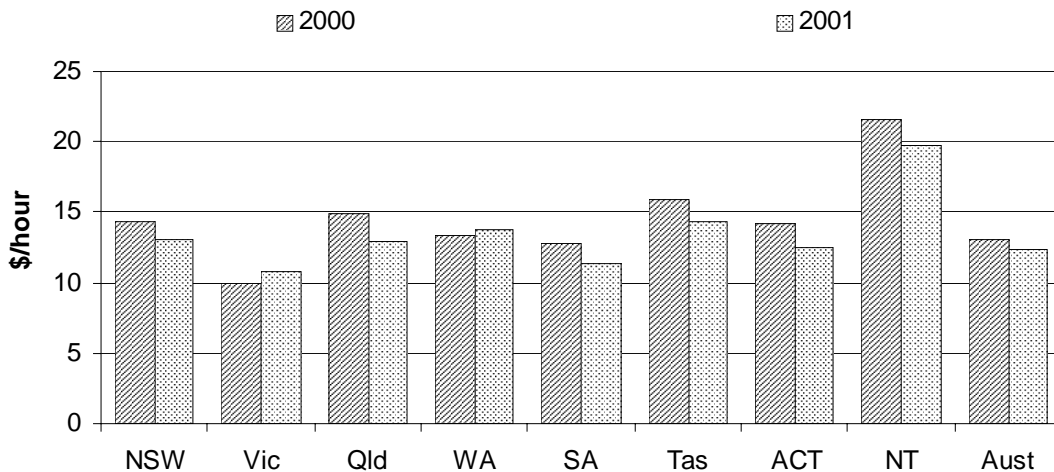
Data used in the calculation of unit cost are derived from data sets that comply with the Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard. Both activity (nominal hours — supervised) and financial data are audited under arrangements with the States and Territories.

² Other unaccounted external influences on the unit cost of VET provision include the population density and the provision of VET for disadvantaged groups (see appendix A).

Recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour of government funded VET programs in 2001 ranged from \$19.73 in the NT to \$10.75 in Victoria. Only Victoria and SA reported unit costs below the national average of \$12.42. Nationally, real recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour fell between 2000 and 2001, with Victoria and WA the only jurisdictions to report a real increase in this period (figure 4.15).

The full cost of VET service delivery includes both the cost of capital and recurrent costs. The Steering Committee acknowledges the potential for differences in some input costs (for example, land values) to affect reported costs across jurisdictions without necessarily reflecting the efficiency of service delivery. The cost of capital for land is presented separately from other assets to allow users to consider any differences in land values among jurisdictions when assessing the results (table 4.8).

Figure 4.15 **Government real recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour (2001 dollars)^a**



^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. The payroll tax estimate has increased real recurrent government VET expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour in the ACT by \$0.55 in 2000 and by \$0.47 in 2001.

Source: ANTA (2002); NCVET (2002b); table 4A.37.

Table 4.8 Cost of capital, 2001 (\$ million)^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>
Cost of capital for non-current physical assets									
Land	25.0	22.6	9.7	6.6	2.8	0.7	0.6	0.4	68.4
Buildings	127.6	86.7	55.3	33.2	26.9	8.3	8.9	9.8	356.5
Plant, equipment and motor vehicles	6.5	9.9	5.9	2.4	3.5	0.9	0.3	0.6	30.0
Other	0.3	1.1	–	0.4	2.2	1.5	0.1	–	5.6
Total	159.4	120.2	70.9	42.5	35.5	11.3	9.7	10.8	460.4

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: NCVER (2002b); table 4A.38.

The total cost of government owned capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour varied across jurisdictions in 2001, ranging from \$2.99 in the NT to \$1.58 in Victoria and Queensland. Excluding land assets, the government cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour in 2001 ranged from \$2.87 in the NT to \$1.28 in Victoria (table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2000^a

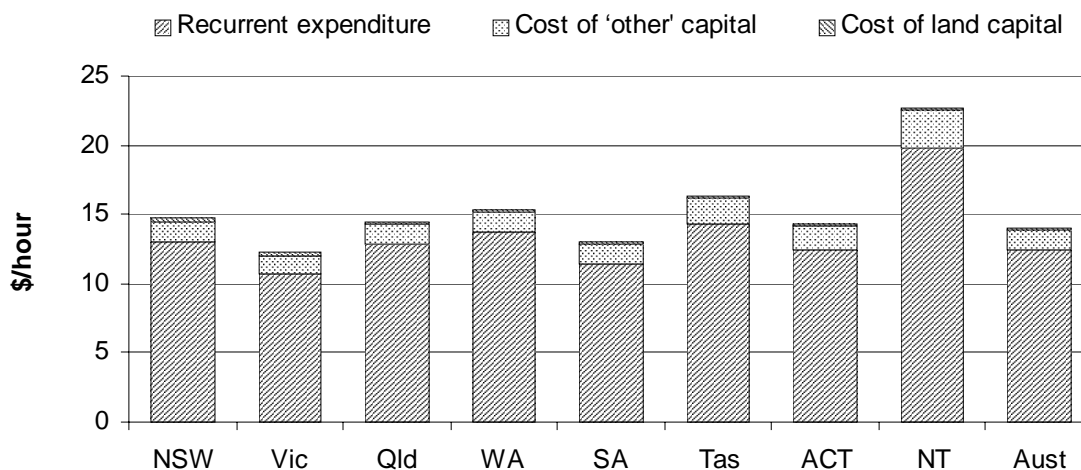
	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Adjusted annual curriculum hours										
	million	98.0	75.2	44.6	24.8	21.2	5.5	5.6	3.6	278.6
Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour										
Land	\$	0.26	0.30	0.22	0.26	0.13	0.12	0.10	0.12	0.25
Buildings	\$	1.33	1.14	1.23	1.28	1.27	1.46	1.64	2.70	1.28
Plant, equipment and motor vehicles	\$	0.07	0.13	0.13	0.09	0.17	0.16	0.05	0.16	0.11
Other	\$	–	0.01	–	0.01	0.10	0.26	0.01	–	0.02
Total	\$	1.67	1.58	1.58	1.65	1.67	2.01	1.80	2.99	1.65

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ANTA (2002); NCVER (2002b); table 4A.38.

The national full cost to government of funding VET per adjusted annual curriculum hour in 2001 was \$14.07 (recurrent cost of \$12.42, plus cost of land of \$0.25, and cost of ‘other’ capital of \$1.41). Across jurisdictions, the full cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour ranged from \$22.72 in the NT to \$12.33 in Victoria (figure 4.16). Care needs to be taken in interpreting these results because the asset data used to calculate cost of capital are not as reliable as the recurrent cost data.

Figure 4.16 **Total government VET costs per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2001^{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 presented. The payroll tax estimate has increased real recurrent government VET expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour in the ACT by \$0.47 in 2001. ^b 'Other' capital includes buildings, plant, equipment and motor vehicles and other capital.

Source: ANTA (2002); NCVER (2002b); table 4A.39.

4.5 Future directions in performance reporting

Indicator development

Work is continuing on improvements to the VET output measures that encapsulate the diversity of the VET system. Although in-principle agreement to a standardised output measure for measuring all VET outputs on a single scale has been reached, an approach to implementation is still to be developed.

In the past, pilot studies that assess the outcomes achieved by students who participate in training outside of the publicly owned TAFE institutes were undertaken by NCVER. Currently, the results from these pilot surveys are not sufficiently robust to allow reporting of results. An approach to capturing outcomes from the private provider sector will be reconsidered in the near future. The implementation of a new accountability framework for VET infrastructure commenced in 2001. This framework includes three performance indicators:

- public expenditure per publicly funded output (incorporating both the recurrent and user cost of capital components);

-
- ratio of operating and maintenance costs to capital value (including the value of the maintenance backlog); and
 - a measure of the utilisation of infrastructure.

It is anticipated that full implementation, including national reporting against these performance indicators, will be achieved by 2003 in time for the 2004 Report.

Work by ANTA on improving reporting on the user cost of capital component of the unit cost of publicly funded VET is continuing. The intention is for this to be available for reporting in 2003.

The ABS will conduct a survey of employer training expenditure and practices known as the Training Expenditure Survey in 2002. The results will inform a number of key performance measures and are expected to be available in April 2003.

A new national strategy for the VET system for the period 2004–2010 is under development. It is anticipated that a new series of key objectives for the VET system will emerge, and that as a result the key performance measures will be reviewed in 2003.

4.6 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data which 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 provides more than one-third of the vocational education and training (VET) in Australia. The number of training hours continues to increase each year. In 2001, 133.3 million hours of training were delivered throughout NSW, almost three quarters of which was provided by TAFE and other government providers. This is an increase of around 17.5 million hours (or 15 per cent) over the number of hours delivered in NSW in 2000. In comparison, the average national growth in the number of hours delivered in Australia for the same period was 13.5 per cent.

The unit cost of VET delivery in NSW continued to show increases in efficiency by decreasing from \$14.41 in 2000 to \$13.03 in 2001. This equates to a reduction of 9.6 per cent compared to the national average reduction in unit costs of only 5.3 per cent. The chapter reports the full cost of VET service delivery by combining both the cost of capital and recurrent costs. NSW had a total VET cost of \$14.70 per adjusted annual curriculum hour compared to the national average of \$14.07. The inclusion of cost of capital is an important first step toward a picture of total government VET costs. Future work may also need to focus on issues such as the difference in the fee-for-service policy between the States and its effect on unit costs.

Results from the *2001 National Survey of Employer Views on Vocational Education and Training* show that NSW continues to have high rates of employer satisfaction with the provision of vocational education in this State. NSW, had the equal highest mean (7.2) employer satisfaction score in the 2001 survey.

TAFE NSW continued to improve enrolment rates for target groups with an increase in enrolments of Indigenous, non-English speaking background, students with disabilities and students from rural areas of 9.5 per cent, 10.4 per cent, 17.5 per cent and 9.8 per cent respectively. To support this growth, more than \$18 million is being provided over four years for the expansion of TAFE NSW scholarships and to target students at risk.

As part of the expansion of the business arrangements of TAFE NSW, TAFE GLOBAL commenced operations in 2001. During this first year of operation, 35 new contracts were signed in countries such as China, Hong Kong, Korea and South Africa. A particular noteworthy achievement during the year was the award of a \$2 million contract with Greece for TAFE GLOBAL to assist in the development of training programs for the 2004 Athens Olympic and Paralympic Games.

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Victorian Government comments

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In 2001, 19 Victorian TAFE institutions (including five TAFE divisions within universities) and over 1100 other Registered Training Organisations provided approximately 486 000 students with almost 104 million student contact hours of vocational education and training. This represented an increase of 8 per cent on 2000 delivery.

When personal enrichment programs are included, almost 107 million student contact hours were delivered to over 579 000 students.

TAFE institutions delivered over 63.4 million government funded hours, an increase of 4 per cent on 2000. The remaining 16.8 million government funded student contact hours were delivered by adult community education and private registered training organisations.

In the 2001-2002 Budget, \$83.9 million was allocated to build on the substantial construction, upgrade and maintenance program for training and further education. More than half these projects were in regional Victoria.

In June 2002, the Government released a comprehensive plan for addressing Victoria's future skills requirements. *The Ministerial Statement on Knowledge and Skills for the Innovation Economy* sets out future directions for the Victorian VET system. The Statement draws on and complements the program of activities and policies across Government, within the Growing Victoria Together framework, to support the development of Victoria as an innovation economy.

The Ministerial Statement will reposition Victoria's VET system to support the achievement of the Government's goals and targets for education and training. It will also support the Government's commitment to building a competitive, innovative and connected business environment. The Statement includes commitments to:

- reinvigorate TAFE to ensure that it has a highly-skilled workforce and provides innovative and relevant training for individuals and firms in an innovation economy;
- develop new VET products to meet the generic skill needs of individuals and firms, meet new and emerging skill needs, value local customised responses and improve learning pathways; and
- implement a coordinated development of lifelong learning by linking vocational education and training — and the benefits of its close association with industry — to adult community education, schools and universities.

The Statement also referred two key issues to the Victorian Learning and Skills Commission for further advice:

- how to determine priorities for public expenditure on VET in an innovation economy; and
- how to secure long-term sustainable financing arrangements for VET.

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Queensland Government comments

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Queensland's vocational education and training system aims to provide maximum opportunities for the growth and development of individuals, industries and regions. A current focus for the vocational education and training system is building pathways between learning and employment opportunities for all Queenslanders, particularly young people. Underpinning this challenge is a commitment to strong collaborative partnerships and relationships with industry, community and other key stakeholders.

In 2001, *Skilling Queensland 2001–2004* — the strategy for the State's vocational education and training system — was developed. The strategy sets the agenda for collaboration between stakeholders and provides a clear direction for efforts by the system to provide skills for the current and emerging Queensland workforce.

In 2001, a total of 320 400 students participated in publicly funded training in Queensland across 485 provider locations.

Queenslanders' participation in apprenticeships and traineeships continues to grow. The number of apprentices and trainees commencing training in Queensland reached 42 550 in 2001 compared with 36 150 in 2000. At the end of 2001, there were 529 apprenticeships and traineeships available from Training Packages, including many areas not previously available, such as seafood, caravans, floristry and food processing.

Queensland's young people were the focus of much attention in 2001. Collaboration was promoted among agencies to expand existing pathways and to support young people making the transition from education to work. The school and vocational education and training systems explored new models for delivery and maximised the use of existing resources and facilities. Educational precincts incorporating schools, TAFE institutes and universities proved extremely successful in rural, regional and metropolitan areas of the State. These precincts offer more pathways for young people and an alternative to leaving school early and becoming at risk of disengaging from the community.

Rigorous audit arrangements have focused on the continuous improvement of registered training organisations and have strengthened the quality of vocational education and training in Queensland. A total of 1 066 audits were conducted under the Australian Recognition Framework in 2001. Continuous improvements have added more value, improved sustainability and resulted in a high level of stakeholder satisfaction.

Queensland maintains its commitment to skilling Queenslanders for jobs and to building the social and economic capacity of communities through vocational education and training.

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Western Australian Government comments

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During 2002 approximately \$244 million worth of training will be funded in WA. This includes \$220 million provided to TAFE colleges for delivery under College Training Profiles and further \$24 million allocated under competitive arrangements. In addition \$38.6 million will be provided for the accredited training component of more than 19 300 apprenticeships and traineeships, including 4 131 apprentices and trainees employed by 31 Group Training Schemes. Approximately 25 million student curriculum hours of training and 120 000 course enrolments will be funded during the year.

The provision of VET services has been extensively reviewed throughout 2002 to ensure services and programs are appropriately targeted to meet the needs of all Western Australians and to reflect changes in Government priorities. The work has included Government-initiated reviews of the WA training sector, the Building and Construction Industry Training Council and an examination of the interface between the Department of Training and the Education Department.

Overall, these reviews have found the sector to be in good shape, having achieved significant successes over the past few years at a time of considerable pressure resulting from increases in demand for services.

Significant developments are already being implemented as a result of these Reviews and will continue to impact on the operations of the Department in 2002-03 and beyond. In consideration of these reviews and consistent with Government policy for VET, the Department of Training has set the following strategic priorities during 2002-03:

- Job growth: support the creation of new jobs and sustainable work through the provision of employment and VET services targeted at the current and future needs of industry and local communities.
- Young people: increase participation of 15–19 years olds in post-compulsory education and training and improve the transition of young people into the workforce.
- Community and industry participation: increase broad-based community and industry participation in decision making and priority setting for VET and employment.
- Quality and value: increase client confidence in the quality, effectiveness and value of VET.
- Lifelong learning and employability for all: increase access and pathways in education, training and employment for all and raise community awareness of the important relationship between training and employment.
- Indigenous employment and training: support of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in achieving employment and training outcomes equal to the rest of the community.

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South Australian Government comments

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The South Australian vocational education and training (VET) system continues to operate efficiently and to play a significant role in providing industry with a skilled workforce and in improving the prospects of individuals. The Report highlights some of the achievements during 2001, including:

- improving efficiency performance of publicly funded VET with the unit cost per hour reducing from \$12.73 to \$11.36 and remaining significantly lower than the Australian average (\$12.42);
- maintaining the highest load pass rate in the country (87.3 per cent), which is considerably higher than the Australian average of 75.4 per cent;
- having a significant proportion (75 per cent) of employers of recent VET graduates who were satisfied with VET providers in the *2001 Survey of Employer Views on Vocational Education and Training*;
- reporting 92.8 per cent of recent TAFE graduates who were employed or in further study after their course — higher than the Australian average of 90.0 per cent;
- reporting 69.5 per cent of recent TAFE graduates who rated the quality of their TAFE training as eight or more on a 10 point scale — higher than the Australian average of 67.2 per cent;
- achieving the best employment outcomes in the country for recent TAFE graduates who were unemployed prior to the course and undertook the course for vocational reasons (65.1 per cent versus 49.1 per cent nationally);
- reporting 85.3 per cent of recent TAFE graduates who indicated that their VET course helped or partly helped them achieve their main aim for doing the course, which is higher than any other State or Territory.

Employers and TAFE graduates continue to indicate that TAFE provides high quality training that is responsive to the economic and social needs of the State. The South Australian Department of Further Education, Employment, Science and Technology endeavors to improve on the current service and performance of the VET system in the State by addressing the links between skills, employment, economic growth and social inclusion.

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Tasmanian Government comments

“ This Report shows that Tasmania is maintaining good performance outcomes as the State continues its commitment to lifelong learning combined with a strong focus on integrating quality vocational education and training with state industry planning mechanisms, and meeting the needs of new industries and emerging technologies.

The Report highlights the progress made in the delivery of VET in Tasmania despite constraints specific to the State. The broad industrial base, with predominantly small businesses highly dispersed throughout the State and the small, widely dispersed population, require provision of a wide range of services to small groups of students in regional areas.

The State is meeting the challenge of the complexity and cost of maintaining high quality regional services and despite these and fiscal constraints, has increased participation and cost effectiveness, and demonstrated responsiveness to client needs. This Report shows:

- Tasmania's participation rate in VET continued to rise in 2001. The proportion of Tasmanians aged 15–64 participating in VET has risen consistently and at a greater rate than the national average.
- While the need to maintain the quality of the system and to service the diverse community militates against continued reduction in unit cost, the efficiency improvement achieved in the State's VET system is demonstrated by the unit cost (recurrent) of Tasmanian VET activity, which has reduced from \$20.15 per annual hour curriculum in 1997 to \$14.32 in 2001.
- There have been good employment outcomes for graduates with 57.2 per cent of graduates who were unemployed prior to training and who took the course for vocational reasons, employed following the course.
- 83 per cent of graduates in Tasmania cited vocational reasons as the main reason for undertaking their course compared with 74 per cent nationally.
- Tasmanian employers have the highest proportion (84 per cent) very satisfied or satisfied with VET providers and the highest level (90 per cent) satisfied with overall skills.

The Tasmanian Government is laying foundations for continuing strong performance through development of a post-compulsory education and training strategy to enable an integrated approach across education and training sectors and State Budget initiatives that support business development and wider access to VET.

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ACT Government comments

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The ACT is strongly committed to increasing participation in vocational education and training as a means of business growth, employment development and diversification to enhance social and economic opportunities for its residents. The ACT plans and funds the delivery of VET to ensure that it is responsive to the needs of current and emerging industries.

In the context of other States and Territories, the economy and labour market of the ACT are unique. This has an impact on the uptake of VET qualifications, and on the range and level of qualification undertaken.

Forty-one per cent of employees in the ACT are at professional and associate professional levels, compared with 30 per cent nationally. The major employers — government and defence — have 25.9 per cent of the industry share (3.6 per cent nationally) while the proportion of small businesses is also above the national average by 8.2 per cent. Conversely, agriculture, forestry, fisheries, mining and manufacturing comprise only 2 per cent in the ACT compared with 21 per cent nationally. Together these factors result in:

- a higher proportion of people undertaking higher education qualifications;
- a smaller percentage of uptake of VET qualifications especially at lower qualification levels;
- an emphasis on qualifications at diploma/advanced diploma level; and
- a high number of VET higher education qualifications, especially graduate certificate and graduate diplomas.

The ACT has one public provider of technical and further education — the Canberra Institute of Technology. Of the other 105 registered training organisations in the ACT, 17 are government and non-government secondary colleges and 88 are government departments, private and community organisations. Of the total of 106, 88 are in receipt of government training funds.

Some of the key achievements in 2001 have been:

- continued improvement in efficiency with the real cost of training dropping from \$13.64 in 2000 to \$11.93 in 2001;
- continued increase in the uptake of school-based new apprenticeships from 111 in 2000 to 184 in 2001 (an increase of 65.7 per cent);
- load efficiency pass rates at 78.3 per cent, above the national average of 75.4 per cent;
- a high level of employer satisfaction with the skills of VET graduates 78.7 per cent, which is 10 per cent above the national average; and
- employers in the ACT recording a high satisfaction with investment in training, with 86.7 per cent agreeing that training pays for itself.

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Northern Territory Government comments

“ With 1 per cent of Australia’s population spread over 17.5 per cent of Australia’s land mass, 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 among 15–64 year olds in VET activities (13.8 per cent).

Indigenous people represent 25 per cent of the Northern Territory’s population, which accounts for the Northern Territory having the highest incidence of VET students (27.7 per cent), who speak a language other than English at home. Due to the high proportion of people living in remote areas of the NT, participation rates in VET courses among the remote population is one of the highest in Australia (12.8 per cent).

Due to its size and remoteness, the cost of delivering VET in the NT (\$511.2 per person) is higher than the Australian average (\$264.9 per person). The cost of recurrent expenditure per annual curriculum hour of government funded VET is also higher in the NT. A single annual curriculum hour in the Northern Territory costs an average of \$19.73 compared to a national average of \$12.42.

Even though Territory businesses have expressed satisfaction with both the VET providers in the NT and graduates from the VET system in the NT, the Northern Territory government is committed to ensuring “best practice” is followed in the provision of VET to Territory residents. To align the outcomes of VET even more closely with both the needs of industry and the directions of government, the Department of Employment, Education and Training has recently allocated funding to develop a NT specific labour market analysis. This analysis is intended to realise even greater numbers of Territorians achieving positive employment outcomes as a result of participating in VET.

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. By combining this objective with a well researched and well documented labour market analysis, the Northern Territory Government aims to ensure that the community receives the best possible outcomes for the funding expended.

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4.7 Definitions

Table 4.10 Terms

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 do not include hours associated with field work or work experience. Changed in 1999 to nominal hours — supervised.
Adjusted annual curriculum hours	Annual curriculum hours that are adjusted to account for module enrolments reported with an outcome of recognition of prior learning and invalid module enrolments.
Adjusted module load completion rate	Module load completions that are adjusted to account for module enrolments reported with an outcome of recognition of prior learning and invalid module enrolments.
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 have provided 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 hours.
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.
Employer perception of the level of VET graduates' work skills	Descriptions of graduates' work skills range from 'they do not show any better skills' to 'they have significantly improved their skills and productivity'.
Employer satisfaction with VET value for money	A spectrum of views ranging from 'the VET course is mostly a waste of money' to 'the VET course is an excellent return on investment' (that is, productivity increases greatly exceed the costs of the course).
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.

(Continued on next page)

Table 4.10 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Fee-for-service activity	Activity that is funded by fees received from individuals and organisations, other than regulatory student fees, including Commonwealth and State-specific funded programs (such as Labour Market Programs and Adult Migrant English Services).
Geographic region	<p>A geographic classification (based on statistical local areas) devised by the former Department of Primary Industry and Energy and the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs.</p> <p><i>Remote:</i> regions that contain urban centres with a population of less than 5000 and that are more than 150 kilometres from an urban centre with a population of 10 000 or more.</p> <p><i>Rural:</i> regions that consist of statistical local areas associated with urban centres that have a population of 5000 to 100 000 and that are not classified as 'remote'.</p>
Government cost of capital per hour of successful publicly funded module load completions	Cost to the government of using capital (physical non-current assets) per adjusted publicly funded successful module load completions.
Government costs of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hours	Cost to the government of using capital (physical non-current assets) for delivering VET services.
Graduate	A person who has completed a vocational program.
Government funding to private and adult and community providers	government recurrent expenditure to private and adult and community 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.
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.
Module completers	Students who successfully completed at least one module in a vocational program of study.
Net assets of public VET providers per person aged 15–64	Net assets (total assets less liabilities) of publicly 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 when delivered in standard classroom delivery mode. These hours are generally specified in the curriculum documentation and do not include hours associated with work experience, industry placement, or field placement. See also annual curriculum hours.

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Table 4.10 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Non-English speaking background (by country of birth)	Born in a country other than the main English speaking countries which are Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Channel Islands, Isle of Man), Ireland, Canada, United States of America and South Africa.
Nonresponse 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.
Occupational group	Occupations that are linked to particular Australian Bureau of Statistics Standard Occupational Classification (ASCO) groups. Category A courses have a direct link to an individual ASCO, category B have multiple links to ASCOs and category C courses potentially link across all ASCO areas.
Occupational level	Classified as 'general/unspecified', 'operative/clerical', 'trades/skilled' and 'para-professional/professional'. These are also linked to the Australian Bureau of Statistics' ASCO group.
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 one to 10, with one 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 Commonwealth and State and Territory governments to cover operating costs, salaries and rent.
Recurrent government VET expenditure per person aged 15–64 years	Total State and Commonwealth recurrent expenditure (based on 'maintenance of effort' cash expenditure as reported by ANTA 1998a) per person aged 15–64 years.
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.

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Table 4.10 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 publicly 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 non-vocational reasons (to get into another course, personal interest, other reasons).
Training packages	Provide the basic building blocks for vocational education and training programs under the National Training Framework. They are developed by industry and create national standards, programs, qualifications and learning resources.
VET costs per adjusted annual curriculum hours	Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted publicly 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 people from a non-English speaking background by country of birth	The proportion of VET students who report being born in a non-English speaking country compared with the proportion of people in the Australian population who were born in a mainly non-English speaking country.
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 (capital city, rural, remote and other metropolitan areas)	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; initial vocational courses and courses subsequent to initial vocational courses. These 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'.

4.8 References

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C Justice preface

Justice services are concerned with ensuring a safe society by enhancing public order and security and upholding the rule of law. This involves crime prevention, detection and investigation, judicial processes and dispute resolution, prisoner and offender management, and rehabilitation services.

The focus of this Report is on the justice services of police, court administration and adult corrective services. The Report covers:

- the operations of the police agencies of each State and Territory government and the ACT community policing function performed by the Australian Federal Police;
- 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 Service, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of Western Australia; and
- the operations of corrective services within each State and Territory, including prison custody (and periodic detention) and a range of community correctional orders and programs for adult prisoners and offenders. Both public and privately operated facilities are included.

While the Report covers an extensive range of justice service activities within police, court administration and corrective services, it does not cover everything that occurs within the justice system. Some of the government services not included in this Report also contribute to civil and criminal justice outcomes, for example:

- 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 the incidence of unlawful trade practices;
- crimes compensation services and victim support services, which assist victims' recovery from crime;

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- prosecution services, which bring actions on behalf of the community in criminal actions; and
 - various social services and community organisations which help prisoners released from prison re-integrate into society, support families of prisoners during their incarceration, and assist people who have contact with the criminal justice system.

In addition, some smaller elements of justice services are excluded from this Report. The police services chapter, for example, does not cover the National Crime Authority or the federal functions of the Australian Federal Police. The courts administration chapter does not cover the operations of tribunals and registries (except for probate and court registries), nor does it report on judicial outcomes. The corrective services chapter does not cover juvenile corrective services (information on juvenile justice can be found 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, for the parts of the justice system covered in this Report, was nearly \$7.0 billion in 2001-02 (table C.1). This represents approximately 10 per cent of all recurrent expenditure on services covered in the Report.

Police services accounted for approximately \$4.6 billion in 2001-02, corrective services for around \$1.6 billion and criminal courts administration for \$412 million. Expenditure on civil justice (including the Federal Court, Federal Magistrates Service and family courts) was approximately \$375 million (table C.1).

Recurrent expenditure, less revenue from own sources, between 1997-98 and 2001-02 grew fastest in real terms for corrective services (at an annual average of 7.9 per cent). Recurrent expenditure, less revenue from own sources, decreased for civil courts administration (at an annual average of 3.6 per cent) (table C.1).

Improvements in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period means that care 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 by all Australian governments (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b, c}

	1997-98	1998-99	1999-2000	2000-01 ^f	2001-02 ^{f, g}	Annual average growth ^{f, g}
	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	%
Police services	3927	4289	4521	4496	4610	4.1
Court admin. – criminal ^d	409	439	440	450	412	0.2
Court admin. – civil ^e	436	476	493	358	375	-3.6
Corrective services	1171	1289	1446	1498	1587	7.9
Total justice system	5943	6493	6899	6802	6984	4.1
	%	%	%	%	%	
Police services	66.1	66.1	65.5	66.1	66.0	..
Court admin. – criminal	6.9	6.8	6.4	6.6	5.9	..
Court admin. – civil	7.3	7.3	7.1	5.3	5.4	..
Corrective services	19.7	19.9	21.0	22.0	22.7	..
Total justice system	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	..

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b For police and courts, defined as recurrent expenditure plus depreciation less revenue from own sources (excludes capital expenditure and estimates of the user cost of capital). For corrective services, total net expenditure includes recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts), the cost of transport and escort services, and capital costs comprising depreciation on government owned facilities, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges, and other associated capital expenses, but excludes the user cost of capital. ^c Payroll tax has been included for all jurisdictions except WA and the ACT (where government operations are not subject to payroll tax). ^d Includes the cost of magistrates' (including electronic and children's), district/county, supreme and coroners' courts. ^e Includes magistrates' (including children's), district/county and supreme courts, Family Court, Federal Court of Australia and Family Court of WA. The Federal Magistrates Service has been included for the first time in 2001-02. The data exclude the cost of probate hearings for all years. ^f Court administration expenditure less income has been used instead of in-house revenue in 2000-01 and 2001-02. This has led to a much larger amount of revenue from own sources, particularly for the civil courts for these two years. Care needs to be taken in comparing the rates of growth of court expenditure prior to these years. ^g The data for court administration (criminal) include a large amount of income from electronic courts not previously reported. .. Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished).

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 are delivered by justice agencies. For example, police agencies in some jurisdictions provide event management and emergency response services, while others do not.

Expenditure per person on civil and criminal justice in 2001-02 was highest in the NT (\$854) and lowest in Victoria (\$296) (table C.2).

Expenditure per person was highest for police services in the NT (\$541) and lowest in Victoria (\$225). In criminal courts administration, the highest expenditure per person was in the NT (\$66) and the lowest was in Victoria (\$13) (table C.2).

In civil court administration, the highest expenditure per person was in the NT (\$43) and the lowest was in Victoria and Tasmania (\$6). The NT also had the highest expenditure per person on corrective services (\$205) and Victoria had the lowest (\$52) (table C.2).

Table C.2 Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) on justice, per person, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d}

	<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 ^e	233	225	226	260	238	232	227	541	240
Court admin.– criminal	24	13	19	26	23	19	24	66	21
Court admin.– civil ^{f, g, h}	9	6	7	21	15	6	16	43	19
Corrective services	88	52	92	105	71	74	68	205	81
Total justice systemⁱ	353	296	344	411	348	331	335	854	361
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Police services	65.8	75.9	65.6	63.1	68.6	70.1	67.6	63.3	66.6
Court admin. – criminal	6.8	4.4	5.6	6.3	6.7	5.9	7.2	7.7	5.8
Court admin. – civil ^g	2.5	2.2	2.1	5.1	4.3	1.8	4.8	5.0	5.3
Corrective services	24.9	17.6	26.7	25.4	20.4	22.2	20.4	24.0	22.4
Total justice system	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

^a For police and courts, defined as recurrent expenditure plus depreciation less revenue from own sources (excludes capital expenditure and estimates of the user cost of capital). For corrective services, total net expenditure includes recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts), the cost of transport and escort services, and capital costs comprising depreciation on government owned facilities, debt service fees for privately-owned facilities, capital asset charges, and other associated capital expenses, but excludes the user cost of capital. ^b Payroll tax has been included for all jurisdictions except WA and the ACT (where government operations are not subject to payroll tax). ^c Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^d For corrective services and court administration the population is estimated at 30 June 2002. ^e For police services the population is estimated at 31 December 2001. ^f Australian total includes Commonwealth expenditure on the Family Court of Australia, the Federal Court, and the Federal Magistrates Service which are not attributed to jurisdiction expenditure. The civil expenditure on these Commonwealth courts are \$9 per person (based on the Australian population). ^g WA civil data are not comparable with other jurisdictions, as the WA civil data include the cost of the Family Court of WA. If this cost was removed then the cost per person becomes \$16 within WA. ^h Excludes cost of probate hearings. ⁱ Due to the use of two different population bases, the total justice system expenditure per person should be viewed as an approximation.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABSa; ABSb.

Policy developments in the criminal justice system

The provision of services is continually evolving. Recent policy initiatives within the areas of courts, police and corrective services are outlined in chapters 5, 6 and 7 respectively. In addition to these developments, there are also a number of initiatives occurring across police, courts and corrective services that have implications for the system as a whole. These are outlined as follows.

Crime prevention

Crime prevention initiatives can have a positive effect on policing, courts and corrective services in a number of ways. All jurisdictions have endeavoured, where practical, to develop mechanisms aimed at enhancing crime prevention. A common theme has been the involvement of police in the community. Some of the initiatives undertaken by jurisdictions are outlined below.

The NSW Premier's Council on Crime Prevention was established in 1995 to take proactive steps to prevent crime and the preconditions that foster it. This body was recently reconstituted as the NSW Crime Prevention Council. The Crime Prevention Division of the Attorney-General's Department provides advice on crime prevention policy and programs, and assists local government and non-government agencies to address crime prevention issues. Crime prevention programs and initiatives are broad-based whole-of-government approaches, involving non-government organisations and the general community working in close partnership with local councils. Programs offered include: Safer Community Development; Families First; Schools as Community Centres; Beat Graffiti; Drug Diversion; Violence Against Women; and Police Accountability Community Teams. The NSW approach to crime prevention is based on the understanding that strong and effective law enforcement combined with firm but fair penalties for breaking the law need to be supported by policies and programs that work to prevent people becoming involved in crime in the first place.

The Victorian Government agency, Crime Prevention Victoria, develops effective strategies for reducing crime and violence, particularly through its *Safer Streets and Homes Strategy 2002–2005*. As well, Victoria Police is actively involved in a number of community safety and crime prevention strategies targeted at different sections of the community, including women, young people, and older Victorians; and the establishment of multicultural liaison units.

Forty-four programs across 13 government agencies target the reduction of crime under the *Queensland Crime Prevention Strategy—Building Safer Communities*. This whole-of-government strategy incorporates a range of situational, criminal

justice, developmental and community approaches, which combined, provide an internationally recognised comprehensive means to address the causes of crime.

In 2001-02, the Queensland Government continued and enhanced a large number of these programs and established new initiatives in demonstrated areas of need. To address at-risk young people, the Government trialled a motor vehicle program and arson program for offending juveniles, expanded the juvenile Fight Fire Fascination program, implemented a Youth and Family Support Service and will further extend the Youth Justice Service initiative and community conferencing. Older Queenslanders were assisted through an expansion to the Home Assist/Home Secure program which helps people over 60 years of age improve the security in their homes. *Meeting Challenges, Making Choices*, the Government's response to the Cape York Justice Study, was published identifying a range of reforms to address alcohol and violence issues afflicting Indigenous communities in Queensland. Work continues to be done in the area of drug-related projects aimed at breaking the cycle of drug addiction and crime, such as expansion of the Drug Court system. Innovative projects were trialled, such as the expansion of Neighbourhood Watch projects to incorporate general community safety, crime and emergencies and a number of demonstration crime prevention projects were undertaken in identified areas of need. New initiatives were also established, including a graffiti management program to fund community efforts to prevent graffiti and a *Strategic Framework for Community Crime Prevention* which established a number of regional resource officer positions to coordinate local Building Safer Community Action Teams that provide local solutions to local crime problems.

The WA Government's strategic direction statement, *Making Our Community Safer*, outlines the Government's policy commitments to crime prevention. The focus is on the development of a whole-of-government crime prevention strategy, which requires closer partnerships between agencies, local governments and communities. A key element of the strategy is the establishment of an Office of Crime Prevention directly responsible to the Premier.

Under the SA Crime Prevention Strategy, community based-programs and crime prevention build on partnerships between government agencies, community organisations, businesses and all South Australians. South Australia Police (SAPOL) places great importance on crime reduction in all South Australian communities, working with local communities to identify particular needs and coordinate State-wide crime reduction/prevention and community-based policing programs. Crime management is an integral part of SAPOL's Crime Reduction Strategy, using problem-solving techniques such as enhanced intelligence systems and the targeting of persistent offenders to reduce crime.

The Tasmanian Government is working with local government to develop partnerships with a community safety focus. The whole-of-government/community based *Crime Prevention and Community Safety Council* is sponsoring a range of crime prevention initiatives. As well, in keeping with a goal of ‘having a community where people feel safe and are safe in all aspects of their lives’, whole-of-government programs will be developed with five-year targets for a range of performance indicators.

The ACT has had a particular focus on prevention of property crime. Initiatives have included public education about how best to protect property and a law enforcement and corrections focus on recidivists and people at high risk of offending. A whole-of-government focus has been placed on targeting high-risk children and families with the introduction of early intervention programs, particularly in the corrections, education, family services and health portfolios.

The NT Government has established an Office of Crime Prevention in the newly formed Department of Justice. The Office will develop and coordinate the implementation of a whole-of-government crime prevention strategy with wide community involvement, evaluate the success or failures of crime prevention strategies, provide policy advice about crime reduction initiatives, and independently collect, analyse and publish crime statistics.

Alternative sentencing mechanisms

While there has been a sustained growth in prisoner populations over recent years, jurisdictions have also considered and, in some cases, implemented various alternative sentencing mechanisms. This stems from both the rise in prisoner populations and the development of alternative methods to ensure integration back into the community and to limit the prospect of re-offending. It is likely that alternative sentencing options, such as intensive supervision orders, home detention and electronic surveillance will continue to be considered in the future as more sophisticated technology becomes available. The following outlines some of the alternative sentencing mechanisms being implemented or considered by jurisdictions.

New South Wales has developed a model to conduct a ‘trial of circle sentencing’, in order to improve the effectiveness of sentencing for Indigenous people and their communities. The initiation of a series of community forums helped to improve recognition of Indigenous customary law. As well, NSW and the ACT are the only jurisdictions that operate periodic detention programs (an order of confinement requiring that a person be held in a prison or periodic detention facility for two consecutive days within a one-week period).

The WA Government is committed to the notion that reducing re-offending is more effectively carried out in the community, reserving imprisonment for those from whom the community requires most protection. To support this, the Government is developing a range of legislative reforms including proscription on sentences of six months and less, providing a full range of sentencing options for traffic offences, and providing courts with the capacity to impose conditions on suspended imprisonment.

South Australia's Police Drug Diversion Initiative implemented in 2001, diverts some offenders away from the justice system into the health environment, in conjunction with the Pilot Drug Court where illicit drug users gain access to education and treatment/rehabilitation programs before sentencing. SAPOL also currently administers a number of diversionary juvenile justice programs that contain an educative component aimed at reducing offending.

A major review of sentencing in Victoria was completed during 2001-02, which will lead to further refinement of the sentencing options available in that jurisdiction.

Framework of the criminal justice system

The criminal justice system is broad and complex and has many interrelated objectives. An overarching aim is to ensure community access to a fair system of justice that protects the rights of individuals and is responsive to community needs (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 those people who have offended; and
- the provision of a safe, secure and humane adult 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.

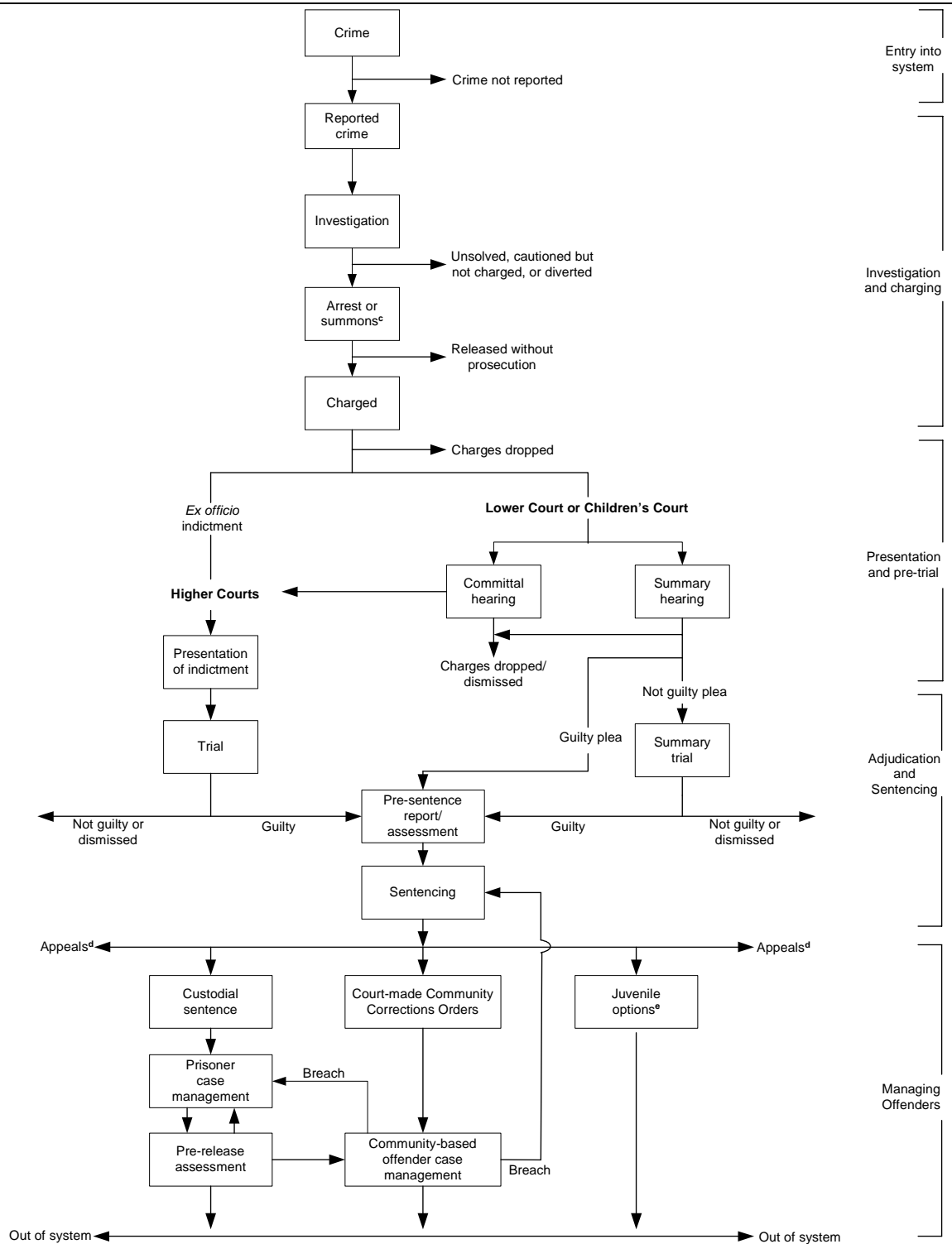
A model of the criminal justice system

The performance of the criminal justice system is measured against the objectives of effectiveness (the ability of agencies to meet the outcomes of access, equity and timeliness) and efficiency (the measurement of how well inputs are used to deliver a range of outputs). Within the criminal justice system, the various elements of policing, courts and corrective services interact with each other. Examples of this are:

- the police service's direct influence on the judicial system through policing strategies such as police cautions and other diversionary strategies;
- the judicial system's direct influence on the correctional system through changes in sentencing practices; and
- the correctional system's direct influence on the police service through offences committed inside prison and input to the judicial system by advisory services provided to courts.

Figure C.1 illustrates the possible stages involved in the processing of cases as they move through the criminal justice system, and shows some of the links between police, courts and corrective services. This depiction is broadly indicative and for purposes of brevity and clarity does not seek to capture all the complexities of the criminal justice system or variations between jurisdictions.

Figure C.1 Flows through the criminal justice system^{a, b}



^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 justice system. ^c Includes voluntary agreement to attend court in some jurisdictions. ^d Appeals are referred to higher courts. Lower court sentencing is upheld for unsuccessful appeals. ^e Juvenile justice is covered in the 'Community services preface'.

Source: Adapted from Criminal Justice Commission (1991).

Key results of the criminal justice system

The following discussion links into the stated policy objectives of the criminal justice system (box C.1), while accounting for the process by which the criminal justice system operates (figure C.1). The discussion illustrates the set of performance indicators used in this Report. It also identifies other areas that are not covered in this analysis, 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 feels safe both personally and in regard to their property. Public perceptions of safety are reported in detail in chapter 5 and include measures of perceptions of safety in the home, in public places and on public transport.

An indicator of the success of crime prevention and law enforcement is the recorded rate of crime. Given that a number of 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 the efficiency of delivering these services. This is contained in chapter 5.

Crime investigation

Effectiveness

Information on the outcomes of criminal investigations indicates 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 investigations finalised as a proportion of total investigations, and the investigations in which the offending person was proceeded against as a proportion of investigations that were finalised.

While chapter 5 identifies the investigations in which the offending person was proceeded against as a proportion of investigations that were finalised, what may also be relevant are data on 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 are not resolved.

Efficiency

The efficiency measure of crime investigation is the cost per person of delivery of the service to the community. This is 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 justice system to meet community demands for accused persons to be dealt with in a timely manner, and also on the courts' ability to effectively manage their caseload. The timeliness with which criminal committal matters are finalised is reported in chapter 6.

Efficiency

The cost per person of the service delivery area, 'services to the judicial process' is used for the efficiency of delivering police prosecution services and is contained 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 contained in chapter 6.

Adjudication and sentencing

Effectiveness

Data on the timeliness of hearings provide further important information on the ability of the justice system to meet community demands for accused persons to be dealt with in a timely manner and on the courts' ability to effectively manage their caseload. Measures relating to the proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty finding are contained in chapter 5. Case completion times and adjournment rates are reported in chapter 6.

Custodial corrections

Effectiveness

Key effectiveness measures of custodial care are prisoner assault, death and escape rates. These measures are supported by descriptive indicators, such as imprisonment rates (disaggregated by gender and Indigenous status). Chapter 7 contains these data.

Efficiency

Recurrent and capital costs per prisoner per day are key indicators of efficiency included in chapter 7. These include costs associated with offender programs, reparation, prisoner custody and transport.

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 and is included in chapter 7.

Offender programs and reparation

Effectiveness

Information on the number of prisoners and offenders undertaking approved education and training courses, as well as 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 type of programs offered are reported in chapter 7.

Reparation may include prisoners undertaking work in the community on environmental and other work projects. Offenders in community corrections provide reparation by serving court orders with unpaid community work components. The level and distribution of this reparation is detailed in chapter 7.

An area not covered in this Report, but which is under development, relates to the delivery of structured, targeted, offence focused programs to prisoners and offenders, such as, sex offence treatment programs and anger management programs.

Efficiency

The costs associated with offender programs and reparation are not separately identified. These data are incorporated into the cost per prisoner/offender indicator (chapter 7).

Overall performance

Effectiveness

Recidivism — the extent to which persons convicted by the courts re-offend — is a partial measure of the performance of the system in improving public safety by reducing the incidence of crime. An indicator of recidivism is presented in this Report which measures the return to corrective services of persons released from custody or community correction orders. This measure:

- does not include arrests that do not proceed to court (for example, restitution or police caution);
- does not include convictions for re-offending that lead to outcomes that are not administered by corrective services (for example, fines);

- does not include a corrections sanction for a repeat offender who has previously been sentenced to only non-corrections sanctions (such as fines); and
- is not weighted in any way to account for the nature of the re-offence (for example, a return to prison for a driving offence is counted in the same manner as a return for a more serious offence such as armed robbery).

The original indicator of recidivism within the corrective services sector was ‘the percentage of prisoners returning to prison within two years of release’. A second indicator of return to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections) was introduced in 1997-98. Both indicators are based on the outcomes for prisoners released from custody during the two years before the year in which the indicator is reported; thus data for this Report relate to prisoners released during the 1999-2000 period. Recidivism among offenders under community correction orders is also assessed by two indicators — a return to community corrections and a return to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections). Return to corrective services is the preferred indicator in both cases. However, not all jurisdictions are able to report on this measure.

In 2001-02, WA reported the highest rate of return to prison by prisoners (46.2 per cent) and SA the lowest (22.1 per cent). WA reported the highest rate for prisoner return to corrections as a whole (52.6 per cent) and the NT the lowest (36.9 per cent) (table C.3).

Western Australia reported the highest rate of return to community corrections by offenders following completion of community orders (30.7 per cent) and Queensland the lowest (9.4 per cent). WA also reported the highest rate of return to corrections by offenders as a whole (37.6 per cent) and Queensland the lowest (14.7 per cent). NSW and the ACT did not report on offenders returning to community corrections or corrective services in 2001-02 (table C.3).

Table C.3 Proportion of prisoners and offenders released or completing order in 1999-2000, returning 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	45.4	33.4	31.6	46.2	22.1	37.5	na	32.5	37.4
– to corrective services	51.2	42.9	48.6	52.6	40.6	49.5	na	36.9	47.3
Offenders returning									
– to community corrections	na	20.0	9.4	30.7	15.6	18.9	na	15.2	18.9
– to corrective services	na	24.0	14.7	37.6	22.9	30.9	na	29.2	24.5

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 relevant chapters, but some outcomes result from interactions between the individual services. One indicator of efficiency is annual government expenditure on the criminal justice system per person (table C.4). However, comparisons of unit costs need to account for conflicting objectives and tradeoffs between cost, quality and timeliness, and therefore need to be viewed in the context of the suite of effectiveness indicators in each chapter.

Over the period 1998-99 to 2001-02, the highest annual rate of growth in real expenditure per person on criminal justice was experienced in WA (5.5 per cent). There was a reduction in real expenditure over this period in the NT (a fall of 1.6 per cent) (table C.4). It should be noted that improvements in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period means that the annual growth rate of expenditure should be viewed with caution.

Table C.4 **Real government expenditure on criminal justice system per person (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}**

	1998-99	1999-2000	2000-01	2001-02	Real annual growth rate
	\$	\$	\$	\$	%
NSW	337	342	350	345	0.7
Victoria	293	301	278	290	-0.4
Queensland	289	322	317	337	5.3
WA ^e	344	406	398	404	5.5
SA	314	323	338	333	1.9
Tasmania	293	292	302	325	3.5
ACT ^e	314	325	353	333	2.0
NT	852	777	774	812	-1.6
Australia^f	319	335	331	342	2.4

^a Improvements in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period means that the annual growth rate of expenditure should be viewed with caution. ^b Defined as recurrent expenditure plus depreciation less revenue from own sources. Excludes capital expenditure and estimates of the user cost of capital in police and courts. For corrective services, total net expenditure includes recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts), the cost of transport and escort services, and capital costs comprising depreciation on government owned facilities, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges, and other associated capital expenses, but excludes the user cost of capital. ^c Population estimated at 30 June, except for the police services data for 2001-02 which are estimated at 31 December 2001. ^d Excludes costs of civil court administration and probate hearings. For criminal court administration expenditure in 2000-01 and 2001-02, greater amounts of income have been included than in previous years. ^e Includes approximations of payroll tax throughout the reported period for WA and the ACT (as a guide, payroll tax was approximately \$13 per head of population in 2001-02). ^f Australian totals (and annual growth rate) do not include the adjustments made for payroll tax by WA and the ACT.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABSa; ABSb.

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

Information on juvenile justice is contained in the ‘Community services preface’. The ‘Community services preface’ 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

In July 2001, the ABS released the ‘National Criminal Justice Statistical Framework’ (NCJSF). The development of the framework arose from the need to develop comprehensive and integrated national criminal justice data. The NCJSF discusses the various connections between the main sectors of the criminal justice system and identifies some of the key counting units (such as ‘person’ and ‘criminal incident’) and data variables that are needed to characterise its main aspects.

The strategic objectives of the NCJSF include integrating criminal justice data across the different interconnecting sectors of the criminal justice system and the States and Territories. It achieves this by promoting comparability of data, both within and across jurisdictions, and by using common definitions and standards across services areas and jurisdictions. A common interpretation of language is created that facilitates a shared understanding of the criminal justice system and the populations that flow through it.

The NCJSF’s promotion of a common unit of measurement ensures consistent reporting across jurisdictions and criminal justice agencies, and allows for an examination of the flow of aggregate populations through the criminal justice system. The ABS reports both person data (for example, demographic information on defendants and on prisoners) and non-person data (for example, the number of cases handled by the courts) and is working to expand its police statistics collection to include information on those alleged to have committed a crime.

The ABS is also committed to facilitating the development of National Information Development Plans (NIDPs) for a range of sectors including crime and justice. Such

plans are already in place for the health and community services sectors. A NIDP aims to articulate demand for statistical information in a sector, understand the current supply of information and, by deduction, the information gaps. It articulates the relative priority of information needs and how they are to be met. As a NIDP is a strategic document, substantial consultation is required for its development. The ABS proposes to do this mainly through existing fora as well as a range of workshops to be conducted throughout 2003.

Indigenous issues

The information available on 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 the reluctance of some justice agencies to explicitly ask for a person's Indigenous status. A number of agencies, however, have recently moved to rectify this situation.

For instance, the Queensland Government will be collecting statistics on the level of Indigenous representation in the criminal justice system, based on ABS questions from July 2003. Western Australia is also intending to introduce questioning on Indigenous status (based on the ABS standard question) over the next year, and NSW will continue to collect this type of information. This is consistent with the ABS' preferred method of identifying Indigenous clients via a standard set of questions that endeavour to facilitate self identification.

The data on the deaths of Indigenous people in police custody and custody-related operations (for example, most sieges and most cases where officers were attempting to detain a person, such as pursuits) (in chapter 5), Indigenous representation in prisons and community corrections (in chapter 7), and Indigenous deaths in prison custody (in chapter 7) are of a high quality and are published in the Report.

Another source of Indigenous data is the Australian Institute of Criminology, which produces a number of statistical and analytical reports on the involvement of Indigenous people in the criminal justice system, particularly in relation to deaths in police and corrective services custody.

References

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics)a, *Estimated Residential Population*, Cat. no. 3101.0, Canberra, unpublished.

—b, *Projected Population: Series 1*, Cat. no. 3222.0, Canberra, unpublished.

Criminal Justice Commission 1991, *Crime and Justice in Queensland*, Criminal Justice Commission.

5 Police services

This chapter reports on the performance of police services. These 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 under the ‘Policing arrangement between the ACT and Commonwealth governments’. The national policing function of the Australian Federal Police and other national non-police law enforcement bodies, such as the National Crime Authority (NCA), are not included in the Report.

A profile of the police sector appears in section 5.1, followed by a brief discussion of recent policy developments in section 5.2. The general approach to performance measurement for police services is outlined in section 5.3. The overarching indicators of police performance are contained in section 5.4, and the specific performance measurement frameworks and data for each service delivery area are discussed in sections 5.5–5.9. Section 5.10 contains information on capital costs in police services and section 5.11 covers the future directions in performance reporting. The chapter concludes with information on sample data (section 5.12), jurisdictions’ comments (section 5.13) and definitions (section 5.14).

There were two key developments for the 2003 Report:

- for the first time the Report includes data on land transport hospitalisation rates and introduces the performance indicators hospitalisation rates/per registered vehicle and cost of road safety and transport service delivery area (SDA)/number of fatal or serious accidents; and
- the Australian Centre for Policing Research (ACPR) National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (undertaken by AC Nielsen) replaces the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Population Survey Monitor (PSM) as the major source of information on client perceptions.

Terminology

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 the corrective services chapter (chapter 7) 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 97 format as \Publications\Reports\2003\Attach5A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2003\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/service/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

The police services are the principal means through which State and Territory governments pursue the achievement of a safe and secure environment for the community, the investigation of offences and 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 effect of criminal activity. Police 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 Australian Federal Police provides a community policing service in the ACT through a strategic partnership with the ACT Government underpinned by a detailed purchaser/provider agreement. The Commonwealth Government is responsible for the Australian Federal Police.

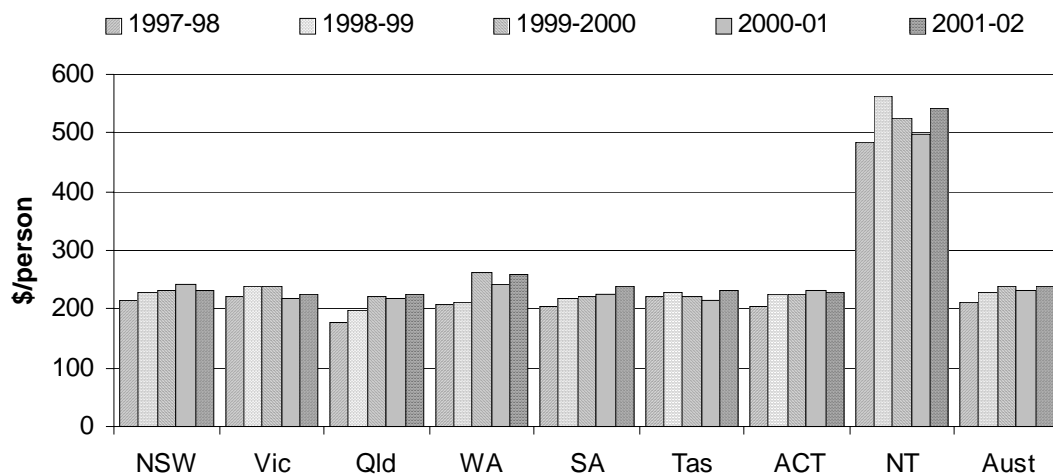
While each jurisdiction's police service is autonomous, there is significant cooperation across jurisdictions under the auspices of the Australasian Police Ministers' Council. There are also bilateral arrangements and common national

police services, such as the National Institute of Forensic Sciences and the Australasian Centre for Policing Research.

Expenditure

Funding for police services comes almost exclusively from State and Territory government budgets, with some limited specific-purpose Commonwealth grants. Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) on police services across Australia was approximately \$4.6 billion (or \$240 per person) in 2001-02 (table 5A.11). Across jurisdictions, it varied from \$541 per person in the NT to \$225 per person in Victoria (figure 5.1). The average annual change in real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) between 1997-98 and 2001-02 ranged from a real increase of 6.6 per cent in Queensland to a real increase of 0.2 per cent in Victoria (table 5A.11).

Figure 5.1 **Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on police services (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



^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 Includes payroll tax for all jurisdictions, except WA and the ACT (which are exempt from payroll tax). If WA and the ACT were liable for paying payroll tax, it is estimated that real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) in 2001-02 would have increased by \$11 per person and \$12 per person respectively. ^d 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 onwards are not directly comparable to data prior to 2000-01. ^e For the NT, the inclusion of superannuation costs for the first time in 1998-99 accounted for two thirds of the increase in expenditure data from 1997-98 to 1998-99. ^f Real expenditure based on ABS GDP price deflator 2001-02 = 100 (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.11; table A.2 and table A.26.

Variations in policies, socioeconomic factors and geographic/demographic characteristics 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 1997-98 to 2001-02.

Expenditure breakdown by key service delivery area

In this chapter, police outputs/programs are disaggregated into four SDAs. A fifth area (‘other services’) has been identified to account for expenditure by jurisdictions on unique functions that are not included in the SDAs. All jurisdictions except Queensland and Tasmania were able to provide expenditure by SDA for 2001-02.

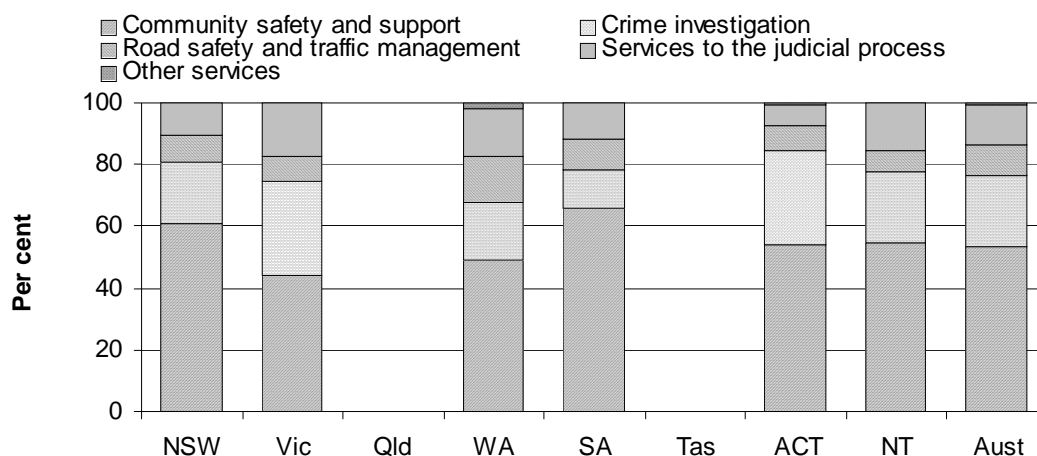
Care needs to be taken when comparing results across jurisdictions, as expenditure data on each SDA are not fully comparable. (Further information is included in section 5.3 and the outputs/programs undertaken within each SDA, by jurisdiction, are listed in table 5A.10.) Differences in counting rules exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. As well, the activity survey data which provides the relative breakdown of expenditure is reliant on snapshot data for most jurisdictions and may not be truly reflective of 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 was the largest component of expenditure in 2001-02, accounting for 53.6 per cent of expenditure for those jurisdictions that provided data. Across jurisdictions, expenditure on community safety and support was highest in SA (66.0 per cent) and lowest in Victoria (44.2 per cent) (figure 5.2).

Expenditure on crime investigation was the second largest component of expenditure in 2001-02, accounting for 22.9 per cent of expenditure nationally. Across jurisdictions, the proportion of expenditure accounted for by crime investigation was highest in the ACT (30.5 per cent) and lowest in SA (12.4 per cent) (figure 5.2).

More detail on expenditure by SDA is provided in tables 5A.12 and 5A.13.

Figure 5.2 Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) on police services, by service delivery area, 2001-02^{a, b, c}



^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 mixes 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 and Tasmania, data are only available for all key SDAs combined.

Source: State and Territory governments, (unpublished); table 5A.14.

Size and scope of sector

Client groups

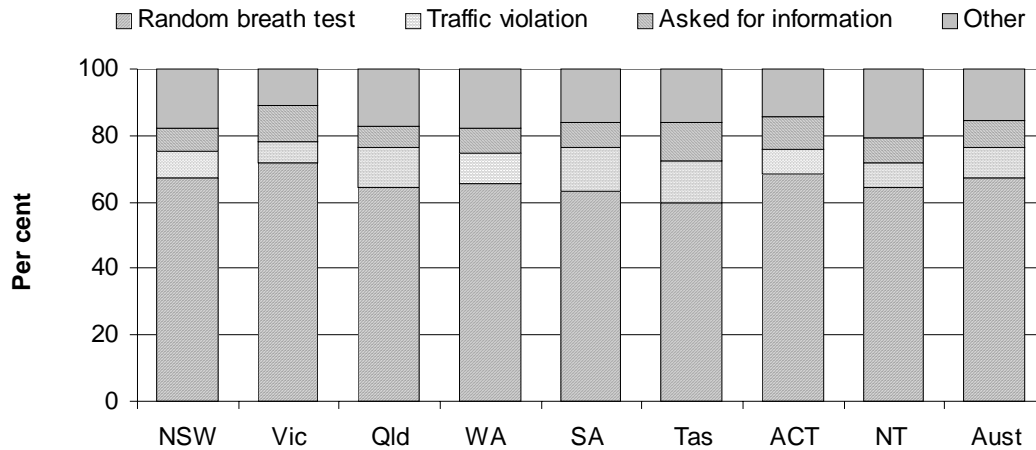
Broadly, the whole community is a ‘client’ of the police. All individuals are provided with protection, help and reassurance, and everyone is required to comply with the law. Some members of the community have more direct dealings with the police and can be considered a specific client group, for example:

- 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); and
- those requiring police services for non-crime related matters.

Of all people in Australia aged 18 years and over, 50.9 per cent had some form of contact with police in 2001-02 (table 5A.24). Police initiated the most recent contact in 60.8 per cent of these cases (table 5A.24). The main reasons for police initiated contact were to undertake random breath testing (67.3 per cent of cases),

pursue traffic violations (9.0 per cent) and ask for information (8.2 per cent) (figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3 The most frequent reasons for police contacting respondent in most recent contact, 2001-02^a

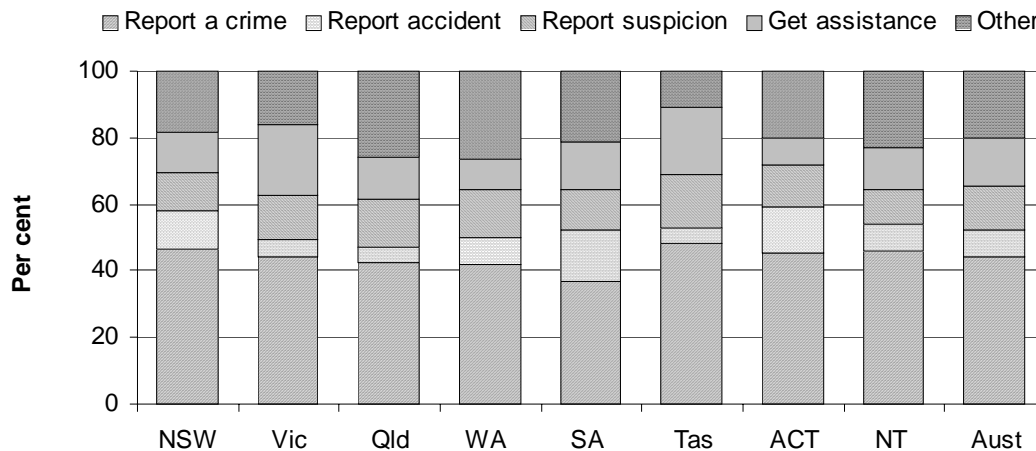


^a 'Other' includes: traffic accident; noise/disturbance; arrested; informal contact; no response (refused); other (not specified).

Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.27.

Nationally, the respondents to the survey initiated the most recent contact with police in 39.2 per cent of cases (table 5A.24). Respondent initiated contacts were mainly to report a crime (44.0 per cent), get assistance (14.6 per cent) or report a suspicion (12.9 per cent) (figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4 The most frequent reasons for respondent contacting police in most recent contact, 2001-02^a



^a 'Other' includes: report an accident; give other information; neighbourhood watch; lost/found property; no response (refused); other (not specified).

Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.26.

Recorded crime in Australia

Data on crimes against people and crimes against property understate the true level of crime in Australia because of the behaviour of victims and the limitations of the data itself. Data relate to reported crimes, however, 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.

Obtaining an indication of the true level of crime in Australia is also impacted by the scope of offences across jurisdictions. The ABS compiles comparable data on recorded victims of crimes against people and crimes against 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.

The ABS data focuses on offences that are common across jurisdictions. Certain offences for which it is more difficult to develop comparable data (for example, fraud offences) (box 5.1) are excluded. Section 5.5 contains further information on crime rates and victims of specific offences.

Box 5.1 Victims of crime

Recorded crime statistics

Since 1993, the ABS has produced a series of publications providing crime statistics on victims of crime for a selected group of offence types, recorded by State and Territory police services in Australia. Victims can be people, organisations, premises or motor vehicles, depending on the type of offence. Some victims of attempted offences are included, that is, attempted assault is counted as part of assault, but attempted motor vehicle thefts are excluded. The ABS publication *Recorded Crime, Australia, 2001* is the latest in this series.

Comparing recorded crime statistics across jurisdictions

The compilation of recorded crime statistics uses national standards and classifications, but care needs to be taken when directly comparing these statistics across States and Territories because:

- data are based on recorded crimes only; and
- reporting procedures, crime recording systems and legislation differ across States and Territories.

(Continued on next page)

Box 5.1 (Continued)

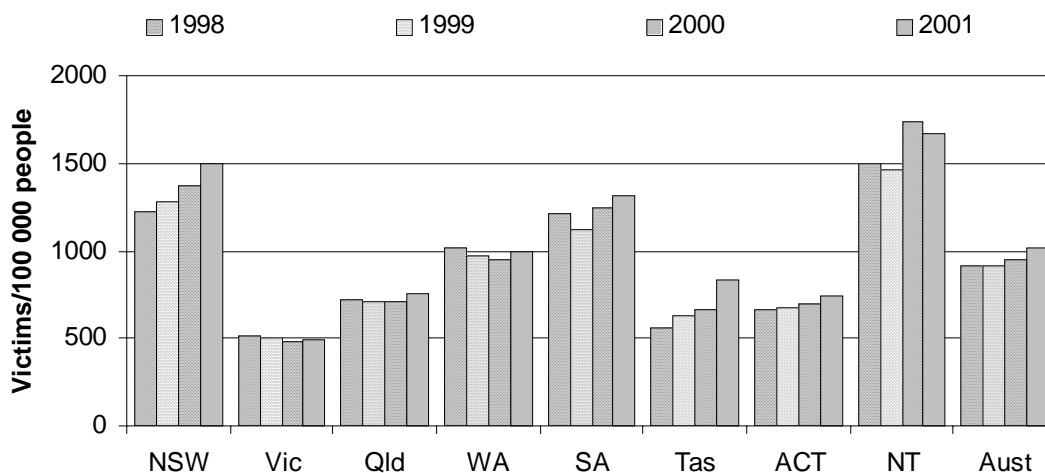
Comparing recorded crime statistics with jurisdiction-specific data

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.

Crime and safety statistics

Another valuable measure of crime is the *ABS National Crime and Safety Survey*. The last published national survey was conducted in April 1998, and data from this survey were released in August 1999. This survey provides information on the levels of both reported and unreported victimisation in the Australian community for selected offences. In addition, the ABS undertook to repeat the survey in NSW, WA and SA in 2000. The latest national survey was conducted in April 2002 and data are expected to be available in 2003.

Figure 5.5 Victims of recorded crimes against people^{a, b}



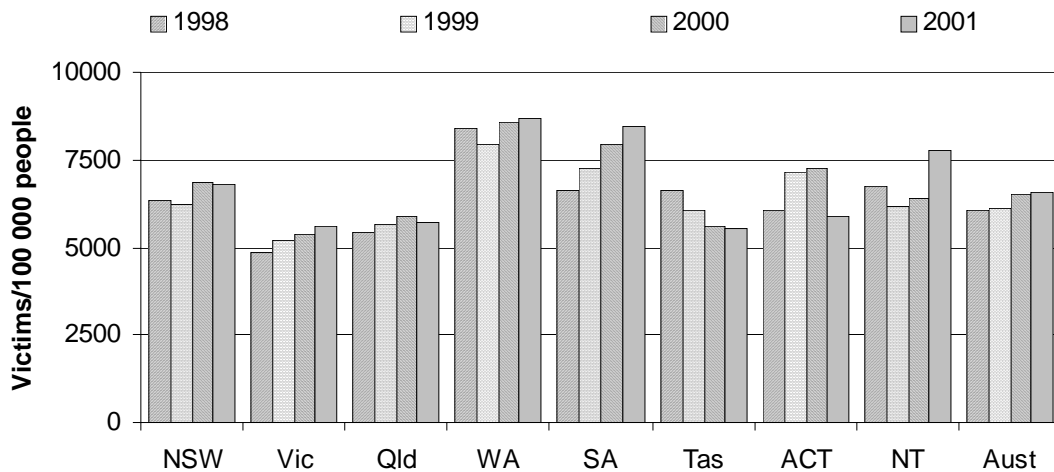
^a Excludes offences against Commonwealth laws processed under Commonwealth jurisdiction; conspiracy offences; aiding, abetting and accessory offences; and other offence types, such as drug and prostitution offences. ^b Includes murder; attempted murder; manslaughter; assault; sexual assault; kidnapping/abduction; armed robbery; unarmed robbery; and blackmail/extortion. Data are based on crimes reported to police. Includes a small proportion of non-person victims (such as organisations) of armed/unarmed robbery and blackmail/extortion. For person offences, the victim may be the victim of multiple person offences within a single criminal incident.

Source: ABS *Recorded Crime Australia* (unpublished); table 5A.15.

There were 197 000 victims of crime against people recorded by police in Australia during 2001 (table 5A.15). Expressed as a proportion, there were 1016 victims of crime against the person, per 100 000 people. The number of crimes per 100 000 people in 2001 varied across jurisdictions, from 1664 in the NT to 491 in Victoria (figure 5.5).

There were 1.3 million victims of crimes against property (or 6577 per 100 000 people) in Australia (table 5A.15) in 2001. Across jurisdictions, the number per 100 000 people ranged from 8669 in WA to 5539 in Tasmania (figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6 **Victims of recorded crimes against property^{a, b}**



^a Excludes offences against Commonwealth laws processed under Commonwealth jurisdiction; conspiracy offences; aiding, abetting and accessory offences; and other offence types, such as drug and prostitution offences. ^b Includes unlawful entry with intent; motor vehicle theft; and other theft. Data are based on crimes reported to police. Includes a small proportion of person victims of other theft.

Source: ABS Recorded Crime Australia (unpublished); table 5A.15.

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 non-sworn officers (or contracted external providers) in some activities. ‘Civilianisation’ of police services has three key objectives:

- to reduce costs;
- to better manage the increasing need for specialist skills; and

- to reduce the involvement of sworn staff in duties that do not require police powers (for example, administrative work, crime scene analysis and intelligence analysis).

Total police staffing in Australia was 55 108 (or 281 staff per 100 000 people) in 2001-02 (table 5.1). Nationally, staffing comprised 218 sworn police officers and 63 unsworn employees per 100 000 people in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, total staffing ranged from 580 staff per 100 000 people in the NT to 242 staff per 100 000 people in the ACT. Over the period of 1998-99 to 2001-02, the national level of sworn police staff rose by three staff members per 100 000 people and the national level of unsworn police staff rose by three staff members per 100 000 (table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Police staff by sworn/unsworn status (staff members per 100 000 people)^a

	<i>NSW^b</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA^c</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^d</i>	<i>NT^e</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Sworn police staff									
1998-99	208	204	201	254	230	226	213	455	215
1999-2000	203	198	207	249	231	222	200	462	212
2000-01	207	198	215	250	237	229	185	478	216
2001-02	206	204	218	249	244	231	181	477	218
Unsworn police staff									
1998-99	57	44	80	74	57	72	21	93	60
1999-2000	57	44	na	66	63	76	28	95	45
2000-01	59	47	34	64	65	72	58	87	52
2001-02	61	46	87	61	64	76	61	103	63
Total									
1998-99	265	248	280	328	287	299	234	548	275
1999-2000	260	242	na	316	295	298	228	556	257
2000-01	266	245	249	314	302	301	243	564	268
2001-02	267	250	305	310	308	307	242	580	281

^a Comprises all full time equivalent (FTE) staff. ^b NSW data for 2001-02 are based on a headcount at 30 June 2002 and are not FTE data. ^c For 2001-02 WA sworn staff data exclude 130 recruits in training. Recruits in training were included in data for previous years. ^d In the ACT, civilianisation of support functions has occurred throughout 2000-01 with the 'communications centre' now being substantially staffed by non-sworn staff. In addition, 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 onwards are not directly comparable to data prior to 2000-01. ^e For the NT, sworn police officers include police auxiliaries and Aboriginal community police officers. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.16.

The changes in composition varied depending on the jurisdiction; for example, the ACT increased its level of unsworn police staff per 100 000 people from 21 to 61, but decreased its sworn staff from 213 to 181 over the period 1998-99 to 2001-02 (table 5.1).

Police staff can also be categorised according to their operational status. An operational staff member is any person (sworn or unsworn) who delivers or supports a police or police-related service to an external customer directly (where an external customer refers to members of the public, other government departments, courts and the government). Operational staff members include:

- operational staff (general duties officers, detectives, traffic officers, community policing and station counter staff); and
- operational support staff (any person directly supporting the operational provider, including technical staff and intelligence staff).

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 83.8 per cent of staff were operational in Australia in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 91.8 per cent in WA to 81.3 per cent in the NT (table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Police staff by operational status (per cent)^{a, b}

	<i>NSW^c</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld^d</i>	<i>WA^e</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas^f</i>	<i>ACT^g</i>	<i>NT^h</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Operational staff									
1998-99	89.0	82.3	96.5	92.8	90.5	91.1	79.7	88.1	87.2
1999-2000	90.9	82.0	na	92.2	90.2	85.6	92.1	83.8	88.2
2000-01	82.4	81.3	65.5	91.4	91.0	83.3	86.9	83.2	80.6
2001-02	83.6	82.2	82.6	91.8	91.7	83.5	86.9	81.3	83.8
Non-operational staff									
1998-99	11.0	17.7	3.5	7.2	9.5	8.9	20.3	11.9	12.8
1999-2000	9.1	18.0	na	7.8	9.8	14.4	7.9	16.2	11.8
2000-01	17.6	18.7	34.5	8.6	9.0	16.7	13.1	16.8	19.4
2001-02	16.4	17.8	17.4	8.2	8.3	16.5	13.1	18.7	16.2

^a Comprises all FTE staff. ^b The definition of operational status is quite broad and may be interpreted differently across jurisdictions and over time. ^c For 2000-01, NSW operational/non-operational staffing figures are not comparable with previous years as information is derived based on location and position description, whereas earlier years it is based on location only. For 2001-02, NSW data are based on a headcount at 30 June 2002 and are not FTE data. ^d For Queensland, the definitions of operational and non-operational status does not align with the national data dictionary. Therefore care needs to be taken when comparing Queensland with other jurisdictions. ^e For WA, 2001-02 data excludes 130 recruits in training. Data for previous years included recruits in training. ^f The 1998-99 figure accidentally included operational marine and emergency staff. These are services unique to Tasmania and should not have been included. ^g In 2000-01, as a result of a comprehensive review of enabling costs applicable to ACT Policing, 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 onwards are not directly comparable to data prior to 2000-01. ^h For the NT, sworn police officers include Police Auxiliaries and Aboriginal Community Police Officers. **na** not available.

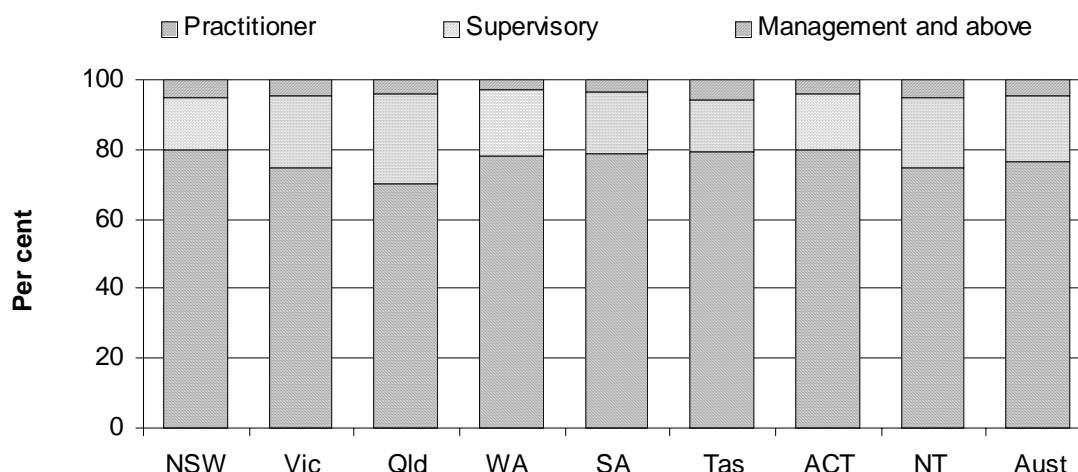
Source: State and Territory governments, (unpublished); table 5A.17.

Care needs to be taken when interpreting these results within and between jurisdictions, as 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 2001-02, the majority of police staff (76.4 per cent) were concentrated at the practitioner level (comprising civilian administration staff and sworn staff from constable to senior constable). While there was little difference between jurisdictions, NSW had the highest proportion of its staff at the practitioner level (79.8 per cent) (table 5A.21).

More staff were at a supervisory level in Queensland than anywhere else. Tasmania had the highest proportion of staff at management level or above (including executive or senior executive level staff). The lowest proportion of staff at management level or above was in WA (figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 Police staff by classification, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}



^a Comprises all FTE staff. ^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 NSW, students at Charles Sturt University are not included in the practitioner category. ^f For WA, the data excludes recruits in training. ^g 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 onwards are not directly comparable to data prior to 2000-01. ^h In the NT, small units and remote stations are staffed at sergeant level.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.21.

This is the fourth year in which these data have been published in the Report, and the results do not differ significantly from the classifications data published previously (tables 5A.18-5A.21). Additional staff efficiency indicators can be found in table 5A.69.

5.2 Policy developments in policing

The Prime Minister and State and Territory Premiers and Chief Ministers (the Leaders) agreed on 5 April 2002, that a new national framework was needed to meet the new challenges of combating terrorism and multi-jurisdictional crime. The attacks in the United States on 11 September 2001 indicated that previous assumptions about the nature and potential scale of terrorism are no longer valid. In addition, the Leaders noted that international and organised criminal groups did not respect state or national borders, and their activities could result in major harm to all Australians. They recognised the need for effective cooperation between the jurisdictions, and the need to build on arrangements that are currently in place in adding elements to national arrangements that will respond quickly and effectively to these challenges.

In relation to organised crime, the Leaders agreed to replace the NCA, the Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence, and the Office of Strategic Crime Assessments with an Australian Crime Commission (ACC) that would build on the important features of the existing facilities while removing current barriers to overall effectiveness. The ACC should commence operations on 1 January 2003.

In relation to arrangements for dealing with multi-jurisdictional crime, the Leaders agreed:

- to reform laws relating to money laundering;
- to legislate for a national set of powers for cross-border investigations, and to develop administrative arrangements to allow investigations by the Australian Federal Police into State offences incidental to multi-jurisdictional crime;
- to modernise the criminal law in the priority areas of model forensic procedures, model computer offences, and model serious drug offences;
- to ensure adequate access to radio-frequency spectrum for an effective inter-operability between national security, police and emergency service agencies;
- to enhance capacity in each jurisdiction for the collection and processing of samples to create DNA profiles, and the uploading of profiles onto the national DNA database; and

-
- to ensure the elimination of administrative and legal barriers in the pursuit of criminals operating in more than one jurisdiction, and to undertake, as a matter of priority, work in the areas of:
 - control over the illegal importation of illicit drugs and firearms;
 - extradition between States;
 - recognition of expert evidence;
 - firearms trafficking;
 - identity fraud;
 - cyber crime;
 - vehicle rebirthing (stolen vehicles which are given new chassis numbers); and
 - gangs.

5.3 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.

Box 5.2 Objectives for police services

The key objectives for police services (and associated SDAs) are:

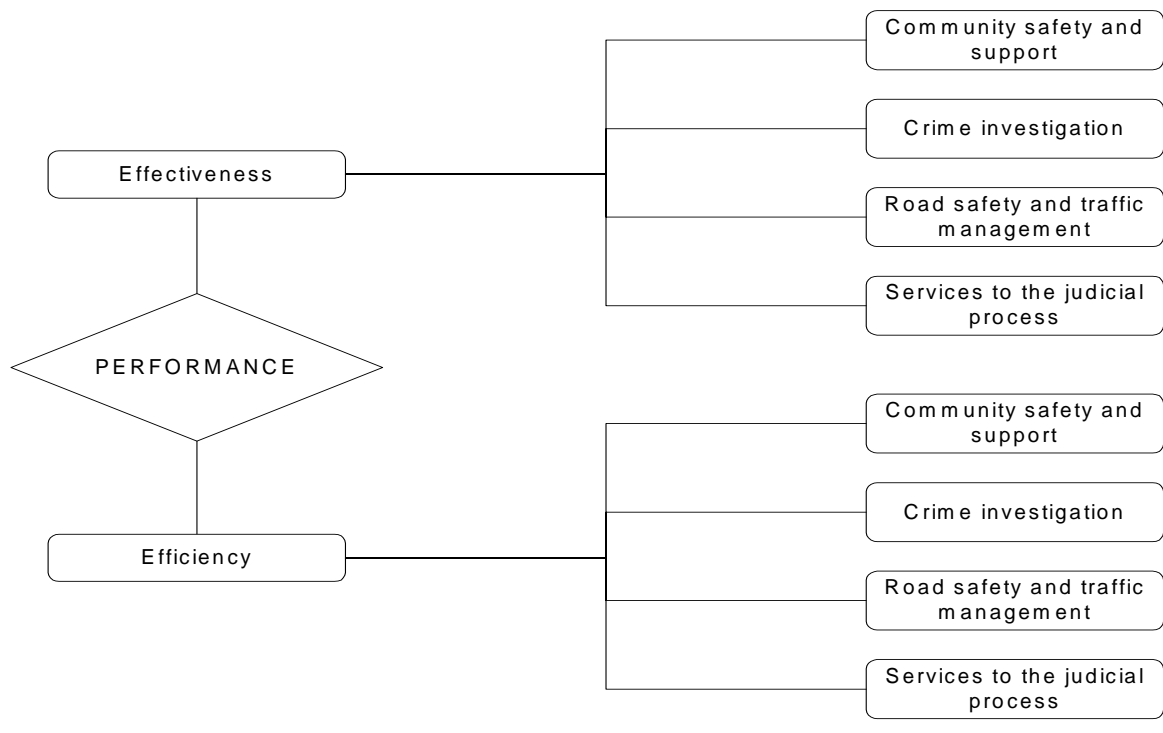
- to allow people to undertake their lawful pursuits confidently and safely (through activities associated with *community safety and support*);
- to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence (through activities associated with *crime investigation*);
- to promote safer behaviour on roads (through activities associated with *road safety and traffic management*); and
- 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.

Four objectives (and associated SDAs) have been identified by the Police Working Group 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, and thus the jurisdiction may choose to disaggregate that output/program according to the data relevant to each SDA.

Figure 5.8 shows the general framework of performance indicators. The reported results should be considered in conjunction with the data on demographic and geographic differences reported in appendix A, and with other available information on jurisdiction-specific characteristics.

Figure 5.8 General performance framework for the police services sector



National Survey of Community Satisfaction with policing

Beginning with the 2003 Report, the ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (NSCSP), conducted by AC Nielsen, replaces the ABS PSM as the primary source of nationally comparable data on public attitudes toward, and satisfaction with police and police services. The ACPR commissioned the NSCSP to provide an ongoing source of information on public satisfaction with

police in Australia when it was informed that the PSM would be discontinued in November 2000.

The NSCSP and the PSM are similar in objective and both attempt to collect information on community perceptions of police in terms of services provided and personal experiences of contact with the police. The NSCSP also aims to elicit public perceptions of personal safety, and problems in the community and neighbourhood. Notwithstanding the similarities between the NSCSP and the PSM, there were a number of changes to the survey method. The most notable of these changes are a significantly larger sample size; the move to a telephone-based survey (compared with the face-to-face approach of the PSM); and differences in the wording of some of the questions asked. As a result of these changes, the NSCSP and PSM data are not considered directly comparable.

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, 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). Thus point-in-time responses may vary from people's true underlying (or longer-term) satisfaction with police and perceptions of safety and crime levels.

5.4 Indicators relevant to all service delivery areas

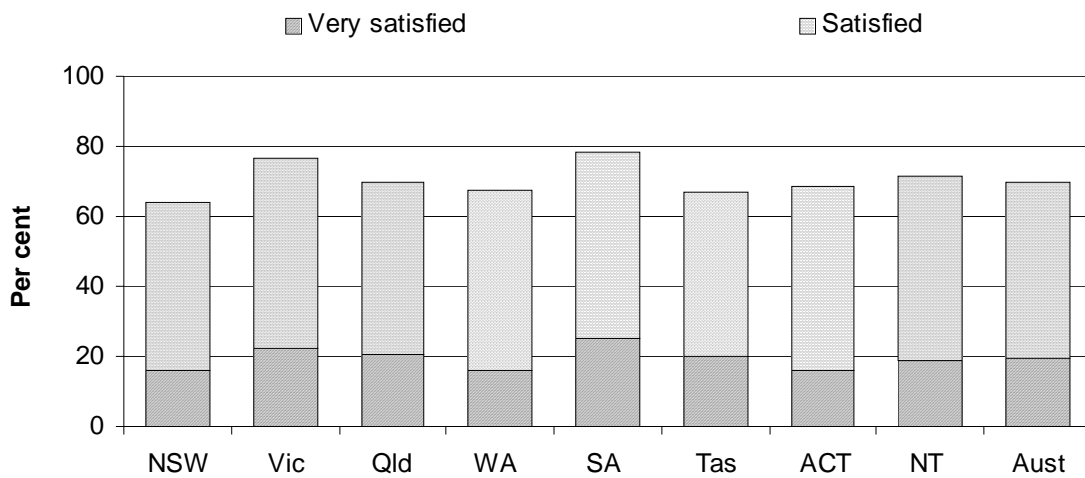
The four SDAs of the performance indicator framework identify the core areas of police work. Within this context, certain indicators of police performance are not specific to any one particular SDA, but are relevant for all SDAs. These indicators include satisfaction with police services, the integrity and professionalism with which police deliver their services, and access and equity considerations. This section provides information from the NSCSP and State and Territory governments on these overarching indicators of police performance.

Satisfaction with police services

The majority (69.9 per cent) of the people aged 18 years and over surveyed in 2001-02 were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the services provided by police. Across jurisdictions, this proportion varied from 78.2 per cent in SA to 64.2 per cent in NSW (figure 5.9). Also used for comparative purposes is the Likert Summation Index (LSI), which provides a statistical measure of centrality for assessing the general (or 'average') community perceptions. The method and limitations of the LSI are discussed in box 5.3.

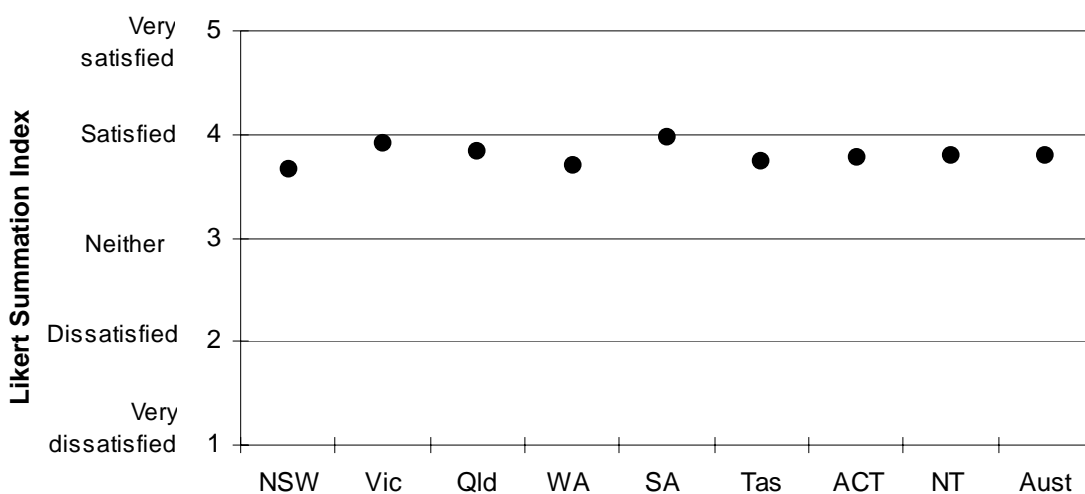
The national LSI for the responses to the question ‘how satisfied are you in general with the services provided by the police?’ was 3.80 on a scale of 1 to 5 (table 5A.22). An LSI of ‘5’ would indicate that all respondents were ‘very satisfied’, while an LSI of ‘1’ would indicate that all respondents were ‘very dissatisfied’. An LSI of 3.80 indicates that, on average, respondents were ‘satisfied’. Across jurisdictions, the LSI varied from 3.98 in SA to 3.66 in NSW (figure 5.10).

Figure 5.9 People aged 18 years and over who were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with police services, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.22.

Figure 5.10 People aged 18 years and over: general satisfaction with police services, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.22.

Box 5.3 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:

$$L = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i R_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n R_i} = \frac{(5 \times 950) + (4 \times 2500) + (3 \times 1250) + (2 \times 400) + (1 \times 250)}{950 + 2500 + 1250 + 400 + 250} = \frac{19\,550}{5350} = 3.65$$

where: L = Likert Summation Index
 w_i = the score for answer category i
 R_i = the responses for answer category i
n = the number of response categories

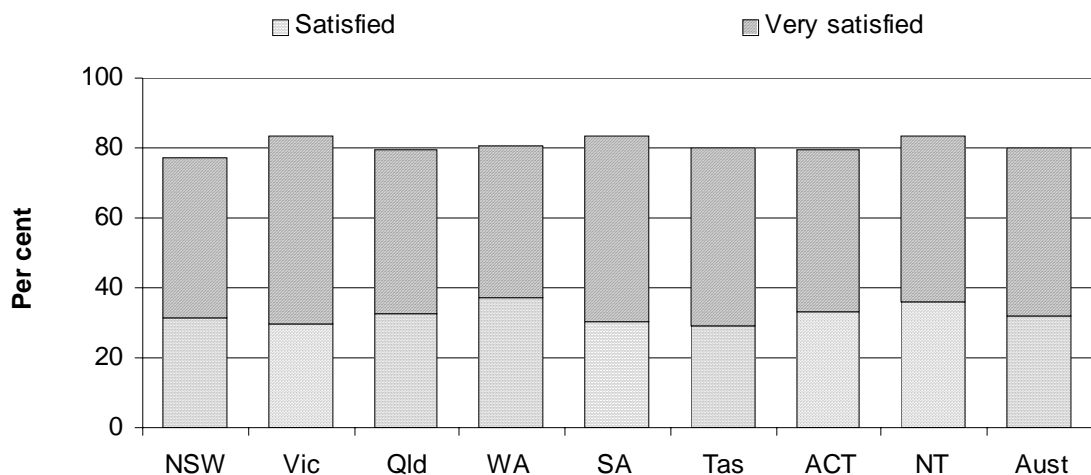
Care needs to be taken in interpreting the LSI because although it provides a useful tool for making inferences about aggregate population attitudes/perceptions, it is based on a number of simplifying assumptions. Likert scale questions such as that used in the example above provide ordinal data. The 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 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.

Nationally, of those respondents aged 18 years and over who had contact with police in 2001-02, 80.2 per cent were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the service they received during their most recent contact. This proportion ranged from

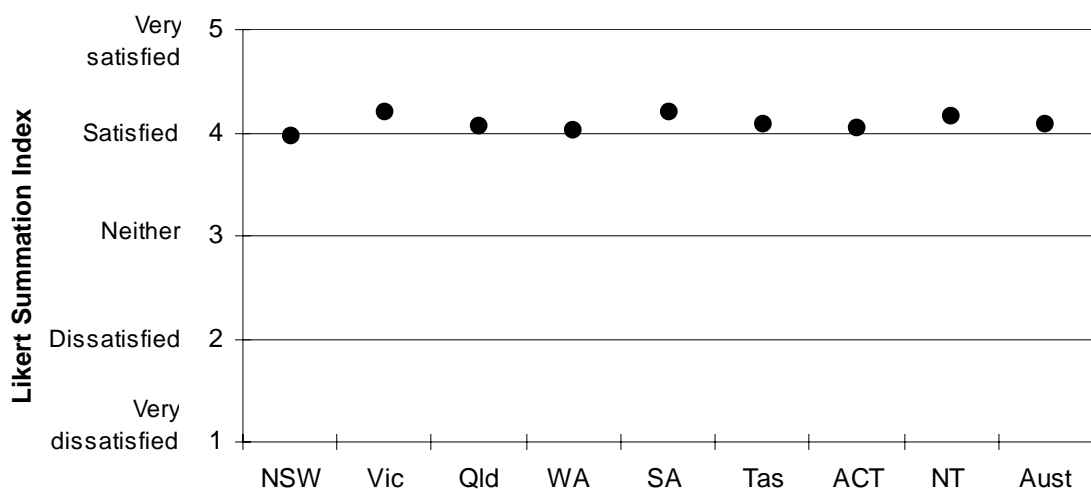
83.4 per cent in Victoria to 76.9 per cent in NSW (figure 5.11). The national LSI for the responses to the question ‘how satisfied were you with the service you received during your most recent contact with police?’ was 4.08 on a scale of 1 to 5 (table 5A.28). An LSI of 4.08 indicates that, on average, respondents were ‘satisfied’. Across jurisdictions, the LSI varied from 4.20 in both Victoria and SA to 3.97 in NSW (figure 5.12).

Figure 5.11 People aged 18 years and over who were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with police in their most recent contact, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.28.

Figure 5.12 People aged 18 years and over: general satisfaction with police in most recent contact, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.28.

Nationally, the most common three reasons for satisfaction with their most recent police contact for people aged 18 years and over in 2001-02 were that police:

- ‘were prompt’, ‘were approachable/friendly’, and ‘were helpful and courteous’ (37.4 per cent of people who had contact with police);
- ‘handled the matter well’, ‘took appropriate action’ and ‘were efficient’ (24.5 per cent of people who had contact with police); and
- ‘were professional/fair’ (12.2 per cent of people who had contact with police) (table 5A.29).

Nationally, the most common three reasons for dissatisfaction with their most recent police contact for people aged 18 years and over in 2001-02 were that police:

- ‘took no action’, ‘did not keep the respondent informed’, ‘made a false accusation’, ‘communicated poorly’ or ‘showed no interest’ (6.5 per cent of people who had contact with police);
- ‘left respondent waiting’, ‘were unfriendly/impolite’, ‘were unhelpful’ (4.0 per cent of people who had contact with police); and
- ‘were unprofessional/unfair’ (1.7 per cent of people who had contact with police) (table 5A.29).

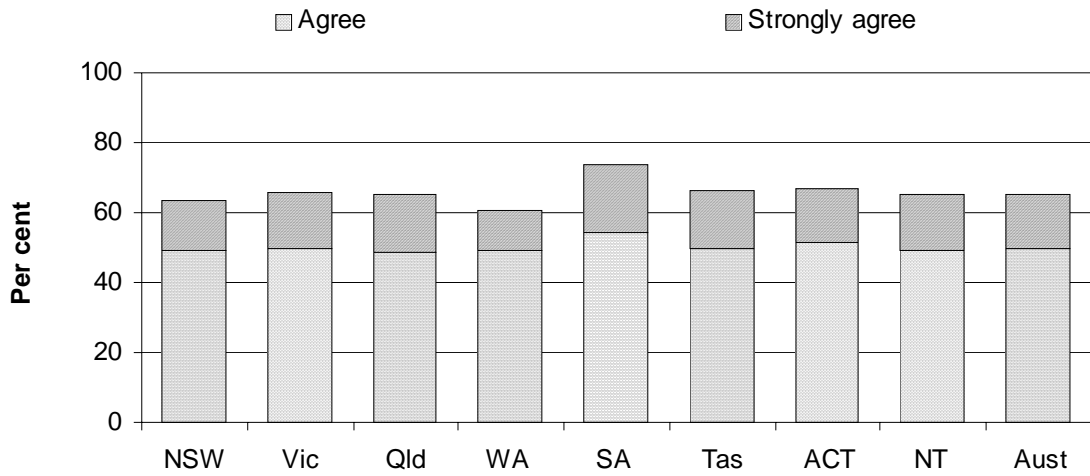
Perceptions of police integrity

Nationally, 65.0 per cent of people aged 18 years and over in 2001-02 ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police treat people ‘fairly and equally’. This ranged from 73.9 per cent in SA to 60.5 per cent in WA (figure 5.13).

Nationally, 77.7 per cent of people aged 18 years and over ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ in 2001-02 that police perform the job ‘professionally’. The proportion ranged from 87.4 per cent in SA to 73.4 per cent in NSW (figure 5.14).

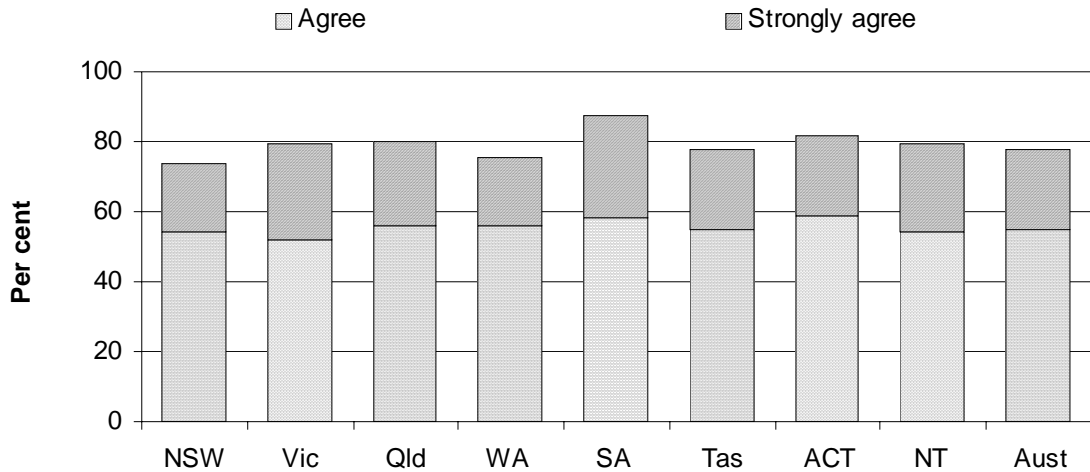
Police integrity is another important influence on police services’ performance. This can be judged to some extent by the public perception of police honesty. Nationally, 74.4 per cent of people aged 18 years and over ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ in 2001-02 that most police are ‘honest’. The proportion ranged from 80.9 per cent in SA to 71.7 per cent in NSW (figure 5.15).

Figure 5.13 People aged 18 years and over who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police treat people fairly and equally, 2001-02



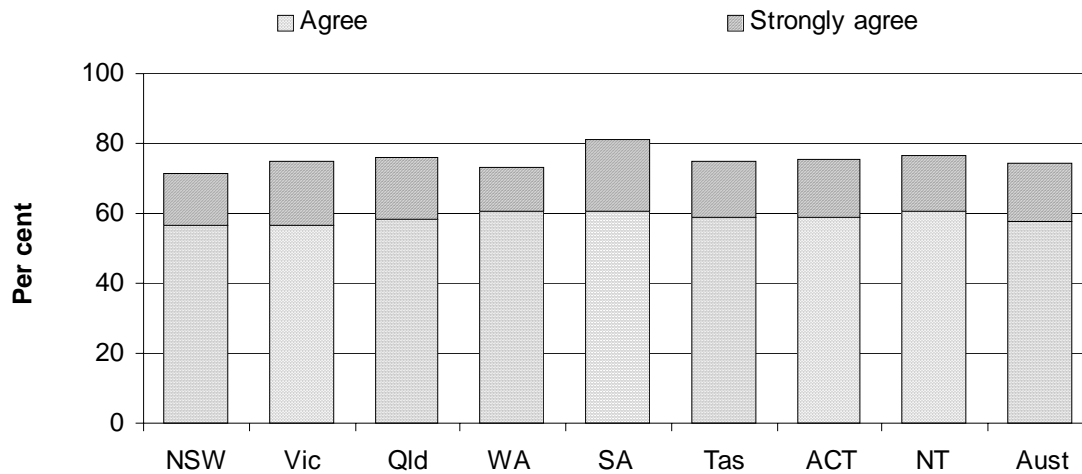
Source: ACPR Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.31.

Figure 5.14 People aged 18 years and over who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police perform the job professionally, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.30.

Figure 5.15 People aged 18 years and over who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that most police are honest, 2001-02



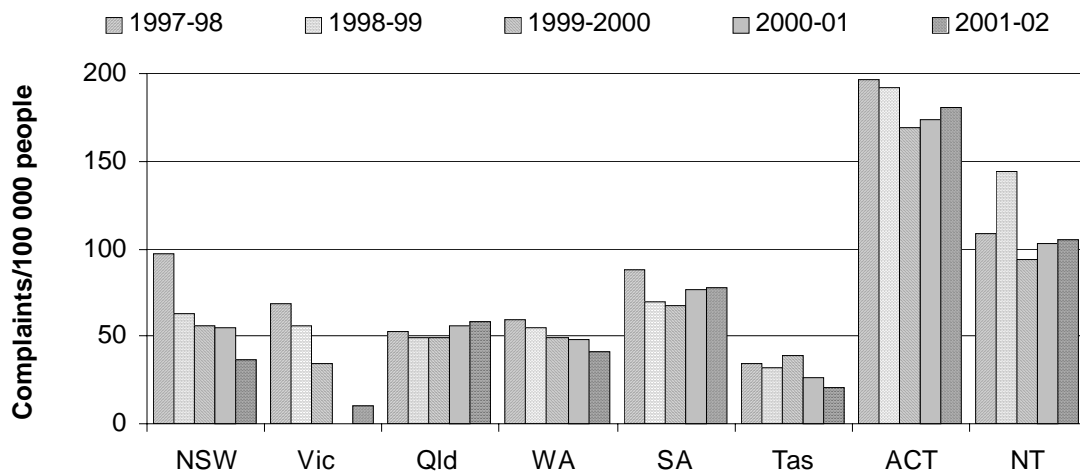
Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.32.

Complaints

Police services across Australia have moved to encourage codes of customer service that provide for openness and accountability. Complaints made against police increasingly reflect a range of issues relating to service delivery. Only a small percentage of complaints relate to serious misconduct. Complaints of a more serious nature are also oversights by external review bodies, such as the Ombudsman, Director of Public Prosecutions or integrity boards.

Complaint data represented in figures 5.16 and 5.17 provide an accurate picture of trends over time for each jurisdiction. The ratios, however, do not accurately reflect a comparison across jurisdictions because of the vastly different counting rules, particularly in the ACT. The number of complaints against the police per 100 000 people was on a general downward trend in Victoria, WA, and Tasmania over the period 1997-98 to 2001-02. The ACT experienced a relatively large increase in complaints per 100 000 population, rising from 174 to 180 in 2001-02. Queensland, SA, and the NT all experienced small increases in complaints per 100 000 population over the previous 12 months. The largest decrease over the past year occurred in WA (a fall of seven complaints per 100 000 population) (figure 5.16). NSW data for 2001-02 are not comparable to previous years due to the implementation of a new complaints management system in December 2001; therefore the 2001-02 figure only reflects data collected up to this date.

Figure 5.16 Complaints per 100 000 people^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. Data should only be used to view trends over time within jurisdictions. ^b The impact of tourists (and any associated complaints) should be considered in the light of a complaints ratio based on population. ^c Data include verbal complaints in the NT and the ACT. ^d For the NT, a significant proportion of complaints in 1998-99 arose from the Jabiluka Uranium Mine protests in Kakadu National Park. ^e For NSW, a new complaints management system (ca@ts.i) is being implemented (progressively since December 2001). Figures for 2001-02 include only matters entered into the former Complaints Information System (CIS).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.34.

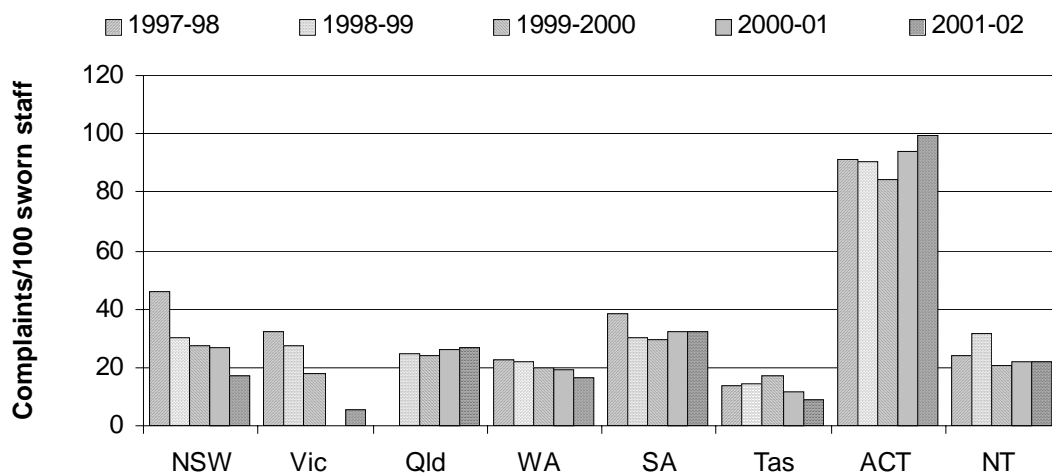
Another way of interpreting the complaints data is to consider the number of complaints per 100 sworn police officers in each jurisdiction. This alternative presentation is shown in figure 5.17. The general trends within jurisdictions are similar to those discussed in ‘complaints per 100 000 people’.

Access and equity — Indigenous staffing

This section focuses on the performance of mainstream services in relation to Indigenous Australians. The process of identifying Indigenous staff members and clients poses challenges, particularly when relying 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. For the purposes of this chapter, an Indigenous person is one who self identifies as an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander. All jurisdictions except Victoria were able to provide information on Indigenous staffing for 2001-02.

Figure 5.17 Complaints per 100 sworn police staff^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. Data should only be used to view trends over time within jurisdictions. ^b The impact of tourists (and any associated complaints) should be considered in the light of a complaints ratio based on population. ^c Data include verbal complaints in the NT and the ACT. ^d For the NT, a significant proportion of complaints in 1998-99 arose from the Jabiluka Uranium Mine protests in Kakadu National Park. ^e For NSW, a new complaints management system (ca@ts.i) is being implemented (progressively since December 2001). Figures for 2001-02 include only matters entered into the former CIS.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); Table 5A.34.

A proxy for assessing the level of Indigenous staff representation is to measure Indigenous staff levels as a proportion of the estimated Indigenous working aged population; that is, those old enough to be eligible for police employment. This is important, as a significantly larger proportion of the Indigenous population falls within the younger non-working age groupings compared with the non-Indigenous population. From the available ABS census data, the 20–64 years old age group provides the closest ‘fit’ for the estimated working population.

Of the jurisdictions that provided data in 2001-02, the NT had the highest proportion of Indigenous police staff (4.4 per cent), while NSW and the ACT had the lowest proportion (0.9 per cent) (table 5A.35). 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 (4.4 per cent) was significantly lower than their representation in the 20–64 year old population (14.7 per cent) (figure 5.18).

Figure 5.18 **Indigenous staff (sworn and unsworn) as a proportion of the Indigenous population aged 20–64 years^{a, b}**



^a Indigenous staff numbers relate to those staff who self identify as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent. ^b Information on Indigenous status is only collected at time of recruitment.

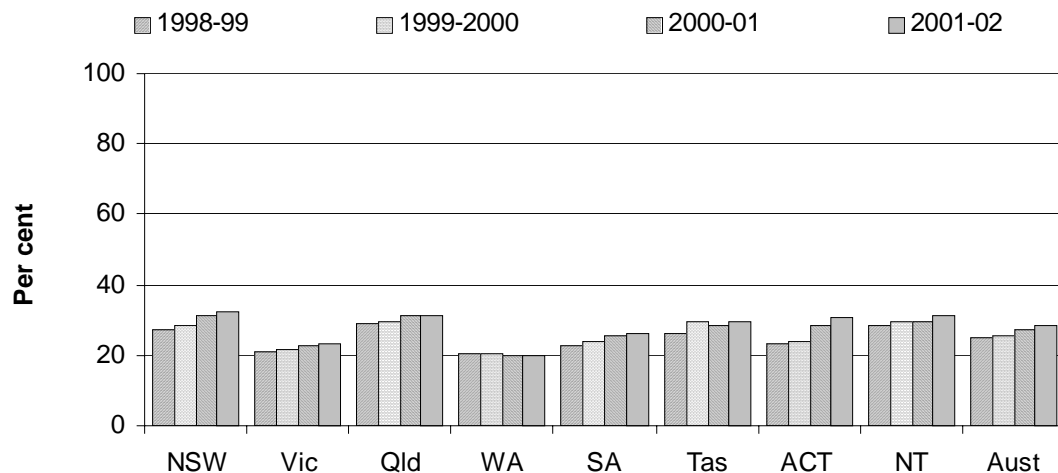
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table A.2; table 5A.35.

Access and equity — staffing by gender

Another measure of access and equity is the level of (sworn and unsworn) police staff by gender. Nationally, 28.2 per cent of police staff in 2001-02 were female. This proportion ranged from 32.3 per cent in NSW to 20.1 per cent in WA (figure 5.19).

Nationally, the proportion of female police staff has increased by three percentage points since 1998-99 (from 25 per cent to 28 per cent of staff). All jurisdictions, with the exception of WA (which fell from 21 to 20 females per 100 staff), have increased their proportion of female police staff over this period. The greatest increase occurred in the ACT (from 23 to 31 females per 100 staff), followed by NSW (from 27 to 32 females per 100 staff) (table 5A.36). The change in the ACT should be viewed with care, due to the introduction of a revised method which better identifies those personnel within the Australian Federal Police involved in the provision of enabling services to ACT policing.

Figure 5.19 Female police staff (sworn and unsworn)^{a, b, c}



^a Comprises all FTE staff. ^b For WA, excludes recruits in training. ^c In 2000-01, as a result of a comprehensive review of enabling costs applicable to ACT Policing, 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 onwards are not directly comparable to data prior to 2000-01.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.36.

5.5 Community safety and support

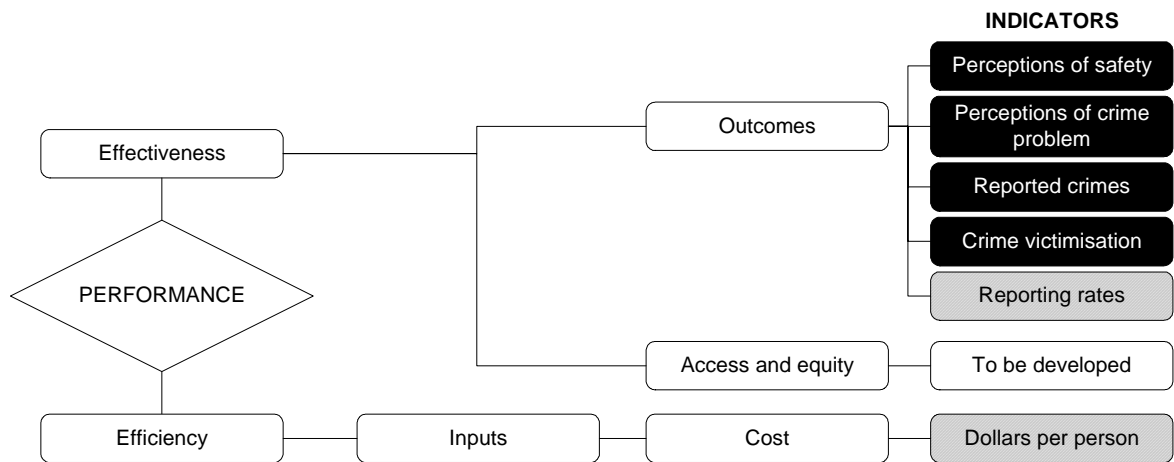
This SDA captures the role of police in preserving public order and promoting a safer community through a range of activities, including:

- responding to calls for assistance;
- responding to, managing and coordinating major incidents and emergencies; and
- undertaking crime prevention activities and community support programs.

Framework of performance indicators

The performance of the police 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 between jurisdictions in the 2003 Report (figure 5.20). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.20 Performance indicators for community safety and support



Key to indicators

- Text** Provided on a comparable basis for this Report
- Text** Information not complete or not strictly comparable
- Text** Yet to be developed or not collected for this Report

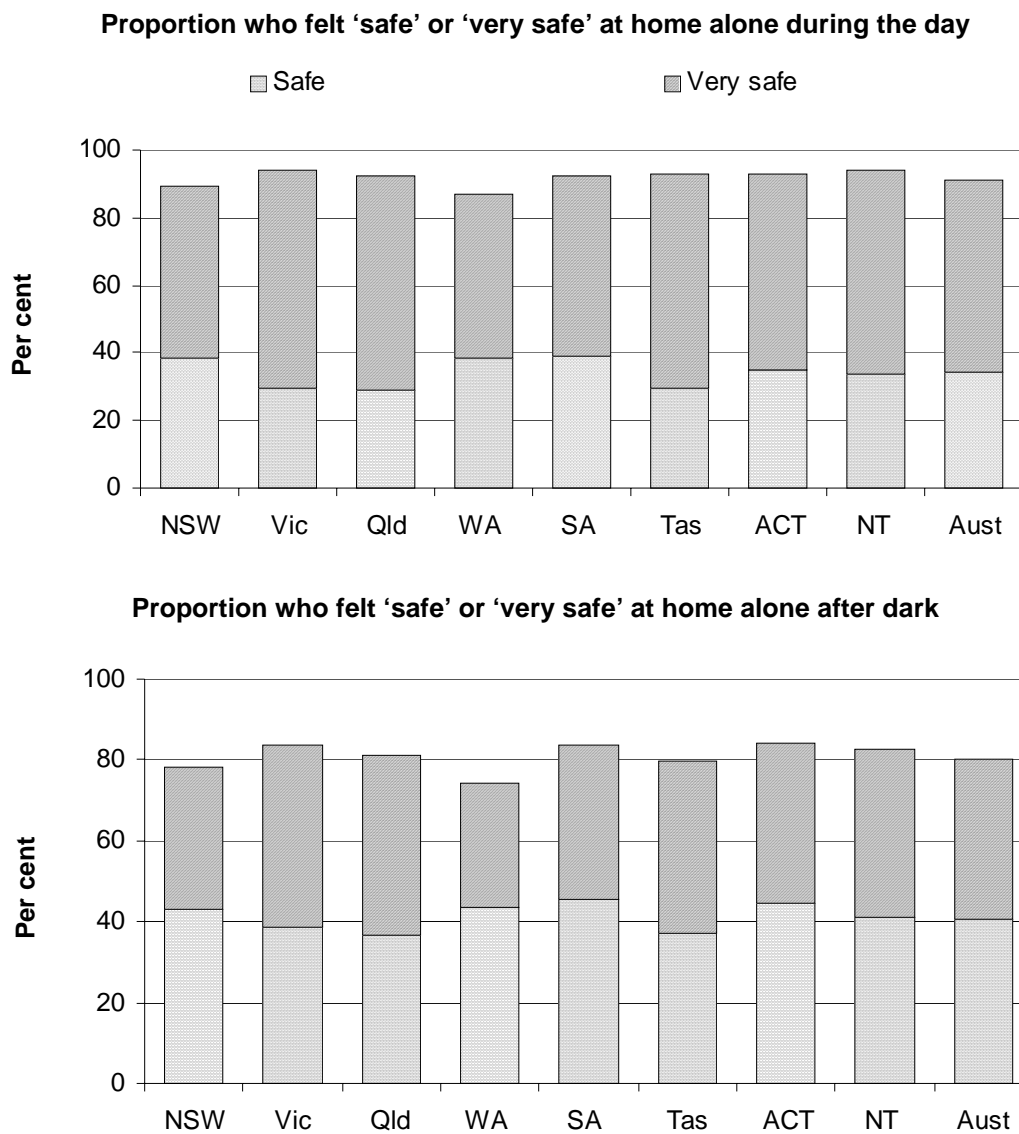
Key community safety and support performance indicator results

Perceptions of safety

An important objective of police services is to ‘reassure the public’ by ensuring that the community feels safe (within themselves and regarding their property) in public and private. Perceptions of safety are reported here, although these perceptions may not reflect reported crime for many reasons — for example, reported crime may understate actual crime, under reporting may vary across jurisdictions, and many factors (including media reporting) may affect public perceptions of crime levels and safety.

Nationally, 91.3 per cent of people aged 18 and over felt ‘safe’ or ‘very safe’ at home alone during the day in 2001-02. This proportion ranged from 94.3 per cent in Victoria to 87.2 per cent in WA. Nationally, 80.4 per cent of people felt ‘safe’ or ‘very safe’ at home alone after dark. This proportion ranged from 84.1 per cent in the ACT to 74.1 per cent in WA (figure 5.21).

Figure 5.21 People aged 18 years and over: perception of safety at home, 2001-02



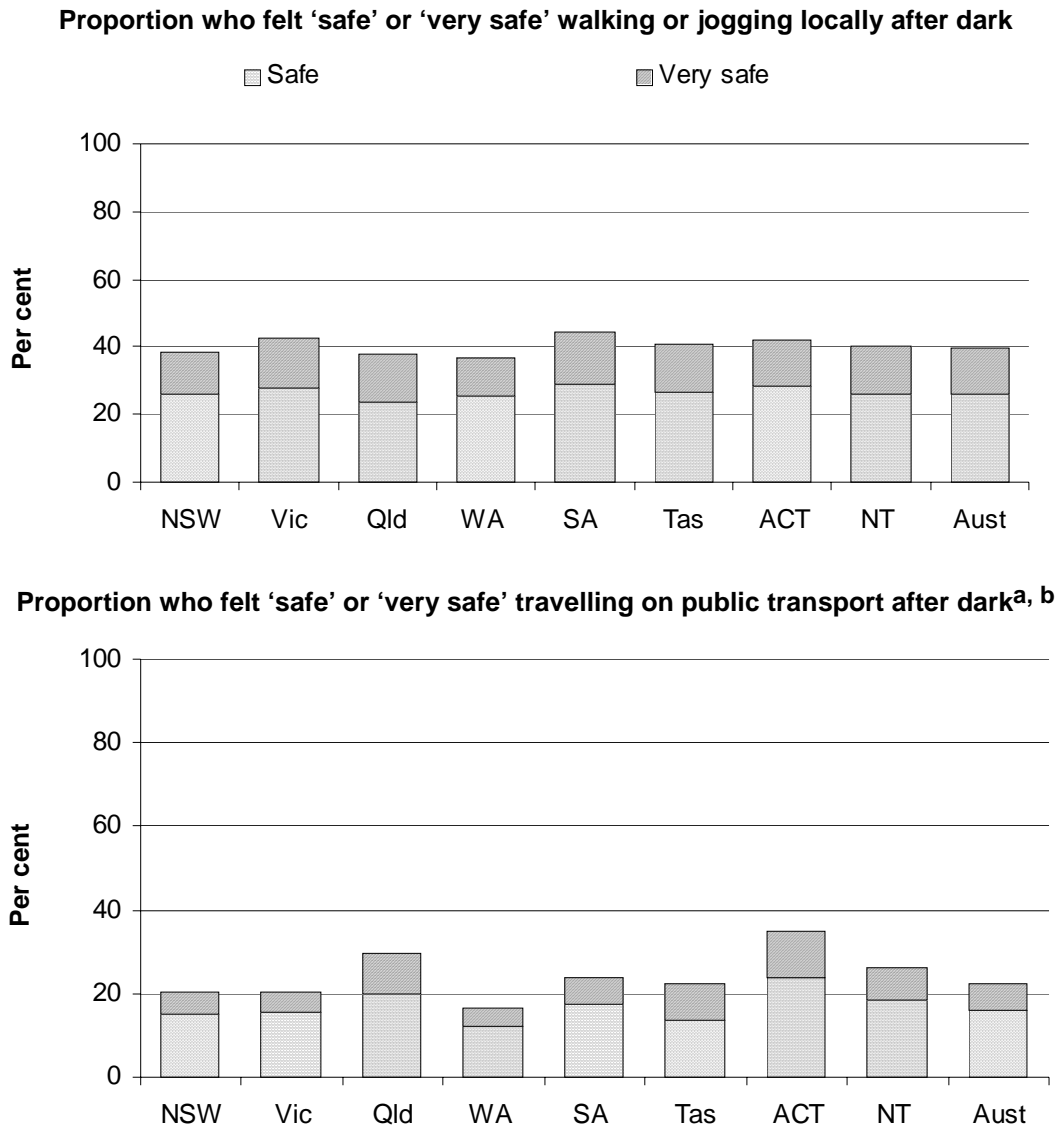
Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.37.

Nationally, 39.8 per cent of people aged 18 years and over felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally after dark in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 44.1 per cent in the SA to 36.5 per cent in WA (figure 5.22).

Nationally, 22.3 per cent of the surveyed adult population felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when travelling on public transport after dark in 2001-02. This perception of safety ranged from 34.8 per cent in the ACT to 16.5 per cent in WA (figure 5.22). The ACT and the NT, however, do not operate a suburban train network, and the results

will also be influenced by the mix (that is, trains, buses and trams) of public transport in each jurisdiction.

Figure 5.22 **People aged 18 years and over: perception of safety in public places^{a, b}**



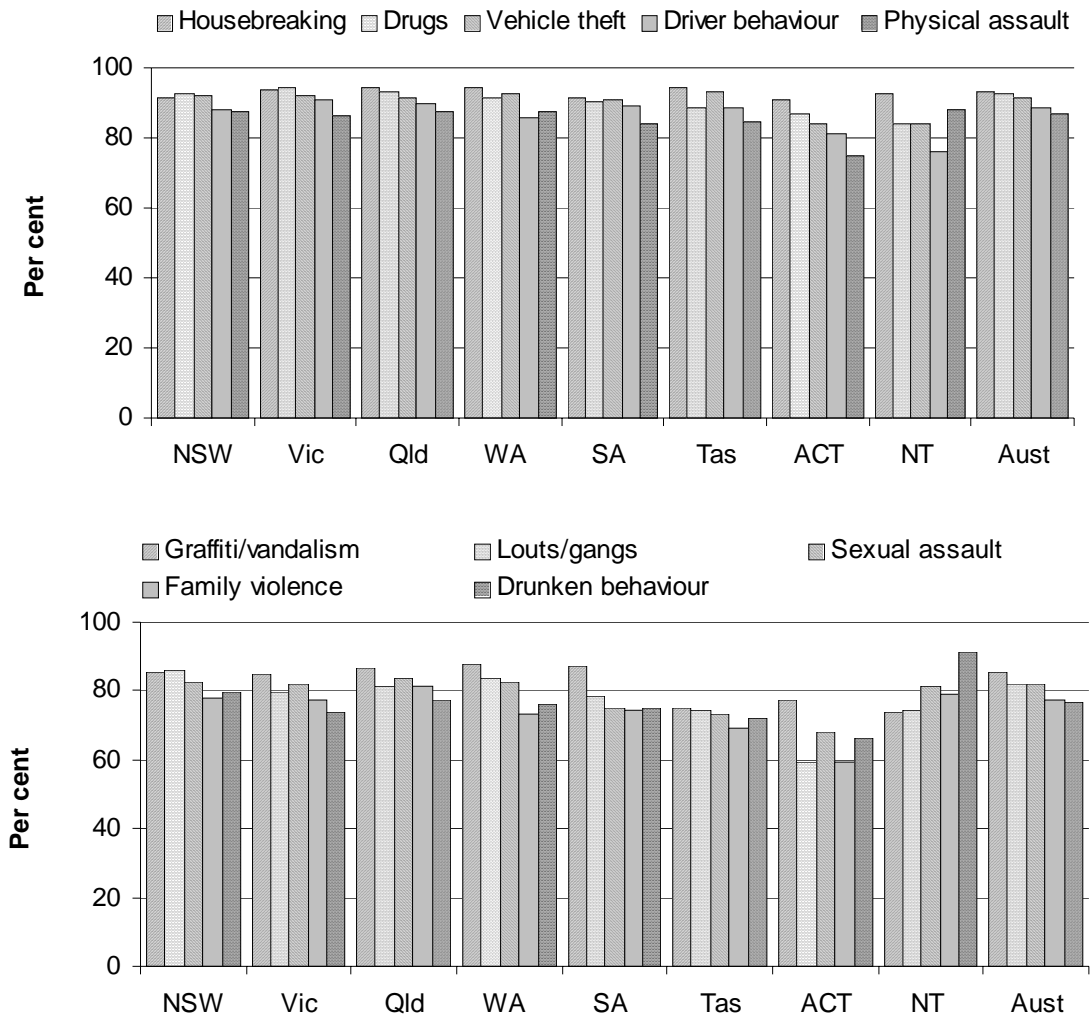
^a For this survey question, the response 'not applicable' was very large and varied significantly across jurisdictions in line with the availability of public transport (see tables 5A.38 and 5A.39). ^b Unlike other jurisdictions, the ACT and the NT do not operate a suburban train network and rely on buses as the primary means of public transportation.

Source: ACPR *National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing* (unpublished); tables 5A.38 and 5A.39.

Nationally, 87.6 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally during the day and 60.2 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very

safe' on public transport during the day in 2001-02. A jurisdiction breakdown of these results are available from table 5A.38 and 5A.39.

Figure 5.23 Proportion of people aged 18 years and over who consider the identified issues to be either a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in the State or Territory, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); tables 5A.43–5A.45.

Perceptions of crime problem

Nationally, in 2001-02, when people were asked about crime problems in their State/Territory, the proportion of people aged 18 years and over who perceived a particular crime as a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' were: 92.9 per cent for housebreaking; 92.5 per cent for illegal drugs; 91.7 per cent for vehicle theft; 88.7 per cent for poor driver behaviour (speeding cars, dangerous or

noisy driving); 86.7 per cent for physical assault; 85.4 per cent for graffiti and other vandalism; 81.9 per cent for louts and gangs; 81.7 per cent for sexual assault; 77.2 per cent for family violence; and 76.9 per cent for drunken and disorderly behaviour (figure 5.23)

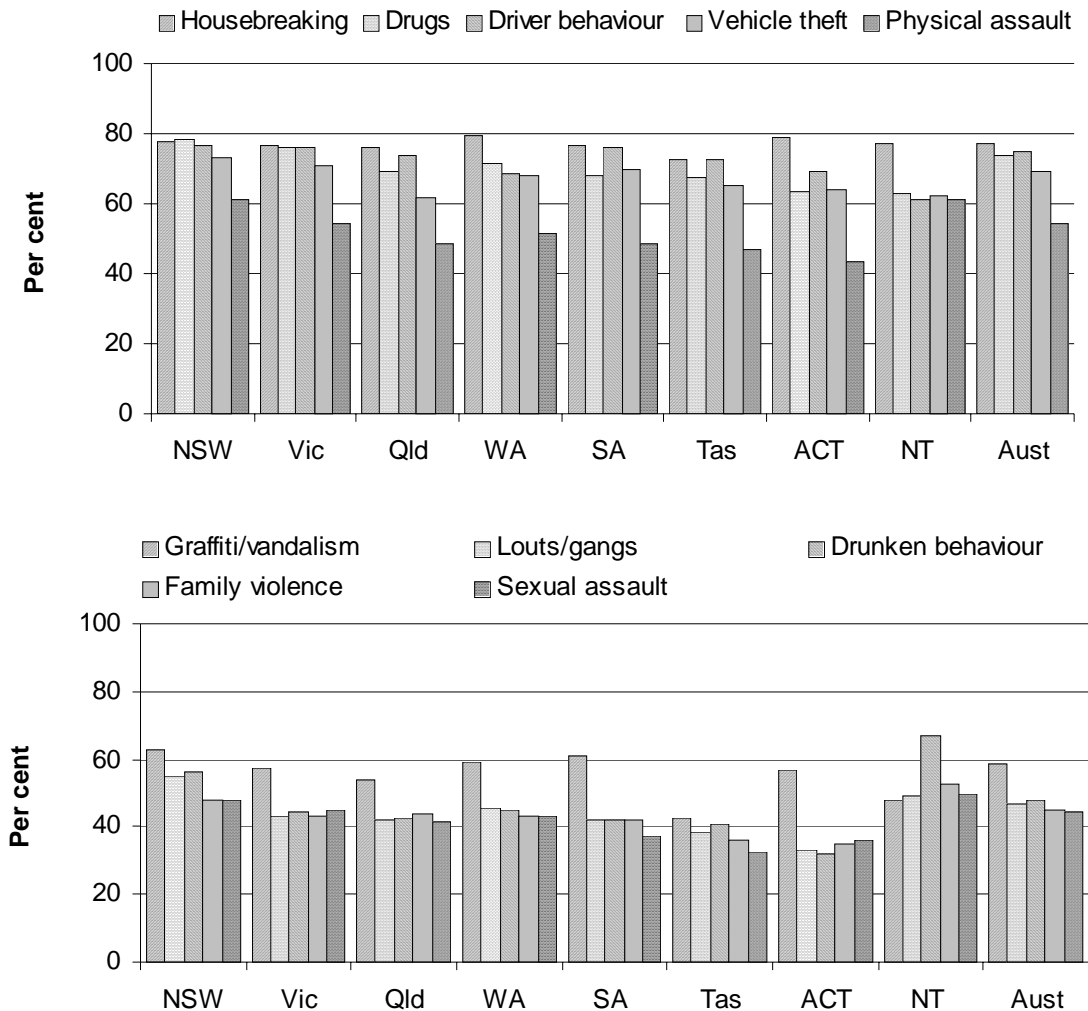
People aged 18 years and over asked about crime problems in their neighbourhood and general community identified the following areas of concern:

- *housebreaking*: Nationally, 77.0 per cent of people aged 18 years and over believed housebreaking to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 79.3 per cent in the WA to 72.2 per cent in Tasmania (figure 5.24).
- *illegal drugs*: Nationally, 73.9 per cent of people aged 18 years and over believed illegal drugs to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 78.4 per cent in the NSW to 63.4 per cent in the NT (figure 5.24).
- *poor driver behaviour*: Nationally, 74.7 per cent of people aged 18 years and over believed speeding cars, dangerous or noisy driving to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 76.3 per cent in the NSW to 61.2 per cent in the NT (figure 5.24); and
- *motor vehicle theft*: Nationally, 69.2 per cent of people aged 18 years and over believed motor vehicle theft to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their local area in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the prevalence of this response ranged from 73.3 per cent in the NSW to 61.9 per cent in the NT (figure 5.24).

Care needs to be taken in interpreting data on perceptions of crime. The perceptions of a problem and the actual incidence of these offences may differ significantly across jurisdictions. 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. The NSCSP indicates that perceptions of crime fall as the respondent focuses on the local neighbourhood rather than the State or Territory where they live.

Figure 5.24 Proportion of people aged 18 years and over who consider the identified issues to be either a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in the neighbourhood and general community, 2001-02

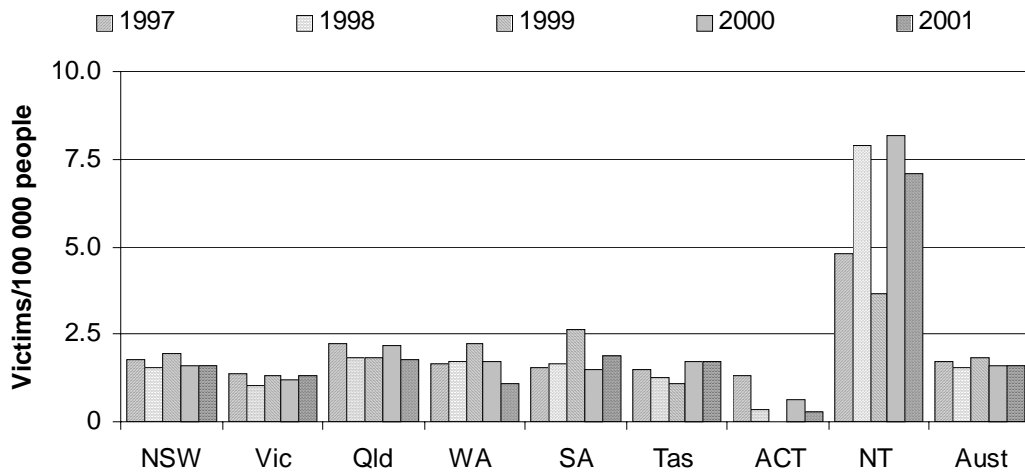


Source: ACPR *National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing* (unpublished); tables 5A.40–5A.42.

Recorded crimes and crime victimisation — recorded crimes against the person

Nationally, there were 1.6 recorded victims of murder per 100 000 people in 2001 (the same as for 2000). Across jurisdictions, the number of murder victims per 100 000 people ranged from 7.1 in the NT to 0.3 in the ACT. Between 2000 and 2001, the murder rate rose in Victoria and SA, remained constant in NSW and Tasmania, and fell in Queensland, WA, the ACT and the NT (figure 5.25).

Figure 5.25 Recorded victims of murder^a

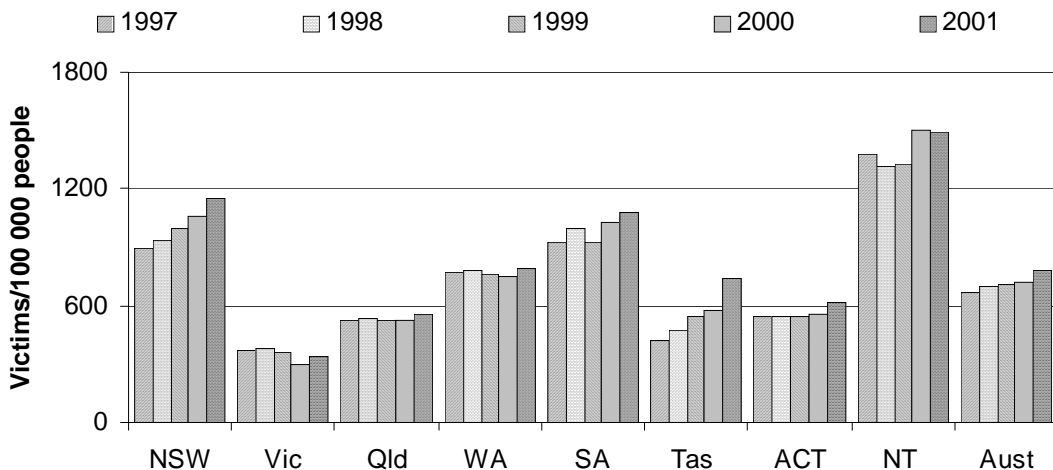


^a Data are based on crimes recorded by police.

Source: ABS *Recorded Crime Australia 2001* (unpublished); table 5A.47.

There were 783 victims of assault per 100 000 people nationally in 2001 (up from 724 per 100 000 people in 2000), ranging from 1486 victims per 100 000 people in the NT to 337 victims per 100 000 people in Victoria (figure 5.26). Between 2000 and 2001, the number of victims of assaults per 100 000 rose in all jurisdictions except the NT (figure 5.26).

Figure 5.26 Recorded victims of assault^{a, b}

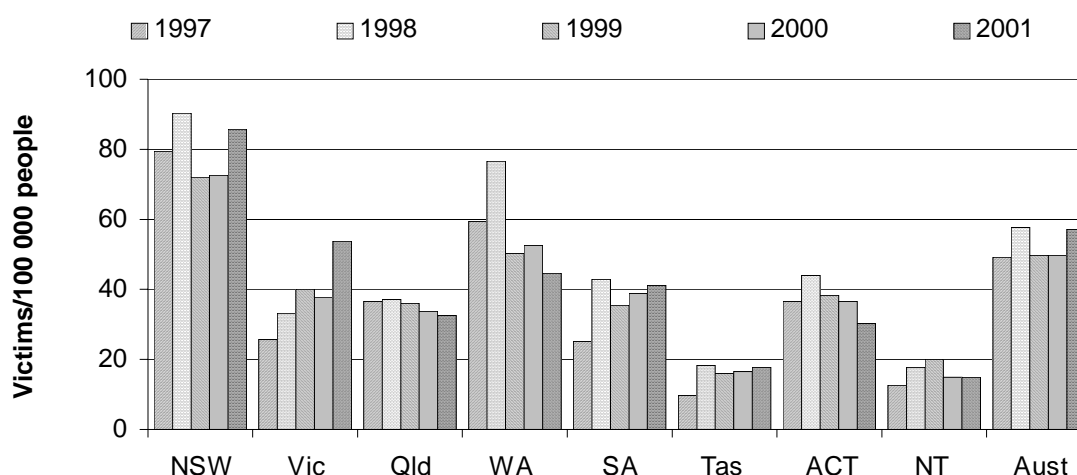


^a Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^b For WA, the recorded crime statistics for assault are not directly comparable with the results prior to 1998.

Source: ABS *Recorded Crime Australia 2001* (unpublished); table 5A.47.

Nationally, there were 57 victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people in 2001 (up from 50 victims per 100 000 in 2000), ranging from 86 victims per 100 000 people in NSW to 15 victims per 100 000 people in the NT. Between 2000 and 2001, the rate of armed robbery increased in NSW, Victoria, SA and Tasmania, declined in Queensland, WA and the ACT and remained constant in the NT (figure 5.27).

Figure 5.27 Recorded victims of armed robbery^{a, b, c}



^a Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^b Victims include people and organisations. ^c For WA, the recorded crime statistics for armed robbery are not directly comparable with the results prior to 1998.

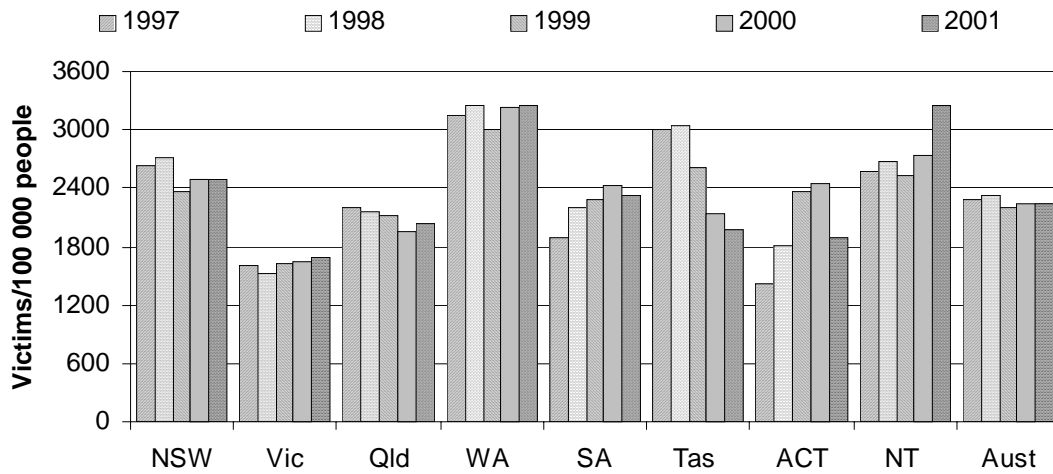
Source: ABS *Recorded Crime Australia 2001* (unpublished); table 5A.47.

Nationally, per 100 000 people, there were: 0.2 victims of manslaughter; 1.8 victims of blackmail/extortion; 1.3 victims of driving causing death; 2.4 victims of attempted murder; 3.9 victims of kidnapping/abduction; 80 victims of unarmed robbery; and 86 victims of sexual assault. Data on recorded crime for each of these offences are available across jurisdictions for the period 1997 to 2001 (table 5A.47).

Recorded crimes and crime victimisation — recorded property crimes

There were 2247 victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people nationally in 2001 (marginally up from 2242 victims per 100 000 in 2000). The incidence varied from 3251 victims per 100 000 people in WA to 1678 victims per 100 000 people in Victoria. Between 2000 and 2001, the number of unlawful entries with intent per 100 000 people rose in Victoria, Queensland, WA, and the NT and declined in NSW, SA, Tasmania and the ACT (figure 5.28).

Figure 5.28 Recorded victims of unlawful entry with intent^{a, b}

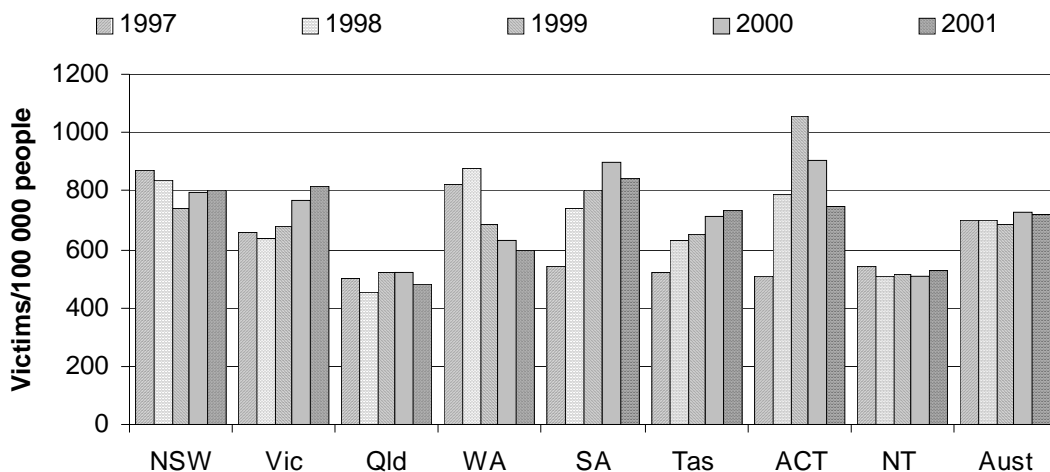


^a Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^b Victims refers to places/premises.

Source: ABS Recorded Crime Australia 2001 (unpublished); table 5A.48.

Nationally, there were 722 motor vehicles stolen per 100 000 people in 2001 (steady with 2000). The number of motor vehicles stolen per 100 000 people ranged from 843 in SA to 481 in Queensland. Between 2000 and 2001, the rate of motor vehicle theft rose in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania, and the NT and fell in Queensland, WA, SA and the ACT (figure 5.29).

Figure 5.29 Recorded victims of motor vehicle theft^{a, b}



^a Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^b Victims are based on the number of motor vehicles.

Source: ABS Recorded Crime Australia 2001 (unpublished); table 5A.48.

There were 3608 victims of other theft per 100 000 people nationally in 2001, (up from 3557 victims per 100 000 in 2000). This ranged from 5267 in SA to 2834 in Tasmania. Between 2000 and 2001 the rate for other theft increased in all jurisdictions apart from NSW and the ACT, which recorded declines (table 5A.48).

Reporting rates

The ABS also undertakes crime and safety surveys. As part of these surveys, reporting rates for selected major offences are contained in table 5A.49 and the estimated total victims of crime (both reported and unreported) for crimes against the person and property are included in tables 5A.50 and 5A.51.

Efficiency

The comparability of expenditure data has been improved by accounting for differences in payroll tax liabilities across jurisdictions according to the approach recommended in *Payroll Tax in the Costing of Government Services* (SCRCSSP 1999). The separate identification of payroll tax liabilities facilitates comparisons of expenditure data (less payroll tax) across all jurisdictions.

Queensland and Tasmania did not provide expenditure data by SDA for 2001-02. Nationally, of the jurisdictions that were able to provide data in 2001-02, expenditure on community safety and support was \$128 per person. It ranged from \$296 per person in the NT to \$99 per person in Victoria (figure 5.30). Expenditure on community safety and support made up about half of all police expenditure nationally (53.6 per cent). Expenditure on community safety and support, as a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, ranged from 66.0 per cent in SA to 44.2 per cent in Victoria (table 5A.14).

While comparisons can be made with last year, care needs to be taken as there may have been changes in the methods employed. The largest increase in real expenditure over the past year occurred in the ACT, where real expenditure on community safety and support rose by \$16 per person (from \$107 to \$123) (table 5A.52). The largest decrease in real expenditure over the past year occurred in NSW, where real expenditure fell by \$9 per person (from \$150 to \$141). Nationally, real expenditure on community safety and support rose by \$3 per person over the last year (from \$125 to \$128) (table 5A.52).

Figure 5.30 **Expenditure per person on community safety and support, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



^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 mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Calculated by allocating payroll tax in the same proportion as expenditure on salaries and payments for each SDA. ^c For Queensland and Tasmania, data are only available for all key SDAs combined. ^d WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^e For the ACT, the total includes major events and planning. ^f The Australian total includes payroll tax where applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table A.2; table 5A.52.

5.6 Crime investigation

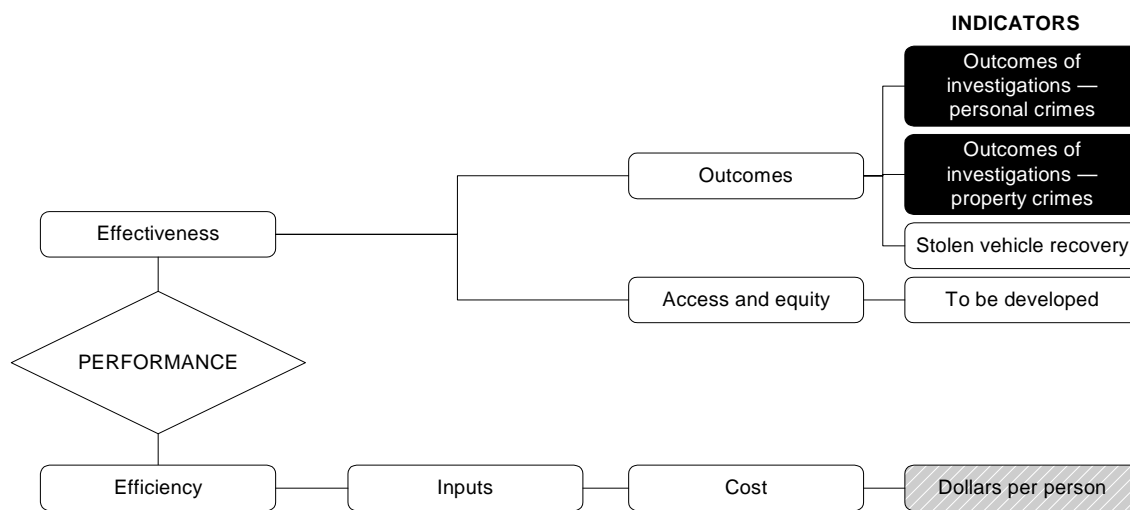
This SDA captures the role of police in investigating crime and identifying and apprehending suspects. Activities include:

- gathering intelligence on suspects and locations to assist with investigations; and
- collecting and securing evidence in relation to both the offence and the suspect.

Framework of performance indicators

The performance of the police 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 2003 Report (figure 5.31). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.31 Performance indicators for crime investigation



Key to indicators

- Text Provided on a comparable basis for this Report
- Text Information not complete or not strictly comparable
- Text Yet to be developed or not collected for this Report

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.

Outcomes of investigations — crimes against the person

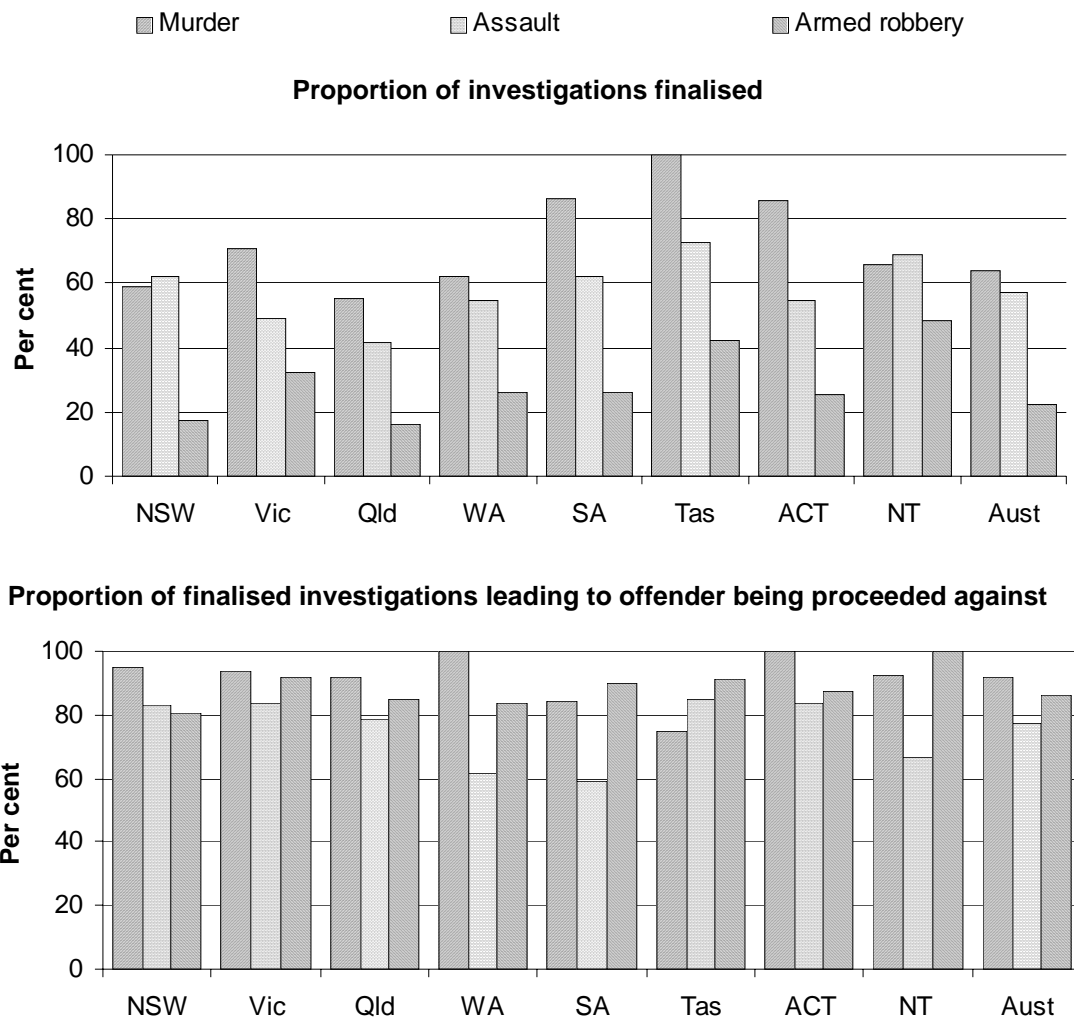
Across jurisdictions, the proportion of investigations into reported murders that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, varied from 100.0 per cent in Tasmania (based on eight murder investigations) to 55.4 per cent in Queensland (based on 65 murder investigations) in 2001 (figure 5.32).

For all finalised murder investigations, the proportion of proceedings against an alleged offender which had begun within 30 days ranged across jurisdictions from 100.0 per cent in WA and the ACT to 75.0 per cent in Tasmania in 2001 (figure 5.32).

The proportion of investigations into reported assaults that were finalised within 30 days, ranged from 72.5 per cent in Tasmania to 41.5 per cent in Queensland. For

all finalised assault investigations, the proportion of proceedings against an alleged offender which had begun within 30 days, ranged across jurisdictions from 84.8 per cent in Tasmania to 61.8 per cent in WA (figure 5.32).

Figure 5.32 **Victims of crimes against the person: outcomes of investigations, 30-day status, 2001**



Source: ABS *Recorded Crime Australia* (unpublished); table 5A.53.

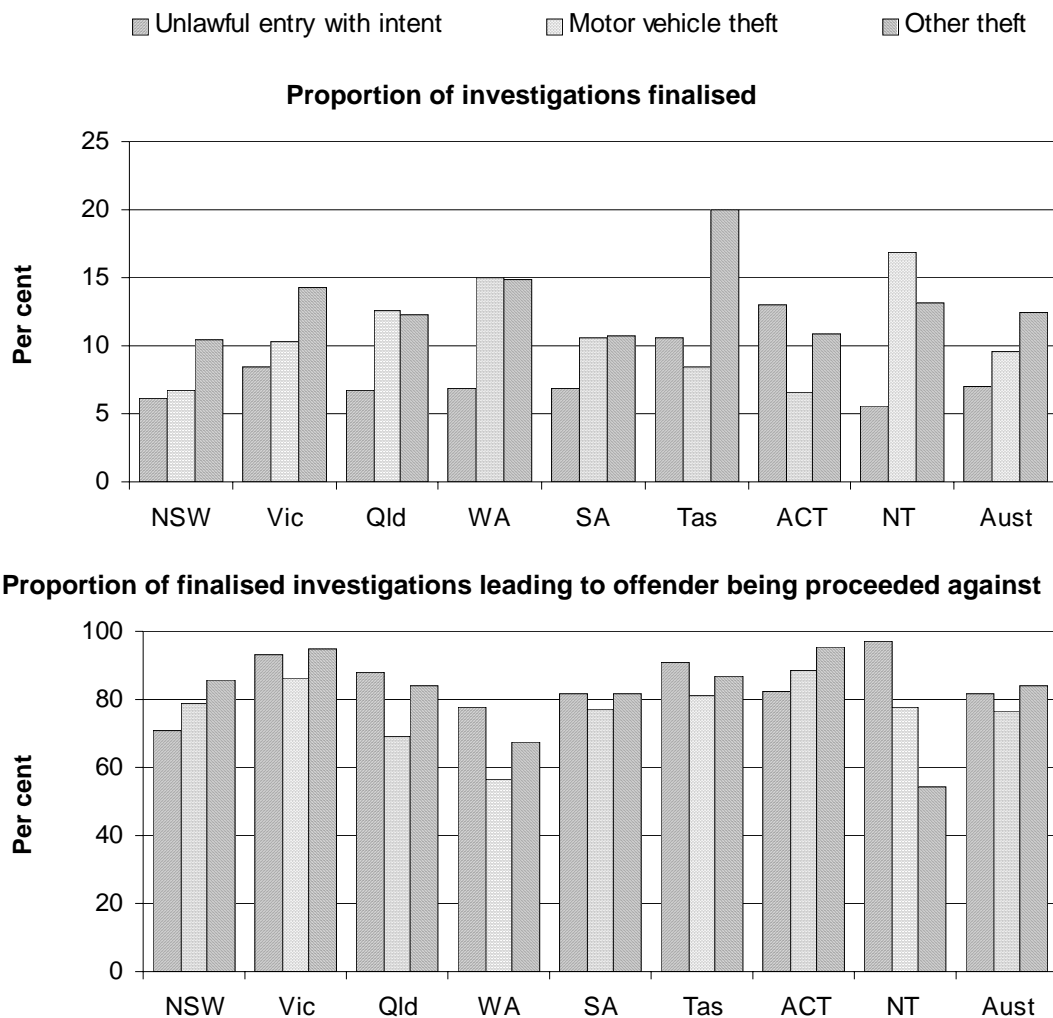
The proportion of investigations into reported armed robbery, which were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 48.3 per cent in the NT to 16.2 per cent in Queensland. For all finalised armed robbery investigations, the proportion of proceedings against an alleged offender which had begun within 30 days, ranged across jurisdictions from 100.0 per cent in the NT to 80.7 per cent in NSW (figure 5.32).

Jurisdiction-specific data on the outcomes of investigations into kidnapping/abduction, blackmail/extortion, sexual assault and unarmed robbery are contained in table 5A.53.

Outcomes of investigations — property crime

The proportion of investigations into reported unlawful entry with intent, which were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 12.9 per cent in the ACT to 5.6 per cent in the NT. For all finalised unlawful entry with intent investigations, the proportion of proceedings against an alleged offender that had commenced within 30 days, ranged across jurisdictions from 97.0 per cent in the NT to 70.7 per cent in NSW (figure 5.33).

Figure 5.33 Victims of property crime: outcomes of investigations, 30-day status, 2001



Source: ABS Recorded Crime Australia (unpublished); table 5A.54.

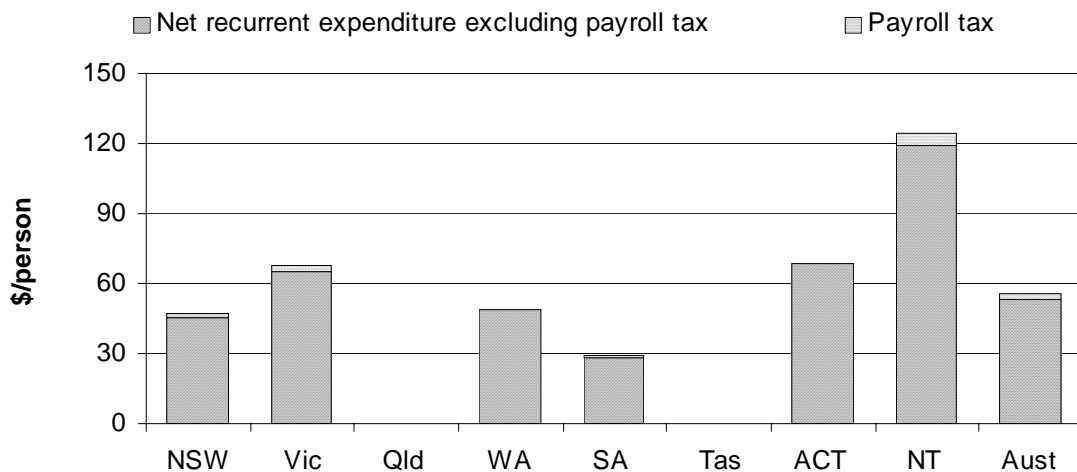
The proportion of investigations into reported motor vehicle theft, which were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 16.9 per cent in the NT to 6.7 per cent in NSW. For all finalised motor vehicle theft investigations, the proportion of proceedings against an alleged offender which had begun within 30 days, ranged across jurisdictions from 88.4 per cent in the ACT to 56.4 per cent in WA (figure 5.33).

The proportion of investigations into reported other theft, which were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, ranged from 20.0 per cent in Tasmania to 10.4 per cent in NSW. For all finalised investigations of other theft, the proportion of investigations that lead to the offender being proceeded against ranged from 95.5 per cent in the ACT to 54.2 per cent in the NT (figure 5.33).

Efficiency

Nationally, of the jurisdictions that were able to provide data in 2001-02, expenditure on crime investigations was \$55 per person. It ranged from \$124 per person in the NT to \$29 per person in SA (figure 5.34).

Figure 5.34 **Expenditure per person on crime investigation 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



^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 mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Calculated by allocating payroll tax in the same proportion as expenditure on salaries and payments for each SDA. ^c For Queensland and Tasmania, data are only available for all key SDAs combined. ^d WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^e For SA, the crime investigation activities exclude a wide range of crime prevention, reduction and response activities. ^f The Australian total includes payroll tax where applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table A.2; table 5A.55.

Expenditure on crime investigations as a proportion of total police expenditure nationally, was 22.9 per cent. Expenditure on crime investigations as a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, ranged from 30.5 per cent in the ACT to 12.4 per cent in SA (table 5A.14).

While comparisons can be made with last year, care needs to be taken as there may have been changes in the methods employed. The largest increase in real expenditure per person over the past year occurred in the Victoria, where real expenditure on crime investigation rose by \$21 per person (from \$47 to \$68) (table 5A.55).

The largest decrease in real expenditure per person over the past year occurred in the ACT, where real expenditure fell by \$17 per person (from \$86 to \$69). Nationally, real expenditure on crime investigations remained at about \$55 per person (table 5A.55).

5.7 Road safety and traffic management

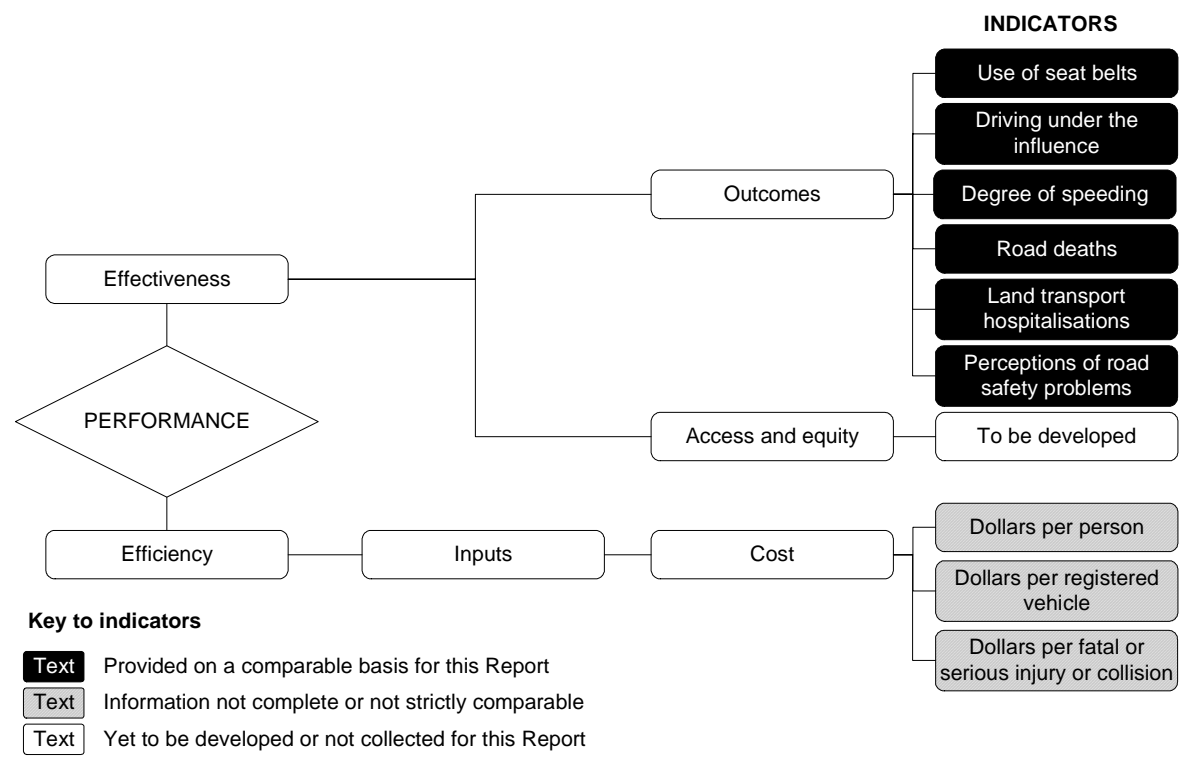
This SDA captures the role of police in maximising road safety through targeted operations to reduce the incidence of traffic offences and through attendance at, and investigation of, road traffic accidents and incidents. Activities typically include:

- monitoring road user behaviour, including speed and alcohol-related traffic operations;
- undertaking general traffic management functions;
- attending and investigating road traffic accidents and incidents; and
- improving public education and awareness of traffic and road safety issues.

Framework of performance indicators

The performance of the police 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 2003 Report (figure 5.35). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.35 Performance indicators for road safety and traffic management



Key performance indicator results

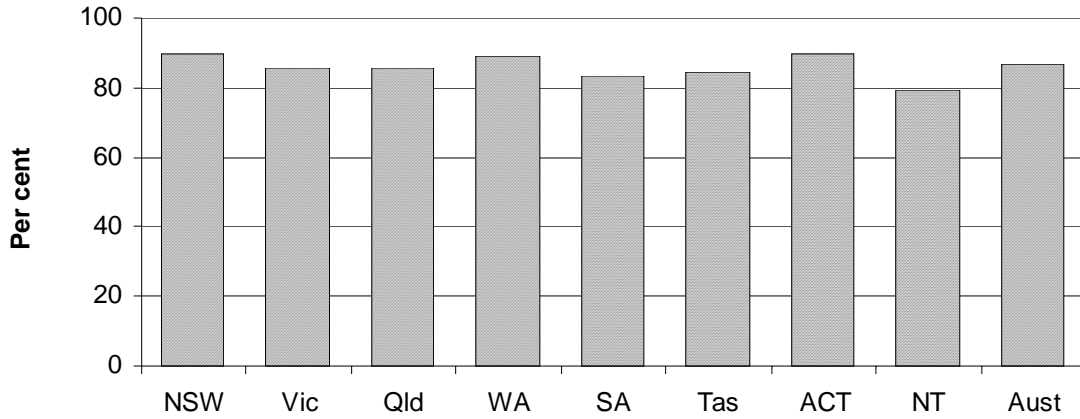
Comparable data on actual levels of seat belt use, speeding, and driving while under the influence of alcohol or drugs are not available for reporting; therefore, the performance indicators are based on responses from the NSCSP. For contextual purposes, 88.3 per cent of the respondents stated that they had driven a motor vehicle in the past 12 months, while 11.7 per cent stated they had not (table 5A.56).

Use of seat belts

An aim of police road safety programs is to influence road-users' behaviour, such as to increase the use of seat belts to reduce the risk of injury from road crashes. This involves promoting the use of seat belts, speed reduction and sober driving.

Nationally, in 2001-02, 87.0 per cent of people aged 18 years and over who had driven in the last 12 months said they 'never' travelled in a car without wearing a seat belt. This ranged from 90.4 per cent in the ACT to 79.3 per cent in the NT. (figure 5.36).

Figure 5.36 People who had driven in the last 12 months and ‘never’ travel in a car without wearing a seatbelt, drivers aged 18 years and over, 2001-02

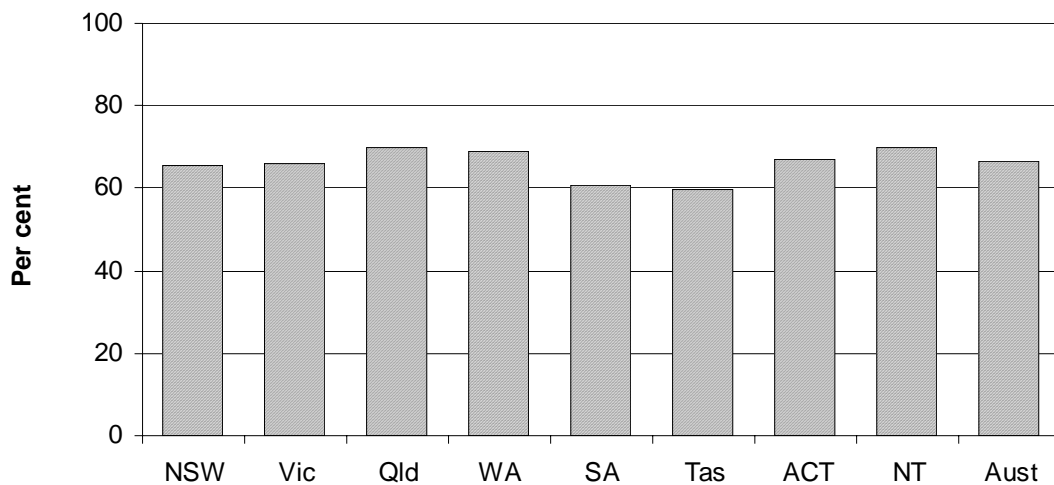


Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.57.

Road safety behaviour — speed

Nationally, 66.4 per cent of people aged 18 years and over who had driven in the last 12 months reported travelling more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit ‘sometimes’ or more often. Across jurisdictions, the proportion ranged from 70.1 per cent in Queensland and the NT to 59.8 per cent in Tasmania (figure 5.37).

Figure 5.37 People who indicated that they had driven in the last 12 months more than 10km/h above the speed limit ‘sometimes’ or more often, drivers aged 18 years and over, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.58.

Road safety behaviour — alcohol

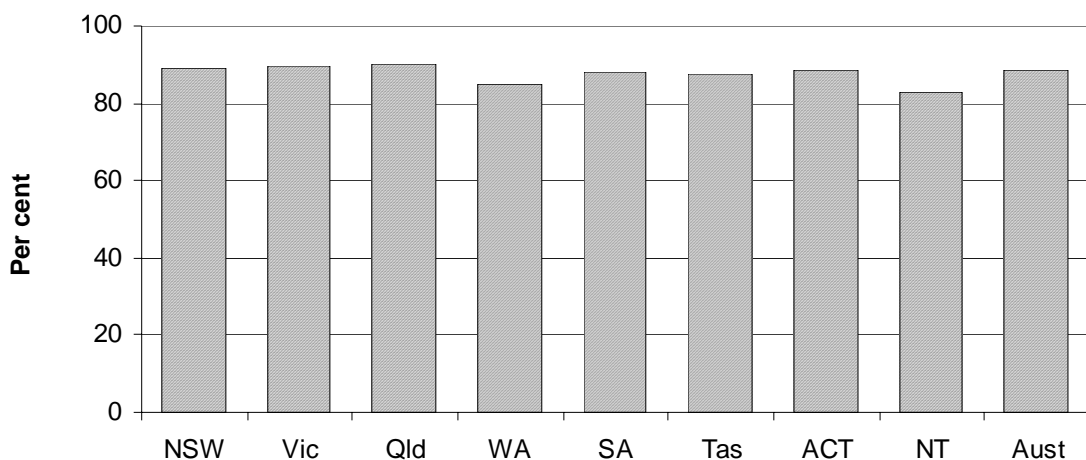
Nationally, in 2001-02, 88.8 per cent of people aged 18 years and over who had driven in the last 12 months indicated that they had ‘never’ driven when possibly over the 0.05 blood alcohol limit. This proportion ranged from 90.1 per cent in Queensland to 83.0 per cent in the NT (figure 5.38).

Road deaths

One aim of policing is to contribute to a reduction in road crashes and related road deaths and hospitalisations. The performance of the police in helping to minimise deaths and crashes that require a person to be admitted to hospital can affect the demand for many other government services (for example, hospital services). Nationally, there were 1746 road deaths in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, this number ranged from 570 in NSW to 13 in the ACT (table 5A.60).

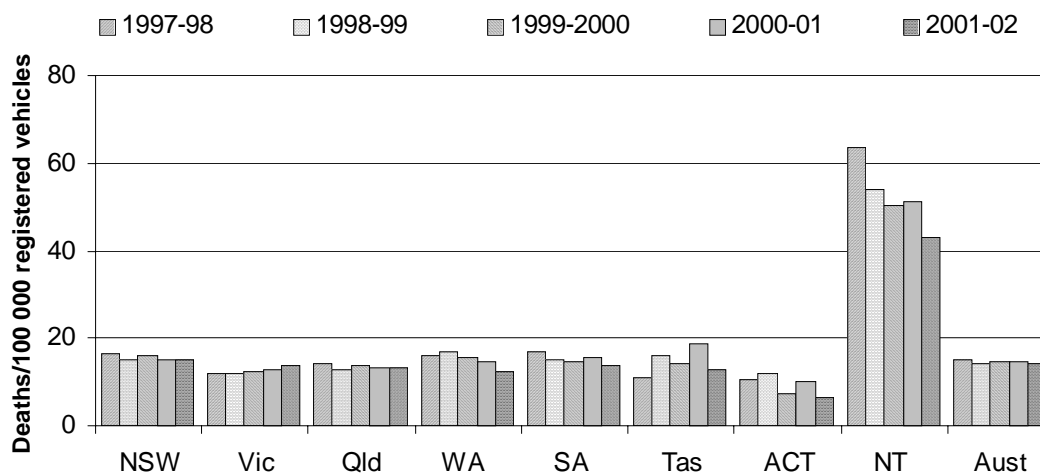
There were 14 road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles in Australia in 2001-02, ranging from 43 in the NT to six in the ACT. The largest fall in deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles over the period 1997-98 to 2001-02 occurred in the NT (down 21 deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles) followed by the ACT (down five deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles). The only increases in deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles over this period occurred in Tasmania and Victoria (both up by two deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles) (figure 5.39).

Figure 5.38 People who had driven in the last 12 months who indicated that they had ‘never’ driven while possibly over 0.05 blood alcohol level, drivers aged 18 years and over, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.59.

Figure 5.39 Road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles



Source: Australian Transport Safety Bureau, *Road Fatalities Australia*, June 2002 (unpublished); ABS *Motor Vehicle Census 2001* (unpublished); table 5A.60.

Land transport hospitalisations

Land transport hospitalisations are reported for the first time in the 2003 Report. Data are available for 2000-01 and 2001-02. Land transport hospitalisations record the number of people hospitalised due to traffic accidents which are likely to have required police attendance. There were 48 432 land transport hospitalisations in Australia in 2001-02, ranging from 15 871 in NSW to 518 in the ACT (table 5A.61).

Land hospitalisations per registered vehicle

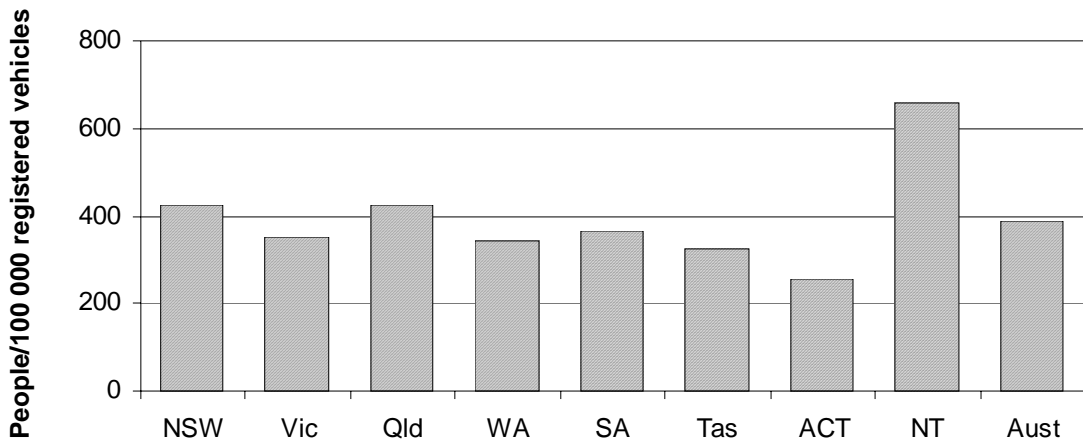
There were 388 land hospitalisations per 100 000 registered vehicles in Australia during 2001-02, ranging from 657 in the NT to 255 in the ACT (figure 5.40).

Cost of SDA/number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions

This indicator is reported for the first time in this Report. Expenditure by road safety and traffic management SDA data were not available for Queensland or Tasmania for 2001-02. The number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions is defined as the number of road deaths plus the number of land transport hospitalisations. Across jurisdictions who provided data, the cost per fatal or serious injury or collision in 2001-02 ranged from \$15 069 in WA to \$7 560 in Victoria (figure 5.41). In all jurisdictions which provided data for two consecutive years, the

cost per fatal or serious injury or collision rose. This trend could be influenced by higher expenditure on the SDA or a fall in the number of road deaths and/or land transport hospitalisations. The ACT was the only jurisdiction to experience a fall in both road deaths and land transport hospitalisations in 2001-02, while Victoria was the only jurisdiction to experience a rise in both categories over the period (tables 5A.60 and 5A.61).

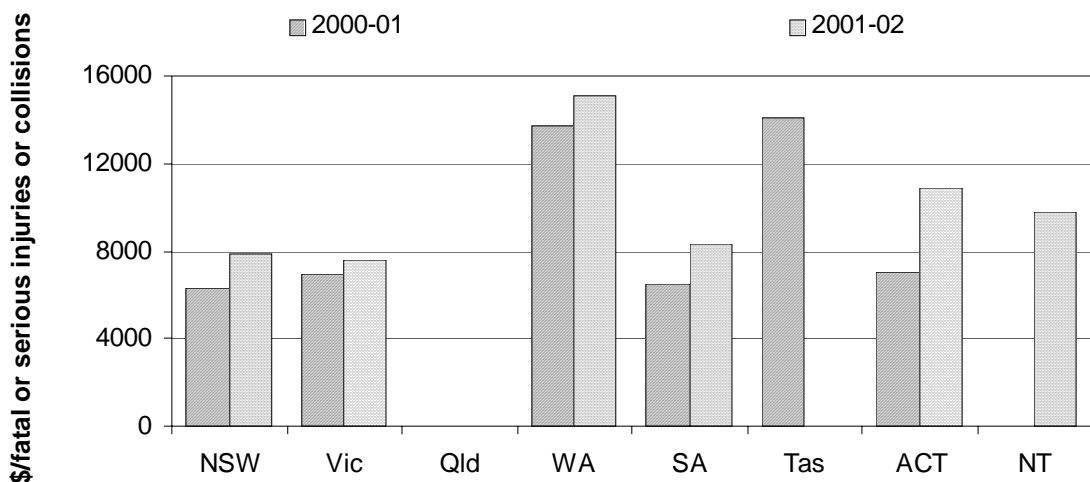
Figure 5.40 Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle, 2001-02^a



^a Registered vehicle estimates are based on the 2000-01 ABS Motor Vehicle Census (the last Census to be undertaken).

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), *Land Transport Hospitalisations 2002* (unpublished); ABS *Motor Vehicle Census 2001* (unpublished); table 5A.61.

Figure 5.41 Cost of SDA/number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions

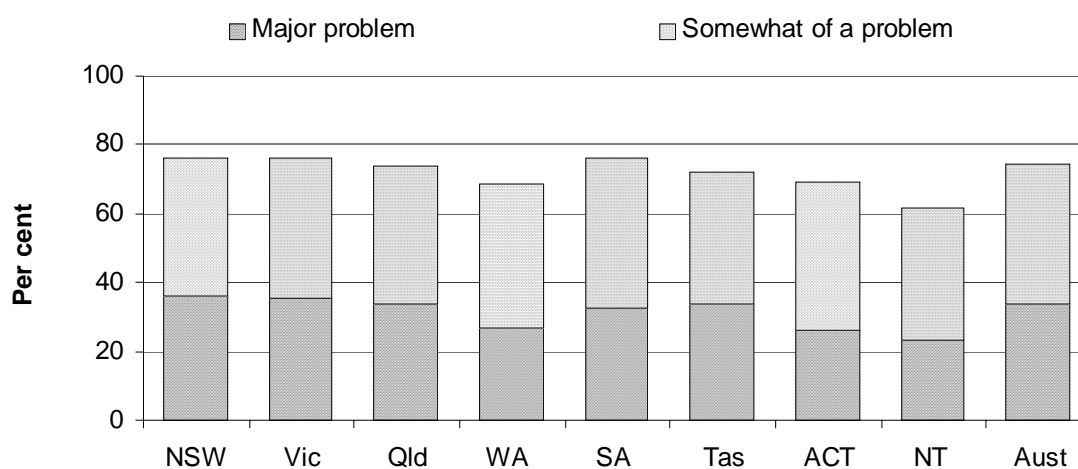


Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.62; AIHW, *Land Transport Hospitalisations 2002* (unpublished); Australian Transport Safety Bureau, *Road Fatalities Australia*, June 2002 (unpublished).

Perceptions of road safety problems

Nationally, 74.7 per cent of people aged 18 years and over believed speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' within their local area in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, this observation ranged from 76.3 per cent in NSW to 61.2 per cent in the NT (figure 5.42).

Figure 5.42 People aged 18 years and over: proportion who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood, 2001-02



Source: ACPR National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished); table 5A.42.

Efficiency

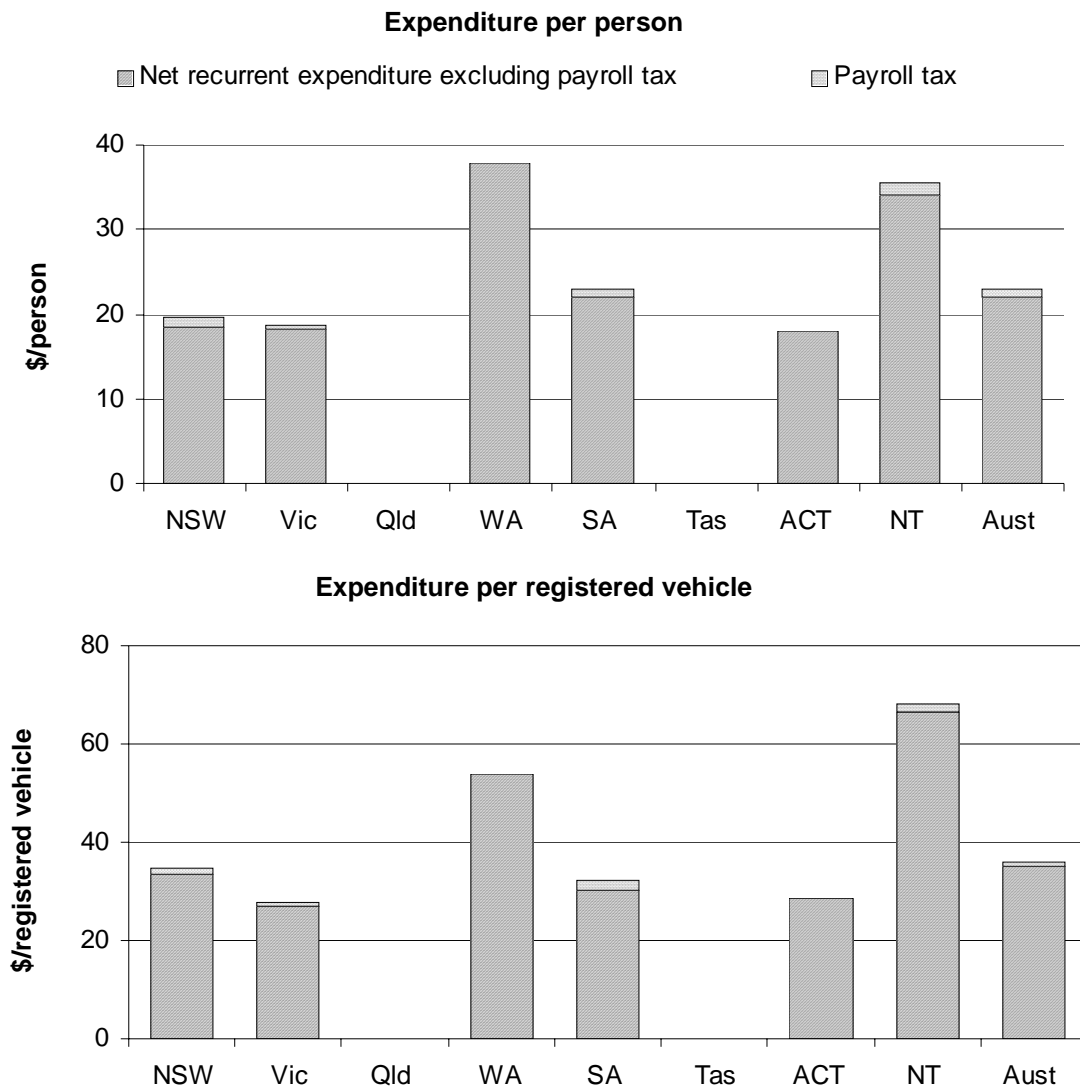
Of the jurisdictions that were able to provide data in 2001-02, estimated expenditure on road safety and traffic management nationally was \$23 per person. It ranged from \$38 per person in WA to \$18 per person in the ACT. Estimated expenditure on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle also varied across jurisdictions, from \$68 in the NT to \$28 in the ACT and Victoria (figure 5.43).

Nationally, expenditure on road safety and traffic management as a proportion of total police expenditure per person was 9.6 per cent. Expenditure on road safety and traffic management as a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure per person ranged from 14.8 per cent in WA to 6.5 per cent in the NT (table 5A.14).

While comparisons can be made with last year, care needs to be taken as there may have been changes in the methods employed. The largest increase in real expenditure per person on road safety and traffic management over the past year occurred in SA, which increased real expenditure by \$6 per person (from \$17 to

\$23) (table 5A.62). All jurisdictions increased real expenditure in comparison with the previous year. Nationally, real expenditure on road safety and traffic management increased by \$4 per person (from \$19 to \$23) (table 5A.62).

Figure 5.43 **Expenditure on road safety and traffic management, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e}**



^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 mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Calculated by allocating payroll tax in the same proportion as expenditure on salaries and payments for each SDA. ^c For Queensland and Tasmania, data are available only for all key SDAs combined. ^d WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^e The Australian total includes payroll tax where applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.62.

5.8 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; and
- conducting court and prisoner security.

The role of police services in conducting court and prisoner security differs across jurisdictions.

Framework of performance indicators

The performance of the police in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that includes the number 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 2003 Report (figure 5.44). For data that are not considered strictly 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

Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations

Nationally, there were 35 deaths in police custody and custody-related operations in 2001 (up from 25 in 2000). These comprised 27 non-Indigenous, five Indigenous and three 'unclassified' deaths. Across jurisdictions, the number of non-Indigenous deaths ranged from 15 deaths in NSW to no deaths in the ACT and the NT (table 5.3). There were no Indigenous deaths in 2001 in any jurisdictions apart from WA and SA, which had two and three deaths respectively (table 5.3).

Figure 5.44 Performance indicators for services to the judicial process

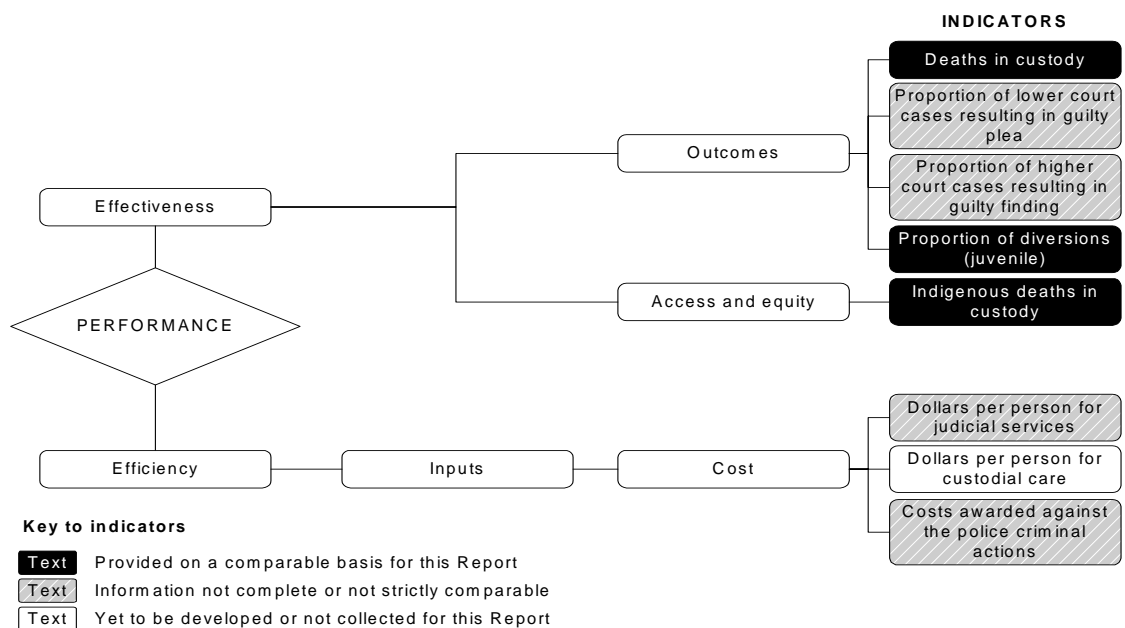


Table 5.3 Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations^{a, b, c}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Non-Indigenous deaths									
1997	10	6	1	2	1	–	–	3	23
1998	9	7	2	1	–	–	–	–	19
1999	4	4	3	2	2	–	–	4	20
2000	12	1	2	1	4	–	–	–	20
2001	15	5	4	1	1	1	–	–	27
Indigenous deaths									
1997	3	–	–	2	–	–	–	1	6
1998	2	–	1	1	–	–	–	2	6
1999	1	–	1	3	–	–	–	1	6
2000	2	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	5
2001	–	–	–	2	3	–	–	–	5

^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 Australian Federal Police (national, not the ACT) death in custody in 1999. ^c For 2001, three deaths for Victoria have yet to be classified as either Non-Indigenous or Indigenous. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology *Deaths in Custody in Australia, 2002* (unpublished); table 5A.63.

Nationally, between 1997 and 2001, the number of deaths in police custody and custody-related operations increased from 29 to 35. While non-Indigenous deaths rose from 23 to 27, Indigenous deaths fell from six to five over the period. For 2001, three deaths for Victoria are still to be classified (table 5A.63).

More detail on the number of deaths in police custody and custody-related operations, over the period 1997-2001, appears in table 5A.63.

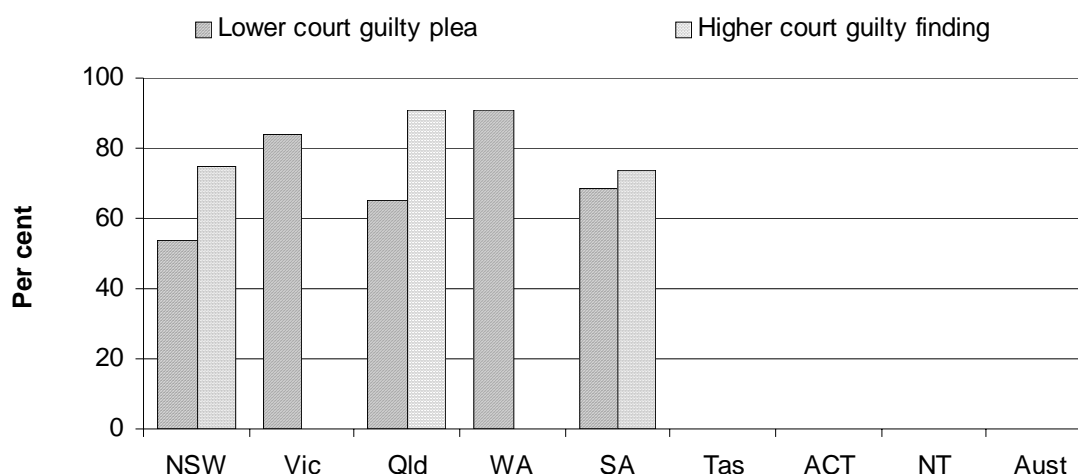
Outcomes of court cases

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. In 2001-02, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT were unable to provide any data on the outcome of court cases, whilst Victoria and WA were unable to provide data on the outcome of higher court cases. Data for NSW relate to the 2001 calendar year.

Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea

The proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea ranged from 91.0 per cent in WA to 54.0 per cent in NSW in 2001-02 (figure 5.45). All jurisdictions that provided data on the outcome of lower court cases included guilty findings and guilty pleas.

Figure 5.45 Outcomes of court cases, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d}



^a All jurisdictions' data include guilty findings and guilty pleas. ^b For lower court cases in Queensland, total matters (denominator) include those matters committed to a higher court, heard summarily, dismissed or withdrawn, and matters where a warrant has been issued. Results are based on individual charges. ^c For NSW, data relate to the 2001 calendar year. ^d Data are not available for Tasmania, the ACT or the NT.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.64.

Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea

The proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty finding ranged from 90.7 per cent in Queensland to 74.0 per cent in SA (figure 5.45). All jurisdictions that provided data on the outcome of higher court cases included guilty findings and guilty pleas.

Juvenile diversions

When police apprehend offenders, they have a variety of options available. The police 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).

Diversionsary mechanisms include cautions and attendances at community and family conferences. These options can be appealing 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 juvenile diversion ratio is defined as the proportion 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. The term 'diverted' includes diversions of offenders away from the courts by way of community conference; diversionsary conference; formal cautioning by police; family conferences; and other diversionsary programs (for example, drug assessment/treatment). 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, issued warnings or infringement notices) are excluded. This is the standard definition used by most jurisdictions in compiling their data.

Across jurisdictions, the proportion of juvenile offenders undergoing diversionsary programs ranged from 66 per cent in Tasmania to 30 per cent in Victoria in 2001-02 (table 5A.65). It should be noted, however, that there are variations across jurisdictions over what is determined to be a 'diversion' and hence, variations from the standard definition. For instance, the large proportion of diversions in the NT are the result of the inclusion of verbal warnings which are not included in other jurisdictions.

The greatest increase in the use of juvenile diversions over the past year occurred in Tasmania, where the proportion of juvenile offenders diverted rose from 59 per cent to 66 per cent. The greatest decrease in the use of juvenile diversions over the past

year was recorded in the NT, where the proportion of juvenile offenders diverted fell from 80 per cent to 57 per cent. This fall however was primarily the result of a significant decrease in the use of verbal warnings in favour of family conferences in the NT during the past year (table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Juvenile diversions as a proportion of juvenile offenders (per cent)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i> ^b	<i>Qld</i> ^c	<i>WA</i> ^d	<i>SA</i> ^e	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i> ^f
1998-99	8	na	42	42	53	49	32	na
1999-2000	70	32	43	41	53	50	36	na
2000-01	51	na	43	45	53	59	48	80
2001-02	54	30	44	44	49	66	51	57

^a 'Juvenile diversion' is defined in the accompanying text. ^b Data for 2000-01 not available due to Victoria Police work bans. ^c For Queensland, data also include cautions and community conferences. ^d 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. ^e Includes diversion by way of: formal cautioning by police, and family conferences. ^f For the NT, data also include verbal warnings. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.65.

Efficiency

Nationally, of the jurisdictions able to provide data in 2001-02, estimated expenditure on services to the judicial process was \$33 per person. It ranged from \$85 per person in the NT to \$15 per person in the ACT (figure 5.46).

Expenditure on judicial processes as a proportion of total police expenditure per person nationally, was 13.5 per cent. Expenditure on judicial processes as a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure per person, ranged from 17.3 per cent in Victoria to 6.6 per cent in the ACT (table 5A.14).

While comparisons can be made with last year, care needs to be taken as there may have been changes in the methods employed. The largest increase in real expenditure on services to the judicial process over the past year occurred in SA, where real expenditure rose by \$8 (from \$20 to \$28) (table 5A.66).

The largest decrease in real expenditure was in Victoria and the ACT, which both fell by \$8 per person. Nationally, real expenditure on services to the judicial process increased by \$2 per person (\$31 to \$33) (table 5A.66).

Another indicator of efficiency is the court costs awarded against the police in criminal actions. Court costs will generally be awarded when a criminal action

Figure 5.46 **Expenditure per person on services to the judicial process, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e}**



^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 mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Calculated by allocating payroll tax in the same proportion as expenditure on salaries and payments for each SDA. ^c For Queensland and Tasmania, data are only available for all key SDAs combined. ^d WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^e The Australian total includes payroll tax where applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table A.2; table 5A.66.

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 2001-02, the ACT had the highest cost awarded against the police per person (35 cents) and Tasmania had the lowest (2 cents) (table 5.5).

Table 5.5 **Real costs awarded against the police in criminal actions (2001-02 dollars)^a**

	Unit	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT
Total costs									
1998-99	\$'000	na	1 697	196	947	384	38	na	na
1999-2000	\$'000	na	1 394	206	417	394	24	190	na
2000-01	\$'000	505	na	158	432	305	4	98	na
2001-02	\$'000	520	1 203	206	538	501	9	114	na
Total costs per person									
1998-99	\$	na	0.36	0.06	0.52	0.26	0.08	na	na
1999-2000	\$	na	0.29	0.06	0.22	0.26	0.05	0.60	na
2000-01	\$	0.08	na	0.04	0.24	0.20	0.01	0.31	na
2001-02	\$	0.08	0.25	0.06	0.28	0.33	0.02	0.35	na

^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.67.

5.9 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). It is acknowledged that in some instances, a clear cut breakdown of activities into these four categories is not always possible, so a 'best fit' scenario applies.

In some instances, it is not possible for jurisdictions to allocate particular activities or costs to the four SDAs already reported in this chapter. Therefore, 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 (refer to table 5A.10 for activities included in 'other services'). For this Report, only WA and the ACT have included expenditure under this category. WA spent \$5.59 per person and the ACT \$2.14 per person on the SDA (table 5.6). As a proportion of each jurisdiction's total police expenditure, 'other services' represented 2.2 per cent of WA expenditure and 0.9 per cent of expenditure in the ACT in 2001-02 (table 5A.14).

Table 5.6 Real expenditure per person on 'other services' (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld ^c	Wa ^d	SA	Tas ^c	ACT ^{d, e}	NT	Aus ^f
Net recurrent expenditure excluding payroll tax									
1999-2000	–	–	na	7.52	–	na	–	na	0.79
2000-01	–	–	na	6.48	–	na	5.06	na	0.89
2001-02	–	–	na	5.59	–	na	2.14	na	0.74
Payroll tax									
1999-2000	–	–	na	..	–	na	..	na	–
2000-01	–	–	na	..	–	na	..	na	–
2001-02	–	–	na	..	–	na	..	na	–
Total									
1999-2000	–	–	na	7.52	–	na	–	na	0.79
2000-01	–	–	na	6.48	–	na	5.06	na	0.89
2001-02	–	–	na	5.59	–	na	2.14	na	0.74

^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 mixes of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Calculated by multiplying the proportion of expenditure on salaries and payments for each SDA by the total payroll tax expenditure. ^c For Queensland and Tasmania data are available only for all key SDAs combined. ^d WA and the ACT are exempt from payroll tax. ^e In the ACT, 'other services' consist of regulatory activities. ^f The Australian total includes payroll tax where applicable. na Not available. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments, (unpublished); table A.2; table 5A.68.

5.10 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 5A1–5A.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 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 were relatively small, as capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost. A key message from the study was that the adoption of national uniform accounting standards across all service areas would be a desirable outcome from the perspective of the Review. The results are discussed in more detail in chapter 2.

5.11 Future directions in performance reporting

Over the past two years, the Police Working Group has examined more robust and suitable ways to measure levels of efficiency in the range of services that police jurisdictions provide to the community. The Police Working Group has identified the areas of ‘community safety and support’ and ‘road safety and traffic management’ as areas where initial developmental work can be undertaken. It is possible that 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 partial efficiency measures.

Policing services are often delivered contemporaneously, covering one SDA or even extending over several SDAs. For example, police response to a call for service 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, police services are examining alternative methods for developing efficiency indicators. The approach is to identify issues/problems of prime importance and the activities required to redress the problems. Measures can then be made of the time/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

For the 'community safety and support' SDA, three areas of prime concern to the community were identified from the community attitudes to policing survey. Further research reveals the main services that people seek from police in relation to each of these areas of concern are:

- response capability: be contactable and attend as necessary;
- family (domestic) violence: attend in a timely manner, ensure safety of victim and follow up; and
- street and public order: 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 efficiency of communications operations;
- cost of domestic violence/domestic violence victims: a measure of efficiency of police domestic violence services;
- cost of response service/(weighted) calls attended: a measure of efficiency in response capability; and
- cost of targeted street patrols/weighted actions: a measure of efficiency in public order.

The Police Practitioners Group and the Police Working Group meetings of June 2002 agreed that the indicator — cost of response service/number of calls despatched in the metropolitan areas — would be a meaningful, informative and viable indicator to develop in the short term.

Data are already available in several jurisdictions and it is hoped that data will be available in all jurisdictions by 2004. The next stage in the indicator development is to decide on a precise definition for the number of calls despatched in metropolitan areas and an assessment of collectability of appropriate data across jurisdictions.

Road safety and traffic management

The underlying objective for all police services in relation to road safety is to reduce the severity and incidence of road collisions through an improvement in road use behaviour. By definition, the efficiency of service delivery is directly related to its effectiveness, in as much as resource use needs to be measured against the results achieved.

While the specific police activities that contribute to the achievement of the output are similar, road safety outputs vary across jurisdictions. In addition, it has proven difficult to separate the contribution of police-specific outputs from outputs of other agencies that lead to government outcomes. This is particularly relevant in those jurisdictions where an integrated approach to road safety encompasses a number of agencies.

Victoria is undertaking an output evaluation for road safety and traffic management. It is anticipated that the Working Group may be able to pick up on this work. The objectives of the work include examination of the extent to which government outcomes and objectives are being achieved, the impact of specific outputs in meeting those outcomes and objectives, the relevance and appropriateness of key performance indicators and the appropriateness of the output mix.

The objectives of the review are to determine the appropriateness of the price structure and the final price paid by government for each output and to consider the availability of alternative outputs or output providers that might more efficiently deliver required government outcomes.

It is anticipated that the outcomes of the Victorian output evaluation will assist the Working Group in focusing on those areas of police-specific activity where a clear link can be made between the level of results achieved and the resources deployed.

Other future developments

The Queensland Working Group representative will prepare a discussion paper on a domestic violence indicator to be considered for the 2004 Report.

The NSW Working Group representative will maintain a watching brief on ABS progress of the judicial support indicator:

Cost of judicial support SDA/number of offenders (ABS offender based statistics)

This indicator is seen as an interim measure with a target date for the 2005 Report.

The WA Working Group representative will prepare a discussion paper on the crime investigation SDA examining the potential indicator:

Cost of crime investigation SDA/number of cases initiated.

The development of this indicator will be considered for the 2004 Report.

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 are therefore subject to sampling error. The data obtained from a sample may be different from the 'true' data which 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 by chance from the 'true value' because only a sample was taken. If the survey is performed repeatedly, the difference between the sample estimate and the population value will be less than one standard error about 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, 95 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, 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 the relative standard error.

In table 5.7, relative standard errors are presented for various estimates of the number of people. Some tables in this Report present the results as a percentage of the total population. To calculate a relative standard error for these cases, the percentage estimate must be converted back to an estimate of the number of people. Tables throughout the AC Nielsen survey show the estimated population sizes for the questions in the survey.

Table 5.7 Relative standard error of estimates for the AC Nielsen National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing by jurisdiction

<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 should be treated with caution and viewed as merely indicative of the magnitude involved. – Nil or rounded to Zero.

Source: AC Nielsen National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing (unpublished).

5.13 Jurisdictions' comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data which 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

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The mission of the NSW Police is ‘to have 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, designed to ensure all people can freely enjoy their lawful pursuits, is undertaken with the input and cooperation of the community and other lead agencies, both government and non-government.

Key performance indicators (KPIs) used by the NSW Police include many of the performance indicators shown in this Report. At the corporate level, overall ‘success’ is measured in terms of general community satisfaction and confidence in police. Crime trends, alleged offenders proceeded against and road fatalities and injuries are also used as KPIs.

Local Area Commands (LACs) are at the heart of service delivery and each LAC is establishing a Police Accountability Community Team (PACT) as a forum to discuss issues of local concern and for the development of local solutions. Through PACT, the LAC is held accountable to the community it serves for the identification of problem ‘hotspots’ and to report on strategies for increasing police visibility at required times.

The NSW Police has also implemented a Command Management Framework (CMF), which is a risk-based self assessment process. The CMF puts an increased emphasis on behaviours of police, ensuring compliance with ethical crime investigation and intelligence-based crime prevention. It also focuses on effective people and resource management. As the CMF allows for local risk assessment, it relies on the continual evaluation of information and performance assessment. Crime Management Units at each LAC are responsible for the analysis of information and intelligence and the development of local strategies and initiatives.

Accountability in the NSW Police is assessed by internal benchmarking, both against past trends and by the comparison of LACs. Comparison with other States/Territories is considered less useful, as the information is neither timely nor sufficiently consistent to be used operationally.

LACs are encouraged to share good practice and innovation through the Operations and Crime Review (OCR) process. At OCRs, the Commissioner and Executive Team question Commanders and their management team regarding the implementation of business plans, crime trends and people and resource management issues. The OCR provides an opportunity for local commands to discuss issues affecting performance, and to develop agreed action plans to address the issues. The same KPIs are often included as background to these discussions.”

Victorian Government comments



Victoria Police is committed to listening to and working with the community to prevent and combat crime, improving public safety and delivering leading edge policing services. During the year, Victoria Police realigned sections of the force to improve service levels to the public and to build stronger community partnerships across the State. It introduced a streamlined organisational structure to place more emphasis on regional issues, education, forensic science, surveillance and intelligence gathering techniques.

Victoria Police remains committed to the issues of major concern to all Victorians — crime control, safer homes and public places, a reduction in violence, motor vehicle theft and improved road safety. In partnership with the community, Victoria Police implemented a number of innovative, intelligence-led policing strategies as part of an intensive focus on critical crime areas.

This partnership approach to policing has had a demonstrable impact across the State, with targeted strategies reversing previous crime trends to record significant reductions in a number of offence categories. In 2001-02, significant reductions were recorded in robbery, aggravated burglary and motor vehicle theft. Overall recorded crime, expressed per 100 000 population, decreased by 4 per cent in 2001-02; property crime decreased by 5.8 per cent and drug offences decreased by 10.7 per cent. This drop in crime, the largest in eight years, confirms Victoria's reputation as Australia's safest State.

As part of an enhanced focus on accountability, the Australian Institute of Criminology undertook a comprehensive review of Victoria Police crime statistics. The review confirmed that Victoria Police crime data were accurate and reliable.

Victoria Police continues to enjoy some of the strongest levels of public support in Australia. The number of public complaints against police decreased by 14.2 per cent, from a total of 605 in 2000-01 to 519 in 2001-02. To safeguard this community trust, Victoria Police introduced a range of proactive initiatives designed to engender ethical policing behaviour and to ensure greater transparency and accountability. The establishment of the Major Drug Investigation Division and the introduction of new anti corruption mechanisms will ensure the highest policing standards are maintained in drug law enforcement.

In consultation with the community, Victoria Police is developing a blueprint for service delivery that links the needs and expectations of all Victorians to a process of continual organisational improvement. The *Five-Year Strategic Plan* will articulate a new approach to policing and law enforcement with a strong focus on harnessing new technology, forensic sciences, people development, knowledge management, ethics and accountability.

Victoria Police will continue to implement evidence-based, innovative crime prevention and investigation strategies to meet the policing challenges ahead and improve quality of life for all Victorians.



Queensland Government comments

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The Service provided an integrated security operation in support of the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM), a Royal visit and a visit by former United States President, Bill Clinton. This was an enormous undertaking with real associated risks, heightened by the international environment at the time. Two years of planning went into preparing for these events. CHOGM was originally scheduled to take place in October 2001, but was postponed until March 2002 in response to the events of 11 September 2001. CHOGM involved the largest security operation undertaken in the 138 year history of the Queensland Police Service.

The Commissioner implemented a process of operational performance review to focus attention on operational performance and to improve operational effectiveness. Each of the service's 29 districts is reviewed twice a year, once in headquarters and once within the relevant region. The process is being extended to include all headquarters, commands and divisions. The operational performance reviews have already resulted in a greater emphasis within the Service on planning, coordination, analysis and problem-oriented, intelligence-led policing.

The Queensland Crime and Misconduct Commission was formed on 1 January 2002 with the merger of the Criminal Justice Commission and the Queensland Crime Commission. A revised process for managing discipline within the Service has led to all matters of police misconduct being devolved to the Service for resolution under the new legislative scheme.

The Service's ability to investigate crime effectively was enhanced by the establishment of the national CrimTrac system and the Queensland Government's allocation of funding to support the continuing Statewide implementation of DNA analysis.

Following extensive consultation with a broad range of its internal and external clients, the Service developed and launched a Client Service Charter to set service delivery standards.

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Western Australian Government comments

“ The *WA Police Service Strategic Plan 2001–2006* was officially launched in August 2001. A number of key issues have been identified for action to achieve the direction outlined in the Plan. These include:

- tackling drug-related crime;
- better clarifying our role in crime prevention;
- utilising and managing technology;
- focusing on whole-of-government partnerships to tackle problem areas, including the need to address the over-representation of Aboriginal people in the justice system;
- creating a workforce that reflects the diversity of the community; and
- promoting a public image of professionalism and integrity.

The WA Police Service has already made progress against some of the key strategic goals identified in the Plan. As part of better clarifying our role in crime prevention, a ‘Statement of Direction’ on youth has been developed. The Statement is a critical step in developing a comprehensive Youth Policy. It allows the agency to begin forming the direction it intends to take in relation to its future role with youth, and to provide the context against which to review current youth strategies.

Additionally, the recent independent Inquiry into Response by Government Agencies to Complaints of Family Violence and Child Abuse in Aboriginal Communities has highlighted issues relating to service delivery to Aboriginal communities within WA. The Inquiry coincided with the WA Police Service’s own review of service delivery to remote Aboriginal communities, and has provided impetus for a more collaborative approach across-government. The feasibility of providing permanent policing services to many of the State’s remote Aboriginal communities is being explored and will form a major part of the Government’s response to the Inquiry.

During the year, the State Government announced the establishment of the Royal Commission into whether there has been any corrupt or criminal conduct by Western Australian police officers. There is no doubt the Inquiry will have a major impact on the agency. It is anticipated that public confidence may diminish in the face of allegations of corruption and criminal conduct by some police officers. While this will be a difficult period for the agency, a focus on its role of protecting and serving the community will be maintained, despite likely distractions.”

South Australian Government comments

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The new SAPOL *Future Directions Strategy 2003–2006* will continue to set the organisational framework for effective service delivery through our mission of ‘working together to reassure and protect the community from crime and disorder’. The Future Directions Strategy features the SA policing model, which outlines and defines the organisational core structures, core strategies, crime reduction strategy and problem-solving approach.

Our problem-solving approach is not restricted to crime-related issues. Supported by a timely and effective use of intelligence reflecting international best practice, SAPOL will move forward, consolidating and enhancing previous organisational changes and exploiting the use of technology to continuously improve our services to the community.

Strengthening our contact and partnership with local communities under the Future Directions Strategy further enhances community satisfaction with our policing services. The positive results of the AC Nielsen community satisfaction survey (82.1 per cent surveyed were satisfied with South Australia Police support of community programs and 78.2 per cent were generally satisfied with our police services) illustrate a successful commitment to service delivery.

While policing services are delivered in a changeable and dynamic environment, SAPOL remains committed to maintaining and improving community safety. The overall reduction now evident in reported crime in the financial year 2001-2002 (*South Australian Police Annual Report 2001-02*) is encouraging and public order offending remains the highest priority. SAPOL will continue to examine recidivism among offenders and undertake operations to reduce repeat offending.

Illicit drug use remains a significant contributor to the level of crime. SAPOL released an Illicit Drug Strategy in May 2002, consistent with national and State strategic frameworks. Under this strategy, we will investigate new ways to vigorously detect and prosecute persons driving motor vehicles under the influence of alcohol and other drugs, for example cannabis and amphetamines.

SAPOL recognises that acts of terrorism may be perpetrated through significant criminal undertakings. Accordingly, we are reviewing our capacity to respond to, investigate and prosecute those responsible for such incidents. This approach includes the requirement to manage and coordinate major emergency incidents.

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Tasmanian Government comments

“ During the ‘*Tasmania Together*’ consultation phase, Tasmanians indicated they wanted to live in a community where they feel safe and are safe. Policing strategies and corporate priorities have focused on a strong visible police profile aimed at improving the effectiveness of service delivery to meet these aspirations. Community surveys confirm that for most Tasmanians these are the appropriate strategies. The vast majority of Tasmanians were satisfied with their police and believe that they perform their tasks professionally, treating people fairly. Most Tasmanians also felt safe in their homes and in public places.

Tasmania Police continued to improve its overall productivity and performance across all service delivery areas, particularly in the area of crime reduction. Total offences decreased by 13 per cent, with the largest decrease being for property offences, including motor vehicle stealing, shoplifting, burglary of buildings, stealing and damage to property. Supporting frontline police has been a key factor in the department’s improved performance. This has involved:

- a major upgrade and refurbishment of the marine and search and rescue fleets;
- a commitment to ongoing electronic communications and technology improvements, allowing police enhanced access to information;
- strengthening of police powers through enactment of new legislation through Parliament;
- acquisition of better equipment and refurbishment of police accommodation; and
- recruitment of additional scientists to the Crimtrac program, allowing for enhanced support to police crime scene personnel as well as the collection of additional DNA samples to be analysed.

Tasmania Police has continued to establish a very professional working relationship with local government councils. Standard reports on a range of police activities will be provided to local government in keeping with the Partnership Agreements, enhancing the process of community accountability by police. In the past 12 months, the partnership with the University of Tasmania has achieved some significant results for both organisations. A postgraduate program which includes the graduate certificate, graduate diploma and master of police studies already has over 30 police officers and State servants enrolled. This strategic partnership will be further strengthened by the establishment of the Tasmanian Institute of Law Enforcement Studies, which will focus on research in the key areas of law enforcement, policing and governance.

The Tasmanian Emergency Risk Management project will be completed with a final report due later this year. The outcomes of this activity will greatly enhance Tasmania’s preparedness to cope with natural and some technological disasters by identifying the strategies by which the State can minimise risks to the community.”

Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ ACT Policing has made considerable progress in disrupting patterns of criminal activity in the ACT. Most notably, and contrary to national trends, has been the reduction from 37 370 property offences in 2000-01 to 30 656 during 2001-02. The ACT recorded a 23 per cent decrease in burglaries and an overall reduction of 22 per cent in robberies (both armed and unarmed).

Similar progress has been made in relation to motor vehicle theft offences. Two years ago, the ACT was the highest ranked jurisdiction in Australia, recording levels of motor vehicle theft offences per 100 000 population which were markedly higher than all other jurisdictions. Since that time, the ACT has experienced significant reductions for two consecutive years. The combined effect of this success equates to a reduction of 36 per cent in this type of offence. This outstanding achievement is the result of targeted operations and sustained efforts by police.

The role of crime prevention in effective crime management has remained a major focus for ACT Policing. ACT Policing is refining and expanding its preventative focus to address the underlying causes of crime and to implement, in cooperation with other agencies, programs aimed at educating possible victims of crime, risk reduction strategies and dissuading potential offenders from committing offences.

The policing of the ACT post-11 September 2001, has been undertaken in a time of heightened security and community expectations. ACT Policing reassessed its operational capacity to respond to significant events following the terrorist attacks in the United States and subsequently restructured its specialist response services to form a consolidated Specialist Response and Security Group. This group comprises multi skilled teams of men and women who are equipped to provide operational support at incidents involving a high risk of violence. In addition, they will conduct activities in the areas of Territory security, public order, search and rescue, underwater recovery and special operations.

The success experienced by ACT Policing over this period has been remarkable given the additional demands placed on resources by Anthrax scares and related bomb threats and hoaxes. The 2001-02 financial year saw an overall 13 per cent reduction in offence levels for the ACT, which follows from an almost 12 per cent reduction in the previous year. This equates to the strongest performance in over a decade for the Territory and collectively, the most sustained reduction in offences during that period.

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Northern Territory Government comments

“ Northern Territory Police Fire and Emergency Services (NTPFES) provides services to an extensive area of Australia, including many remote and sparsely populated regions. The remoteness and isolation of the NT presents immense challenges to the agency to ensure that all Territorians have access to the full range of services which the Agency provides. These factors also impact greatly on the costs of policing services, as reflected in the information provided in this Report. Despite these challenges, the NTPFES is committed to developing partnerships with all sectors of the Territory and to providing innovative and holistic strategies to address community concerns and social issues.

Recent innovations have focused on implementing an action-based continuous improvement program throughout the organisation. The aim of the program is to lead, manage and implement key elements of the *Purpose and Direction Strategy* to substantially improve the quality and efficiency of police services in the Northern Territory. The Program will examine four key management areas relating to enhancing leadership roles, delivering excellent policing services, working together and maximising the skills and knowledge of all members. Outcomes are aimed at reducing crime and improving service delivery to the community.

Other strategies have been directed at reducing specific types of crime through community cooperation and intelligence-led policing. Data collection systems are also being enhanced in order to better provide strategic information to target particular problem areas.

In conclusion, the NTPFES is committed to continuing innovation in providing excellent police services to the community it serves and protects.”

5.14 Definitions

Table 5.8 Terms

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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; and • 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	The 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.
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 reported crimes against person, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • murder; • attempted murder; • manslaughter; • assault; • kidnapping/abduction; • armed robbery; • unarmed robbery; • sexual assault; and • blackmail/extortion.

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Table 5.8 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Deaths in police custody and custody-related incidents	At least one of the following deaths: death of a person who was in police custody; death caused or contributed to by traumatic injuries while in custody; death of a person who was fatally injured when police officers attempted to detain that person; and/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 which are likely to have required police attendance; these may also include accidents including trains, bicycles and so on (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare).
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 includes 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.

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Table 5.8 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 reported crimes against property, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unlawful entry with intent; • motor vehicle theft; and • other theft.
Proportion of higher court cases resulting in guilty finding	Total number of higher court cases for which there was a finding of guilty or where the person pleads guilty, as a proportion of the total number of higher court cases. Higher court is either: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an intermediate court (known either as the district court or county court) that has legal powers that are intermediate between those of a court of summary jurisdiction (lower level courts) and a supreme court, and deals with the majority of cases involving serious criminal charges; or • 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 Cat. no. 4513.0). <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 Cat. no. 4513.0).</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), divided by the total number of juvenile offenders, or the total number of juvenile offenders diverted or dealt with by the criminal justice system.
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. Lower court: a court of summary jurisdiction, or lower court level (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 Cat. no. 4513.0).

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Table 5.8 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
	<p>Plea: 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 Cat. no. 4513.0).</p> <p>For the purposes of 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; and • 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 through 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; <p>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,</p>

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Table 5.8 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
	frequent flier benefits, overtime meals provided, and any other components that are not part of a salary package); and
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • payroll tax.
	These are disaggregated by service delivery area.
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	The core areas of police work. Four service delivery areas are identified for the purposes of this Report: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • community safety and support; • crime investigation; • road safety and traffic management; and • 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	Physical contact of a sexual nature directed toward 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.
Supervisory full time equivalent staff	Number of supervisory full time equivalent staff, including civilian (team leaders) and sworn (sergeant to senior sergeant) staff.
Sworn staff	Sworn police staff recognised under each jurisdiction's Police Act.
Total capital expenditure	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.
Total expenditure	Total capital expenditure plus total recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources).
Total FTE staff	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.
Total number of staff	Full time equivalent staff directly employed on an annual basis (excluding labour contracted out).
Total recurrent expenditure	Includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • salaries and payments in the nature of salary; • other recurrent expenditure; and • depreciation • less revenue from own sources.
Unarmed robbery	Robbery conducted without the use (actual or implied) of a weapon.

(Continued on next page)

Table 5.8 (Continued)

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Unavailable full time equivalent staff	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.
Unlawful entry with intent — involving the taking of property	The unlawful entry of a structure with intent to commit an offence resulting in the taking of property from the structure, where the entry is either forced or unforced. Includes burglary and break and enter offences. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.
Unlawful entry with intent — other	The unlawful entry of a structure with intent to commit an offence, but which does not result in the taking of property from the structure, where the entry is either forced or unforced. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.
Value of physical assets — buildings and fittings	The value of buildings and fittings under direct control of police.
Value of physical assets — land	The value of land under 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.

Source: ABS 2001 (for those definitions related to recorded crime).

5.15 References

- ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2001, *Recorded Crime, Australia*, cat. no. 4509.1, Canberra.
- AIC (Australian Institute of Criminology) 2002, *Australian Deaths in Custody and Custody-related Police Operations, 2001* (and previous years), Canberra.
- AIHW (Australian Institute for Health Welfare) 2002, Land Transport Hospitalisations, unpublished.
- ATSB (Australian Transport Safety Bureau) 2002 (and previous years), *Road Fatalities Australia, June 2002*, (and previous issues), Canberra.
- CJC (Criminal Justice Commission) 1996, *The Nature of General Police Work*, Research Paper Series, vol. 3, no. 2, Brisbane.
- SCRCSSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision) 1999, *Payroll Tax in the Costing of Government Services*, AusInfo, Canberra.
- 2001, *Asset Measurement in the Costing of Government Services*, AusInfo, Canberra.

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. The chapter also covers the performance of court administration for the Federal Court of Australia, the Federal Magistrates Service, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of Western Australia. The focus of this Report is on the administration of the courts, not the outcomes of the legal process.

A profile of court administration is presented in section 6.1 and policy developments are summarised in section 6.2. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 6.3 and data are discussed in section 6.4. Future directions for performance reporting are discussed in section 6.5. Jurisdictions' comments are provided in section 6.6, definitions in section 6.7, and the chapter concludes with a reference list in section 6.8.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 6 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel 97 format as `\Publications\Reports\2003\Attach6A.xls` and in Adobe PDF format as `\Publications\Reports\2003\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/gsp). 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, court security and ancillary services such as registries, libraries and transcription services;
- provide case management services, including client information, scheduling and case flow management; and
- 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; and
- the magistrates' court.

Within certain court levels, there are a number of specialist courts that aim to improve the responsiveness of courts to the special needs of particular clients — for example, drug courts and children's courts. 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 the 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 (see 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/Territories

Criminal

All magistrates' courts deal with criminal matters that can be decided without a jury (for example, summary offences such as minor stealing and offensive behaviour) and committal proceedings. There are, however, differences across jurisdictions in the type of additional work undertaken and in the sentencing limits that are imposed:

New South Wales: Also deals with juvenile prosecution and care matters.

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: Some drug and fraud charges, matters with a maximum penalty of up to 10 years imprisonment (or 10–14 years imprisonment if the accused consents).

Civil

NSW: Up to \$40 000 for monetary damages, as well as some family law matters.

Victoria: Up to \$40 000 for monetary damages, as well as applications for equitable relief and applications under the *Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987*.

Queensland: 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 recovery of debt and damages (other than personal injury) up to \$25 000, a small disputes division operates with an upper limit of \$3000 and residential tenancy disputes to a limit of \$6000.

SA: 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, debt recovery up to \$20 000, small claims up to \$3000, residential tenancy disputes, and restraint orders.

ACT: 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*.

NT: Up to \$100 000 and workers compensation claims.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments.

Box 6.2 District/county court jurisdiction across States/Territories

The district/county court does not operate in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT.

Criminal

All State district/county courts have jurisdiction over indictable criminal matters such as rape and armed robbery (except for murder and treason), but differences exist across those jurisdictions.

Examples of the jurisdiction of the criminal district/county courts are:

NSW: The District Court deals with most of the serious criminal cases that come before the courts in NSW. It has responsibility for indictable criminal offences which are normally heard by a Judge and jury, but on occasions by a Judge alone. The District Court does not deal with treason, piracy and murder.

Victoria: 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: Deals with more serious criminal offences than the Magistrates' Court, for example, rape, armed robbery or fraud.

WA: Deals with any indictable offence except those that carry a penalty of life imprisonment.

SA: 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 NSW, Victoria and Queensland but not in WA and SA.

Civil

All district/county civil courts hear appeals.

NSW: Up to \$750 000, and unlimited claims in motor accident cases.

Victoria: Liquidated damages 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: Claims between \$50 000 and \$250 000.

WA: Up to \$250 000, and unlimited claims for personal injuries.

SA: Unlimited claims for general and personal injury matters.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments.

Box 6.3 Supreme court jurisdiction across States/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. The following are examples of these differences.

- Given that district/county courts do not operate in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT, the supreme courts in these jurisdictions generally exercise a jurisdiction equal to both the supreme and district/county courts in other States.
- The Queensland Supreme Court deals with a significant amount of minor drug matters, which other State and Territory supreme courts do not hear.
- In NSW, almost all indictments are for offences of murder and manslaughter, whereas the range of indictments routinely presented in other State/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: 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 and technology and construction cases, and administration of corporations, partnerships and trusts.

Victoria: Unlimited claims.

WA: Unlimited claims.

Tasmania: Unlimited claims.

ACT: Unlimited claims.

Queensland: Over \$250 000, and administrative law matters.

SA: General claims of more than \$30 000, personal injury claims of more than \$60 000 arising from motor vehicle accidents, possession of property of more than \$60 000 value. Cases awarded less than the amounts shown are subject to cost penalties.

NT: Unlimited claims, as well as mental health, family law and *Coroner's Act* applications.

Source: 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 following data sets are reported separately from their court level:

- probate (separate from the supreme court level);
- children's courts (separate from the magistrates' court level);
- electronic courts (separate from the magistrates' court level); and
- 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 and 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 does not only hear criminal matters; if a child has been seriously abused or neglected, then the court has jurisdiction to determine matters relating to the care and protection of that child.

Electronic courts

Electronic courts operate to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences capable of expiated processing. They have the status of courts, despite minimal judicial involvement, because they have the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants. Those orders can impose penalties such as fines (which may be enforced by warrants or licence cancellation), asset seizure, garnishment, community corrections orders, arrest and incarceration.

Electronic courts included in the scope of this data collection operate in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. The workload and expenditure of the electronic courts have been separately identified within this chapter, 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 or fines enforcement units may operate outside the auspices of a court.

Coroners' court

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. The coroner in some States and Territories 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 coroner's 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.

Commonwealth court levels

The following hierarchy of courts occurs within the Commonwealth jurisdiction:

- the High Court of Australia;
- the Federal Court of Australia and the Family Court of Australia; and
- the Federal Magistrates Service.

Data on the High Court of Australia are not contained as part of this chapter. The following sections highlight the relationship between the Federal Court of Australia, the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Magistrates Service.

Federal Court of Australia

The Federal Court deals with over 120 federal Acts of Parliament. The Court has jurisdiction in relation to almost all civil matters arising under Australian federal law. The Court is able to hear cases in relation to human rights, bankruptcy, native title, workplace relations, trade practices, intellectual property and consumer protection. It also has the power to review some Commonwealth Government

decisions in areas such as social security, immigration and taxation (Federal Court of Australia 2002).

Family Court of Australia

The Family Court of Australia has jurisdiction throughout Australia except in Western Australia (which has its own Family Court). The Family Court of Australia has jurisdiction over all matrimonial cases and associated responsibilities, including divorce proceedings; children's matters such as residence, contact and special issues orders; and the provision of mediation services (Family Court of Australia 2002).

Federal Magistrates Service

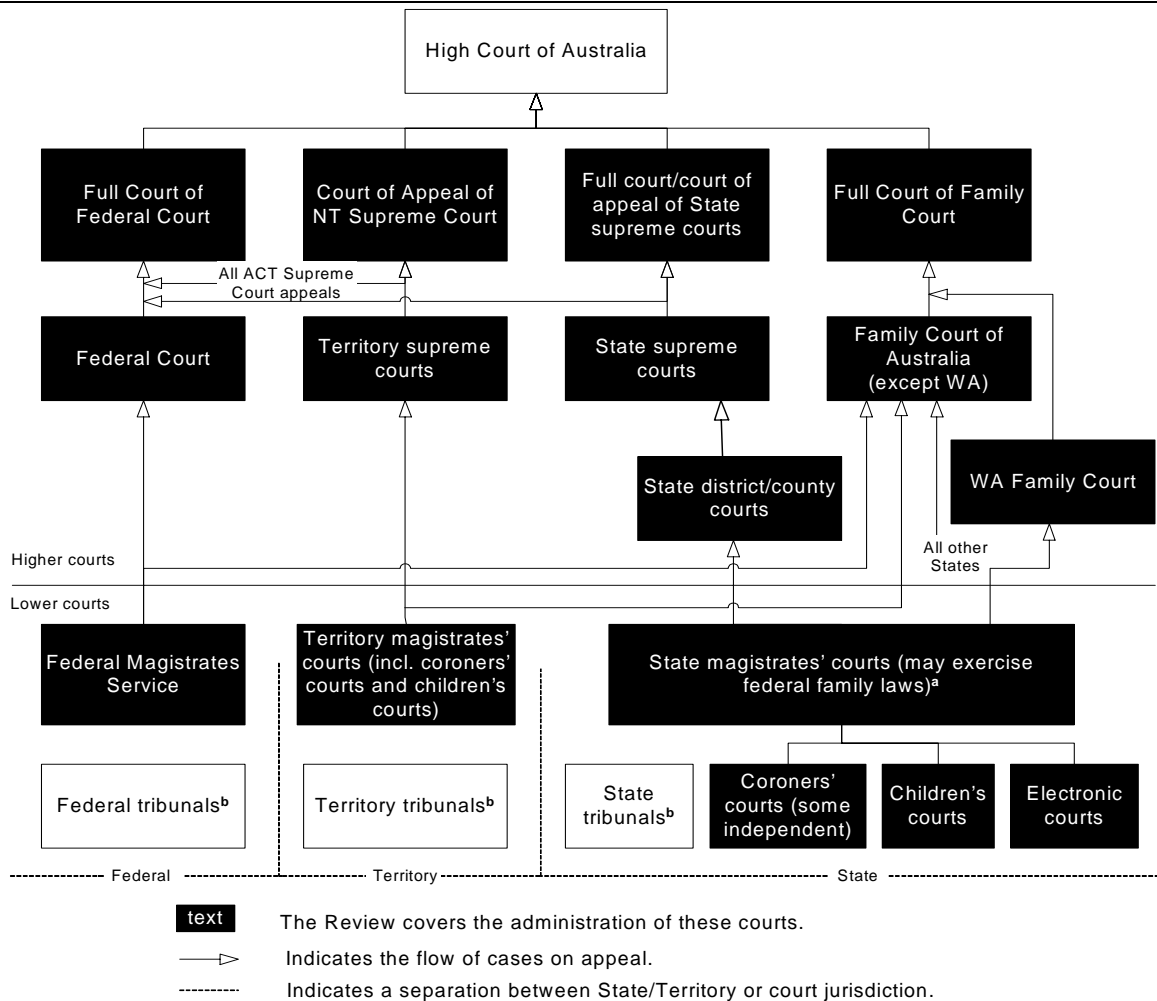
The first sittings of the Federal Magistrates Service were on 3 July 2000. The Federal Magistrates Service was established to provide a simpler and accessible service for litigants and to ease the workload of both the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. The jurisdiction of the Federal Magistrates Service includes family law and child support, administrative law, bankruptcy, consumer protection, human rights, privacy law and migration matters. State courts also continue to do some work in these areas (FMS 2002).

There is no jurisdiction that solely belongs to the Federal Magistrates Service, which shares its jurisdiction with the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. In family law matters, the Federal Magistrates Service jurisdiction is similar to that of the Family Court of Australia, except that only the Family Court can consider adoption, property disputes worth over \$700 000, and applications concerning nullity and validity of marriage. In trade practices matters, the Federal Magistrates Service has the same jurisdiction as the Federal Court in relation to unfair trade practices matters and product safety and information matters, although only with a power to award damages up to a maximum of \$200 000 (FMS 2002).

The intention is for the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia to focus on more complex legal matters. While there is no strict indicator of complexity, a general guide is that less complex matters require less than two days court hearing time. There are arrangements for the transfer of matters between the Federal Magistrates Service and the Family and Federal courts. These arrangements enable a matter to be transferred to the most appropriate court, having regard to the complexity of the legal issues involved or the evidence in the matter (FMS 2002).

The major relationships between courts in Australia, and their respective hierarchy, are summarised in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Major relationships between courts in Australia



^a In some jurisdictions, appeals from lower 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 did not commence until 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 each of the civil and criminal jurisdictions, the Steering Committee has sought to distinguish between them where possible. As well, the allocation of responsibility between court administration and other elements of the system (including the judiciary) also varies across the Commonwealth, State and Territory legal systems.

Recurrent expenditure

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 Commonwealth, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was approximately \$1.0 billion in 2001-02 (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 (\$431 million) than in the civil jurisdiction of those courts (\$318 million). The coroners' court expenditure was \$25 million in 2001-02, while the electronic court expenditure and probate court expenditure were \$19 million and \$3 million respectively (table 6.1). In the Commonwealth jurisdiction, recurrent expenditure in 2001-02 was around \$107 million for the Family Court of Australia, \$73 million for the Federal Court of Australia and \$21 million for the Federal Magistrates Service (table 6.1).

Income (excluding fines) in 2001-02, was \$137 million in the civil courts, \$11 million in the criminal courts and \$53 million in electronic courts. Income from probate was \$20 million nationally. In the Commonwealth jurisdiction, income was \$9 million for the Federal Magistrates Service, \$8 million for the Family Court of Australia and \$6 million for the Federal Court of Australia (table 6.1).

Total recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) by Commonwealth, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was approximately \$770 million in 2001-02. 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 (\$420 million) than in the civil jurisdiction of those courts (\$187 million). The coroners' court expenditure less income was \$25 million, while nationally, both the probate and electronic courts had greater income than expenditure during 2001-02 (by \$17 million and \$33 million respectively) (table 6.1).

In the Commonwealth jurisdiction, recurrent expenditure less income was around \$99 million for the Family Court of Australia, \$67 million for the Federal Court of Australia and \$12 million for the Federal Magistrates Service (table 6.1).

Real recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) on court administration from 1999-2000 to 2001-02 for each Commonwealth, State and Territory court level is contained in tables 6A.14 and 6A.15.

Table 6.1 Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines), 2001-02 (\$ million)^{a, b, c, d}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	127	61	40	41	28	4	7	10	73	391
Criminal courts ^g	160	74	81	50	38	9	7	12	..	431
Electronic courts	..	4	8	4	4	19
Family courts ^f	12	107	119
Federal Magistrates ^h	21	21
Coroners' courts ⁱ	7.3	4.1	2.6	5.5	3.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	..	25.4
Probate — supreme ^j	1.3	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	—	—	..	2.7
Total	295	144	131	113	73	13	15	23	202	1 010
<i>Court administration income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	69	30	13	10	5	1	2	1	6	137
Criminal courts ^g	6.7	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	..	11
Electronic courts	..	18	19	7	8	53
Family courts ^f	2	8	9
Federal Magistrates	9	9
Coroners' courts	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	—	..	0.4
Probate — supreme	12.1	3.5	—	1.3	2.4	0.2	0.3	—	..	19.8
Total	88	52	33	22	17	2	2	1	23	240
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^{e, f}	58	31	27	31	22	3	5	9	67	254
Criminal courts ^g	153	73	80	49	37	9	7	12	..	420
Electronic courts	..	-13.9	-11.0	-3.3	-4.8	-33
Family courts ^f	10	99	110
Federal Magistrates ^h	12	12
Coroners' courts ⁱ	7.2	4.1	2.5	5.4	3.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	..	25.0
Probate — supreme ^j	-10.7	-3.1	0.1	-1.0	-2.0	-0.1	-0.3	—	..	-17.1
Total	207	92	99	91	56	12	13	22	179	770

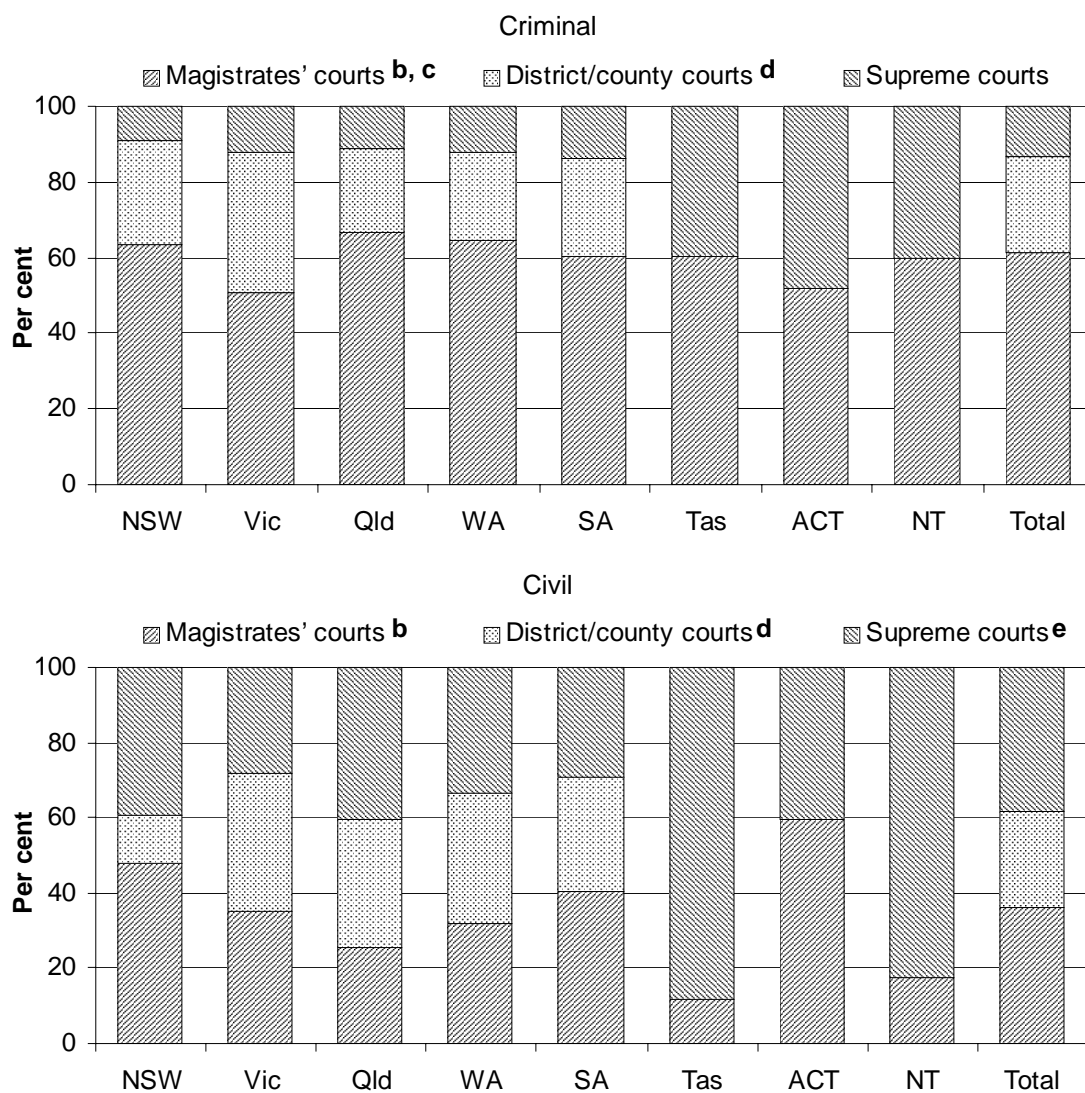
^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Income is derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines). ^c District/county courts do not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT. The Commonwealth does not operate magistrates', district/county or supreme courts. ^d Payroll tax is included, where relevant, in reported expenditure. ^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 Service. ^f The data for the Family Court of Australia exclude a preliminary estimate of the 'free' allocation of Family Court resources to the Federal Magistrates Service. Data for the Federal Court includes the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Service. ^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 Service notes that this expenditure data contains around \$10.0 million worth of resources received free of charge from the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. ⁱ WA expenditure includes \$1.7 million and \$1.4 million incurred directly and indirectly, respectively, for autopsy and chemical analysis work. Some jurisdictions are not able to ascertain autopsy and chemical analysis costs as they are incurred outside their immediate control. ^j The full cost of probate may not be identified because costs such as rent or depreciation might have been included under general supreme court figures. .. Not applicable. — Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.11–6A.15.

Distribution of criminal and civil court administration expenditure in 2001-02

The distribution of court administration expenditure less income on the magistrates', district/county and supreme courts varied across States and Territories. A greater proportion of funds are distributed, for example, to the supreme courts of Tasmania, the ACT and the NT (under the two-tier court system) than to the supreme courts of other jurisdictions (under the three-tier court system) (figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 **Distribution of court administration expenditure (less income), by court level, 2001-02^a**



^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 Includes expenditure on children's courts. ^c Excludes expenditure on coroner's courts. Excludes expenditure on electronic courts for Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. ^d There are no district/county courts in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT. ^e Includes probate.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.14–6A.15.

In 2001-02, magistrates' courts (excluding electronic courts) in the criminal jurisdiction accounted for 61.4 per cent of criminal expenditure (less income) across State and Territory courts. District/county courts, in the criminal jurisdiction, accounted for 25.6 per cent of expenditure (less income) and supreme courts accounted for 13.0 per cent. Across States and Territories, the magistrates' court share of expenditure (less income) was highest in Queensland (66.9 per cent) and lowest in Victoria (50.6 per cent); the district/county court share was highest in Victoria (37.4 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (21.8 per cent); and the supreme court share was highest in the ACT (47.9 per cent) and lowest in NSW (9.1 per cent) (figure 6.2).

In 2001-02, supreme courts in the civil jurisdiction accounted for 38.5 per cent of civil expenditure (less income) across State and Territory courts. Magistrates' courts, in the civil jurisdiction, accounted for 36.4 per cent of expenditure (less income) and district/county courts accounted for 25.1 per cent. Across jurisdictions, the share of civil expenditure (less income) on the supreme courts ranged from 88.5 per cent in Tasmania to 28.1 per cent in Victoria; the share for the magistrates' courts varied from 59.5 per cent in the ACT to 11.5 per cent in Tasmania; and the share for the district/county courts ranged from 36.9 per cent in Victoria to 12.7 per cent in NSW (figure 6.2).

Size and scope of court activity

Staffing

The staffing numbers shown in table 6.2 and 6.3 represent the full time equivalent (FTE) staff numbers for staff employed by each court administration body. The staffing numbers in these tables are disaggregated by staffing type.

- Judicial staff include judicial officers (for example, judges, magistrates, masters, coroners and judicial registrars) and judicial support staff (persons employed primarily as assistants to judicial officers, including associates, secretaries, tipstaff/orderlies and personal support staff).
- Registry staff include the registrar, the deputy registrar, clerks of the court, clerks of arraign, registry counter staff, administration staff and probate staff.
- Other staff include information technology staff, first-line support staff, court security and sheriff-type staff, court reporters, library staff and interpreters, cleaning/gardening/maintenance staff, and counsellors/mediators.

-
- Umbrella department staff include staff employed by umbrella and other departments whose time is primarily devoted to court administration and related functions but who are not paid (in part or full) by the court administration authority. These staffing functions may incorporate corporate administration, court security, information technology, library work and court reporting.

This is the first time that staffing data have been included in the chapter. It should be viewed, especially as it pertains to the staffing breakdown, as preliminary data that will continue to be refined in future years.

In the criminal jurisdiction nationally, the majority of staff in 2001-02 were employed within the magistrates' courts (2288 FTE staff), followed by the district/county courts (814) and the supreme courts (417). Of those employed in the magistrates' courts, the majority (58.8 per cent) undertook registry staffing functions; in the supreme courts and district/county courts, the largest proportion of staff undertook judicial staffing (including support) functions (43.2 per cent and 37.5 per cent respectively) (table 6.2).

Across the States and Territories, the largest number of staff in the civil jurisdiction in 2001-02 were employed in the magistrates' court (1256 FTE staff), followed by the supreme courts (925) and the district/county courts (544) (table 6.3). Of those employed in the civil jurisdiction of the magistrates' court, the majority (68.1 per cent) undertook registry staff functions; in the supreme courts and district/county courts, the highest proportion of staff undertook judicial staffing (including support) functions (40.9 per cent and 36.5 per cent respectively) (table 6.3).

In the Commonwealth jurisdiction in 2001-02, the Family Court of Australia employed 666 FTE staff (and the Family Court of WA employed 102), the Federal Court employed 387 and the Federal Magistrates Service employed 70 (table 6.3). In the Federal Magistrates Service, registry support services are provided by Family Court of Australia and Federal Court staff.

Of those staff employed in 2001-02, the majority in the Family Court of Australia were registry staff (51.5 per cent) and the majority in the Federal Magistrates Service were judicial (including support) staff (78.4 per cent), while the Federal Court proportions were 49.9 per cent registry staff and 39.5 per cent judicial staff (table 6.3).

Table 6.2 **Staffing, by court level, criminal, 2001-02^{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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Supreme courts										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	117	72	69	42	46	27	27	18	..	417
% judicial staff ^c	39.4	52.4	38.8	57.8	38.1	46.3	30.3	42.2	..	43.2
% registry staff ^d	6.8	7.0	21.7	27.1	10.1	10.1	4.1	13.9	..	12.0
% other staff ^e	5.1	12.0	28.1	15.1	51.8	43.6	47.1	40.6	..	23.0
% umbrella department ^f	48.7	28.7	11.4	–	–	–	18.5	3.3	..	21.8
District/county courts										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	281	199	154	95	85	814
% judicial staff	30.6	50.3	24.4	47.4	43.2	37.5
% registry staff	8.2	5.0	23.5	15.9	9.7	11.4
% other staff	6.8	31.7	40.9	31.4	47.0	26.4
% umbrella department	54.4	13.1	11.2	5.3	–	24.7
Magistrates' courts^g										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	785	336	600	222	215	52	35	43	..	2288
% judicial staff	14.6	18.2	12.9	27.5	16.3	35.5	21.6	24.5	..	16.8
% registry staff	59.9	64.6	62.0	61.8	44.5	52.2	34.5	34.2	..	58.8
% other staff	0.8	8.6	14.3	4.8	39.2	12.3	11.7	38.3	..	10.7
% umbrella department ^h	24.7	8.6	10.7	6.0	–	–	32.2	2.9	..	13.7
Coroners' courts										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	52	38	21	16	16	4	2	8	..	157
% judicial staff	8.9	15.7	24.2	27.9	12.8	35.8	17.8	60.9	..	18.5
% registry staff	42.4	44.6	27.1	43.3	65.1	51.8	66.7	10.7	..	42.1
% other staff	0.6	23.6	39.1	15.5	22.1	12.4	9.8	26.1	..	16.7
% umbrella department	48.2	16.0	9.7	13.3	–	–	5.8	2.4	..	22.7

^a This is the first time that staffing data have been included in the chapter. It should be viewed, especially as it pertains to the staffing breakdown, as preliminary data that will continue to be refined in future year's.

^b Staffing based on full-time equivalence. If, for example, a staff member works part time for two days a week, then they will be counted as 0.4. ^c Judicial staff include judicial officers (for example, judges, magistrates, masters, coroners and judicial registrars) and judicial support staff (persons employed primarily as assistants to judicial officers). ^d Registry staff include the registrar, the deputy registrar, clerks of the court, clerks of arraign, registry counter staff and administration staff. ^e Other staff include information technology staff, first-line support staff, court security and sheriff-type staff, court reporters, library staff and interpreters, cleaning/gardening/maintenance staff and counsellors/mediators. ^f Umbrella department staff include staff who are employed by umbrella and other departments whose time is firstly and primarily devoted to court administration and related functions but who are not paid (in part or full) by the court administration authority. ^g Excludes data for children's court staff. In Victoria, the staffing figure includes electronic court staff. ^h ACT data include court transport staff. .. Not applicable. – Nil or close to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.17.

Table 6.3 Staffing, by court level, civil, 2001-02^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Supreme/Federal courts										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	411	149	109	89	86	29	25	27	387	1312
% judicial staff ^c	33.0	58.7	33.8	60.8	48.3	36.3	25.9	42.2	39.5	40.9
% registry staff ^d	17.2	25.5	23.9	36.9	18.9	40.3	38.7	13.7	49.9	30.6
% other staff ^e	10.9	11.0	30.7	2.3	32.8	23.4	28.4	40.7	10.6	14.5
% umbrella department ^f	38.9	4.8	11.6	–	–	–	6.9	3.3	–	13.9
District/county courts										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	213	123	93	49	66	544
% judicial staff	23.9	55.3	32.0	46.6	40.7	36.5
% registry staff	24.4	25.2	28.0	39.9	18.9	25.9
% other staff	7.0	5.7	27.8	–	40.4	13.7
% umbrella department	44.6	13.8	12.2	13.5	–	23.9
Magistrates' courts^g										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	594	231	159	100	93	12	43	24	..	1256
% judicial staff	1.7	17.3	14.4	17.3	11.7	30.7	19.6	16.7	..	9.3
% registry staff	72.8	71.0	55.9	70.6	57.4	46.7	61.5	56.4	..	68.1
% other staff	0.8	5.6	19.0	4.1	30.9	22.5	10.5	25.0	..	7.5
% umbrella department	24.7	6.1	10.8	8.0	–	–	8.5	1.9	..	15.1
Family courts^h										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	102	666	768
% judicial staff	29.4	18.2	19.6
% registry staff	42.9	52.8	51.5
% other staff	20.2	29.1	27.9
% umbrella department	7.6	–	1.0
Federal Magistratesⁱ										
<i>No. of FTE staff</i>	70	70
% judicial staff	78.4	78.4
% registry staff	–	–
% other staff	21.6	21.6
% umbrella department	–	–

^a This is the first time that staffing data have been included in the chapter. It should be viewed, especially as it pertains to the staffing breakdown, as preliminary data that will continue to be refined in future year's.

^b Staffing based on full-time equivalence. If, for example, a staff member works part-time for two days a week they will be counted as 0.4. ^c Judicial staff include judicial officers (for example, judges, magistrates, masters, coroners and judicial registrars) and judicial support staff (persons employed primarily as assistants to judicial officers). ^d Registry staff include the registrar, the deputy registrar, clerks of the court, clerks of arraign, registry counter staff, probate staff and administration staff. ^e Other staff include information technology staff, first-line support staff, court security and sheriff-type staff, court reporters, library staff and interpreters, cleaning/gardening/maintenance staff and counsellors/mediators. ^f Umbrella department staff include staff who are employed by umbrella and other departments whose time is firstly and primarily devoted to court administration and related functions but who are not paid (in part or full) by the court administration authority. ^g Excludes data for children's court staff. Victorian staffing data include residential tenancies tribunals staff. Residential tenancy matters are heard in the magistrates' court of other jurisdictions. Queensland staffing data include staff from its small claims tribunal. ^h Family Court of Australia staffing data include effort for services to the Federal Magistrates Service provided free of charge. Staff include 14 mediators/counsellors in the WA Family Court and 87 mediators/counsellors in the Family Court of Australia. ⁱ In the Federal Magistrates Service, registry support services are provided by Family Court of Australia and Federal Court staff. .. Not applicable. – Nil or close to zero.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.17.

Lodgments

Lodgments are matters initiated in the court system. Box 6.4 explains how lodgment data are collected for the chapter. Table 6.4 (criminal) and table 6.5 (civil) outline the number of lodgments in 2001-02, by court level, for the Commonwealth and each State and Territory.

Box 6.4 Explanation of lodgment data used in this chapter

Lodgments are a reflection of 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 (ie. number of applications made to the court);
- *electronic courts*: the number of unpaid infringement notices; and
- *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:

- extraordinary driver's licence applications;
- bail procedures (including applications and review);
- directions;
- bench warrants; and
- secondary processes (for example, interlocutory matters, firearms appeals, escort agency licensing appeals, investigation/examination summonses, pastoral appeals, local government tribunal appeals, police promotions appeals and applications for default judgments).

Source: SCRCSSP, 2002.

Nationally, in the criminal jurisdiction in 2001-02, there were approximately 817 000 defendants in the magistrates', district/county and supreme courts; 1.4 million lodgments of unpaid infringement notices in electronic courts; and 22 555 reported deaths and fires in the coroners' courts (with 19 467 reported deaths and 3088 reported fires) (table 6A.1 and table 6.4).

Reporting rates for deaths reported to a coroner varied as a result of different reporting requirements; for example, deaths in institutions such as nursing homes of

persons suffering intellectual impairment of any kind must be reported in SA, but not in other jurisdictions. Reporting requirements also varied for fires; for example, 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 6.4 Court lodgments, criminal, by court level, 2001-02 ('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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates' (total) ^b	264	124	166	71	88	56	5	13	..	786
<i>Magistrates' (only)</i>	247	114	155	64	82	54	5	12	..	732
<i>Children's</i>	17	9	11	7	6	2	1	1	..	54
District/county	9	4	8	3	2	26
Supreme	1.1	0.6	1.2	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.3	..	4.7
All criminal courts	275	128	175	74	90	56	5	13	..	817
Electronic courts ^c	..	665	362	218	115	1360
Coroners' courts ^d	6.4	4.0	4.2	1.4	3.7	0.6	1.9	0.3	..	22.6

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b Tasmanian Magistrates' Court data are based on a 50 per cent sample using statistics for the southern region. In addition, due to information technology difficulties experienced by a major court user, the Magistrates' Court received approximately 8000 to 10 000 fewer lodgments. ^c Electronic courts are fines enforcement registries that have the status of a court. As such, 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). ^d Includes data for 171 reported fires in NSW, 1342 in Queensland and 1575 in the ACT. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.1.

Nationally, in the civil jurisdiction in 2001-02, there were approximately 686 000 cases in the supreme, district/county and magistrates' courts, with an additional 52 000 probate lodgments in the supreme court (table 6.5).

In 2001-02, there were around 4500 cases lodged in the Federal Court of Australia. There were 97 000 forms filed in the family courts. Lodgments in the Federal Magistrates Service were made up of around 47 000 family law forms and 3000 federal law cases (table 6.5).

Table 6.5 Court lodgments, civil, by court level, 2001-02 ('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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates' (total) ^{b, c}	230	179	87	55	31	14	8	7	..	610
Magistrates' (only) ^{b, c}	227	176	87	54	31	14	8	na	..	596
Children's	3.1	2.6	0.1	0.9	0.5	0.5	0.2	na	..	7.8
District/county	21	7	10	4	3	45
Supreme/Federal ^d	10.7	5.0	4.5	3.3	3.9	2.0	1.1	0.4	4.5	35.4
All civil courts	261	191	101	62	39	16	9	7	5	691
Federal Magistrates ^e	50	50
Family courts ^{d, f}	15	82	97
Probate										
Supreme courts	20.8	15.4	3.7	4.7	5.0	2.1	0.5	0.1	..	52.4

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b The Victorian data include 74 315 residential tenancies and civil claim applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included as other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claim matters in their magistrates' courts. ^c Queensland has included lodgments at its small claims tribunal. ^d The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service had implications for the number of lodgments in the Federal Court and Family Court of Australia. ^e Lodgments in the Federal Magistrates Service are made up of 46 873 family law forms and 3393 federal law cases. ^f The Family Court of Australia civil lodgment data exclude instances where Family Court of Australia deputy registrars were given delegation to conduct Federal Magistrate Service divorce applications. The Family Court of WA does elements of Family Court of Australia and Federal Magistrates Service work, so direct comparisons must be made with caution. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.2.

The larger States have a higher number of criminal and civil lodgments. 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). For instance, there were 4011 criminal court lodgments in the magistrates' court per 100 000 people in Australia in 2001-02. This ranged from 11 761 magistrates' court lodgments per 100 000 people in Tasmania to 1645 in the ACT (table 6A.3). In the civil jurisdiction, there were 3113 civil court lodgments in the magistrates' court per 100 000 people in Australia. This ranged from 3684 in Victoria to 2063 in SA (table 6A.4). Tables 6A.3 and 6A.4 provide data on lodgments (per 100 000 population) for each State and Territory court and the Federal Court of Australia.

Distribution of court lodgments

The majority of criminal matters in Australia in 2001-02 were lodged in magistrates' courts (96.3 per cent), followed by the district/county courts (3.2 per cent) and supreme courts (0.6 per cent). Tasmania had the highest proportion of

criminal matters lodged in the magistrates' court (98.9 per cent), Queensland had the highest proportion of criminal matters lodged in the district/county court (4.6 per cent) and the ACT had the highest proportion of criminal matters lodged in the supreme court (3.3 per cent) (table 6.6).

The majority of civil matters in Australia in 2001-02 were lodged in the magistrates' court (88.9 per cent), followed by the district/county court (6.6 per cent) and supreme court (4.5 per cent). The NT had the highest proportion of civil cases lodged in the magistrates' court (94.4 per cent), Queensland had the highest proportion in the district/county court (9.7 per cent) and Tasmania had the highest proportion of civil cases lodged in the supreme court (12.2 per cent) (table 6.6).

In the Commonwealth 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 Service because each of these courts uses different counting units for their lodgments. (The Federal Court uses cases, the Family Court of Australia uses forms, and the Federal Magistrates Service uses a mix of cases and forms). As a result, any comparisons on the proportion of lodgments within the Commonwealth jurisdiction would be meaningless.

Table 6.6 Distribution of court lodgments, by court level, 2001-02^{a, b}

		<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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Criminal courts												
Magistrates' (total) ^c	%	96.2	96.5	94.8	95.4	97.8	98.9	96.7	97.6	96.3
District/county	%	3.4	3.1	4.6	4.1	1.7	3.2
Supreme	%	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	1.1	3.3	2.4	0.6
All courts	'000	275	128	175	74	90	56	5	13	817
Civil courts												
Magistrates' (total) ^d	%	87.9	93.7	85.9	88.2	81.1	87.8	87.9	94.4	88.9
District/county	%	8.0	3.7	9.7	6.4	8.9	6.6
Supreme ^e	%	4.1	2.6	4.4	5.4	10.0	12.2	12.1	5.6	4.5
All courts ^b	'000	261	191	101	62	39	16	9	7	686

^a Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes data for the Family Court of WA, the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Magistrates Service 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).

^c Excludes electronic court lodgments to provide a more meaningful comparison across jurisdictions. Also excludes coroners' court data. ^d The Victorian data include 74 315 residential tenancies and civil claim applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claim matters in their magistrates' courts. Queensland data include lodgments at its small claims tribunal. ^e Excludes probate data. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (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 either by the court or by an external mediator).

Table 6.7 (criminal) and table 6.8 (civil) outline the number of finalisations in 2001-02, by court level, for the Commonwealth and each State and Territory. Finalisation data are not strictly comparable with lodgment data in the reported year because some lodgments from a previous year may be finalised in the current year.

In 2001-02, there were 618 000 criminal finalisations in the magistrates', district/county and supreme courts; 1.2 million electronic court unpaid infringement notice finalisations; and, in the coroner's court, around 21 300 finalisations involving reported deaths and fires (table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Court finalisations, criminal, 2001-02 ('000)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Magistrates' (total) ^{c, d}	133	118	153	67	60	40	6	13	..	588
Magistrates' (only)	133	110	144	60	55	39	5	12	..	557
Children's ^e	na	8.4	8.4	6.5	4.7	1.8	0.6	0.7	..	31.2
District/county	9	3	8	3	1	25
Supreme	1.1	0.6	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	..	4.5
All criminal courts	143	122	162	70	61	41	6	13	..	618
Electronic courts	..	741	286	109	102	1238
Coroners' courts ^f	5.2	4.5	3.9	1.4	3.7	0.6	1.8	0.2	..	21.3

^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 NSW magistrates' court (total) data exclude children's court finalisations. ^d In Tasmania, the number of lodgments declined by between 8000 and 10 000 matters due to information technology difficulties experienced by a major court user. This has had a considerable flow on effect on finalisations. The matters lodged by this user are usually resolved within the year of lodgment. It is estimated, therefore, that finalisations are affected by between 8000 and 10 000 matters. ^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. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.5.

In 2001-02, there were 406 000 civil cases finalised in the magistrates', district/county and supreme courts. The Federal Court of Australia finalised 5000 cases and the Federal Magistrates Service finalised around 3000 federal law cases. The number of family law forms finalised in the Federal Magistrates Service, Family Court of WA and the Family Court of Australia are not available for 2001-02 (table 6.8).

Table 6.8 Court finalisations, civil, 2001-02 ('000)^{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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates' (total) ^{d, e, f}	80	155	38	28	24	4	11	4	..	344
<i>Magistrates' (only)^{e, f}</i>	80	153	38	27	24	4	11	na	..	336
<i>Children's</i>	na	2.0	na	0.8	na	0.4	0.1	na	..	3.4
District/county	17	8	7	4	1	38
Supreme/Federal ^g	11.5	3.8	3.6	1.9	1.2	1.6	0.8	0.4	4.7	29.5
All civil courts	108	167	50	34	27	6	12	4	5	411
Federal Magistrates ^h	3	3
Family ^g	na	na	na

^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 Cases withdrawn after initial lodgment may not be recorded as a finalisation in some jurisdictions. ^d In NSW, Queensland and SA, magistrates' court (total) data exclude children's finalisations. ^e The Victorian data includes 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. ^f Queensland includes finalisations at its small claims tribunal. ^g The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service has implications for the finalisations data of the Federal Court and Family Court of Australia. During the transition to its new case management system (Casetrack), data from the old case management system cannot be used for the Family Court of WA and Family Court of Australia. ^h Based on the number of cases finalised in the federal law jurisdiction. The results do not include finalisations in the family law jurisdiction, so are likely to significantly underestimate the true level of finalisations. **na** Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.6.

The larger States have a higher number of criminal and civil finalisations. The 'number of finalisations per 100 000 people' is used to enable a better understanding of the comparative workload of a court (in relation to the size of the State or Territory population). For example, there were 3002 criminal court finalisations per 100 000 people in the magistrates' court in Australia in 2001-02. This ranged from 8547 in Tasmania to 1795 in the ACT (table 6A.7). There were 1753 civil court finalisations per 100 000 people in the magistrates' court in Australia. This ranged from 3418 in the ACT to 841 in Tasmania (table 6A.8). Tables 6A.7 and 6A.8 provide data on finalisations (per 100 000 population) for each State and Territory court and the Federal Court of Australia.

6.2 Policy developments in court administration services

The Australian community and the legal profession increasingly rely on the use of technology to obtain information, transact business and use online services. The court administration sector is responding to this demand by providing online court

services that will increase the level of accessibility (particularly for regional areas), extend the range of services and enhance current over-the-counter services.

Courts in a number of jurisdictions are developing a range of online services that are innovative in their approach, endeavouring to address the needs of court users and to provide for more streamlined processes for parties to court proceedings. Recent online and service developments include:

- the development of a web interface with the High Court's case management system and integration with an electronic document system to support extensive hard copy records;
- the implementation by the Family Court of Australia of: an integrated case management system (Casetrack) for that Court, the Federal Magistrates Service and the Family Court of WA; digital recording of all Family Court hearings; and an innovative and comprehensive enhancement to the Family Court's web site to support family law litigants, including self-represented litigants;
- the use of digital recording technology in the Federal Magistrates Service to assist judgment production, and the provision of example applications on the Federal Magistrates Service web site to assist self-represented litigants;
- the development of e-business applications in Queensland, which include electronic court bookings, electronic lodgment, electronic information on courts and electronic access to the civil information management system;
- the development in WA of: a web enabled e-lodgment module for its integrated court management system for the civil jurisdiction; 'e-brief' for the criminal jurisdiction in the Magistrates' Court; and an 'e-Appeal' to enable litigants to create their own electronic books;
- the implementation in SA of an online fines and enquiries system and an e-lodgment system that interfaces with its case management system, and the set-up of an e-mail response centre;
- in Tasmania, the roll out of a new criminal case management system during 2002-03 to enhance community access to information about criminal matters through the development of web-based views of sections of the database;
- in the ACT, the pilot of a case management system in its Court of Appeal, to assess the system's suitability for all ACT courts and tribunals; and
- the development in the NT of a web interface with its Integrated Justice Information System, and the use of a fines and penalties system that enables online payments.

The Federal Court's eCourt Strategy continues the Court's commitment to improving its practices and procedures. eCourt is a web-based courtroom that

assists in the management of interlocutory matters online. The technology enables parties to participate in the proceedings from their office or home. Two recent eCourt enhancements include a tutorial facility and a public transcript facility. Both eCourt and electronic filing are available through the Court's web site. Electronic filing allows for both the lodgment of documents and the payment of fees (where fees apply) online. e-trial was piloted during the year, whereby the majority of documents and related papers are stored and accessed electronically throughout the proceedings. The pilot involved using the technology on a remotely located Native Title hearing, enabling parties to access the trial documents and transcript electronically onsite or by dialing remotely into an Internet version of the case documentation. The e-trial pilot enabled the Court to examine issues of standards and protocols for courtroom technology.

The NSW Attorney-General's Department web site (Lawlink NSW) offers: electronic judgments for all NSW courts and tribunals available through Caselaw immediately after they are handed down; a one-stop help for victims of crime to find the support and information they need; and downloadable forms from many courts and other justice agencies. Other areas of technological access are also available in NSW, including: authenticated online lodgment of court documents, which was trialled in the Land and Environment Court; cooperation among justice agencies, which has been substantially improved through the Justice Agencies Data Exchange project; a video network covering 48 locations, which allows experts and other witnesses to give evidence to courts from remote and overseas locations; computer voice recognition for dictation, which is revolutionising the quality and efficiency of judicial work; and a major upgrade of court transcript services, with 16 district court rooms already networked with remote video and audio recording equipment.

6.3 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.

The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 6.3). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

The performance indicator framework for court administration services is under review, and changes may be included in next year's report. Processes to improve the

comparability of existing data and the completeness of the performance indicator framework are discussed in section 6.5.

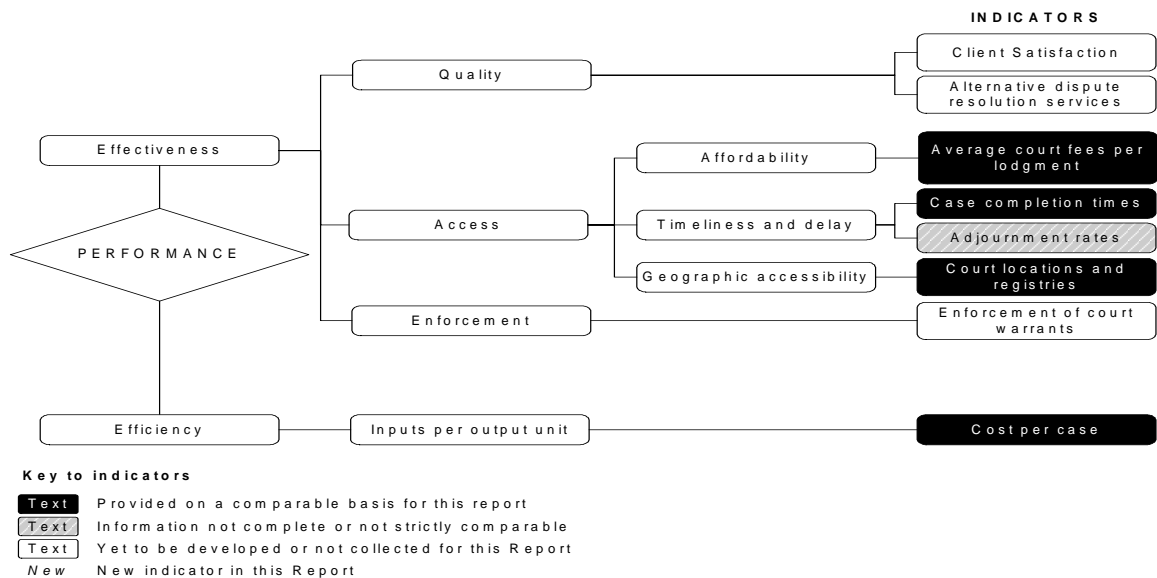
Box 6.5 Objectives for court administration

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; and
- to be independent yet publicly accountable for performance (Commission on Trial Court Performance Standards 1989).

In addition, all governments aim to provide court administration services in an efficient manner.

Figure 6.3 Performance indicators for court administration



6.4 Key performance indicator results

Different delivery locations, case loads, case types and government policies may affect the effectiveness and efficiency of court administration services. The allocation of cases to different courts also differs across jurisdictions. Performance comparison across States and Territories for specific indicators need to account for these factors. 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.

Effectiveness indicators

Quality

Court administration authorities undertake surveys on court quality by obtaining court users' views on court administration services (such as court staff, facilities and available information). A number of surveys by different courts in individual jurisdictions have generated data on court users' views. These surveys generally used different methods and sample sizes, and took place in different courts. It is not possible, therefore, to publish comparable data across jurisdictions on the outcomes of client satisfaction surveys.

The success of alternative dispute resolution services can also be a measure of quality. Alternative dispute resolution can be a more cost efficient and timely means of resolving disputes between civil parties without taking up court time. Comparability issues (particularly as they pertain to the service definition and to the mix of public and private providers) mean data on alternative dispute resolution procedures are not currently published.

Affordability

Court filing fees largely relate to civil cases. While court fees can be considerable, they are only part of the costs faced by litigants (with legal fees being more significant). As such, the 'average civil court fees per lodgment' are only a general guide to the costs faced by individual litigants. Comparisons need to account for courts not operating on a full cost recovery basis. Issues such as case type and the extent of user pay policies have a major bearing on affordability.

In 2001-02, average court fees collected per lodgment in higher courts were generally greater than those in intermediate and lower courts. NSW had the highest level of average civil fees collected per lodgment in the supreme court (\$1842) and Victoria had the highest in the district/county courts (\$783). For magistrates' courts (including children's courts), NSW had the highest level of average fees collected per lodgment (\$112) and Tasmania had the lowest (\$40). Average probate fees collected per lodgment were highest in NSW (\$578) and lowest in Tasmania (\$98) (table 6.9). In 2001-02, the average fee per lodgment in the Federal Court was \$939. The average civil court fees collected were \$106 for the Family Court of WA and \$45 for the Family Court of Australia. The WA Family Court does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Service and the Family Court of Australia so direct comparisons are not appropriate. The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service has reduced fees received by the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court. The Federal Magistrates Service average civil court fees per lodgment were \$174 (table 6.9).

Table 6.9 Average civil court fees collected per lodgment, 2001-02 (dollars)

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Magistrates' (total) ^{a, b, c}	112	74	78	75	69	40	62	105	..	89
<i>Magistrates' (only)</i>	114	75	78	77	70	42	64	na	..	89
District/county	777	783	266	528	195	601
Supreme/Federal ^d	1842	1184	594	480	208	108	658	429	939	1019
Probate — Supreme	578	227	na	286	492	98	548	300	..	379
Federal Magistrates ^e	174	174
Family courts ^d	106	45	54

^a The ACT court fees rise with inflation and traditionally have been low, with fees being charged only on lodgments and enforcements, and not for hearings in civil matters. ^b The Victorian Magistrates' Court fees incorporate both the criminal and civil jurisdictions, but the civil court fees are likely to account for a significant proportion. As well, the data include 74 315 residential tenancies and civil claim applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claim matters in their magistrates' courts. ^c Queensland includes lodgments (and fees) at its small claims tribunal. ^d The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service has reduced fees received for the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. The WA Family Court does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Service and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons with each are not possible. ^e Lodgments are made up of 46 873 family law forms and 3393 federal law cases. **na** Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.19.

The level of cost recovery from the collection of court fees varied between court levels and jurisdictions. The proportion of costs recovered for the magistrates' courts (53.0 per cent), the district/county court (60.0 per cent) and the supreme court (38.7 per cent) was highest in NSW. The level of cost recovery varied across the Federal Court (5.8 per cent), the Federal Magistrates Service (41.3 per cent), the Family Court of Australia (3.4 per cent) and the Family Court of WA (13.3 per cent) (table 6.10). Data for 2000-01 are available in table 6A.18.

Table 6.10 Civil court fees collected as a proportion of total civil expenditure (cost recovery), 2001-02 (per cent)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Magistrates' (total) ^{c, d}	53.0	46.9	47.9	26.7	19.4	49.2	12.3	29.0	..	43.0
District/county	60.0	35.4	21.7	16.6	9.2	36.4
Supreme/Federal ^{e, f}	38.7	34.5	19.3	12.1	8.5	7.5	23.7	2.3	5.8	18.9
Federal Magistrates	41.3	41.3
Family ^f	13.3	3.4	4.4

^a Recurrent expenditure with no income or revenue deducted. ^b Includes payroll tax where relevant. ^c The Victorian Magistrates' Court fees incorporate both the criminal and civil jurisdictions, but the civil court fees are likely to account for a significant proportion. ^d The ACT court fees rise with inflation and traditionally have been low, with fees being charged only for lodgments and enforcements, and not for hearings in civil matters. ^e Excludes probate costs. ^f The introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service has reduced fees received for the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. The WA Family Court does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Service and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons with each are not possible. .. Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.18.

Box 6.6 Explanation of timeliness data presented in this chapter

Timeliness is the time taken between the lodgment of a matter with the court and its finalisation. This can be affected by delays caused by factors other than those related to the workload of the court (eg. a witness is not available).

Differences in court levels and workloads

Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have a two-tier court system (that is, they do not have a district/county court) while the other jurisdictions have a three-tier court system. This difference needs to be taken into account when comparing timeliness performance.

As well, in all jurisdictions, the complexity and distribution of cases may vary. Some of the differences between State and Territory courts are covered on pp. 6.3–6.7. Some of the differences in Commonwealth courts are covered on pp. 6.7–6.8.

Collection of national data

Timeliness data are collected in accordance with the nationally agreed *2002 Court Administration Data Collection Manual*. This data collection is based on national counting rules, so there will be divergences between data presented in this chapter and data published by individual jurisdictions within their annual reports. There will also be differences with the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) *Higher Criminal Courts* publication, which uses different data collection methods and reference periods.

The emphasis of the Steering Committee is 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 is appropriately footnoted in the table and surrounding text.

The Steering Committee recognises, however, that unlike some other data collections, this collection does not have an intermediary data collector or validator such as the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare or the ABS. Instead, the process is one of continual improvement and refinement, with the long-term aim of ensuring a national data collection that covers court activities across the Commonwealth, State and Territory jurisdictions in a timely and comparable way.

Timeliness data reported

The following part of the chapter covers timeliness data on:

- 'all non-appeal matters finalised' for the criminal and civil courts of each State and Territory and the Commonwealth;
- 'matters finalised by trial' for the criminal and civil courts of each State and Territory and the Commonwealth;
- 'committal matters finalised' in the magistrates' court;
- 'appeal matters finalised' for the criminal and civil jurisdictions of the supreme courts and for the civil jurisdiction of the Federal Court and family courts; and
- 'coronial court matters finalised' in the magistrates' courts.

Box 6.7 What ‘all non-appeal matters finalised’ means

Part of the timeliness data in this chapter are reported according to ‘all non-appeal matters finalised’. This expression refers to all matters that have gone before the court, with the exception of appeals to higher courts and committals in the magistrates’ court, and that have been finalised. The two methods of finalisation are through:

- adjudication (a final judgment or decision by the court); or
- non-adjudication.

Non-adjudication can occur through a variety of means in both the criminal and civil courts. These means may include: withdrawn by prosecution; unfit to plead; accused dies; diplomatic immunity; statute of limitation applies; the matter is transferred to another court; settlement out of court; or the matter has expired (two years after the last action on the case for civil matters).

Source: SCRCSSP 2002.

Court administrators can influence the timeliness of criminal proceedings through case management, court rules and different practices and procedures. The timeliness data for the criminal courts should be considered in conjunction with the issues raised in boxes 6.6 and 6.7.

Timeliness is measured by the time taken between the lodgment of a matter with the court and the matter’s finalisation. In the criminal jurisdiction, a lodgment is determined according to the date on which the documentary evidence for a defendant is initially received/date stamped. The finalisation is the date on which all charges laid against a defendant are regarded as formally completed by the court and the defendant ceases to be an active unit of work to be dealt with by the court (eg. at acquittal or sentencing). This year’s data collection excludes bench warrants (warrants issued by a court for the arrest of a person who has been indicted) for all court levels. This may lead to some increase in timeliness but is consistent with the national definition of finalisation.

A brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State/Territory magistrates’ court are outlined in box 6.1 on page 6.3. The criminal jurisdiction of total magistrates’ courts (including children’s courts) in all States and Territories finalised 90.5 per cent of all non-appeal matters within six months in 2001-02. This proportion ranged from 96.0 per cent in NSW to 75.2 per cent in the ACT (table 6.11). Timeliness data for magistrates’ courts only (excluding children’s courts) are contained in table 6A.20.

Nationally, children's courts in 2001-02 finalised 87.8 per cent of criminal matters within six months. This proportion ranged from 95.5 per cent in Victoria to 43.7 per cent in the NT (table 6.11).

Table 6.11 All non-appeal matters finalised, criminal, 2001-02^{a, b, c}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Supreme^{d, e}										
No. of cases	145	226	685	131	79	466	163	275	..	2 170
<6 months (%)	33.8	69.9	78.2	80.2	54.4	64.4	39.9	67.6	..	66.5
6-12 months(%)	45.5	27.4	17.1	17.6	31.6	20.4	33.1	18.2	..	22.7
12-18 months (%)	11.7	1.8	4.2	1.5	6.3	6.9	11.0	10.2	..	6.2
>18 months (%)	9.0	0.9	0.4	0.8	7.6	8.4	16.0	4.0	..	4.7
District/county										
No. of cases	3 856	1 831	7 716	2 988	1 192	17 583
<6 months (%)	74.9	58.9	80.1	61.6	67.2	72.7
6-12 months(%)	17.8	25.9	12.6	12.8	22.2	15.8
12-18 months (%)	3.5	9.4	5.4	17.0	6.2	7.4
>18 months (%)	3.8	5.7	2.0	8.6	4.4	4.0
Magistrates' total^{e, f, g}										
No. of cases ('000)	129	116	144	65	59	40	6	12	..	570
<6 months (%)	96.0	92.6	93.9	92.6	78.8	75.4	75.2	75.4	..	90.5
6-12 months(%)	2.2	5.1	4.2	5.4	11.6	15.1	14.1	10.9	..	5.8
12-18 months (%) ^h	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.0	3.1	4.0	3.9	4.4	..	1.8
>18 months (%)	0.5	0.8	0.4	1.0	6.5	5.5	6.8	9.3	..	1.8
Children'sⁱ										
No. of cases	na	8 428	8 396	6 538	4 719	1 830	605	684	..	31 200
<6 months (%)	na	95.5	93.8	93.5	73.0	60.9	84.0	43.7	..	87.8
6-12 months(%)	na	3.9	4.8	4.7	16.6	21.7	7.3	19.6	..	7.7
12-18 months (%)	na	0.6	1.1	0.8	4.8	8.3	1.7	10.5	..	2.1
>18 months (%)	na	-	0.2	1.0	5.6	9.1	7.1	26.2	..	2.4

^a Care needs to be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary. ^b Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^c Excludes data for bench warrants for all court levels, which may lead to some increase in timeliness but is consistent with the definition of finalisation. ^d The significantly large amount of cases heard in Queensland relates to all second offences for drug matters going automatically to the Supreme Court. This does not occur in any other jurisdiction. In contrast, in NSW, almost all cases heard in the Supreme Court relate to murder or manslaughter. ^e Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not have a district/county court. This difference needs to be considered when comparing timeliness across States and Territories. ^f In Tasmania, the number of lodgments declined by between 8000 and 10 000 matters due to information technology difficulties experienced by a major court user. This has had a considerable flow-on effect on finalisations. The matters lodged by this user are usually resolved within the year of lodgment. It is estimated, therefore, that finalisations are also affected by between 8000 and 10 000 matters. ^g NSW Magistrates' Court (total) data exclude children's court timeliness. ^h The Victorian Magistrates' Court can only provide data for the period greater than 12 months and less than 24 months. As a result, some data for matters finalised after more than 18 months are included in the data for the period 12-18 months. ⁱ Excludes data on committals heard in the children's courts. na Not available. .. Not applicable. - Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.20.

Box 6.2 (on page 6.4) contains a brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State and Territory district/county court. Throughout Australia, district/county courts in 2001-02 finalised 72.7 per cent of all non-appeal criminal matters within six months. This proportion ranged from 80.1 per cent in Queensland to 58.9 per cent in Victoria (table 6.11).

Box 6.3 (on page 6.5) contains a brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State and Territory supreme court. Most noticeably, the significantly larger amount of cases heard in the Queensland Supreme Court relates to all second offences for drug matters going automatically to that court. This does not occur in any other jurisdiction. In the supreme courts, a 12 month benchmark for finalising matters is used because the proceedings are generally more complex. Supreme courts in all States and Territories in 2001-02 finalised 89.2 per cent of all non-appeal criminal matters within 12 months. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 97.8 per cent in WA to 73.0 per cent in the ACT (table 6.11).

The timeliness data for the civil courts should be considered in conjunction with the issues raised in boxes 6.6 and 6.7. In the civil jurisdiction, a lodgment is determined as the date of the initial filing or application to the court. The finalisation is on the date on which all matters pertaining to the file are regarded as formally completed by the courts and the file ceases to be an active unit of work to be dealt with by the courts (eg. through a final order).

The following factors may affect timeliness within the civil courts.

- Where civil cases are contested, the one 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 by the consent of the parties and such consent arrangements are outside the control of the court.
- The court may employ case management practices (for example, mediation) that may take time but are cheaper than attending court.
- A case is regarded as finalised (or closed) two years after the last action on the case (or according to the individual jurisdiction's own expiry date rules).

Longer case completion times in the civil jurisdiction generally reflect different case flow management practices and the priority given to criminal matters.

Box 6.1 (on page 6.3) contains a brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State and Territory magistrates' court. Nationally, the civil jurisdiction of total magistrates' courts in 2001-02 finalised 86.3 per cent of all non-

appeal cases within six months. Across jurisdictions, this proportion was highest in Victoria (95.8 per cent). The Victorian data include 72 788 residential tenancy and civil claims applications that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy matters in their magistrates' courts. All of the Victorian tribunal matters were finalised within six months. The lowest proportion of total magistrates' court cases finalised within six months was in the ACT (43.6 per cent) (table 6.12). Timeliness data on magistrates' courts only (excluding children's courts) are contained in table 6A.21.

For children's courts, from the four jurisdictions that provided 2001-02 data, Victoria completed 100.0 per cent of cases within six months while WA completed 74.9 per cent (table 6.12).

Box 6.2 (on page 6.4) contains a brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State and Territory district/county court. Nationally, the civil jurisdiction of district/county courts in 2001-02 finalised 25.4 per cent of all non-appeal cases within six months. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 39.4 per cent in Queensland to 19.5 per cent in NSW (table 6.12). NSW is unable to include all of its undefended matters and default judgments within the timeliness data. This is likely to lead to a number of matters, that could potentially be resolved quickly, not being included.

Box 6.3 (on page 6.5) contains a brief description of the differences in the jurisdiction of each State and Territory supreme court. In the supreme courts, a 12 month benchmark is used because the proceedings are generally more complex. Supreme courts and the Federal Court in 2001-02 finalised 74.5 per cent of all non-appeal civil cases within 12 months. Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 94.3 per cent in WA to 46.3 per cent in the NT (table 6.12). The Federal Court of Australia finalised 80.8 per cent of cases within 12 months.

The Federal Magistrates Service in 2001-02 finalised 98.1 per cent of its federal law cases within 12 months. This proportion does not account for the finalisation of family law matters, which were not reported. The Family Court of WA and the Family Court of Australia did not provide data on timeliness for their finalised non-appeal matters (table 6.12).

Table 6.12 All non-appeal matters finalised, civil, 2001-02^{a, b, c}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
Supreme^d/Federal										
No. of cases	10 569	3 501	3 358	1 628	1 084	1 588	756	257	3 949	26 690
<6 months (%)	57.1	59.8	61.0	72.4	78.0	45.0	24.5	38.5	63.8	58.9
6–12 months (%)	17.8	13.5	8.1	21.9	8.9	14.0	23.5	7.8	17.0	15.6
12–18 months (%)	7.7	13.7	8.0	1.4	8.5	10.5	14.8	12.8	7.3	8.5
>18 months (%)	17.4	13.0	22.9	4.4	4.7	30.5	37.2	40.9	11.9	17.0
District/county										
No. of cases	17 221	7 985	7 127	3 677	1 335	37 345
<6 months (%)	19.5	23.0	39.4	29.4	31.5	25.4
6–12 months (%)	39.2	23.0	23.1	21.8	24.9	30.4
12–18 months (%)	23.6	37.0	30.7	20.5	15.1	27.2
>18 months (%)	17.8	17.0	6.8	28.4	28.5	16.9
Magistrates' total^{d, e, f, g, h}										
No. of cases ('000)	80	155	38	28	24	4	11	4	..	344
<6 months (%)	82.3	95.8	86.8	93.7	49.4	90.9	43.6	77.8	..	86.3
6–12 months (%)	12.3	3.1	8.6	4.4	16.4	6.3	3.5	10.3	..	7.0
12–18 months (%)	2.8	0.6	2.1	1.1	23.1	2.2	8.8	4.1	..	3.2
>18 months (%)	2.5	0.4	2.5	0.7	11.0	0.6	44.0	7.8	..	3.4
Children'sⁱ										
No. of cases	na	2 017	na	829	na	404	147	na	..	3 397
<6 months (%)	na	100.0	na	74.9	na	87.1	92.5	na	..	92.0
6–12 months (%)	na	–	na	18.0	na	7.9	7.5	na	..	5.7
12–18 months (%)	na	–	na	4.6	na	3.5	–	na	..	1.5
>18 months (%)	na	–	na	2.5	na	1.5	–	na	..	0.8
Federal Magistrates^j										
No. of cases	3 044	3 044
<6 months (%)	88.6	88.6
6–12 months (%)	9.5	9.5
12–18 months (%)	1.8	1.8
>18 months (%)	0.1	0.1

^a Care needs to be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary. ^b The parties to a case can significantly affect the conduct and timeliness of a case (for example, matters adjourned by the consent of the parties are outside the control of the court). ^c Timeliness data were not available for the Family Court of WA or the Family Court of Australia during the transition to the new case management system (Casetrack). ^d Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have a two-tier court system (that is, they do not have a district/county court) while the other jurisdictions have a three-tier court system. This difference needs to be considered when comparing timeliness across States and Territories. ^e The Victorian data includes 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included as other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. All of the Victorian tribunal matters were finalised within six months. ^f Queensland includes finalisations at its small claims tribunal. ^g For the first time this year, the ACT Magistrates' Court cases are automatically finalised if there has been no activity for 18 months. Other jurisdictions use the expiry dates recognised by their court, or the national rule of two years after the last action on the case. ^h NSW, Queensland and SA exclude data on children's court timeliness. ⁱ The Victorian Children's Court average times ranged between four and 14 weeks depending on the type of matter. ^j Includes only data on federal law cases, not on family law matters. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable. **–** Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.21.

Timeliness — criminal and civil (cases finalised by trial)

Box 6.8 What ‘matters finalised by trial’ means

The timeliness data in the attachment are reported according to ‘matters finalised by trial’. These matters are a subset of ‘all non-appeal matters finalised’ because they do not include those matters that were finalised by means of non-adjudication (that is, it removes matters dealt with by the court without requiring a trial, such as matters transferred to another court level, withdrawn by prosecution or settled out of court etc).

The national data dictionary definition for a criminal trial is:

‘where criminal charges are finally determined by Judge and jury, or by Judge (Magistrate) alone by way of an evidentiary hearing in court.’

This includes a directed verdict arising from a change of plea after (but not before) the commencement of a trial.

The national data dictionary definition for a civil trial is:

‘final determination of a cause of action by a Judge (Magistrate) by way of an evidentiary hearing in court.’

Source: SCRCSSP 2002.

The timeliness data for the criminal and civil courts need to be considered in conjunction with the issues raised in boxes 6.6 and 6.8. The data on timeliness by trials are contained in tables 6A.23 and 6A.24. The data in the attachment tables (6A.23 and 6A.24) can be used as an additional tool to view the timeliness performance of jurisdictions. These timeliness by trial data, published for the first time, are reported in the attachment and not in the chapter because the data are only preliminary. Jurisdictions have expressed concerns regarding the comparability of the data.

Improvements in the quality of the timeliness by trial data (6A.23 and 6A.24) are expected over time as the definition, and jurisdictions data collection practices, become more refined. The reporting of these trial data in the future is likely to add to information about timeliness, through the removal of a substantial amount of matters that are minor or dealt with before trial.

Timeliness — committal proceedings

Committals are the first stage of hearing indictable (serious) matters in the criminal court system. A magistrate in a committal hearing assesses the sufficiency of evidence presented against the defendant and decides whether to commit the matter for trial or sentence in a superior court. Defendants are often held in custody

pending a committal hearing and trial if ordered. The timely conduct of the committal hearing on the court's receipt of the charge sheet is important for timely adjudication of the charges against the defendant.

Nationally, 35.9 per cent of committal hearings in 2001-02 were finalised within three months of the court's receipt of charges. A further 36.4 per cent were finalised in the subsequent three months. Across jurisdictions, committal hearings finalised within three months ranged from 43.7 per cent in SA to 28.1 per cent in WA (table 6.13). In WA the data relate to contested cases only and not fast-track committals (where the defendant pleads guilty in the Magistrates' Court and is committed to the District Court for sentencing).

Table 6.13 **Committal (criminal) matters finalised, magistrates' courts, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d}**

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Cwlth	Total
No. of cases	3 986	2 202	8 888	1 614	1 126	na	190	214	..	18 220
<3 months (%)	33.1	35.1	37.5	28.1	43.7	na	40.0	43.0	..	35.9
3-6 months (%)	31.3	31.2	37.4	48.9	42.0	na	32.6	22.4	..	36.4
>6-12 months (%)	23.1	27.2	21.2	18.5	11.7	na	24.7	19.2	..	21.5
>12 months (%)	12.4	6.5	3.9	4.6	2.6	na	2.6	15.4	..	6.2

^a Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^b NSW data relate to 80 per cent of the criminal matters captured in this jurisdiction. ^c WA data relate to contested cases only, not fast-track committals (where the defendant pleads guilty in the Magistrates' Court and is committed to the District Court for sentencing). ^d Tasmania is unable to provide data as a result of the limitations of its present information technology system. This problem will be overcome with the roll-out of a new criminal case management system in 2002-03. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.26.

Timeliness — appeals

Appeals from lower courts are predominantly heard by the district/county courts and supreme courts of the States and Territories. The full bench of the Federal Court hears appeals from cases heard by a single Justice of the Federal Court, the supreme courts of the ACT and Norfolk Island, and decisions of the Federal Magistrates Service. As well, the Federal Court hears certain decisions of State supreme courts exercising federal jurisdiction, and decisions of the Administrative Appeals Tribunal where a judicial member was involved.

Criminal appeals are generally shorter than civil ones. In supreme courts, a 12 month benchmark is used as a result of the generally more complex nature of the proceedings. Within supreme courts in 2001-02, 81.8 per cent of criminal appeals were finalised within 12 months. For civil appeals, 83.0 per cent were finalised within 12 months within the supreme courts and the Federal Court (table 6.14).

The highest proportion of criminal appeals in 2001-02 finalised within 12 months was in SA (98.7 per cent). The lowest proportion was in WA (73.5 per cent). SA finalised the highest proportion of civil appeals within 12 months (97.9 per cent) while Victoria finalised the lowest proportion (67.3 per cent) (table 6.14). The Federal Court of Australia finalised 89.0 per cent of civil cases within 12 months. Care should be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary.

Table 6.14 **Appeal matters finalised, supreme courts and the Federal Court, 2001-02^{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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Criminal										
<i>No. of cases</i>	989	385	338	264	299	23	34	33	..	2 365
<6 months (%)	32.7	44.7	81.1	45.1	91.0	43.5	73.5	84.8	..	51.7
6–12 months (%)	42.7	29.1	16.9	28.4	7.7	52.2	20.6	9.1	..	30.1
12–18 months (%)	16.0	15.1	2.1	15.9	0.7	4.3	2.9	3.0	..	11.4
>18 months (%)	8.7	11.2	–	10.6	0.7	–	2.9	3.0	..	6.8
Civil										
<i>No. of cases</i>	885	321	223	313	140	49	39	127	717	2 814
<6 months (%)	39.0	48.3	55.2	44.1	87.9	71.4	61.5	70.1	54.4	50.5
6–12 months (%)	40.6	19.0	35.4	33.2	10.0	14.3	30.8	24.4	34.6	32.5
12–18 months (%)	13.6	10.3	9.4	12.8	1.4	10.2	2.6	3.9	6.1	9.6
>18 months (%)	6.9	22.4	–	9.9	0.7	4.1	5.1	1.6	4.9	7.3

^a Care needs to be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary. ^b Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.25.

Within the district/county courts in 2001-02, 91.7 per cent of criminal appeals and 56.4 per cent of civil appeals were finalised within six months through the district/county courts (table 6.15). Across jurisdictions, criminal appeals are heard only in the NSW, Victoria and Queensland district/county courts. The highest proportion of criminal appeals in 2001-02 finalised within six months was in NSW (94.3 per cent). The lowest proportion was in Queensland (48.9 per cent).

South Australia finalised the largest proportion of civil appeals in 2001-02 within six months (100.0 per cent), while WA finalised the lowest proportion (26.6 per cent) (table 6.15). Care needs to be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary.

Table 6.15 **Appeal matters finalised, district/county courts, 2001-02^{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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Criminal										
<i>No. of cases</i>	5367	1650	225	7242
<6 months (%)	94.3	88.8	48.9	91.7
6–12 months (%)	4.5	5.9	36.4	5.8
12–18 months (%)	0.6	1.9	10.7	1.2
>18 months (%)	0.6	3.3	4.0	1.3
Civil										
<i>No. of cases</i>	49	81	368	124	80	702
<6 months (%)	63.3	85.2	49.7	26.6	100.0	56.4
6–12 months (%)	10.2	11.1	28.8	23.4	–	21.2
12–18 months (%)	6.1	2.5	19.6	15.3	–	13.7
>18 months (%)	20.4	1.2	1.9	34.7	–	8.7

^a Care needs to be taken when comparing timeliness data across jurisdictions because both the complexity and distribution of cases may vary. ^b Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.25.

The Family Court of Australia finalised 383 forms within 2001-02, of which 59.8 per cent were completed within six months and 87.7 per cent were completed within 12 months (table 6.16).

Table 6.16 **Appeal matters finalised, family courts, 2001-02^{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>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
Civil										
<i>No. of cases</i>	na	383	383
<6 months (%)	na	59.8	59.8
6–12 months (%)	na	27.9	27.9
12–18 months (%)	na	9.9	9.9
>18 months (%)	na	2.3	2.3

^a Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^b WA data will not be available until the Family Court of WA implements the national case track information technology system. **na** Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: Commonwealth and State governments (unpublished); table 6A.25.

Timeliness — coroners' courts

Across Australia, 75.9 per cent of coronial cases were finalised within six months in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the proportion was highest in the ACT (97.7 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (43.5 per cent) (table 6.17).

The coroners' court timeliness data include finalisations of fire matters within NSW, Queensland and the ACT.

Table 6.17 Coroners' court matters finalised, 2001-02^{a, b}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^c</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Cwlth</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>No. of cases</i>	5 158	4 455	3 897	1 368	3 740	627	1 821	214	..	21 280
<6 months (%)	82.6	66.0	67.9	66.6	84.1	43.5	97.7	89.3	..	75.9
6–12 months (%)	8.7	17.1	18.8	21.9	9.8	28.4	1.7	1.9	..	13.3
12–18 months (%)	4.7	6.5	6.8	4.5	2.5	9.3	0.4	7.5	..	4.9
>18 months (%)	4.0	10.3	6.5	7.0	3.5	18.8	0.2	1.4	..	6.0

^a Totals may not sum to 100 per cent as a result of rounding. ^b The timeliness data include finalisations of fires for NSW, Queensland and the ACT. ^c The ACT estimated the number of fire finalisations as the number of fire lodgments (1575 fires). Fires are reported and finalised within a week unless there is an inquiry. There were no fire inquiries in the ACT during the reporting period. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.20.

Timeliness — adjournment rates on the first day of hearing

The number of adjournments partly reflects the timeliness of courts. Adjournments at the request of the parties are generally considered to be outside the control of the court, and they may occur when the parties are not ready or a witness is not available. A court may also order an adjournment, for example, when overlisting occurs. Court-ordered adjournments can be used to approximate adjournments as a result of the unavailability of judicial time.

Table 6A.27 contains information on court-ordered (and party-requested) adjournments on the first day of a hearing. As such, it does not encompass all of the possible adjournments that may occur during a hearing. Further, the hearings data are regarded as unreliable, as a result of differing interpretations of the national data collection manual. The results, therefore, need to be viewed with caution.

Geographic accessibility — court locations and registries

Providing rural communities with access to judicial services can involve significant costs for court administration agencies. The services provided to improve the accessibility of courts to rural and remote communities include:

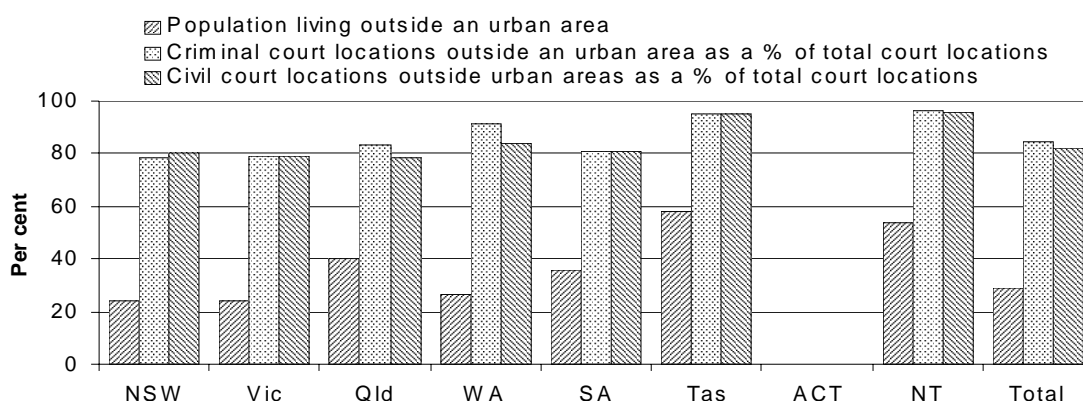
- judicial circuits, where magistrates/judges tour rural courthouses to hear cases;
- the location of magistrates' courts in police stations, whereby police officers and Justices of the Peace staff the courts (when magistrates are not available);
- occasional caravan courts by superior courts in remote areas; and

- video conferencing facilities to link capital city courthouses to witnesses in remote locations.

One indicator of the accessibility of court services is the relationship between the proportion of magistrates' court locations in either urban or non-urban areas and the proportion of the population residing in either urban or non-urban areas of the State or Territory. In all States and Territories, the proportion of magistrates' court locations (in both the criminal and civil jurisdictions) in non-urban areas in 2001-02 exceeded the proportion of the population residing in non-urban areas (figure 6.4). States and Territories with relatively high proportions of their population in non-urban areas generally also had a higher proportion of magistrates' courts located in non-urban areas. Court locations include permanent locations, temporary locations and registries without hearings.

In the criminal jurisdiction, the NT had the highest proportion (96.0 per cent) of magistrates' courts located outside an urban area, while NSW had the lowest proportion (78.4 per cent). In the civil jurisdiction, the NT had the highest proportion (95.5 per cent) of magistrates' courts located outside urban areas, while, excluding the ACT, Queensland had the lowest share (78.3 per cent) (figure 6.4). The ACT Magistrates' Court is housed in one urban building — which provides administration and resources for the criminal, civil, coroner's and children's court jurisdictions — but there are no non-urban areas within the ACT (figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4 **Criminal and civil magistrates' court locations outside an urban area, 2001-02 (per cent)^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Court locations include permanent locations, temporary locations and registries without hearings. ^b Urban areas include State and Territory capital city statistical divisions and other urban areas (with populations of 100 000 or more). Non-urban areas include remote areas (defined in terms of low population density and long distances to large population centres) and rural areas (which include the remainder of non-urban statistical local areas). ^c The ACT Magistrates' Court is housed in one building, which provides administration and resources for the criminal, civil, coroner's and children's court jurisdictions. ^d In Tasmania all civil and criminal courts are co-located. Victoria, SA, and the ACT either have their courts co-located or cannot split between their criminal and civil locations.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABS; DPIE and DSH (1994); table 6A.28.

Efficiency indicators

In this year's chapter, 'expenditure less income (excluding fines) per finalisation' is used as the efficiency indicator. An individual jurisdiction's efficiency (calculated by comparing recurrent costs with total matters finalised) is an imperfect measure. The following should be considered in any analysis of the efficiency results presented within this chapter.

- Some finalisations will 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 the one case may involve several related applications or issues that require judgments and decisions by the court.
- The seriousness and complexity of cases heard in each jurisdiction's equivalent court often vary.
- The expenditure provided may include arbitrary financial splits between criminal and civil expenditure.
- 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, which also examines performance of service delivery.

The expenditure data exclude payroll tax for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT (except where otherwise stated) to improve the comparability of efficiency indicators with the remaining jurisdictions (that are exempt from payroll tax). Jurisdictions that have not provided data are excluded from the calculation of the national or total figure.

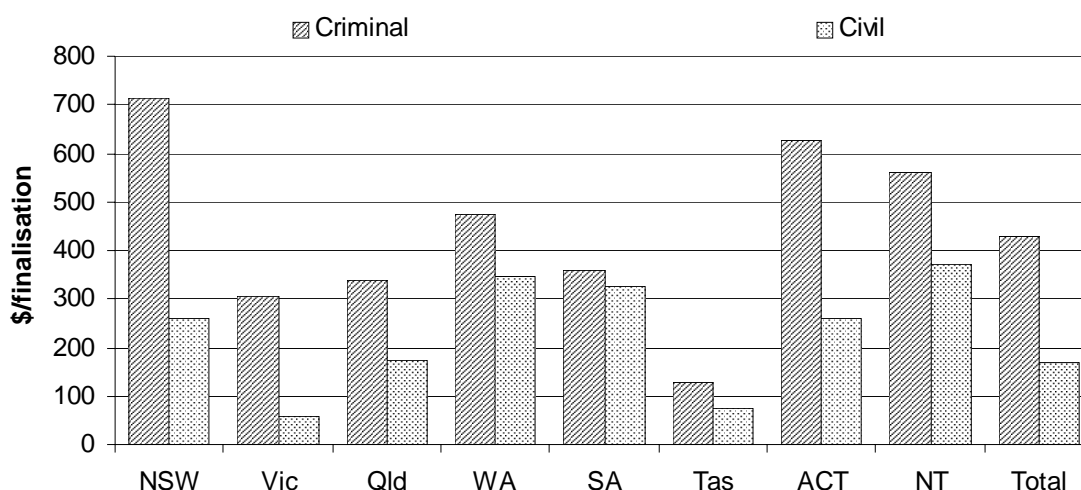
Expenditure less income per finalisation for total magistrates' courts (including magistrates' and children's courts)

Nationally, expenditure less income per criminal finalisation for total magistrates' courts (including children's courts but excluding electronic courts) was \$427 in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in NSW (\$713) and lowest in

Tasmania (\$126) (figure 6.5). In NSW, criminal finalisations exclude children's court finalisations but include children's court expenditure, which creates a slightly increased expenditure per finalisation for the magistrates' court (total). All other jurisdictions include criminal children's court finalisations and expenditure.

Nationally, expenditure less income per civil finalisation for total magistrates' courts (including children's courts) was \$171. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$371) and lowest in Victoria (\$60) (figure 6.5). The Victorian data include 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications, and their associated expenditure, that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.5 **Expenditure less income per finalisation, total magistrates' courts (excluding electronic courts), 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}**



^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 for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT. ^d The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction. ^e NSW criminal finalisations exclude children's court finalisations but include children's court expenditure, which creates a slightly increased expenditure per finalisation for the magistrates' court (total). All other jurisdictions include criminal children's court finalisations and expenditure. ^f In the civil jurisdiction, the Victorian data include 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications, and the associated expenditure, that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters have been included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. ^g In the civil jurisdiction, Queensland data include finalisations and associated expenditure from its small claims tribunal, but exclude children's court finalisations and expenditure. ^h In the civil jurisdiction, NSW 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' court (total). All other jurisdictions include civil children's court data.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.29 and 6A.30.

Box 6.9 The impact of the electronic courts on the magistrates' courts

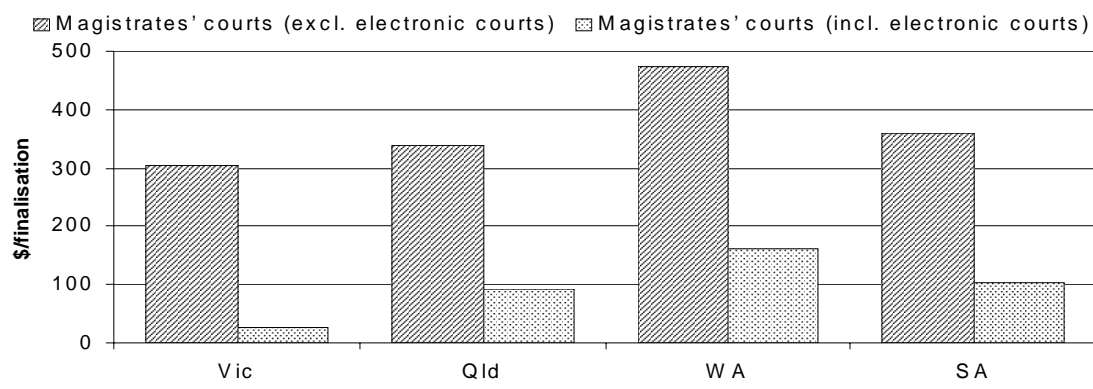
All State, Territory and Commonwealth jurisdictions operate tribunals and specialist courts, partly to reduce the workload on courts such as the magistrates' courts.

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. For the sake of comparability, electronic court data have been removed from the analysis of magistrates' court efficiency, as shown in figure 6.5.

The impact of the electronic court on the magistrates' court efficiency data can be seen when those data include the cost (less income) of operating electronic courts, and the finalisations generated from electronic courts.

The consequent 'expenditure less income per finalisation' for the magistrates' courts is reduced within each jurisdiction (assuming that all of the matters dealt with by the electronic courts would otherwise have been dealt with by the magistrates' courts). This effect is shown in the figure below and table 6A.29.



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.

Source: table 6A.29.

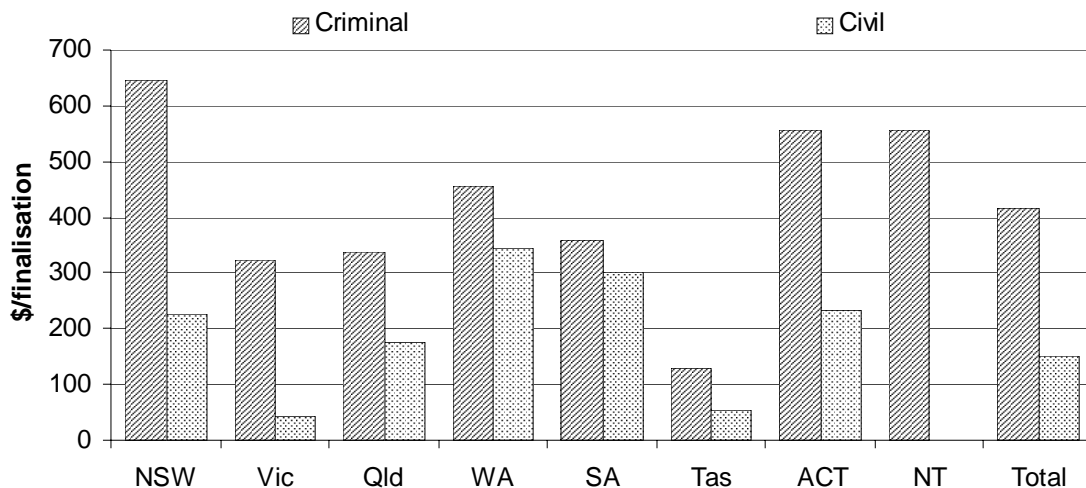
*Expenditure less income per finalisation for magistrates' courts only
(excluding electronic and children's courts)*

In 2001-02, expenditure less income per criminal finalisation for magistrates' courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts) was \$415 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in NSW (\$647) and lowest in Tasmania (\$128) (figure 6.6).

Nationally, expenditure less income per civil finalisation for the magistrates' courts only (excluding children's courts) was \$150. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in WA (\$345) and lowest in Victoria (\$42) (figure 6.6).

The Victorian data include 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications, and the associated expenditure, that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.6 Expenditure less income per finalisation, magistrates' courts only (excluding electronic, children's courts), 2001-02^{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 for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT. ^c The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction. ^d In the civil jurisdiction, the Victorian data include 72 778 residential tenancy and civil claims applications, and the associated expenditure, that were finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. These tribunal matters are included because other States and Territories (such as NSW) deal with residential tenancy and civil claims matters in their magistrates' courts. ^e In the civil jurisdiction, Queensland data include finalisations and associated expenditure from its small claims tribunal. ^f The NT does not provide civil magistrates' court data and children's court data separately.

^f The NT does not provide civil magistrates' court data and children's court data separately.

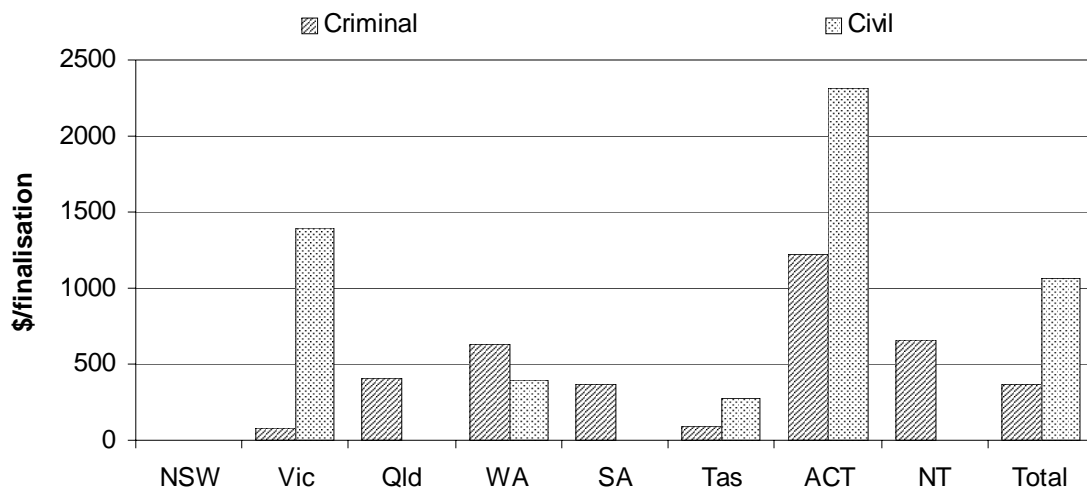
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.29 and 6A.30.

Expenditure less income per finalisation for children's courts

In 2001-02, expenditure less income per criminal finalisation for children's courts was \$363 nationally. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the ACT (\$1221) and lowest in Victoria (\$83) (figure 6.7).

Nationally, expenditure less income per civil finalisation for the children's courts was \$1061. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the ACT (\$2318) and lowest in Tasmania (\$273) (figure 6.7). The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.7 **Expenditure less income per finalisation, children's courts, 2001-02**^{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 for Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT. ^c The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction. ^d Does not include finalisations for committals heard in the children's courts. ^e NSW has not provided children's court criminal finalisations. ^f NSW, Queensland, SA and the NT have not provided Children's court civil finalisations data.

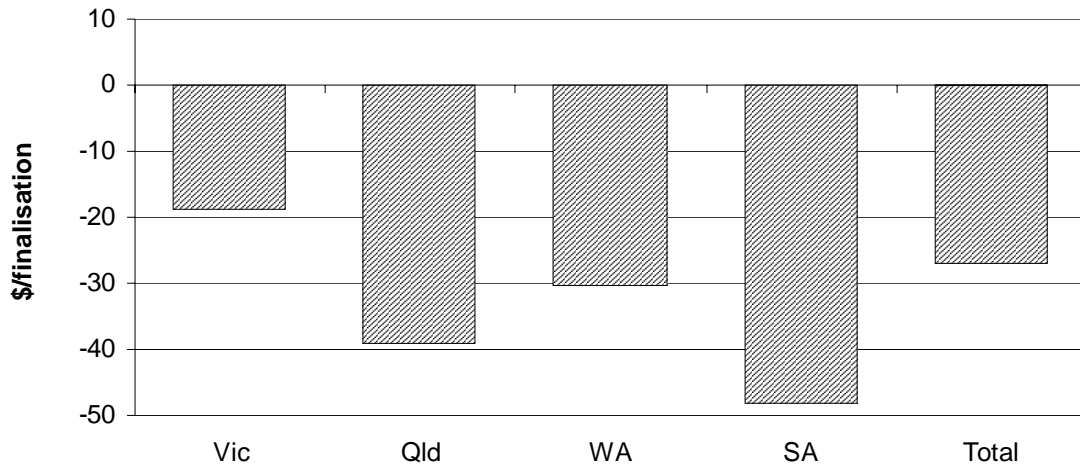
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.29 and 6A.30.

Expenditure less income per finalisation for electronic courts

All electronic courts in 2001-02 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 SA (\$48) and lowest in Victoria (\$19) (figure 6.8).

New South Wales, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not operate electronic courts. They may, however, operate bodies (such as a State debt recovery office) that perform similar functions, but do not operate under the status of a court.

Figure 6.8 **Expenditure less income per finalisation, electronic courts, 2001-02^{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 for Victoria, Queensland and SA. **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 status of a court.

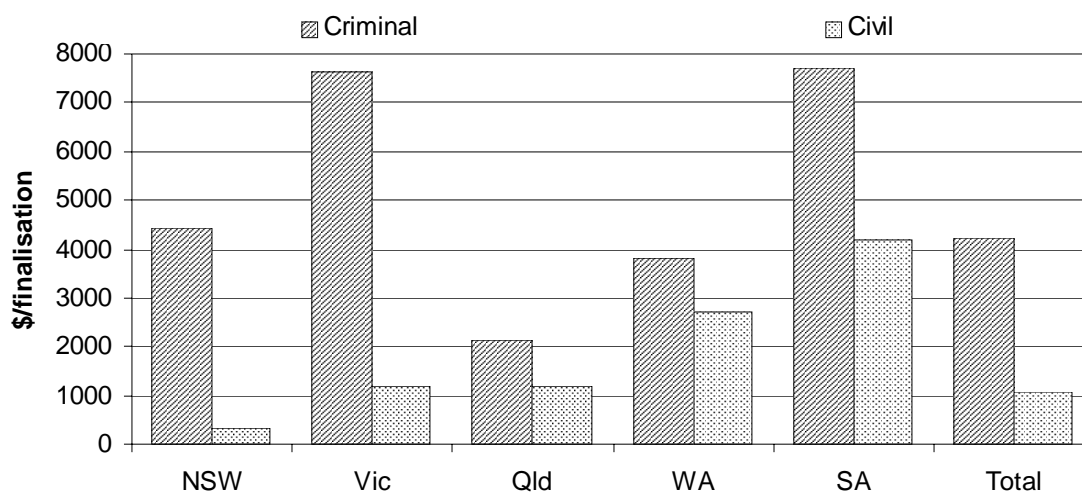
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.29.

Expenditure less income per finalisation for district/county courts

In 2001-02, expenditure less income per criminal finalisation for district/county courts was \$4227. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in SA (\$7710) and lowest in Queensland (\$2123) (figure 6.9).

Nationally, expenditure less income per civil finalisation for district/county courts was \$1062. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in SA (\$4182) and lowest in NSW (\$316) (figure 6.9). Tasmania, the ACT, the NT and the Commonwealth do not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.9 Expenditure less income revenue per finalisation, district/county courts, 2001-02^{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 for NSW, Victoria, Queensland and SA. ^c Tasmania, the ACT, the NT and the Commonwealth do not operate district/county courts.

Source: State governments (unpublished); tables 6A.29 and 6A.30.

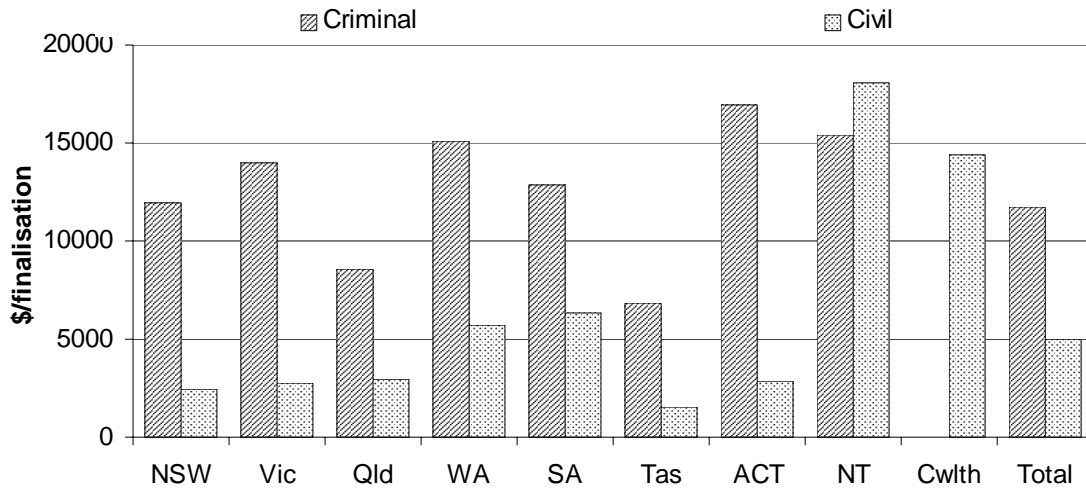
Expenditure less income per finalisation for the supreme courts and the Federal Court

In 2001-02, expenditure less income per criminal finalisation in the supreme courts was \$11 711. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the ACT (\$16 916) and lowest in Tasmania (\$6873) (figure 6.10).

Nationally, expenditure less income per civil finalisation was \$4957. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$18 099) and lowest in Tasmania (\$1498) (figure 6.10).

The Federal Court expenditure less income per finalisation in the civil jurisdiction was \$14 404 (figure 6.10). Data for the Federal Court include the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Service.

Figure 6.10 Expenditure less income per finalisation, supreme courts and Federal Court, 2001-02^{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 for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT. ^c Data for the Federal Court include the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Service. As well, the introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service has an impact on the workload and costs of the Federal Court. The Federal Court does not operate in the criminal jurisdiction.

Source: Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 6A.29 and 6A.30.

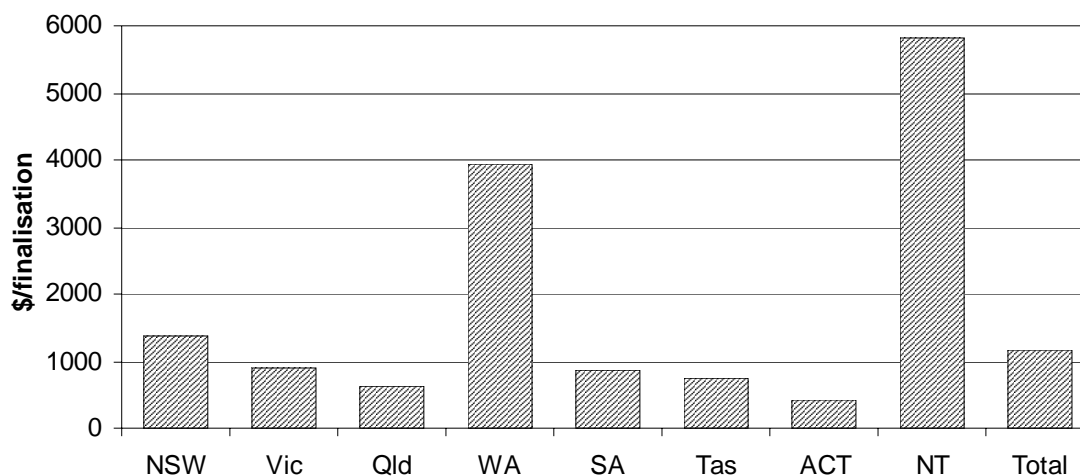
Expenditure less income per reported death and fire for coroners' courts

Nationally, the coroners' courts expenditure per reported death and fire was \$1158 in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in the NT (\$5813) and lowest in the ACT (\$417) (figure 6.11).

Some jurisdictions have included autopsy and chemical analysis costs within their expenditure data, but other jurisdictions have excluded these costs, as they are incurred outside their immediate control.

Data for NSW, Queensland and the ACT include fires reported to the coroner; all other jurisdictions do not include these data, so care needs to be taken when making comparisons. The Commonwealth does not operate in this court jurisdiction.

Figure 6.11 **Expenditure less income per finalisation, coroners' courts, 2001-02^{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 for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania and the NT. ^c Data for NSW, Queensland and the ACT include fires reported to the coroner. All other jurisdictions do not include this data.
^d WA expenditure includes \$1.7 million and \$1.4 million incurred directly and indirectly, respectively, for autopsy and chemical analysis work. Some jurisdictions are not able to ascertain autopsy and chemical analysis costs as they are incurred outside their immediate control.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 6A.29.

Expenditure less income per lodgment for the family courts

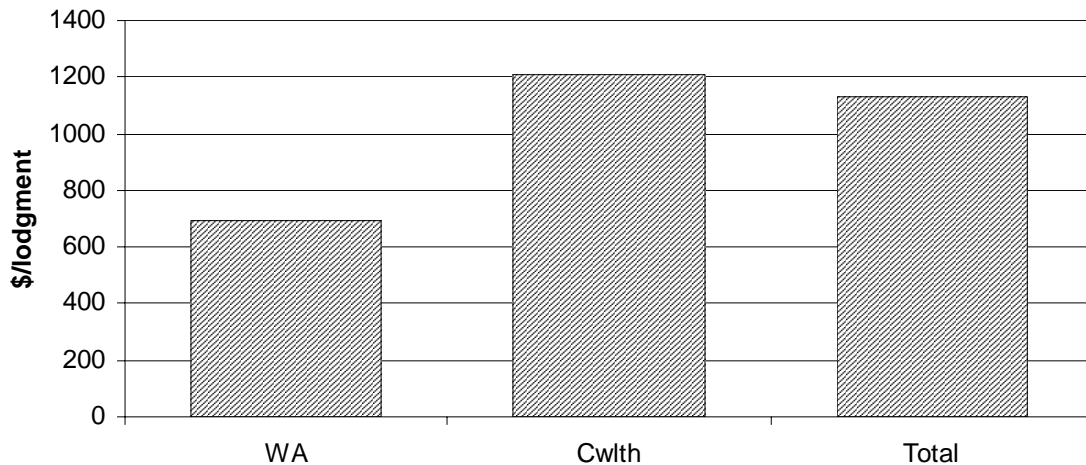
The Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA are unable to compile information on the number of finalisations for this reporting period. Lodgment data, however, are available. As a result, the efficiency measure used is 'expenditure less income per lodgment'.

The establishment of the Federal Magistrates Service has implications for the number of finalisations and expenditure associated with the Family Court of Australia. The intention is for the Federal Magistrates Service to take on some of the workload previously managed by the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia.

In 2001-02, for the two family court services, expenditure less income per lodgment was \$1209 for the Family Court of Australia and \$695 for the Family Court of WA (figure 6.12). The data for the Family Court of Australia exclude a preliminary estimate of the 'free' allocations of the Family Court's resources to the Federal Magistrates Service. As well, the introduction of the Federal Magistrates Service

has implications for comparisons between the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA.

Figure 6.12 **Expenditure less income per lodgment, family courts, 2001-02^{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 Service has expenditure and lodgment implications for the Family Court of Australia. The Family Court of Australia civil lodgment data do not include instances where Family Court of Australia Deputy Registrars are given delegation to conduct Federal Magistrate Service divorce applications.

Source: State and Commonwealth governments (unpublished); table 6A.2 and 6A.15.

Expenditure less income per lodgment for the Federal Magistrates Service

The Federal Magistrates Service was able to provide only finalisations data for its federal law jurisdiction. Data on finalisations in the Federal Magistrates Service family law jurisdiction are not available. Lodgment data, however, are available for the federal law and family law jurisdiction of the Federal Magistrates Service.

The efficiency calculation, therefore, is based on 'expenditure less income per lodgment' (excluding fines). The lodgments in 2001-02 were made up of 46 873 family law forms and 3393 federal law cases. The Federal Magistrates Service received \$9.9 million worth of resources provided free of charge from the Federal Court and Family Court of Australia. In 2001-02, expenditure less income per lodgment for the Federal Magistrates Service was \$240 (tables 6A.2 and 6A.15).

6.5 Future directions in performance reporting

Improving data quality

Differences in court jurisdictions and in the allocation of cases between courts across States and Territories affect the comparability of efficiency and effectiveness data. The different methods undertaken to collect the data can also have an impact on the data consistency and quality.

The Court Administration Working Group and the Courts Practitioner Group are taking substantive steps to improve data quality, including:

- assessing and implementing recommendations associated with the ABS *Courts Administration Data Collection National Report* on lodgments;
- clearly defining issues pertaining to the scope of the data collection and reporting within the chapter;
- progressing the performance indicator framework;
- assessing the most appropriate way in which to collect and publish data;
- amending data definitions; and
- improving data verification and data quality.

A number of these changes will be implemented in time for the 2004 Report.

6.6 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).

Commonwealth Government comments

Federal Court

“

The Federal Court of Australia 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. During the year, the Court continued to achieve its objective of promptly, courteously and effectively deciding disputes according to law so as to fulfil its role as a court exercising the judicial power of the Commonwealth under the Constitution.

The Federal Magistrates Service continues to impact on the Federal Court in two ways. Firstly, simple and quick cases (such as bankruptcy) can now be commenced in the Federal Magistrates Service. As a consequence, the number of less complex applications lodged with the Court has dropped. Secondly, due to the reduction in applications being lodged with the Court, fees received are lower than in previous years.

It is important to note that the work undertaken by the Federal Magistrates Service, in areas of concurrent jurisdiction, continues to be predominantly performed by Federal Court staff. The cost of these resources are provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Service and have been included in the Federal Court's costs shown in this chapter. This means that the results shown for the Federal Court throughout this chapter and associated appendices are overstating the Court's actual results.

Finalisation of lodgments within the 85 per cent benchmark target (this indicator excludes Native Title cases which, by virtue of their nature, can take in excess of three years to dispose) developed by the Court continues to be achieved with 85.1 per cent in 1996-97, 87.0 per cent in 1997-98, 90.5 per cent in 1998-99 to 90.9 per cent in 1999-2000 to 90.9 per cent in 2000-01 to 90.8 per cent in 2001-02.

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New South Wales Government comments

“ There has been a continued emphasis upon the development and implementation of time standards across all NSW courts, the implementation of effective case management strategies and more effective allocation of resources.

Measurement of performance through the ongoing monitoring of Key Performance Indicators has shown:

- Decreased case disposal times in almost every time category in the Supreme Court;
- Reductions in backlog and delay in the District and Local courts; and
- Effective management of an increasing civil caseload in the District Court through the use of alternative dispute resolution (arbitration).

Improvements in client service have also been achieved through the expansion of the Flexible Services Delivery project (designed to improve access to clients with an intellectual or physical disability) to five additional local court registries.

This year has seen the investment of significant resources in the development and implementation of a new courts case management system. This system is designed to replace existing manual processes and disparate databases used in NSW courts. Once implemented, it will provide a 'single-counter' service for court users as well as enabling most court business (including listings, court orders, fines, payments and lodging of documents) to be conducted over the internet.

The new system will increase efficiency within NSW courts and improve access to information therefore increasing our ability to meet the growing expectations of our clients and other government agencies.

Consolidation and expansion of electronic service delivery continues, including:

- The completion of phase 2 of the Justice Agencies Data Exchange (JADE) project, allowing the electronic transfer of charge information from NSW Police to Local Courts; and
 - Increased availability of NSW court and tribunal decisions electronically through the enhancement of the Caselaw facility on the Lawlink website.
- ”

Victorian Government comments

“ For 2001-02, Victorian courts focused on improved case management through the introduction of new technology, reviews of data collection and collation processes, and a continued commitment to the delivery of an accessible and efficient justice system. Major initiatives included:

- The Supreme Court, through the arrangement of its business into Divisions and by the expanded use of "in-court" technology (including the Cybercourt system, electronic appeals, video conferencing, voice recognition, remote recording and electronic transcript, and a new statewide computerised juries system) and the continuous development and expansion of its Internet site, has continued to maintain a high level of efficiency in both criminal and civil matters despite a significant growth in new business.
 - The County Court transitioned into a modern, 'state-of-the-art', 46 courtroom complex in May 2002. After a short pilot phase, a computerised case and list management system was rolled out in the Court to support the *Crimes (Criminal Trials) Act 1999* and the Civil Initiative. On-line search of civil jurisdiction information such as listing dates, documents and orders can be searched via the Court website through a search facility, Court Connect.
 - In the Magistrates' Court, an Output Review lead to the development of a suite of new output measures. An Aboriginal Liaison Officer was appointed to the court. The Diversion program, one of the most successful initiatives introduced into the Magistrates' Court, was expanded to regional locations. The CREDIT program was also expanded. A Drug Court pilot commenced at Dandenong Court.
 - In July 2001 Court Services was established to provide a focus for the administrative and strategic planning of Courts and Tribunals and to improve the communication flow between Courts and Tribunals and the government. Work has continued on the development of the courts strategic direction framework. This Justice Statement will outline proposed administrative and structural reforms for the coordinated development of Courts and Tribunals over the next 10 years.
 - A new multi-jurisdictional complex opened in April 2002 at Wodonga. A full refurbishment of the courthouse at Heidelberg was undertaken, with minor works occurring at the Preston courthouse. Security upgrades occurred in all courts across the state.
 - An additional Supreme Court Justice was appointed. There were also two additional County Court Judges appointed.
- ”

Queensland Government comments

“ The performance of the Queensland courts in the period 2001-02 was further vindication of the systematic maintenance of the high standard and cost effective disposition of matters before all levels of jurisdiction.

- The systems in place in the Supreme and District Courts, particularly in their criminal jurisdiction, continued to provide low cost efficiency, augmented by the expansion of the computerised case management and enforcement system to major provincial centres throughout the period under review.
 - The QWIC system has now been fully implemented in Magistrates Courts and is recording all criminal case management and domestic violence data in 104 Magistrates Courts locations. It has been responsible for greater productivity in courts staff.
 - The State Penalties Enforcement Registry enlarged its compass throughout the period and now has the trial enforcement officer program in place. It expanded its call centre and through continued adjustment and appraisal of work lists has shown constantly increasing monthly receipts over the entire period.
 - The Drug Court program which began in June 2000 at the Beenleigh, Ipswich and Southport Magistrates Courts, continues to offer rehabilitation to offenders facing custodial sentences for possession of illicit drugs. In November 2002, the Drug Court program was further extended to also include the Cairns and Townsville Magistrates Courts. An evaluation of the Drug Court trial is being conducted by the Australian Institute of Criminology.
 - The Integrated Justice Information System is a whole of Government initiative to drive solutions to the challenges inherent in tracking offenders through the criminal justice system and across the many agencies inherent in that grouping (Police, Courts and Corrective Services) from initial contact to release. It aims to improve radically the efficiency, effectiveness and reliability of decision making and information flow throughout the criminal justice system thereby reducing duplication, delays and unnecessary financial burden to the community.
 - A pilot program will commence in Queensland on 1 January 2003 whereby all criminal justice agencies will alter current information systems to record Indigenous identifiers for all offenders. The Queensland Police Service will ask all offenders to self identify whether they are of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin. This information will then be forwarded and maintained by all criminal justice agencies.
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Western Australian Government comments

“ Western Australian courts have implemented numerous initiatives during the year, including the following:

- Progressive implementation of the 447 Law Reform Commission recommendations arising from the 1999 Review of the Criminal and Civil Justice System continued during the year, and specifically:
 - Developed a blueprint to create a single State Administrative Tribunal to replace nearly 40 tribunals and boards
 - Drafted legislation to amalgamate the existing Court of Petty Sessions and Local Courts into the Magistrates Court of Western Australia
 - Introduced a new fee structure in the Supreme and District Courts, based on an increased cost recovery/State comparison model, so as to better reflect the cost of service to users and reduce the burden to taxpayers
- Commenced preliminary planning for the first stage of a CBD Courts complex, which will consolidate district and criminal courts in one location, and improve facilities for court users.
- Continued the implementation of the Integrated Court Management System (ICMS) to enable a whole-of-justice approach to managing case flow and provides for more accessible and efficient business processes. During this year, phase one of ICMS was successfully introduced to the District Court civil jurisdiction.

Key initiatives for the next year include:

- Progressing the Perth CBD building project in order to improve facilities for court users and improve operational efficiency and effectiveness of CBD based superior and magistrates courts.
 - Implementing phase two of ICMS that will replace the current civil systems in the Supreme, District and Magistrates Courts. The new system will allow for the introduction of:
 - E-lodgement of documents
 - Electronic production of documents
 - Automatic updating of judicial officers' diaries
 - Lawyer access (via the internet) to view listings
 - Public access, also via the internet, to search listings, and
 - Electronic return of outcomes.
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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 South Australian Courts Administration Authority (CAA) has pursued a philosophy of continuing improvement so dramatic changes from year to year are not expected.

The most significant changes in lodgments have occurred in the civil jurisdiction of the Supreme Court and the Magistrates Court. In the Supreme Court, the increase is mainly caused by the inclusion of some matters that have not previously been included.

In the Magistrates Court, the decline in civil lodgments has coincided the emergence of a similar number of prelodgment applications. Under the prelodgment system, the Magistrates Court assists potential litigants to resolve their dispute without having to proceed to lodgment.

In the criminal jurisdiction South Australia's performance is affected by the high proportion of defendants who initially plead not guilty and subsequently change their plea to guilty, often very late in proceedings. This is largely outside the control of the courts and the CAA is awaiting the results of reviews by the Attorney-General's Department of the circumstances which lead to this situation.

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Tasmanian Government comments

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In last year's Report, Tasmania foreshadowed the introduction of an integrated criminal justice information technology system called CRIMES. CRIMES has been successfully rolled out in Magistrates Courts in all regions, other than the north west of the State. This will occur in January 2003. It will then be modified for use in the Supreme Court. Web based views have been developed for use by Tasmania Police and other justice agencies. The levels of co-operation between agencies involved in the Criminal Justice process have improved as a direct result of working together on this project.

In further information technology developments, the Tasmanian Coronial Case Management System was implemented during the reporting year. It has an interface with the National Coroners Information System (NCIS) which is managed by the Monash University National Centre for Coronial Information on behalf of all participating coronial jurisdictions around Australia. The Tasmanian and NCIS systems have proven to be an invaluable tool in assisting Coroners to investigate individual cases, as well as providing a very effective national research tool for statistical and related purposes.

The Tasmanian courts have continued to provide accessible and efficient mechanisms for the resolution and adjudication of disputes. The statistics contained in the Report also clearly demonstrate the cost effective nature of the Tasmanian courts and their ability to undertake demanding workloads with a relatively low level of resources.

Whilst the collection of criminal data will be enhanced by the implementation of CRIMES, the collection of civil data in all Tasmanian courts is hampered by the lack of integrated case management systems. Tasmanian courts are unable to provide information for data sets involving hearings, trials and adjournments due to the lack of appropriate information technology systems. The courts are continuing to work towards a solution to this issue.

Tasmania supports the efforts that have been made over the past year to improve the quality of the data presented in the Report. The work of the Australian Bureau of Statistics and Productivity Commission in this area has been valuable but comparability of data remains an issue in many parts of the Report.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The report again recognises that the structural differences between a two-tiered court system, such as exists in the ACT, the Northern Territory and Tasmania and those three-tiered court systems which exist in all other jurisdictions, must continue to be taken into account when comparing performance between various States and Territories.

The ACT Courts Administration is currently reviewing its IT requirements with a view to replacing the AS400 case management system. In the first stage of this process, the newly created Court of Appeal is piloting the case management system *CourtCase* developed by Coram Solutions. In the second stage to commence soon, *CourtCase* case will be introduced into the Tribunals and, subject to funding, the Supreme Court's civil and criminal jurisdiction. If the pilot programs are successful, it is envisaged that *CourtCase* will be implemented in the Magistrates Court. Funding limitations are a major constraint and it will be several years before a new or upgraded case management system is operational across all courts, however the implementation of new technology will ultimately provide greater opportunities for ACT courts to produce high quality data.

The ACT Court of Appeal was created in 2001. The jurisdiction of the Court of Appeal to hear and determine appeals from judgments of judges of the Supreme Court replacing the jurisdiction formerly exercised by the Federal Court of Australia commenced on 14 October 2002. The full impact of the additional jurisdiction will not be apparent in Supreme Court data until the reporting period 2003-04.

The ACT Magistrates Court case management system continues to produce significant savings in court time and greatly reducing the number of witnesses having to attend court and this system, slightly modified, has now been extended to Family Violence cases which are now managed within tight timeframes designed to eliminate unnecessary adjournments and reduce hearing delays.

During the reporting period the ACT Magistrates Court implemented the Court Alcohol Drug Assessment Scheme which is similar to schemes operating in other jurisdictions and is designed to monitor rehabilitation of drug offenders caught up in the criminal justice system. These cases adversely affect timeliness and cost per case statistics.

A pilot program offering mediation by the Master has been introduced in the Supreme Court. The purpose of the pilot program is to determine whether the provision of mediation services will assist the efficient conduct of litigation.

In the ACT Magistrates Court a conferencing unit was established to case manage and offer alternative dispute resolution services to litigants before a matter is listed for hearing. This unit has had outstanding results in reducing number of matters requiring a hearing before a Magistrate.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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During the 2001-02 reporting year, the former Office of Courts Administration merged with related government agencies in the Northern Territory to form the Department of Justice. At the same time, the Northern Territory Government commenced significant financial reforms designed to increase efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of government services, as well as a system of improved accountability and openness. Systems to implement accrual accounting, underpinned by Working for Outcomes objectives, were prepared by all agencies. Significant initiatives and improvements included:

- Courts Administration commenced a review of its existing information systems, with a particular focus on the data reporting facilities and communication systems. The review compares the existing collection capability within the current Integrated Justice Information System and looks at the enhancements required to meet the future needs of the judiciary (including the magistracy) in areas such as caseload, activity, progress through the system including delays and case specific data.
- Major enhancement of civil case-flow in the local court will result from the introduction of electronic document lodgements in 2003. A pilot project is currently under way to test the feasibility of small claims in the Local Court being lodged and case managed through an entirely electronic format.
- Video conferencing facilities in the larger Courthouses were improved in the reporting year. While the in-court equipment is of a world standard, there are a number of challenges to using the technology in place of face-to-face hearings and meetings.
- Courts Administration has implemented a number of "Courts and the Public" initiatives to enhance public confidence, improve access to and increase knowledge of the courts system. Highlights for the year include the highly successful Supreme Court Open Day, and a partnered effort between the Judiciary, the Department of Education Employment and Training and Courts Administration to provide Territory primary and secondary teachers with an understanding of court procedures, structure and facilities.
- The Fines Recovery Unit commenced operation on 1 January 2002. A feature of the new system of enforcement for court imposed fines and infringement notices is the case-managed debt recovery system.

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6.7 Definitions

Table 6.18 **Terms and indicators**

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Accommodation expenditure	<p>Depreciation, actual rent or imputed rent on court owned or occupied land and buildings, as well as expenditure on electricity, gas, water, telecommunications, cleaning, gardening and maintenance.</p> <p>Where used, the imputed rent is calculated using the market lease value of the floor area of all properties occupied by the court. Imputed rent equals the square metres multiplied by the market price per square metre of similar grade office space in a similar location.</p>
Adjournment rate	The ratio between the number of court requested adjournments to court hearings or trials initiated. Hearings can be adjourned more than once, so adjournment rates can be greater than 100 per cent.
Adjudicated finalisation	Where a charge is considered complete and ceases to be active in any court, even if that charge was not adjudicated (for example, a bench warrant was issued or the charges was withdrawn by prosecution).
Average expenditure per case	Average expenditure per criminal or civil case (see below).
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.
Bench warrant	A warrant issued by a court for the arrest of a person who has been indicted.
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.
Court locations	A single street address of a court. Where a location or facility provides services for both criminal and civil cases, or where superior courts sit in lower court facilities on circuit, these locations are counted separately for each jurisdiction. This category includes: locations that provide registry services on a permanent basis, at which a court hearing is listed for determination before a judicial officer; locations where hearings are listed for determination before a judicial officer in a facility that does not provide full time or part time registry services; and all permanent court locations providing full time or part time registry services, at which there are no matters listed before a judicial officer.
Court reporting expenditure	Salary expenditure on in-house court reporters, non-salary expenditure of in-house court reporting agencies, and contract fees paid to court reporting agencies less any revenue recovered from transcript fees by the in-house court reporting agency.
Court requested adjournments	A matter initiated but adjourned for more than one working day (such as an adjournment resulting from the unexpected unavailability of a judge, court room or other case-related court resource). Includes matters adjourned as not reached; excludes matters adjourned as part heard.

(Continued on next page)

Table 6.18 (Continued)

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 reported period.
Forms	The counting unit used in the family courts and the family law matters pertaining to the Federal Magistrates Service. Forms are applications or notices lodged with the court.
Geographic accessibility	The number of metropolitan locations divided by the total number of court locations, expressed as a percentage.
Hearings	Any matter listed to be heard before a judicial or quasi-judicial officer, which either progresses towards finalisation or is finalised by determination or adjudication. Excludes pre-trial conferences, arraignment, mention hearings, status conferences, mediation and counselling.
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 and judicial support salaries	All salary expenditure and payments in the nature of salary 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 and payroll tax. (Judicial officers include judges, magistrates' masters, judicial registrars and other judicial officers where they 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.

(Continued on next page)

Table 6.18 (Continued)

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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	<p><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 could extend to manners of 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.</p> <p><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 and traffic camera branches.</p> <p><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> <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.
Non-urban area	Remote areas (defined in terms of low population density and long distances to large population centres) and rural areas (which include the remainder of non-urban statistical local areas).
Other expenditure	Expenditure on consultants, expert witnesses, mediators, interpreters, motor vehicles, court registries, first-line support staff, and overheads where incurred by the court administration agency.

(Continued on next page)

Table 6.18 (Continued)

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Party requested adjournments	Matters adjourned on the first day of a hearing for more than one day on application by either the prosecution/plaintiff or the defendant for reasons such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the unavailability of a witness; • the failure of the accused to appear; • the granting of an application for more time; or • pleading on the day.
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.
Timeliness	The percentage of <i>total criminal cases</i> completed that are completed within six months; six to 12 months; 12 to 18 months; and more than 18 months after lodgment. Cases are sorted according to the time taken to finalise after lodgment. The percentage of <i>total civil cases</i> completed that are completed within six months; six to 12 months; 12 to 18 months; and more than 18 months after lodgment. Cases are sorted according to the time taken to finalise after lodgment.
Umbrella department expenditure	Expenditure incurred by the umbrella department (the ministry or department of justice or the Attorney-General). Includes expenditure on accounting, human resources functions, training, media liaison, research, policy, property management and administration.
Urban area	State and Territory capital city statistical divisions and other urban areas (which are urban centres of 100 000 people or more).
Withdrawn	The formal withdrawal of charges by the prosecution (that is, by police, the Director of Public Prosecutions or the Attorney-General).

6.8 References

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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 protection, rehabilitation and reparation to the community.

In this Report, corrective services include prison custody (including periodic detention) and a range of community correctional orders and programs for adult offenders (for example, parole and community work orders). The term ‘offenders’ is used in this chapter to refer to people serving community corrections orders. Both public and privately operated facilities are included, however, the scope of this chapter does not extend to:

- juvenile justice (which is covered in the Community services preface);
- people held in institutions 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); and
- people held in facilities such as immigration and military detention centres.

A profile of the corrective services sector is provided in section 7.1. Policy developments and how these may affect the collection, reporting and interpretation of data are briefly discussed in section 7.2. The framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 7.3 and the data collected are discussed in section 7.4. Future developments in performance reporting are broadly discussed in section 7.5. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions’ comments in section 7.6 and definitions in section 7.7.

The scope of the efficiency measures for corrective services has been improved for this year’s Report. For the first time, recurrent and capital costs per prisoner are reported separately, enabling consideration of the full cost to government of imprisonment and the variations in capital cost across jurisdictions. Capital costs are also reported for community corrections. This Report also extends the time series commenced in the 2002 Report to include three-year trends in recurrent cost per prisoner.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 7 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel 97 format as \Publications\Reports\2003\Attach13A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2003\Attach13A.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 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. Corrective service responsibilities in some jurisdictions include functions carried out by different justice sector agencies in other jurisdictions — for example, prisoner escorts, management of prisoners held in court cells, management of prisoners in police cells, community correction supervision of juvenile offenders, juvenile detention and prosecution of community correction order breaches.

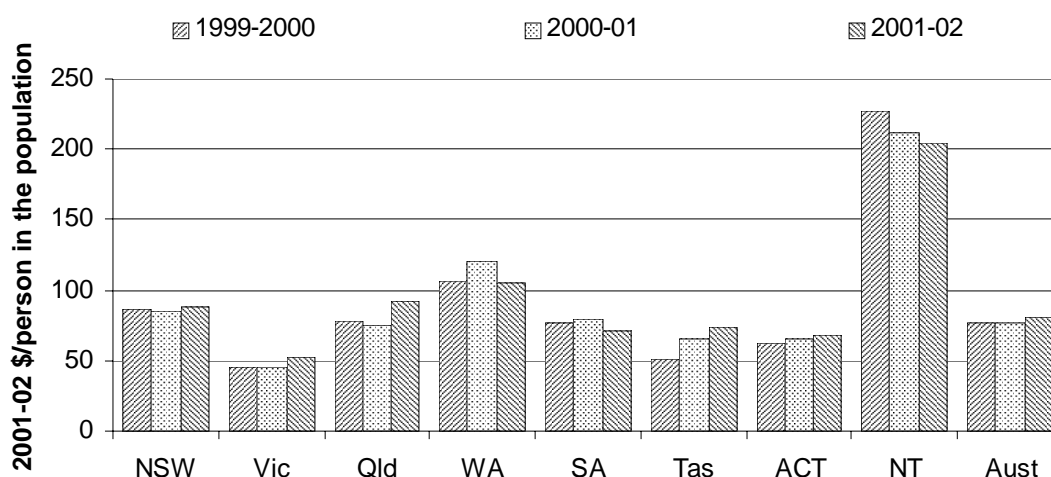
Roles and responsibilities

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. The ACT maintained one remand prison and one periodic detention facility, with people sentenced to imprisonment in the ACT being held in NSW prisons under contractual arrangements between the two jurisdictions. Five jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA) operated private prisons in 2001-02. Two jurisdictions, NSW and the ACT provided for periodic detention of prisoners — for example, weekend detention in custody whereby prisoners are able to return home and maintain work commitments during the week.

Funding

Nationally, reported expenditure on corrective services (net of revenue derived from own sources) totalled \$1.6 billion in 2001-02 — \$1.4 billion (86.9 per cent) for prisons, \$161.9 million (10.2 per cent) for community corrections, and \$46.1 million (2.9 per cent) for transport and escort services¹. Expenditure per person in the population ranged from \$204.8 in the NT to \$52.1 in Victoria in 2001-02 (figure 7.1). Nationally, expenditure per person has increased in real terms by an average of 2.8 per cent a year between 1999-2000 and 2001-02.

Figure 7.1 Real expenditure on corrective services per person^{a, b}



^a Includes expenditure for all corrections (prisons, transport and escort services, and community corrections) net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues) but including payroll tax (except for WA and the ACT where government operations are not subject to payroll tax), depreciation, capital asset charges, debt servicing fees and other associated capital expenses. Does not include the user cost of capital. Per person cost is calculated using total population (all ages) figures. ^b Data for previous years have been adjusted to 2001-02 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.12.

Size and scope of sector

Prison custody

In 2001-02, there were 97 prisons (including two transitional centres and 12 privately operated prisons, of which five are community custody centres), 11 periodic detention centres (located in NSW and the ACT) and fifteen 24-hour

¹ Transport and escort service expenditure is reported separately from overall prison expenditure by NSW, Victoria, WA, SA and the ACT.

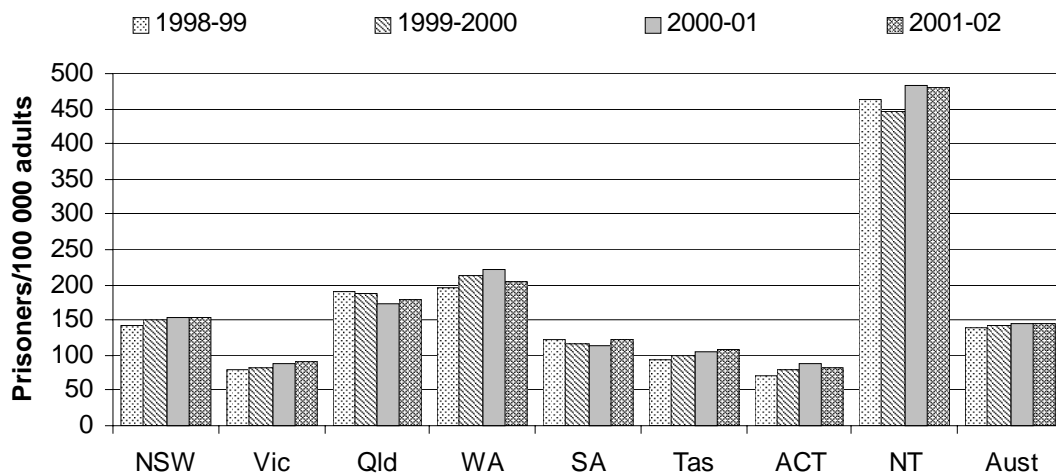
court cell facilities (under the responsibility of corrective services in NSW) — totalling 123 facilities throughout Australia (table 7A.2).

On average, 21 672 people per day were held in Australian prisons during the year (excluding periodic detainees) — an increase of 2.5 per cent over average daily numbers reported in the previous year. In addition, on average 1054 people were serving periodic detention orders in NSW and the ACT in 2001-02 — a decline of 10.5 per cent from 2000-01. Excluding periodic detainees, 27.9 per cent of prisoners were held in open prisons (facilities containing prisoners classified as low security) in 2001-02 and 72.1 per cent were held in secure facilities. A daily average of 3630 prisoners (or 16.8 per cent of the total Australian prisoner population, excluding periodic detainees) were held in privately operated facilities during the year. In 2001-02, the proportion of prisoners accommodated in private prisons in those jurisdictions operating private prisons ranged from 40.7 per cent in Victoria to 7.2 per cent in SA (table 7A.1).

Nationally, the daily average number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) in 2001-02, comprised 20 241 males and 1431 females — 93.4 per cent and 6.6 per cent of the prison population respectively. The daily average number of Indigenous prisoners was 4239 — 19.6 per cent of prisoners nationally (table 7A.1).

The rate of imprisonment represents the number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) per 100 000 of the general adult population. The adult population includes people at or above the minimum age at which sentencing to adult custody can occur in each jurisdiction. This was 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 145.5 per 100 000 Australian adults in 2001-02 compared to 143.6 in 2000-01 (figure 7.2). The NT reported the highest imprisonment rate per 100 000 adults in 2001-02 at 480.1 and the ACT the lowest rate at 83.6 (figure 7.2). The national imprisonment rate for male prisoners was 277.1 per 100 000 adult males and 18.8 per 100 000 adult females for female prisoners (table 7A.4).

Figure 7.2 **Imprisonment rates^{a, b}**



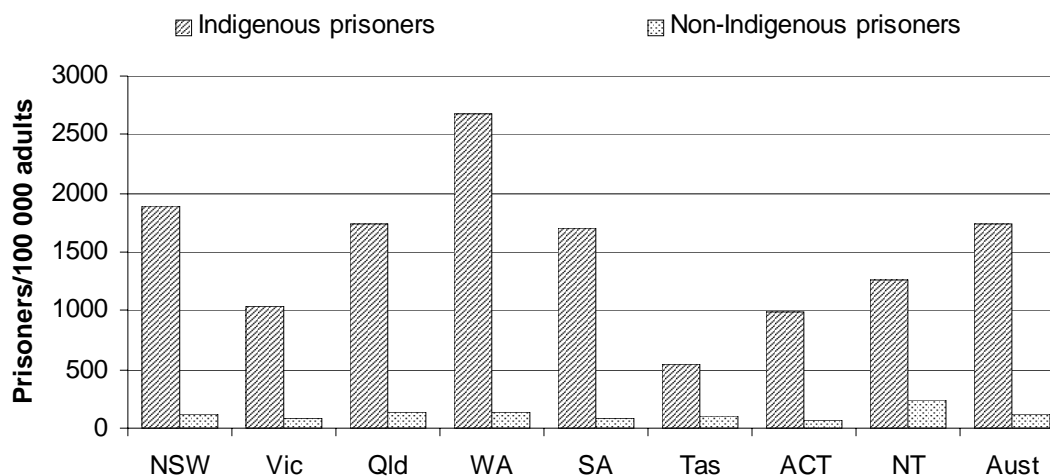
^a Imprisonment rates for all prisoners are based on the daily average prisoner population supplied by States and Territories, calculated against adult population estimates (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) figures supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b ACT figures include prisoners held on remand in the ACT and ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. Australian figures are calculated so that ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons are not double counted.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.5.

The national imprisonment rate per 100 000 Indigenous adults was 1746.3 in 2001-02 compared with a rate of 115.5 for non-Indigenous prisoners per 100 000 non-Indigenous adults (figure 7.3). The highest rate of Indigenous imprisonment per 100 000 adults was reported in WA (2668.9) and the lowest in Tasmania (540.9). The NT reported the highest non-Indigenous imprisonment rate per 100 000 adults at 236.4 and the ACT reported the lowest rate at 75.6 in 2001-02 (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 with 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, 78.1 per cent of prisoners were non-Indigenous in 2001-02 (table 7A.1).

Figure 7.3 **Indigenous and non-Indigenous imprisonment rates, 2001-02^{a, b, c}**



^a Imprisonment rates are based on the daily average prisoner populations 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 The ACT data include prisoners held on remand in the ACT and ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. Australian rates are calculated to exclude any double counting of ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. ^c Prisoners reported as being of unknown Indigenous status are not included. This significantly affects SA and NSW which had by far the highest reported proportion of prisoners of unknown Indigenous status (11.8 per cent and 4.1 per cent respectively). Queensland was unable to report separately and included prisoners of unknown Indigenous status as non-Indigenous prisoners (see attachment 7A).

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 (as with home detention). There is no single objective or set of characteristics 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.

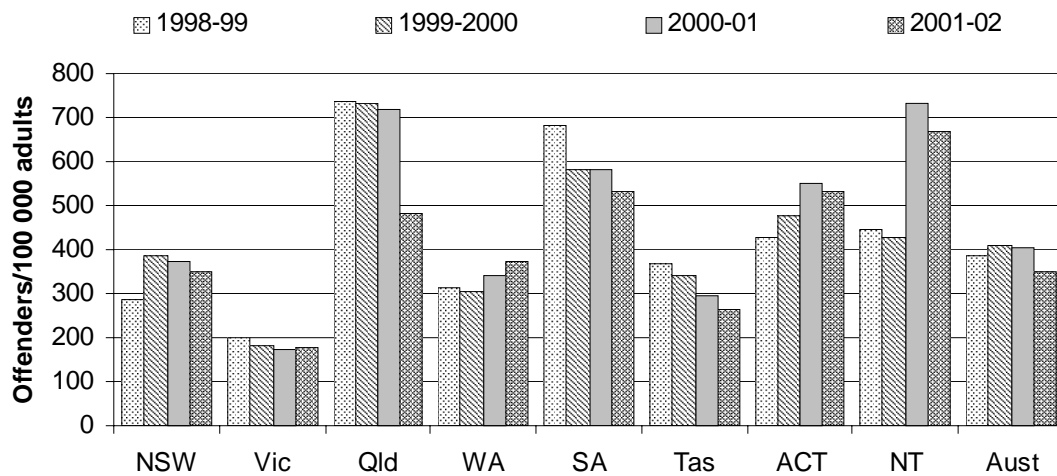
Community corrections include post-custodial programs, under which prisoners released into the community continue to be subject to corrective supervision (as with parole, release on licence, pre-release orders and some forms of home detention). They also include orders imposed by the court as a sentencing sanction, such as suspended sentences, court-imposed home detention, community service

orders, probation, intensive supervision orders and recognisance. In most jurisdictions, fine default orders fall under community corrections, as does bail supervision in some jurisdictions. Each jurisdiction has reparation and supervision orders. Restricted movement orders were available in all jurisdictions except Victoria and Tasmania in 2001-02.

A daily average of 52 305 offenders were serving community corrections orders across Australia in 2001-02 — a decrease of 12.0 per cent from the previous year's revised figures. This is largely due to a significant reduction in the number of offenders serving fine option orders in Queensland. This daily average comprised 42 583 males (81.4 per cent) and 9 472 females (18.1 per cent), and 250 offenders whose gender was reported as not known. The daily average also comprised 6807 Indigenous offenders (13.0 per cent of the total community correction population) and 40 348 non-Indigenous offenders (77.1 per cent). The remaining offenders were reported as having Indigenous status 'unknown'. In some jurisdictions, non-Indigenous offender data may also include some offenders whose Indigenous status was not known or not reported (table 7A.3).

The community corrections rate represents the daily average number of offenders serving community corrections orders per 100 000 people in the general population aged either 17 or 18 years and over, depending on the relevant age of entry to the adult correctional system in each jurisdiction. Nationally, the rate was 351.0 per 100 000 adults in 2001-02 compared to 405.2 in 2000-01 (figure 7.4). The NT reported the highest rate per 100 000 adults in 2001-02 at 669.0 and Victoria the lowest rate at 177.0 (figure 7.4). The national rate for female community correction offenders was 124.7 per 100 000 adults, compared with 583.0 for males (table 7A.4).

Figure 7.4 Community corrections rates^{a, b}

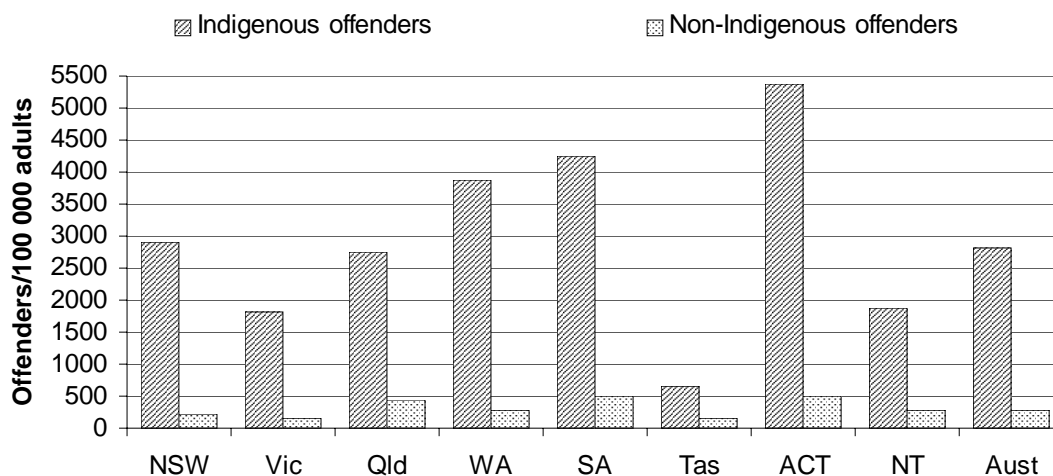


^a Offender rates are based on the daily average offender populations supplied by States and Territories, calculated against adult population estimates (ABS figures supplied by the National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b For the NT, all inactive orders were excluded prior to 2000-01. From 2000-01, only orders inactive for more than three years have been excluded.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.5.

For Indigenous offenders, the national rate was 2804.4 per 100 000 Indigenous adults compared with 275.3 for non-Indigenous offenders (figure 7.5). The ACT reported the highest rate of Indigenous offenders per 100 000 Indigenous adults in 2001-02 at 5371.9 and Tasmania the lowest at 657.6. The rate of Indigenous offenders in the ACT may be inflated because of the inclusion of NSW residents convicted in ACT courts. The highest rate of non-Indigenous offenders per 100 000 non-Indigenous adults was reported by SA at 488.4 and the lowest rate by Victoria at 159.5 in 2001-02 (figure 7.5). As in the case of imprisonment rates, these comparisons need to be interpreted with care, especially for States and Territories 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 with other jurisdictions.

Figure 7.5 **Indigenous and non-Indigenous community corrections rates, 2001-02^a**



^a Rates are based on the daily average offender populations 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). Offenders reported as being of unknown Indigenous status are not included. This significantly affects Tasmania and NSW which had by far the highest reported proportion of offenders of unknown Indigenous status (32.2 per cent and 25.3 per cent respectively). Queensland and SA were unable to report separately and included offenders of unknown Indigenous status as non-Indigenous offenders (see attachment 7A).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.4.

7.2 Policy developments in corrective services

The development and management of appropriate and effective community-based programs and services continue to be a major policy focus for corrective services. This relates to both programs and services in response to diverse community corrections sentencing options and to post-release programs that address rehabilitation and community reintegration issues for prisoners upon release.

There has been a number of developments in several jurisdictions in relation to community corrections sentencing options, particularly in the expansion or introduction of programs within the restricted movement category. For example, home detention was recently introduced in the ACT and will be expanded to rural areas of SA and the mid-north coast of NSW, and includes the trialling of electronic monitoring in Queensland and the operation of bail supervision in several States. This is an example of the enhanced provision of a range of custodial and community corrections programs across Australian jurisdictions that has implications for trends in prisoner and community correction offender numbers. Legislative alternatives to fine default imprisonment that have been introduced, or

are planned, in various jurisdictions are also relevant to trends in prisoner and offender numbers.

Jurisdictions are developing or implementing strategies to extend the range of community-based programs with the reduction of re-offending being a key consideration. This extends to the direct involvement of corrective services in designated programs with community partners. For example, NSW operates a graffiti removal project with local government involving periodic detainees and offenders on community work orders.

Transitional management of prisoners upon release into the community is a major policy focus. Several jurisdictions are developing or expanding pre-release programs, targeting prisoner needs in areas such as health, employment, housing, social skills and relationship management, including the establishment of pre-release transitional centres. This becomes particularly relevant given the trends identified by some jurisdictions in relation to the increasing complexity of prisoner profiles (that is, those with unresolved drug and alcohol issues and backgrounds of social disadvantage, low educational achievement, poor employment history, significant health problems including mental illness, and unsatisfactory family and social skills).

Integrated prisoner and offender management has been adopted as a policy framework and is being developed, implemented, or refined across jurisdictions. It involves a whole-of-sentence planning and management approach across custodial and community corrections. This approach has implications for involvement of prisoners in programs outside the custodial setting, such as work release, and for resource management indicators, such as staff ratios and unit costs.

Addressing the specific needs of particular groups of prisoners and offenders is a key element in both custodial and community-based programs and services, particularly given the changing characteristics identified among corrective service populations. The development of culturally appropriate services for Indigenous people, and of appropriate programs for those with mental illness, intellectual disability, substance abuse, dual diagnosis, or history of self-harming behaviour, continues to be a policy focus across jurisdictions. A national forum to identify and address the needs of female prisoners and offenders has also been established. The growing number of foreign nationals held in Australian prisons represents an emerging issue for some States and Territories (for example, 16 per cent of the NT total prisoner population in March 2002 comprised foreign nationals linked to 'people smuggling' offences). The development, introduction, and enhancement of programs and services targeting the needs of specific prisoner and offender groups will increasingly impact upon effectiveness and efficiency indicators in future years.

7.3 Framework of performance indicators

Corrective services performance is reported against common objectives agreed by all jurisdictions (box 7.1).

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; and
- **advice to sentencing and releasing authorities:** to provide sentencing and releasing authorities with advice to assist the determination of the disposition of prisoners and offenders, their release to parole, and necessary conditions for their supervision and post-release supervision.

These objectives are to 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 so as to deliver correctional services efficiently.

Jurisdictions continue to investigate comparability issues each year through participation in the National Corrections Advisory Group and work to improve the counting rules for performance measures. Definitions and counting rules were refined during 2001-02 as part of the continuing effort to ensure jurisdictional comparability of all indicators. Data for previous years have been updated where possible, in accordance with revised counting rules and definitions. This Report presents some historical data that may be different from data published in the 2002 Report for a number of jurisdictions (and tables are footnoted accordingly). In other

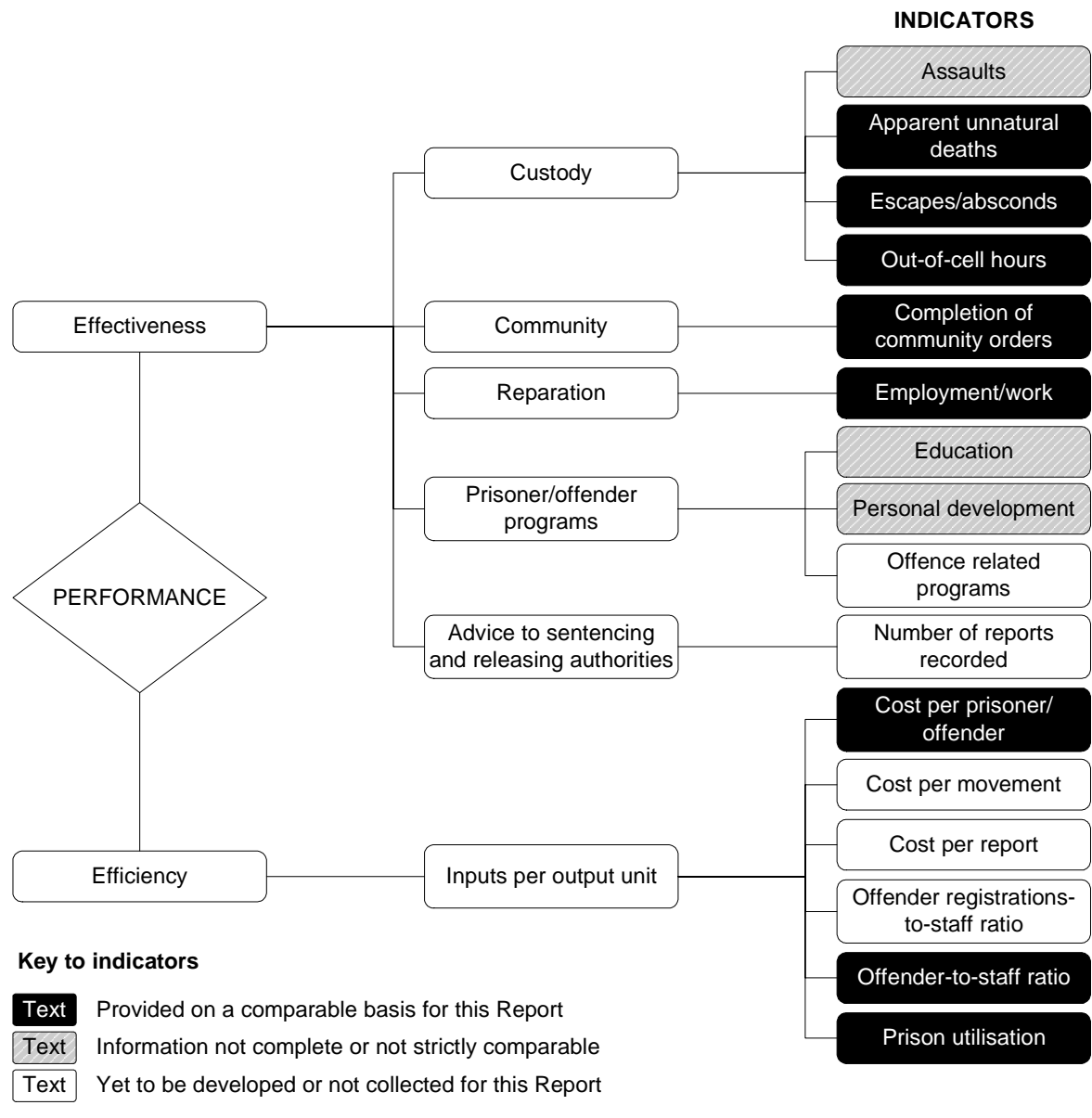
cases, it has not been possible to recalculate historical data, so any conclusions about changes within individual jurisdictions need to be considered in this context.

Figure 7.6 lists the performance indicators for each of the objectives identified in box 7.1. For this Report, imprisonment rate, community corrections rate, and total cost of service have been removed from the indicator framework, but are included as descriptors in the profile section of this chapter. This is because the Steering Committee believes that corrective services agencies do not have sufficient control over the factors that influence these measures for them to be included as performance indicators. Also, systems resource management and government operations resource management are no longer presented as separate breakdowns in the indicator framework. This is because separate cost data for government operations are not available. Data on a number of other indicators are more comprehensive in this Report than in previous reports, for example, costs per prisoner/offender are now reported for both recurrent and capital cost.

Relevant effectiveness indicators, such as assaults and escapes, are reported separately for periodic detainees. For relevant efficiency indicators, such as recurrent cost per prisoner, periodic detainees are counted as two-sevenths of a prisoner as they spend two days a week in prison. Given the unique circumstances of contracted service arrangements in the ACT, the ACT indicators have been 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).

The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 7.6). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 7.6 Performance indicators for corrective services



7.4 Key performance indicator results

Performance is reported against the objectives for corrective services set out in box 7.1, using the indicator framework in figure 7.6. Differences in the settings for service delivery, 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.

Effectiveness

Custody

Prison custody indicators are particularly vulnerable to the effects of small numbers, especially when expressed as a rate of total prisoner populations in jurisdictions with relatively small average daily prisoner populations. Given 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 the smallest jurisdiction can double 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 2001-02 would calculate to a rate of 1.54 per 100 prisoners and a second death would increase the figure to 3.08. In 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 0.12, and a second additional death would increase the rate to 0.13.

Assaults

Indicators reporting on assaults were revised in 2000-01 to take account of differences in the level of severity of assaults reported. 'Serious assaults' refer to acts of physical violence resulting in actual bodily harm requiring medical treatment and assessment involving hospitalisation or extended periods of ongoing medical treatment, and also includes 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 that do not involve hospitalisation.

In 2001-02, WA recorded the highest rate of 'serious assaults' by prisoners on other prisoners per 100 prisoners at 1.8 and SA the lowest at 0.3. NSW had the highest rate of 'assaults' by prisoners on other prisoners per 100 prisoners at 16.4 and SA had the lowest at 0.8 (table 7.1).

The reported rate of 'serious assaults' by prisoners on officers per 100 prisoners in 2001-02 ranged from 0.8 in WA to zero in Victoria, SA and Tasmania (the NSW rate was 0.04 which rounds to zero in the table below). The highest rate of 'assaults' by prisoners on officers per 100 prisoners was also reported by WA at 3.3 and the lowest by SA at 0.1 (table 7.1). The ACT did not report on these indicators in 2001-02.

Table 7.1 Prison assault rates, 2001-02 (per 100 prisoners)

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>
Prisoner on prisoner								
Serious assault	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.8	0.3	0.5	na	0.6
Assault	16.4	6.0	6.9	16.1	0.8	4.7	na	4.2
Prisoner on officer								
Serious assault	–	–	0.1	0.8	–	–	na	0.4
Assault	1.4	0.5	1.0	3.3	0.1	0.8	na	3.1

na Not available. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.13.

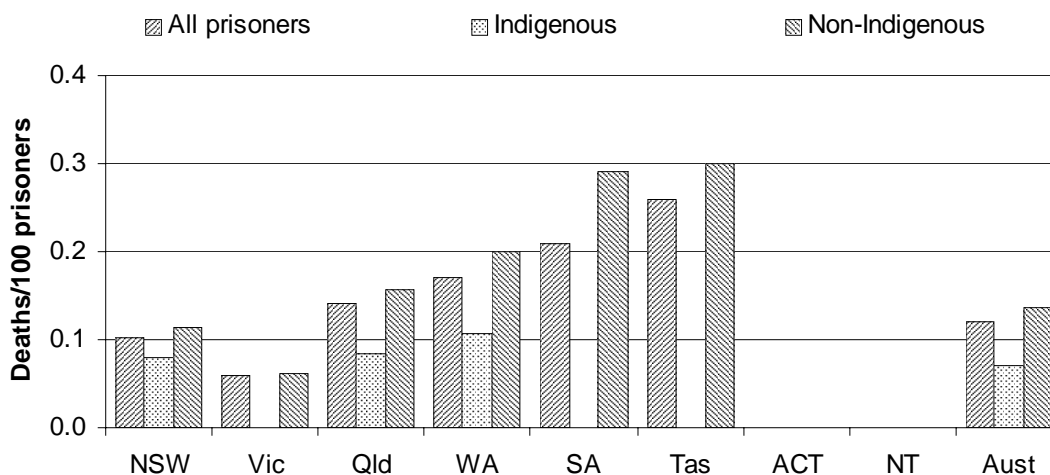
There were no incidents of ‘serious assault’ on periodic detainees by other periodic detainees or on staff by detainees reported in NSW in 2001-02. The rate of ‘assault’ on periodic detainees by other periodic detainees per 100 detainees was 2.4 and the rate of ‘assault’ on staff was 0.1 (table 7A.27). The ACT did not report on these indicators in 2001-02.

Unnatural deaths

In 2001-02, death rates from apparent unnatural causes for total prisoners ranged from 0.26 (one death) per 100 prisoners in Tasmania to zero in the ACT and the NT (figure 7.7). WA reported the highest apparent unnatural causes death rate for Indigenous prisoners at 0.11 (one death) and Victoria, SA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT reported the lowest at zero (figure 7.7).

Neither of the two jurisdictions operating periodic detention reported deaths of periodic detainees in 2001-02 (tables 7A.27 and 7A.65).

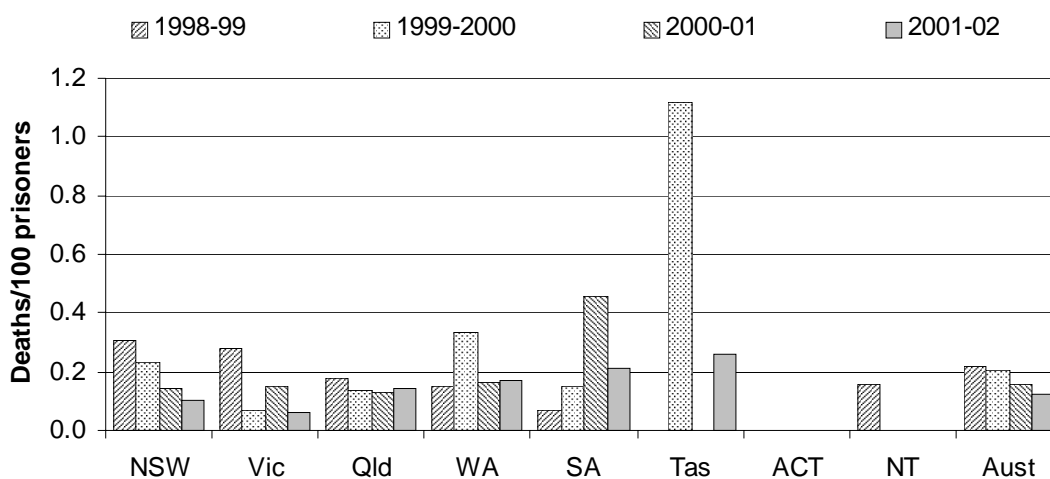
Figure 7.7 Prisoner death rates from apparent unnatural causes, 2001-02^a



^a NSW, Queensland and WA each had one Indigenous death. Tasmania had one non-Indigenous death.
 Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.14.

The national rate of death by apparent unnatural causes for all prisoners has declined from 0.22 in 1998-99 to 0.12 in 2001-02 (figure 7.8). Rates have fallen for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners (table 7A.15).

Figure 7.8 Prisoner death rates from apparent unnatural causes, all prisoners



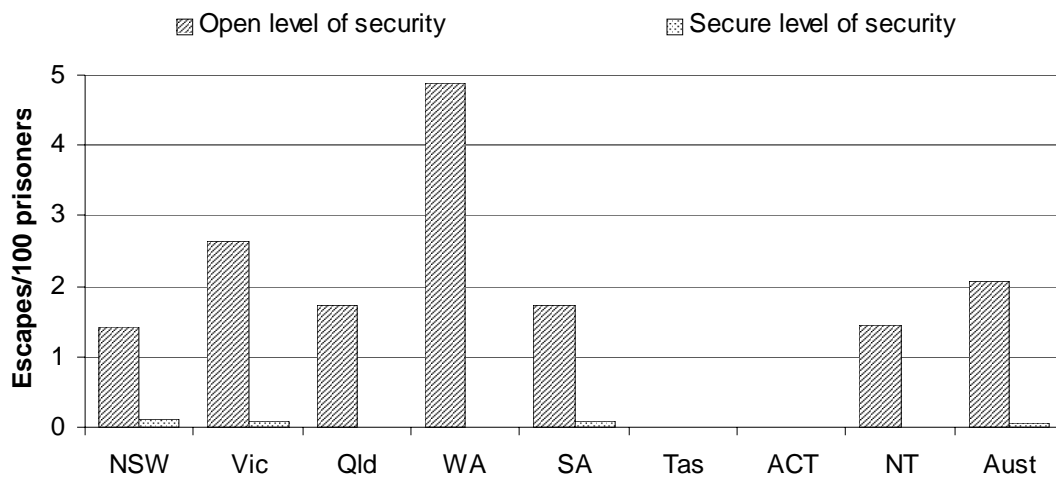
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.15.

Escapes/absconds

Western Australia reported the highest rate of escapes/absconds from open custody in 2001-02 at 4.9 per 100 prisoners and Tasmania reported the lowest rate (zero). The rate of escapes/absconds for secure custody ranged from 0.1 in NSW to zero in Queensland, WA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT (figure 7.9).

The absconding rate among prisoners serving periodic detention was 0.4 per 100 prisoners for NSW (table 10A.27) and zero for the ACT in 2001-02 (table 7A.65).

Figure 7.9 Prisoner escape/abscondment rate, 2001-02^a



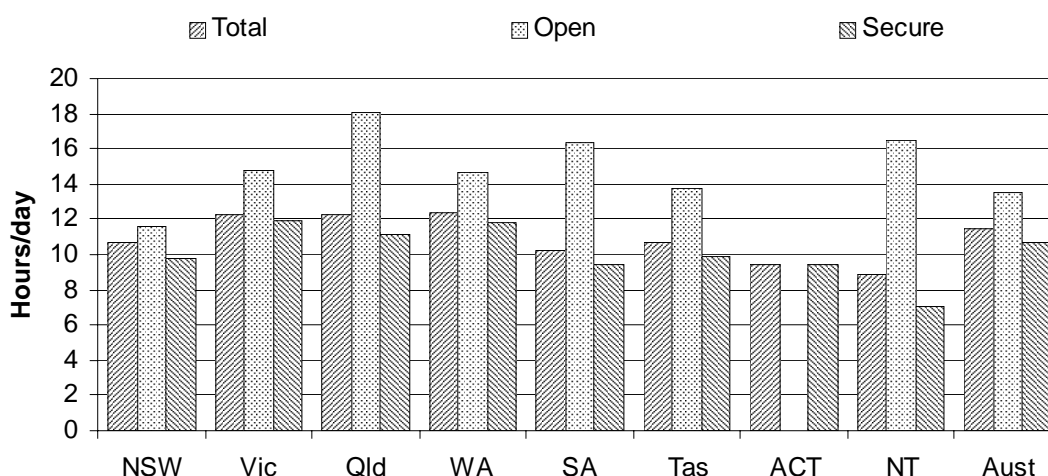
^a The ACT does not operate open security prisons. The secure custody data comprise all escapes from the ACT remand centre.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.16.

Out-of-cell hours

In 2001-02, WA reported the highest average daily out-of-cell hours for all prisons combined (12.4 hours per day) and the NT reported the lowest (8.9 hours per day). Out-of-cell hours for open custody ranged from 18.1 per day in Queensland to 11.6 per day in NSW. Out-of-cell hours for secure custody ranged from 11.9 per day in Victoria to 7.0 per day in the NT (figure 7.10). The ACT figures relate only to prisoners held in the Belconnen Remand Centre and therefore open and secure custody breakdowns are not applicable for that jurisdiction.

Figure 7.10 Average out-of-cell hours, by prisoner security level, 2001-02^a



^a ACT data are based on prisoners held in the ACT Remand Centre.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.17.

Community

Completion of community orders

A key effectiveness indicator for the management of offenders in the community is the successful completion of orders. Unsuccessful completion occurs when the offender breaches an order (failing to comply with the conditions of the order) or commits a further offence. Data need to be interpreted with care because, for example, a 100 per cent order completion figure could mean either exceptionally high compliance or a failure to detect or act on breaches of compliance. Data are also affected by differences in the risk levels of offender populations and policy decisions that drive the determination of risk. High risk offenders experiencing a higher level of surveillance have a greater likelihood of being detected and having their order breached. High breach rates, therefore, may be seen in some jurisdictions as a positive outcome reflecting more stringent management of community-based orders.

Tasmania reported the highest rate of successful completion for total orders at 86.2 per cent and Queensland the lowest at 61.4 per cent in 2001-02. Successful completion of restricted movement orders ranged from 100.0 per cent in the ACT to 65.4 per cent in SA, although it should be noted that home detention has only been available in the ACT since October 2001 and completion rates in 2001-02 are based on only a small number of offenders. Completion rates for reparation orders ranged

from 80.2 per cent in Tasmania to 60.2 per cent in the NT. Completion rates for supervision orders ranged from 90.6 per cent in Tasmania to 58.6 per cent in Queensland (figure 7.11).

Figure 7.11 **Successful completion of community corrections orders, by type of order, 2001-02^{a, b}**



^a Victoria and Tasmania did not have restricted movement orders in 2001-02. ^b Restricted movement orders (home detention) were only available in the ACT from October 2001.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.18.

Reparation

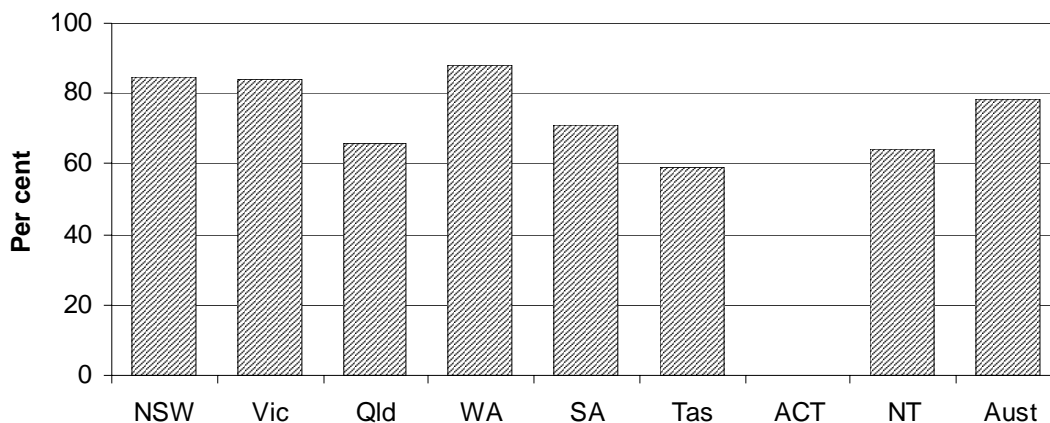
Prisoner employment

Prisoner work provides reparation to the community by generating income from prison industries, offsetting expenditure through work in prison services (work undertaken to service the prison), and unpaid community work by prisoners. All jurisdictions reported a significant number of prisoners employed in prison industries or services or, in a smaller number of cases, working in the community as part of a pre-release scheme where prisoners are employed under industrial award conditions. The ACT was not included in this analysis because it only accommodates remand prisoners.

The highest percentage of prisoners employed in 2001-02 was reported by WA (88.3 per cent of prisoners eligible to work) and the lowest by Tasmania at 59.3 per cent (figure 7.12). These comparisons need to be interpreted with care, because factors outside the control of corrective services (such as local economic

conditions) affect their capacity to attract commercially viable prison industries, particularly where the prisons are remote from population centres.

Figure 7.12 Proportion of eligible prisoners employed, 2001-02^a



^a Excludes the ACT as its prison only accommodates remand prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.19.

The employment rate among periodic detainees in 2001-02 in the two jurisdictions operating periodic detention was 58.5 per cent in NSW (table 7A.27) and 38.1 per cent in the ACT (table 7A.65).

Community work by community corrections offenders

Some offenders receive court orders to complete community work. The average hours ordered per offender, in 2001-02, varied by jurisdiction. The ACT (138 hours) was the highest and SA (132 hours) second highest, while Tasmania (49 hours) was the lowest of those jurisdictions able to report these data (table 7A.19). The ratio of hours ordered to be worked, and hours actually worked, gives an indication of the extent to which corrective services have been able to administer these orders. The ratio 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. It does not measure the extent to which individual offenders have complied with the community work requirements of their orders.

In 2001-02, SA reported the largest ratio of hours ordered to hours worked at 3.1 and the NT reported the smallest ratio at 1.8 (table 7A.19). NSW, Victoria and Tasmania did not report on this indicator in 2001-02.

Prisoner/offender programs

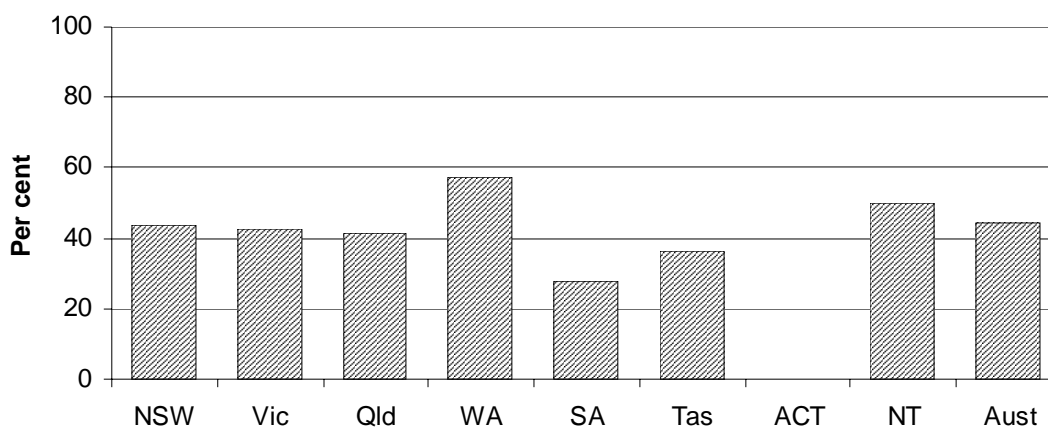
Education

Enhancing employment opportunities through education and training is important for successfully reintegrating prisoners into the community, and in reducing the risk of re-offending. This indicator reflects participation only in accredited education and training courses under the Australian Qualifications Framework and does not include a range of offence related programs that also operate in prisons, such as drug and alcohol, psychological and personal development courses.

The highest percentage of eligible prisoners undertaking accredited education or training courses in 2001-02 was reported by WA (57.6 per cent) and the lowest by SA (28.0 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 percentage in vocational education and training (53.6 per cent), NSW reporting the highest in secondary school sector courses (38.5 per cent), and Queensland reporting the highest in both higher education sector and pre-certificate level 1 courses² (3.7 per cent and 13.2 per cent respectively). Education indicators were not applicable to the ACT because the jurisdiction only accommodates remand prisoners (table 7A.20).

² Refers to accredited education courses below the Certificate 1 level (for example, learning to read, recognising numbers and so on).

Figure 7.13 **Proportion of prisoners enrolled in education and training, 2001-02^a**



^a Excludes the ACT as that jurisdiction's prison only accommodates remand prisoners. Prisoners eligible to participate in education are defined differently across jurisdictions (see single jurisdiction data in the supporting tables for details).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.20.

Personal development

The relevant indicator for community corrections is the number of offenders undertaking personal development courses provided by, or on referral from, corrective services. Only three jurisdictions were able to report on this indicator for 2001-02 — WA (54.9 per cent), the ACT (7.8 per cent) and the NT (49.1 per cent) (table 7A.20).

Offence related programs

This indicator is still under development. Progress has been made in defining the indicator and developing counting rules.

Advice to sentencing and releasing authorities

Number of reports recorded

This indicator relates to reports prepared by corrective services providing pre- and post-sentencing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities and is still under

development. Progress has been made in defining the indicator and developing counting rules and the indicator is being trialled for inclusion in future Reports.

Efficiency

The data presented on efficiency indicators are affected by factors other than differences in true efficiency. These include the composition of the prisoner population (such as security classification, the number of female or special need prisoners, and the number of periodic detainees), the size and dispersion of the area serviced, and the scale of operations.

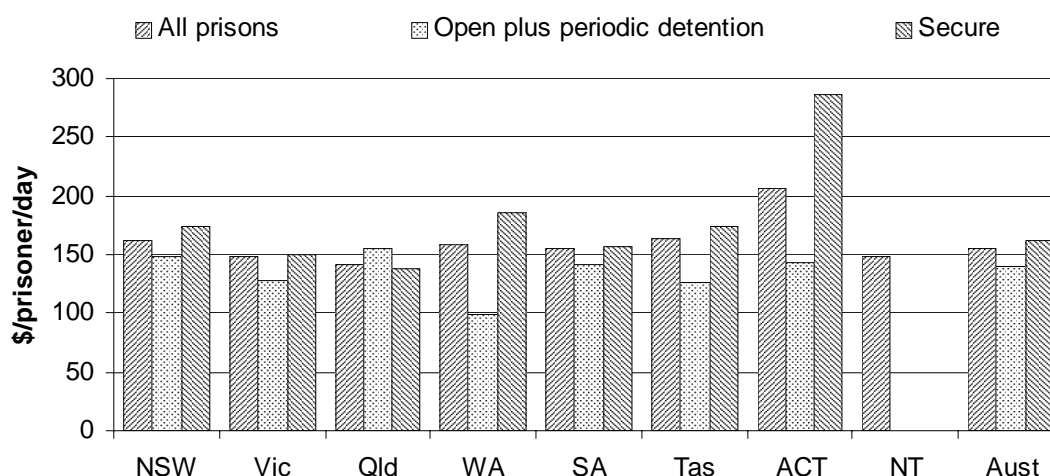
To improve comparability, recurrent cost per prisoner/offender indicators have been altered from previous reports to include payroll tax in all cases. This includes estimated payroll tax amounts for government operations in WA and the ACT (where government operations are not subject to payroll tax).

Cost per prisoner/offender

Recurrent cost per prisoner

A measure of efficiency in resource management is the recurrent cost of prison services divided by the number of prisoner days (unit costs). Average recurrent cost per prisoner per day (for open and secure prisons combined) ranged from \$206.4 in the ACT to \$140.8 in Queensland in 2001-02. Calculating costs for open and secure custody separately, the ACT reported the highest unit cost for secure prisons at \$286.6 and Queensland maintained the lowest unit cost at \$137.9. 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. Accordingly, capital costs for the ACT are relatively low (table 7.2). Queensland reported the highest unit costs for prisoners in open custody (which includes periodic detention cost in NSW and the ACT) at \$154.8 and WA showed the lowest at \$98.5 (figure 7.14).

Figure 7.14 Recurrent cost per prisoner per day, 2001-02^{a, b}

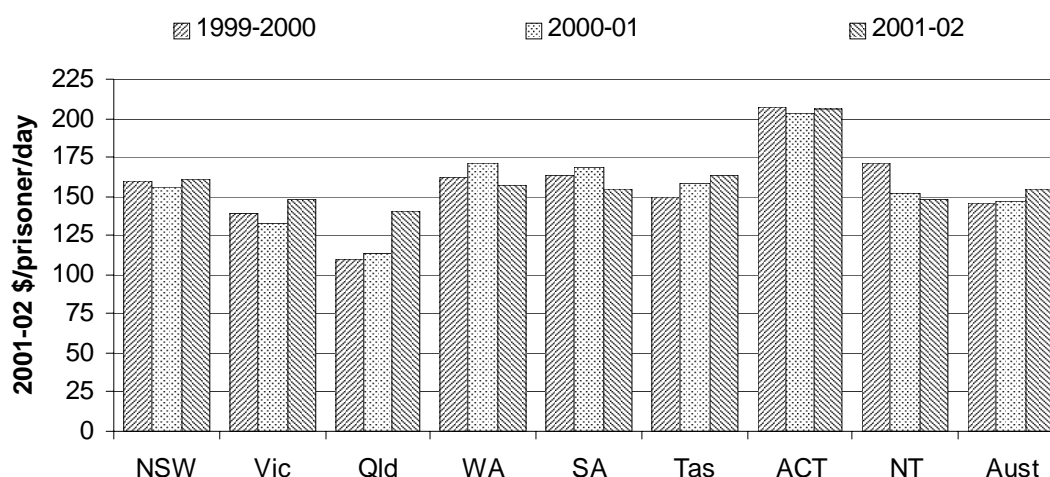


^a Includes payroll tax (including estimated amounts for WA (\$4.1/prisoner/day for all prisons) and the ACT (\$3.3/prisoner/day for all prisons)) and excludes capital asset charges and associated expenses. Costs are net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues). ^b The NT did not report on open and secure custody costs separately in 2001-02.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.7.

Nationally, the real recurrent cost per prisoner per day has increased from \$145.3 in 1999-2000 to \$154.9 in 2001-02.

Figure 7.15 Real recurrent cost per prisoner per day^{a, b}



^a Includes payroll tax (including estimated amounts for WA and the ACT) and excludes capital asset charges and associated expenses. Costs are net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues). ^b Data for previous years have been adjusted to 2001-02 dollars using the GDP price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.10.

Capital cost per prisoner

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 that are 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 cost 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 eight 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 among jurisdictions when assessing the results (table 7.2).

The Steering Committee accepts that asset valuation data are imperfect. It also recognises that the treatment of costs has not fully recognised the cost of public capital used by departments to deliver services (that is, capital has generally been considered 'free'). This can lead to significant underestimation of costs for those services for which government capital is a major input.

For 2001-02, capital cost per prisoner per day (for open and secure prisons combined) ranged from \$58.3 in Tasmania to \$6.7 in the ACT (table 7.2). It should be noted that Tasmania's capital cost is affected by accelerated depreciation being adopted for some assets and the low capital cost for the ACT is at least partly due to there being no capital cost to the jurisdiction for those ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. The NT had the next lowest capital cost at \$14.4 per prisoner per day.

Table 7.2 Capital cost per prisoner per day, 2001-02, (dollars)

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT^a</i>	<i>Aust</i>
User cost of capital									
– land	4.1	1.2	1.6	2.4	1.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	2.5
– other assets	37.3	9.5	30.8	23.8	21.4	22.8	5.1	13.6	27.6
– total assets	41.4	10.7	32.4	26.2	23.1	23.5	5.6	14.4	30.1
Debt servicing fees	..	14.6	2.3
Depreciation	8.2	3.4	12.6	11.8	10.3	34.8	1.2	na	9.2
Total capital cost	49.6	28.7	45.0	38.0	33.4	58.3	6.7	14.4	41.6

^a The total capital cost for the NT is not directly comparable with other jurisdictions, as it is the only jurisdiction using a cash-based accounting method. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

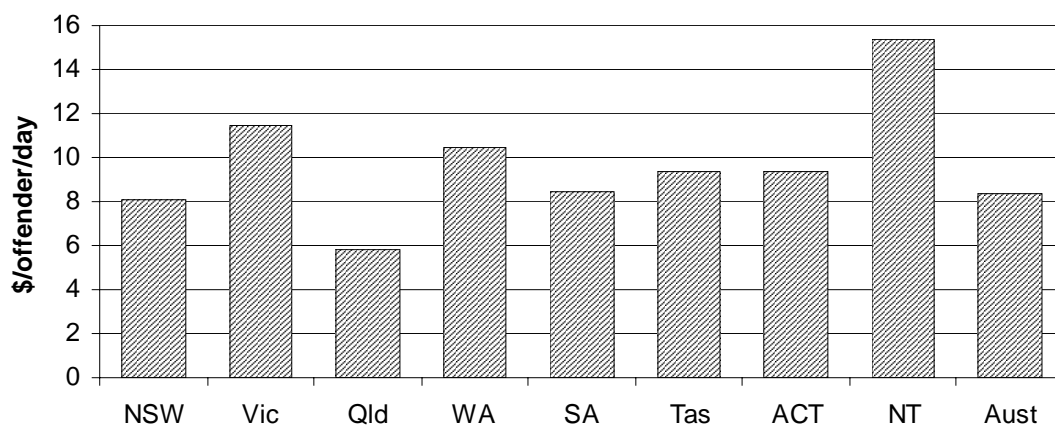
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.11.

Recurrent cost per offender (community corrections)

A measure of the efficiency of resource management is the total cost divided by the number of offenders per day (unit costs). This indicator is affected by size and dispersion factors, particularly in jurisdictions where offenders reside in remote communities. It 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.

The cost per offender per day in community corrections ranged from \$15.37 in the NT to \$5.85 in Queensland in 2001-02 (figure 7.16).

Figure 7.16 Recurrent cost per offender per day, 2001-02^a



^a Includes payroll tax (including estimated amounts for WA and the ACT) and excludes capital asset charges and associated expenses. Costs are net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.7.

Capital cost per offender

The capital costs relevant to community corrections are the user cost of capital and depreciation for government owned community corrections assets. Debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities are not relevant to any jurisdiction.

For 2001-02, capital cost per offender per day ranged from \$0.40 in SA to \$0.02 in the ACT (table 7A.11). Tasmania and the NT did not report on capital costs per offender for 2001-02.

Cost per movement

This indicator relates to the cost of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services and is still under development. Progress has been made in defining the indicator and developing counting rules and the indicator is being trialled for inclusion in future reports.

Cost per report

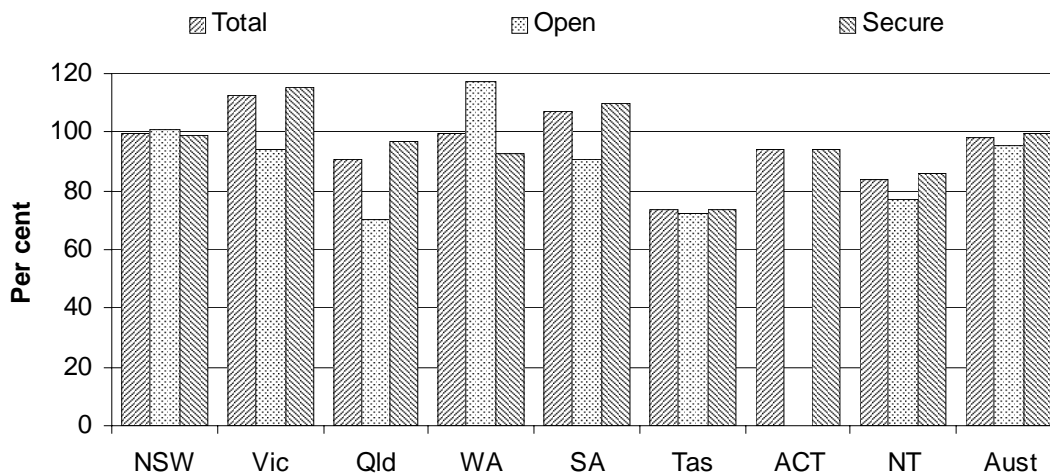
This indicator relates to the cost of reports prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities and is still under development. Progress has been made in defining the indicator and developing counting rules and the indicator is being trialled for inclusion in future reports.

Prison utilisation

A prison system's utilisation rate is considered to be an indicator of the efficiency with which private and publicly owned assets are employed. The optimum rate of prison utilisation lies in the range of 85 to 95 per cent because facilities need to accommodate the transfer of prisoners, provide special purpose accommodation such as hospital and protection units, provide separate facilities for males and females and for different security levels, and deal with short term fluctuations in prisoner numbers.

Prison utilisation for all prisons (open plus secure) in 2001-02 ranged from 112.2 per cent in Victoria to 73.5 per cent in Tasmania. Rates in Victoria and SA exceeded 100 per cent of current design capacity. (Rates exceed 100 per cent of design capacity when more prisoners are housed in a facility than allowed for in its design.) Victoria also reported the highest secure prison utilisation rate at 115.0 per cent and Tasmania the lowest at 73.9 per cent. Western Australia had the highest open custody utilisation rate at 117.1 per cent and Queensland the lowest at 70.5 per cent in 2001-02 (figure 7.17).

Figure 7.17 Prison capacity utilisation rates, 2001-02^a



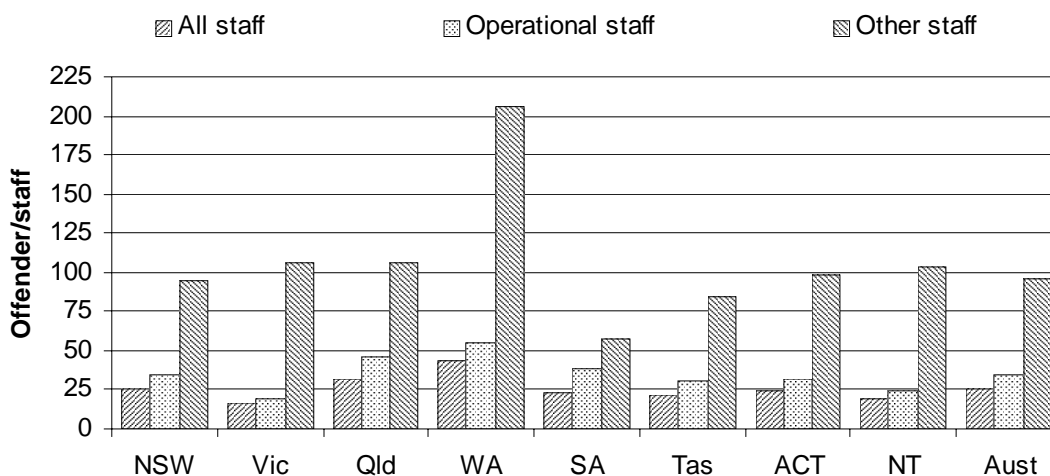
^a ACT data are based on prisoners held in the ACT Remand Centre.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.22.

Offender-to-staff ratio

This indicator compares the daily average number of offenders with staff numbers. Offender-to-staff ratios for community corrections ranged from 43.6 offenders per staff member in WA to 16.6 in Victoria in 2001-02. The highest number of offenders to ‘operational staff’ was also reported by WA at 55.3 and the lowest by Victoria at 19.7. The equivalent figures for ‘other staff’ ranged from 206.3 in WA to 56.9 in SA (figure 7.18).

Figure 7.18 Community corrections offender-to-staff ratios, 2001-02



Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.21.

Offender registrations-to-staff ratio

This indicator is the ratio of new offenders entering community corrections during the year to staff numbers. It represents a measure of ‘flow’ (that is, a count of individuals *across* a period of time) as opposed to ‘stock’ (that is, a count of individuals *at* a specific point in time). This indicator is still under development. Progress has been made in defining the indicator and developing counting rules and the indicator is being trialled for inclusion in future reports.

7.5 Future directions in performance reporting

Jurisdictions will continue to refine definitions and counting rules to maximise comparability across States and Territories. As mentioned, a number of indicators are being trialled for inclusion in future reports. They relate to:

- number of reports recorded — that is, reports prepared by corrective services providing pre- or post-sentencing advice to sentencing or releasing authorities;
- cost per movement — that is, cost of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services;
- cost per report; and
- offender registrations-to-staff ratio — that is, new offenders registered with community corrections during the counting period that do not have a current order as a ratio of community correction 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.

7.6 Jurisdictions’ comments

This section provides comments from each jurisdiction on the services covered in this chapter. Appendix A contains data which 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

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The NSW inmate population has continued to increase at a rate of about 3 per cent a year over the last 3 years, following on from an increase of 8 per cent in 1998-99 and 6 per cent in 1999-00. The number of offenders serving periodic detention orders has continued the downward trend of recent years, decreasing at an average of 10 per cent a year.

To meet the increasing demand for custodial services, the NSW Government continues the planning and development of new correctional facilities in regional NSW (Kempsey and Wellington), one in outer metropolitan Sydney as well as the expansion of existing facilities. The management of prisoners in court cell complexes continues to increase as the department progressively takes over these responsibilities from Police.

In 2001-02 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. However, there is considerable volatility in the number of offenders under supervision particularly those with relatively new order types (for example, suspended sentences and bail supervision).

Significant achievements were made during the year in the further implementation of the 'Throughcare model', the deployment of a risk/needs assessment tool in community corrections and the development of a computer-based offender case management system. The 'Throughcare model' focuses on the identification and assessment of offenders' needs and risk of re-offending on entry into the correctional system and on reintegration into the community. A process of review and accreditation of core programs and services provided in community and custody has also been introduced. Overall, these developments will result in improvements in the way NSW measures and reports on risk management and intervention through offence-targeted programs, which aim to reduce recidivism.

In terms of performance in the current year, NSW has shown a number of significant improvements, notably a reduction in rates of assaults, a decreasing trend in deaths by unnatural causes and the maintaining of an historically low escape rate. Despite the pressure of increasing demands across the whole department, community-based outcomes were consistent with previous years and levels of prison utilisation remain within nationally recognised targets.

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Victorian Government comments

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During 2001-02, significant progress was made in the implementation of the Victorian Corrections Long Term Management Strategy which aims to reduce re-offending and increase community safety. The strategy includes a range of prison diversion and rehabilitation programs and a major redevelopment of Victoria's prison infrastructure. The main achievements during 2001-02 were:

- The Correctional Infrastructure Program significantly increases the permanent design capacity of the Victorian prison system over the next three years. The program also includes a comprehensive Cell Safety and Fire Prevention Program. In addition, over 200 interim temporary beds were added to meet the immediate and critical need for prison accommodation.
- Establishment of a major Community Corrections Redevelopment project which includes the development of forecasting, staffing and workload models to analyse current service requirements and anticipate future demands. Advice to courts is to be strengthened and differential case management of offenders will be developed as part of this project.
- Review and redevelopment of the risk and needs assessment of prisoners and offenders and offender management processes.
- Implementation of a revised Victorian Prison Drug Strategy which introduced new initiatives to manage drug issues within prisons, including expanded detection and treatment programs.
- Review and redevelopment of programs to address offending behaviour including programs for sex and violent offenders.
- Successful implementation of a Pilot Bail Advocacy and Support Services project which provides housing referrals and other forms of support to defendants who would otherwise be remanded in custody.
- Establishment of pilot transition assistance programs, including:
 - a program to assist prisoners and offenders to find and retain employment placement;
 - a program offering transitional support to high risk/high need offenders following release from custody in areas such as drug and alcohol treatment, health and legal assistance; and
 - a program providing transitional housing support services to prisoners identified as being at risk of being homeless following release.

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Queensland Government comments

“ Overall, Queensland has continued to perform consistently well across most performance indicators. The State experienced a 5.7 per cent increase in the daily average prison population during the year, taking its population to 4982, yet its prison design capacity utilisation rate of 90.7 per cent (all prisons) remains in the optimal range of 85–95 per cent utilisation. Queensland continues to meet the challenge of increasing prisoner numbers by expanding and modernising its correctional centres. During the year the 400-bed Capricornia Correctional Centre at Rockhampton opened (with specific provision for a cultural unit for Indigenous offenders) and significant progress was also made on the 500-bed Maryborough Correctional Centre for male prisoners (due to open in 2002-03).

Since 1996-97 the State has had the lowest cost per prisoner per day for the ‘all prisons’ category. In 2001-02 the ‘all prisons’ cost was \$140.80 per prisoner per day as compared to the Australian average of \$153.20. In Secure Custody the cost was \$137.90, and in Community Corrections the cost was \$5.85 per offender per day – for these categories the State has again achieved the lowest cost of all Australian jurisdictions.

No escapes from Secure Custody have occurred in Queensland since 1997-98 and the rate of escapes from Open Custody of 1.74 per 100 prisoners per year continues to be below the Australian average of 2.08. The rate of unnatural deaths (all prisoners) at 0.14 remains close to the Australian average of 0.12. While the Prisoner on Prisoner Serious Assault rate of 1.2 is slightly above the Australian average of 1.1, the Prisoner on Prisoner Assault rate of 6.9 is significantly below the Australian average of 11.2. The rate of Prisoner on Staff Assaults (Serious Assault) achieved was 0.1, half that of the Australian average.

The department has developed integrated approaches to offender program interventions, such as a pilot program for linking vocational training with specific industry experience. In terms of Education and Training, Queensland continues to record the highest level of pre-certificate (13.2 per cent) and higher education (3.7 per cent) participation rates.

Total average daily number of persons on community corrections orders in Queensland reduced 31.6 per cent to 13,445 over the past year, but was still the second largest daily number of orders supervised in Australia. The reduction was primarily due to the impact of the State Penalties Enforcement Register. This register was introduced in November 2000 and its intent is to ensure that fines are satisfied through various payment options thereby reducing the number of fine defaulters in the custodial system. The number of offenders subject to fine option orders has declined and this has continued to effect the total number of community orders under supervision.

Queensland continues to support the development and use of national performance indicators, which will ultimately assist in the identification of performance benchmarks and best practice service delivery in corrections. ”

Western Australian Government comments

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During 2002 Western Australia has seen a decrease in the daily average number of prisoners and an increase in the daily average number of offenders on orders. Rates of imprisonment have also decreased, especially in the area of Indigenous imprisonment rates. These trends are a result of the Western Australian Government's commitment to reducing imprisonment for minor offences and increasing the range and effectiveness of community-based options for offenders.

During 2001 and 2002 the Department of Justice in Western Australia reviewed its data collection and reporting processes of the prison indicators presented in this report. As a result of this review Western Australian data are now more closely aligned with the national data collection manual. This means that in some areas the data presented for 2002 are not comparable with that presented in previous years. In particular the cost per prisoner and cost per offender indicators now include only those overhead costs that are directly related to the provision of corrective services. The assault indicator is also not comparable with previous years as the methodology for collecting the data has been substantially improved. The information on assaults provided in this Report is more comprehensive than that presented in previous years.

A similar review of the community-based services indicators has commenced and it is anticipated that the quality and comprehensiveness of the Western Australian data for these indicators will be improved for future reporting.

Western Australia has also reviewed the degree of comparability of the cost indicators between jurisdictions and formed the view, due to differences in accounting practices (cash/accrual) and total costing methodologies, that cost comparison data between jurisdictions should be treated with caution.

Western Australia experiences a high rate of re-offending. Whilst it is acknowledged that the causal reasons for this cannot be attributed to a particular government agency; the Department of Justice is committed to improving its knowledge about the relationship between reduced reoffending and access to post-release services that support reintegration into the community. The Western Australian Government is realigning existing services and processes to support this aim. New services are also currently being developed to further reduce the likelihood of re-offending. Some of the new services include a prison inreach service, accommodation services and increased emphasis on education and training for employment.

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South Australian Government comments

“ In the financial year 2001-01, the South Australian Department for Correctional Services (DCS) commenced a review of operations in order to framework its directions and goals over the next few decades. This review, titled *Toward 2020*, has progressed steadily. The first phase of intensive consultation and reporting has been completed with directions being frameworked within this process already having an influence on the Department's operations.

During the financial year 2001-02 the imprisonment rate in SA increased over the previous year from 115 to 123 persons per head of 100,000 population. SA continues to have a high percentage of remandees in the prison population. For the financial year 2001-02 the average prison population was 1436. Remandees made up over 33 per cent of that total population. Of these remandees approximately 61 per cent are released within two weeks of incarceration. The percentage of total remandees released within four weeks of incarceration is around 74 per cent. Approximately 80 per cent of all remandees receive no further custodial sentence upon conviction and are released or sentenced to community-based supervision.

South Australia has a low percentage of eligible prisoners participating in education. SA only counts educational courses that are nationally accredited and contribute to the award of a recognised qualification. These include qualifications for completion of senior secondary education, vocational education and training, and higher education sector qualifications. Offender education in SA is funded entirely from the DCS budget with no assistance from other Training Authorities within the State. The South Australian Department of Correctional Services will not allow offenders to be enrolled in an educational program unless they will conceivably be under Departmental care long enough to complete several course modules. The high remandee population therefore has a significant impact on educational throughput.

As at June 30, 2002 there were 7389 Community Correction Orders current in SA. This represents a decline of 15 per cent over the previous year. The overall decrease was due to the reduction of Parole Orders (-14 per cent) and Community Service/Fine Options (-56 per cent). The remaining order groups recorded increases: Probation orders (+39 per cent), Community Service Orders (+5 per cent), Home Detention Orders (+75 per cent), Probation Orders (+39 per cent) and Bail Orders (+251 per cent). The changing demographics of such orders have impacted on the allocation of staff resources throughout the reporting period.”

Tasmanian Government comments

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The Tasmanian prison population (remand and sentenced) has continued to increase, resulting in further pressure being placed on facilities and staff. From a daily average population in 2001-02 of 386 inmates, the early part of 2002-03 saw the population climb to over 460 inmates on a regular basis.

The Government took the step last year of announcing the redevelopment of the Tasmanian prison system. The first phase of the redevelopment will see a Secure Mental Health Unit built on the Risdon site, followed by the replacement of other buildings at Risdon. We look forward to developing a system in which we cannot 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.

Alongside the redevelopment program there are other projects and processes underway. A sentencing review is being undertaken by the Law Reform Institute at the University of Tasmania, and will consider a range of non-custodial sentencing options. One of the central themes to date has been a desire to reduce the prisoner population by providing viable alternatives, including enhanced community-based sentencing options.

Options such as home detention, increased use of other community-based sentences, and a range of alternatives for fine defaulters are all being explored in an effort to reduce the steadily increasing prison population. A working group, involving staff from the Prison Service, the courts, Justice head office, Community Corrections and the Police, is currently trying to predict the likely impact of court waiting lists, police activity and sentencing trends on future prison populations. Although such impacts are incredibly difficult to predict, it is hoped that the results from the working group will at least give us an idea of what is ahead, which will enable a proactive approach to be taken. It is likely that the need to incorporate additional accommodation into existing facilities will increase during 2002-03.

Tasmania's recurrent expenditure figures were affected in 2000-01 by the fact that depreciation costs of most prisons were adjusted (increased) to reflect redevelopment plans for facility replacement.

A new information system implemented in Community Corrections has enabled data to be collected in a more coordinated fashion. A similar information system is planned for implementation within the Prison Service — as a result, Tasmania will be in a stronger position to continue to provide data for the *Report on Government Services*, both for existing indicators and those under development.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ The ACT has had a particular focus on the development of appropriate and effective community-based programs and services. The Rehabilitation Programs Unit was established in 2002, to coordinate the delivery of offence related programs. ACT Corrective Services currently offers a ‘Learning to Relate without Violence or Abuse’ program for family violence offenders, a Cognitive Skills program aimed at medium to high risk offenders, and two Sex Offender programs. A Violence Prevention program will be established in 2002-03.

Following the enactment of the *Rehabilitation of Offenders (Interim) ACT 2001*, Home Detention became available as an alternative way to serve a sentence in October 2002. So far, six offenders have completed their home detention order successfully.

The *Rehabilitation of Offenders (Interim) Act 2001* also established the Sentence Administration Board, which replaces the previous Parole Board and incorporates a number of new measures to improve effectiveness and efficiency and increase the recognition and role of victims in the criminal justice system.

The comparatively low figure for out-of-cell hours at the Belconnen Remand Centre (BRC) is a reflection of the age and inadequacies of the facility. Remandee numbers have remained high and the Government recognises that accommodation at the BRC is often insufficient to the needs of the ACT. To provide an interim solution, the Periodic Detention Centre is being upgraded into the Symonston Temporary Remand Centre (STRC), which is expected to start operations in early November 2002. The Government has also allocated \$50 million in the Capital Works Budget for the establishment of a new remand centre, which will replace the BRC and STRC.

High ACT prisoner per day costs are attributed to the small numbers of detainees that can be accommodated in the Remand Centre and the fact that ACT prisoners are accommodated in NSW correctional facilities under a contractual agreement. The Government is currently reviewing the future direction of the ACT Prison Project and options for addressing the correctional needs of the ACT.

The ACT rate for Indigenous community correction offenders of 5371.9 per 100,000 appears high by comparison with other jurisdictions. It should be noted that a significant number of offenders, including Indigenous offenders, convicted in the ACT courts are actually residents of NSW. This inflates the ACT figures when a per capita ratio is calculated. Further, comparisons need to be interpreted with caution, as small number effects can introduce statistical variation that does not accurately represent differences between jurisdictions. The average daily number of Indigenous offenders managed by Community Corrections was 114. ”

Northern Territory Government comments

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The data collection exercise for this Report has proven beneficial to the business of providing corrective services, and is important for general comparative analysis and self improvement in the Territory where few valid comparisons can be made with other service providers or jurisdictions.

The NT has two 400 bed multi-classification prisons, each with its own open security facility, and located 1500 kilometres apart. Prisons, Community Corrections and Juvenile Justice (which is excluded from the data collection) are all administered by the one Agency in the Territory. This continues to pose significant management issues due to the jurisdictions' large geographical size (over 1.3 million square kilometres), significant population dispersion with a relatively small mass (210 664 people), and a very high Indigenous population of approximately 24 per cent (or 49 972 people).

The NT's daily average prisoner population for 2001-02 was 671, an increase of 11 over the previous year. This shows a moderate increase in prisoner numbers over the past five years, and maintains the NT's consistently low prison utilisation rate of 83.9 per cent compared to design capacity for total secure and open custody.

While offender-to-staff ratios are generally low, Community Corrections' staff in the NT are unique in Australia, in that they all prepare statutory reports and manage caseloads (including home detention, supervision and reparation orders) with adult and juvenile clients, both in the community and under custody or detention. With a total FTE staff of 48, Community Corrections had an average daily caseload of 935 clients in 2001-02. This includes inactive (breach or in suspense) orders that are less than three years old. Community Corrections figures do not adequately reflect the significant management issues reflected in day to day remote area operations in the Top End, East Arnhem, Katherine, Tennant Creek and Alice Springs regions.

Corrective services' contribution to community safety has been extremely effective in terms of deaths in custody and escapes, with no deaths by apparent unnatural causes or escapes for the year. This reflects well on current prisoner management practices, as the NT has the best five year ranking in Australia for unnatural deaths and escapes from secure custody.

Current NT initiatives include the ongoing implementation of the Integrated Offender Management system, based on the New Zealand model and experience which commenced late in 2001, and aims to target interventions at offenders relating to their criminogenic needs. Programs which assist in reducing recidivism are a key focus of NT Correctional Services, which has merged into the Department of Justice since publication of the last Report.

The Territory has also joined other correctional jurisdictions in increasing visitation rights for prisoners by commissioning a new prisoner telephone system, which will serve to expand communication facilities currently available only through family visits and using video conferencing facilities.

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7.7 Definitions

Table 7.3 Terms

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
24-hour court cells	A place of detention located in court and/or police complexes managed by correctional officers and which accommodate sentenced/unsentenced prisoners/offenders for short periods of time (not including holding cells).
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.
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 place other than a prison.
Inactive order and/or "in suspense"	Those 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.
Offender	An adult person with a current community-based corrections order (including bail supervision by corrective services).
Open custody	A custodial facility where the regime for managing prisoners did not require them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier irrespective of whether a physical barrier existed.
Periodic detainee	A person in respect of whom an order for periodic detention was in force.
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.
Prison	A legally proclaimed prison or remand centre which held adult prisoners, excluding police prisons or juvenile detention facilities.
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 definition of prison) managed under contract by a private sector organisation.
Reparation (i)	A sub-category of community-based corrections which 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 either directly or indirectly by reduction in cost to the taxpayer.
Restricted movement	A sub-category of community-based corrections which 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 required them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier.
Supervision (compliance)	Sub-category of community-based corrections which refers to all offenders (other than those categorised as restricted movement or reparation (i)).
Work order	A community service order or bond which imposed work upon an offender. (Note: in some jurisdictions, fine options and expiations also require an undertaking by the offender to pay off the fine through community work).

Source: NCAG (2002).

Table 7.4 Descriptors^a

<i>Descriptor</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Community corrections rate	The annual average number of offenders per 100 000 population aged 17 or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age or 18 and over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18.
Daily average prisoner/periodic detention/offender population	The average number of prisoners, periodic detainees and/or offenders during the counting period.
Imprisonment rate	The annual average number of prisoners per 100 000 population aged 17 or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age or 18 and over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18.
Number of prisons/periodic detention centres	A facility gazetted as a prison, remand centre or periodic detention centre for adults, operated or administered by State/Territory correctional agencies.
Periodic detention rate	The annual average number of periodic detainees per 100 000 population aged 17 or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age or 18 and over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18.
Recurrent expenditure	Expenditure of an ongoing nature incurred in provision of government services or programs, including salaries, payroll tax, 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.
Total cost of service	Includes the combined prison and community corrections recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts), 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.

a In some instances there is a variation with the NCAG data manual classification of 'descriptors' and 'indicators'.

Source: NCAG (2002).

Table 7.5 Indicators^a

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Assault	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 (a) a charge is proved either by a jurisdictional correctional authority, a Governor's hearing or a court of law, or (b) there is evidence that an assault took place because <u>at least one</u> of the following circumstances apply: 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. The rate is expressed per 100 prisoner years, calculated by dividing the total number of assaults by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.
Serious assault	An act of physical violence committed by a prisoner against another prisoner or staff member resulting in actual bodily harm including: (i) 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); (ii) requiring extended periods of ongoing medical treatment; or (iii) all acts of sexual assault. The same requirements of (a) and (b) (above) for assault apply.
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.
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), depreciation for government owned prisons/facilities, and debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities.
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. Costs of contracted transport services are also included.
Cost per report	The average cost per report providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.
Education rate	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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • centres where the policy is not to provide education programs or where education programs are not available (i.e., 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); and • sub-groups of the above categories.

(Continued on next page)

Table 7.5 (Continued)

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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 prisoners undertaking full time education and prisoners whose situation may exclude their participation in work programs, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 • sub-groups of the above categories.
Employment (community corrections)	The number of community work hours worked per offender during the counting period.
Escape/abscond rate (open/secure)	A person who escaped from corrective services' custody (including under contract). The rate is expressed per 100 prisoner years, calculated by dividing the number of escapes/absconds by the daily average open/secure prison population, multiplied by 100.
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.
Offence-related programs	An offence-related program is 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-to-staff ratio	The level of staff supervision based on the number of staff employed and the average number of offenders.
Out-of-cell hours	The time during which prisoners were not confined to cells, averaged over all days of the year.
Number of reports recorded	The number of pre- and post-sentence reports prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.
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 design capacity utilisation rate	The extent to which prison design capacity was meeting demand for prison accommodation, calculated as the total daily average prisoner population divided by average prison design capacity.
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.

(Continued on next page)

Table 7.5 (Continued)

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Recidivism: return to corrections	<p><i>Prisoners</i></p> <p>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></p> <p>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>
Recidivism: return to prison	The proportion of sentenced prisoners not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon release who returned to prison with a new correctional sanction within two years of completing a prison sentence.
Recidivism: return to community corrections	The proportion of offenders completing a community order, not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon completion, who returned to community corrections with a new correctional sanction, within two years of the last community order completion date.
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) and capital costs.
Unnatural death rate	<p>The death wherever occurring (including hospital) of a person:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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; or • who dies or is fatally injured in the process of that person escaping or attempting to escape from prison custody. <p>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 prisoner years, calculated by dividing the number of deaths by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.</p>

^a In some instances there is a variation with the NCAG data manual classification of 'descriptors' and 'indicators'.

Source: NCAG (2002).

7.8 References

NCAG (National Corrections Advisory Group) 2002, Data Collection Manual 2001-02, Canberra, unpublished.

8 Emergency management

Emergency management aims to reduce the level of risk to the community from the occurrence of emergencies, reduce the adverse effects of emergencies, and improve the level and perception of safety in the community. This chapter reports on selected activities of State and Territory government fire services and ambulance services (with the latter defined as pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services). Except for information in section 8.1 on the scope of activities, the chapter does not report on the total range of State and Territory emergency services.

A profile of emergency management appears in section 8.1, followed by a discussion of recent policy developments in section 8.2. Together, these sections provide a context for assessing the performance indicators presented later in the chapter. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 8.3. The data are discussed in sections 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.

Major changes in this year's chapter include:

- reporting of landscape fire incidents;
- reporting of ambulance incidents, responses and patients per 100 000 people;
- improved comparability of cost data through the adoption of a consistent approach to reporting payroll tax; and
- expanded reporting of information and data on volunteers in emergency management.

Data have been improved by refining data items for ambulance services following advice from the Convention of Ambulance Authorities (CAA) to ensure categories are exhaustive, mutually exclusive and clear. Improvements include revised definitions for ambulance personnel numbers, asset numbers and values, caseload and response times.

Other improvements include reporting of geographic case-based data for ambulance response times, and clarified fire data caveats indicating whether data are for urban areas or urban and rural areas. These changes have improved data comparability.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 8 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel 97 format as \Publications\Reports\2003\Attach8A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2003\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 Profile of emergency management

Emergency management is defined as a range of measures to manage risks to communities and the environment (EMA 1998). The emergency management sector includes a range of service providers 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 include 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 spill, 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 Commonwealth, State, Territory and local governments, industry, community organisations and the community in general.

Commonwealth Government

The primary role of the Commonwealth Government is to support and develop national emergency management capability. This is achieved by a range of activities including:

- coordinating the Commonwealth's material and technical assistance to States and Territories in the event of large scale emergencies (through Emergency Management Australia, a division within the Commonwealth Attorney-General's Department);
- providing financial assistance to States, Territories and authorities for flood prevention/mitigation (through the Regional Flood Mitigation Program of the Department of Transport and Regional Services) and for helping to bear the costs of natural disasters (through the Natural Disaster Relief Arrangements of the Department of Transport and Regional Services);
- providing information, best practice materials and training programs (through Emergency Management Australia);
- providing funding for risk management (through the Natural Disaster Risk Management Studies Program of Department of Transport and Regional Services) and undertaking comprehensive risk assessment (through Geoscience Australia); and
- supporting community awareness activities (through Emergency Management Australia, the Bureau of Meteorology and Geoscience Australia).

Commonwealth 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 have the primary responsibility for delivering emergency services, including fire and ambulance services, directly to the community.

Commonwealth, 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 through assessing risks, and developing mitigation measures and prevention plans to address emergencies such as bush 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 services;
- allocating resources for response and recovery activities; and
- providing financial and operational assistance to rural fire brigades and/or other voluntary emergency service units.

Fire services

State and Territory governments provide a range of emergency management activities through fire services, including prevention, preparedness, response and recovery (see section 8.3). The role of fire services across jurisdictions generally includes:

- responding to structure, bush, forest, vehicle and other fires;
- developing building fire safety codes and inspecting fire safety measures;
- providing rural land management advice on the role and use of fire;
- training and educating the community about fire safety and awareness, and road safety issues;
- conducting road accident rescue;
- managing chemicals and hazardous material incidents; and
- administering legislation relating to fire safety, hazardous materials facilities and hazard mitigation.

The management structure and activities of fire services differ across jurisdictions (box 8.1). Separate urban and rural fire services deliver fire services in most jurisdictions. Land management departments also typically provide rural fire services. 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.

Box 8.1 Delivery and scope of activity of primary fire services^a		
	<p>Urban</p> <p><i>Attend residential and commercial structure fires; incidents involving hazardous materials; and road accidents within major urban centres.</i></p>	<p>Rural</p> <p><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></p>
<i>NSW</i>	<i>NSW Fire Brigades</i> — this government department reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.	<i>NSW Rural Fire Service</i> — more than 90 per cent of brigades are now accountable to the Commissioner as a result of recently negotiated service level agreements which confer the legal responsibility from Councils to the Commissioner. The remaining brigades are still managed on a day-to-day basis by Councils, with operational and strategic responsibility resting with the Commissioner.
<i>Vic</i>	<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 Natural Resources and Environment</i> — this department is responsible for public lands.
<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</i>	<i>Fire and Emergency Services Authority of WA</i> — this umbrella statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services directly and incorporates the Bush Fire Service, State Emergency Service and Fire and Rescue Service.	
<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, Emergency Services and Corrections.	

(Continued on next page)

Box 8.1 (Continued)

NT *NT Fire and Rescue Service* — 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.

Bush Fires Council^b — this is a board, which reports to the Minister for Parks and Wildlife.

^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 Commonwealth jurisdiction (for example, airport and defence installations). ^b The NT Bush Fires 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 Bush Fires Council unless stated.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

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 services

The role of ambulance services 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 inter-hospital patient transport;
- conducting road accident rescue; and
- planning and coordinating patient services in multi-casualty events.

Some government ambulance services 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 Tasmanian Ambulance Service contracts the Royal Flying Doctor Service to provide an aircraft and pilots for its air ambulance service, and the costs of that service are included in Tasmania's ambulance costs. Data relating to 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).

Box 8.2 Relationships of primary ambulance response and management agencies 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</i> — an incorporated joint venture between the State Minister for Health and St John Priory Australia
<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, Emergency Services and Corrections
<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).

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.)

Indigenous access to air medical services

The national Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey (CHINS) reported that 51 per cent of the 841 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital reported having access to emergency air medical services in 2001. Access to emergency air medical services was reported for 88 per cent of the 57 222 people living in communities located 100 kilometres or more from a hospital (ABS 2002).

By comparison, the 1999 CHINS survey indicated that 53 per cent of the 895 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities located 100 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital reported having access to emergency air medical services

in 1999. Access to emergency air medical services was reported for 86 per cent of the 59 056 people living in communities located 100 kilometres or more from a hospital (ABS 2000).

The CHINS data were collected from Indigenous housing organisations and Indigenous communities, and are provided on a 'reported population' basis (ABS 2000, 2002). That is, survey respondents estimate the number of Indigenous communities with and without access to air medical services, and their population numbers. Data are based on perceptions, and are not validated against actual service availability in these communities. Data are also affected by difficulties with the identification of Indigenous people. Indigenous identification is incomplete, so the data need to be interpreted with caution.

Other emergency management organisations

The Review does not yet report on the performance of Commonwealth or local government emergency management services or their agencies, or the State Emergency Services/Territory Emergency Services (SES/TES). The Review intends in future, however, to explore the inclusion of the SES/TES services in relation to some emergency events, because these services are an integral part of emergency management.

The SES/TES operate in all jurisdictions. While specific functions vary across Australia, all services undertake a variety of common functions. The scope of activities undertaken by the SES/TES across Australia is summarised in table 8.1.

Funding

Fire services

The primary sources of funding across all jurisdictions in 2001-02 were grants from State, Territory and local governments, levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges, and fundraising and donations. Levies on insurance companies were the primary source of funding for NSW, Victoria and WA. Levies on property owners were the primary source of funding for Queensland and Tasmania. 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.

Table 8.1 State Emergency Service and Territory Emergency Service (SES/TES) activities^a

<i>Activities</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>
Storm damage	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Flood response	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Road accident rescue	✓(s)	✓	✓	✓(s)	✓	✓		✓
Earthquakes	✓(s)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓(s)	✓
Civil defence	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Land search and rescue	✓(s)	✓(s)	✓	✓(s)	✓	✓	✓(s)	✓
Inland search and rescue	✓(s)	✓(s)	✓	✓(s)	✓	✓		✓
Offshore search and rescue ^b		✓(s)	✓	✓(s)	✓			✓
Diving		✓(s)						
Support to non-government emergency service organisations	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Assistance for municipal planning	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Conduct of emergency management courses		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Air observer ^b	✓(s)		✓(s)	✓(s)		✓(s)	✓	✓
Vertical rescue	✓(s)	✓	✓(s)	✓	✓	✓		✓
Public safety awareness and education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Tropical cyclone response			✓	✓				✓
Tsunami response	✓		✓	✓				

^a (s) Indicates that the role is to provide support to another agency in this activity. ^b The WA SES undertakes air observer duties only, off shore. The WA SES does not participate in sea rescue.

Source: Australian Council of State Emergency Services (unpublished).

Total funding of the fire services covered in this Report was \$1.3 billion in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, funding was highest in NSW (\$552 million) and lowest in the NT (\$14 million). Funding increased (when measured in real terms) in NSW, Victoria, Queensland and Tasmania between 2000-01 and 2001-02, decreased in WA and the NT, and remained the same in the ACT (table 8.2). Funding for land management agencies is not included in the \$1.3 billion reported.

Table 8.2 Real funding of fire services (2001-02 dollars) (\$ million)^{a, b, c}

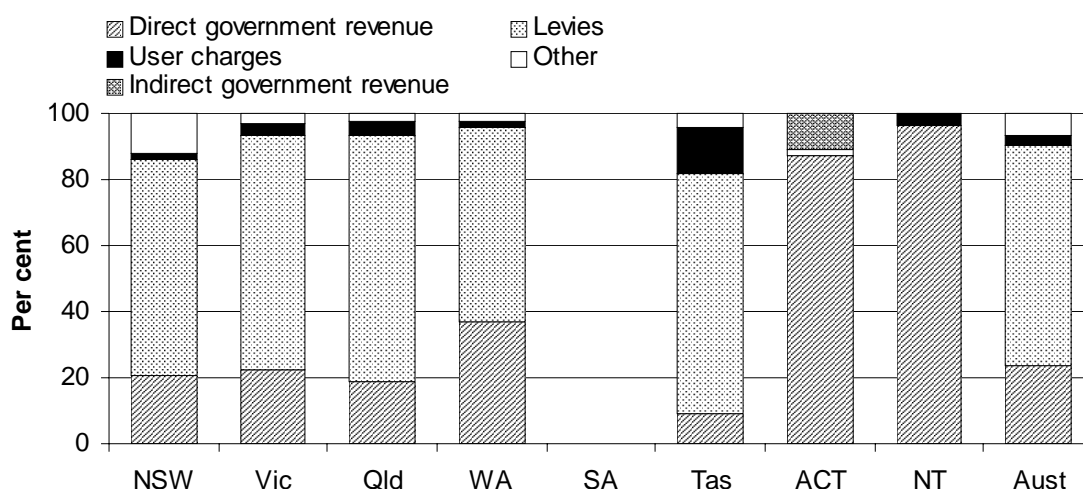
	<i>NSW</i> ^d	<i>Vic</i> ^e	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i> ^f	<i>SA</i> ^g	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i> ^h	<i>NT</i> ⁱ	<i>Aust</i> ^j
1997-98	377	285	196	84	78	39	34	21	1 113
1998-99	404	291	214	88	90	37	36	22	1 183
1999-2000	453	294	236	104	112	37	22	21	1 279
2000-01	441	318	245	99	113	38	25	21	1 301
2001-02	552	336	256	93	na	40	25	14	1 316

^a Real expenditure is based on the ABS Gross Domestic Product (GDP) price deflator 2001-02 = 100 (table A.26). ^b Indirect revenue is counted in government grants in table 8A.1. The totals are the sum of government grants, levies, user charges and other revenue. ^c Due to differences in definitions and counting rules, data reported may differ from those in agency annual reports and other sources. ^d The 1999-2000 figure for NSW Fire Services is artificially inflated by abnormal items of \$23 million. ^e In Victorian data for 1997-98 and 1998-99, the proportions of principal funding contributions from State Governments, local governments and insurance companies are established in legislation. The actual proportions received may vary as a result of the level of income from user charges and other income sources. 2000-01 was the first year of funding for a special resources initiative in Victoria. ^f WA data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 do not include Bush Fire Brigades, which are the responsibility of local government. ^g In SA data for 1997-98, funding includes \$1 million received from AUSAID for reimbursement of the costs of the Indonesian Fire Suppression Exercise. ^h Total expenditure for the ACT in 1997-98 includes expenditure for four response agencies: the ACT Fire Brigade, the ACT Bushfire Service, the ACT Emergency Service and the ACT Ambulance Service. The ACT funding change for 1999-2000 and 2000-01 reflects the revised method of attributing funds to the Emergency Services Bureau by event type. ⁱ NT data for 1999-2000 include a Commonwealth Government (National Heritage Trust) grant for a fire management research project. ^j Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); SCRCSSP (1999, 2000, 2001); table 8A.1.

Fire services are funded by a variety of sources, with non-government organisations making a significant contribution. Nationally, 23.7 per cent of funding for fire services was provided directly by government in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the highest proportion of direct government funding was in the NT (96.4 per cent) and the lowest was in Tasmania (8.8 per cent) (figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1 Major sources of fire services funding, 2001-02^{a, b, c}



^a Direct government revenue is equal to government grants less indirect revenue. Indirect government revenue is not shown for jurisdictions excepting the ACT because it equates to less than 0.1 per cent in all other jurisdictions. ^b Data for SA were not available. ^c In addition to the reduced revenue from the cessation of the Emergency Services Levy, the ACT Government has had to fund a revenue shortfall because of the Commonwealth's non-payment for fire services. The ACT Government and the Commonwealth are currently negotiating a new agreement covering fire services for Commonwealth property in the ACT that will determine the Commonwealth funding contribution for 2001-02.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.1.

Ambulance services

Nationally, ambulance services receive funding from different sources, including government contributions, subscriptions, transport fees (from government hospitals, private citizens and insurance) and donations. The distribution of funding sources varies across jurisdictions.

State and Territory governments were the largest contributors to ambulance services in all States and Territories except WA. The contribution from this level of government including direct and indirect funding in 2001-02 was highest in the ACT (87.5 per cent) and lowest in WA (21.7 per cent). The primary source of funds in WA was transport fees (61.3 per cent). All jurisdictions except NSW and Tasmania received funding from subscriptions. Queensland relied more on subscriptions as a funding source (19.4 per cent) than did any other jurisdiction (table 8A.16). There is an ambulance subscription scheme in NSW, but these funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury.

Total funding of ambulance services covered in this Report was \$970 million in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, funding was highest in NSW (\$281 million) and

lowest in the ACT and the NT (both \$10 million). Compared with 2000-01, funding increased in real terms in all jurisdictions except NSW (table 8.3).

Table 8.3 Real funding of ambulance services (2001-02 dollars)
(\$ million)^{a, b, c}

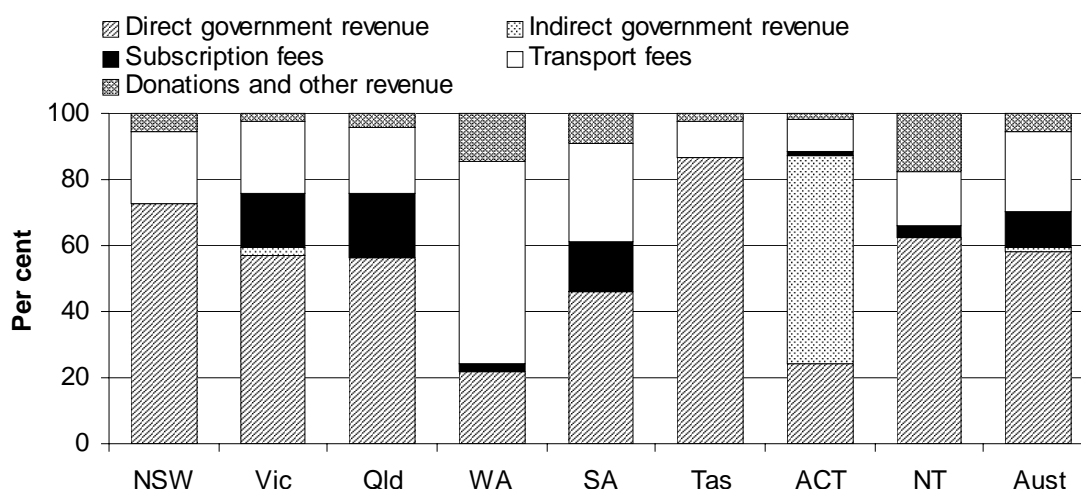
	<i>NSW</i> ^d	<i>Vic</i> ^e	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i> ^f	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i> ^g	<i>NT</i> ^h	<i>Aust</i> ⁱ
1997-98	251	183	176	50	55	14	na	9	737
1998-99	257	207	187	49	64	15	na	10	789
1999-2000	277	211	210	60	74	16	9	9	866
2000-01	287	233	232	60	72	16	9	9	919
2001-02	281	267	233	65	87	18	10	10	970

^a Real expenditure is based on the ABS GDP price deflator 2001-02 = 100 (table A.26). ^b Indirect revenue is counted in government grants in table 8A.16. The totals are the sum of government grants, subscription fees, transport fees, donations and other revenue. ^c Due to differences in definitions and counting rules, data reported may differ from those 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 Victorian data for 1998-99 exclude the Ambulance Officers Training Centre. Victoria received additional funding in 2001-02 from both government and direct service revenue for new and improved services. ^f For 1999-2000, WA subscription fees are for country regions only; insurance transport fees include those covered by private health insurance; and workers' compensation transport fees are not separately identified and are included with the uninsured. ^g The source of funds for the ACT Ambulance Service in 1997-98 and 1998-99 are included in the ACT Emergency Services Bureau data in table 8.2 and could not be provided separately. Total source of funds in table 8.2 includes funding for all four response agencies under the Emergency Services Bureau: the ACT Fire Brigade, the ACT Bushfire Service, the ACT Emergency Service and the ACT Ambulance Service. The ACT funding change for 1999-2000 and 2000-01 reflects the revised method of attributing funds to the Emergency Services Bureau by event type. ^h The 2001-02 NT Government revenue data include transports for the NT Government and the Department of Health and Community Services under purchaser-provider contract guidelines, and inter-hospital transport fees. Other revenue includes sales, training and contract paramedical work. ⁱ Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.16; SCRCSSP (2002).

Ambulance services are funded by a variety of sources, with non-government organisations making a significant contribution. Ambulance services received direct government funding of 58.4 per cent nationally in 2001-02 (table 8A.16). Across jurisdictions, direct government funding was highest in Tasmania (87.0 per cent), where a free service is provided due to State Government policy, and lowest in WA (21.7 per cent), where St John Ambulance provides services on behalf of the State Government. Total government funding is equal to that provided by State and Territory governments, because either no funding was provided from the Commonwealth and local governments, or funding from these sources was less than 0.1 per cent (figure 8.2).

Figure 8.2 Major sources of ambulance services funding, 2001-02^{a, b, c}



^a Direct government revenue is equal to government grants less indirect revenue. Other revenue is all revenue that is not direct or indirect government revenue. ^b NSW has a subscription scheme but funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury. ^c The NT Government revenue data include transports for the NT Government and the Department of Health and Community Services under purchaser-provider contract guidelines, and inter-hospital transport fees. Other revenue includes sales, training and contract paramedical work.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.16.

Size and scope

Fire services

The scope of activity within fire service delivery is broad and varies across jurisdictions (table 8A.29).

Incidents

Information on reported fires and other incidents was provided separately for fire agencies in each jurisdiction. Data were not available for all fire services across jurisdictions. Fire services are required by legislation to respond to all calls, and an incident cannot be deemed to be a false report until the fire service has responded and investigated the site. Nationally, 36.2 per cent of reported incidents in 2001-02 were fires or explosions (table 8A.2). Nationally, there were also 53 903 landscape fire incidents reported in 2001-02 (table 8A.3).

The proportions of incident types varied substantially across jurisdictions in 2001-02. Victorian fire services, for example, attended 65 288 incidents, of which 34.6 per cent were fires and explosions, 14.0 per cent were fire alarm system

notifications not involving fire, and 51.4 per cent were false alarms, false calls and other incidents. The WA fire brigades responded to 28 867 incidents, of which 58.5 per cent were fires and explosions, 18.4 per cent were fire alarm system notifications not involving fire, and 23.1 per cent were false alarms, false calls and other incidents (table 8A.2).

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); and
- support personnel (any paid and volunteer person directly supporting the operational provider, including technical and communications personnel and personnel staff).

Nationally, 11 718 full time equivalent (FTE) paid personnel were involved in the delivery of fire services in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the number of FTE paid personnel ranged from 4298 in NSW to 191 in the NT. Nationally, the majority of paid personnel were firefighters (77.1 per cent). Across jurisdictions, this proportion was highest in the NT (83.7 per cent) and lowest in Tasmania (66.0 per cent) (table 8A.4).

Volunteer firefighters (204 554 people) participated in the delivery of fire services in 2001-02. The number of volunteer firefighters varied across jurisdictions, from 68 710 in NSW to 461 in the NT (table 8A.4).

Ambulance services

The scope of activity within ambulance service delivery is broad and varies across jurisdictions (table 8A.29).

Incidents

Ambulance services attended over two million incidents nationally in 2001-02. Most of these were emergency incidents (44.5 per cent), followed by non-emergency incidents (37.2 per cent) and urgent incidents (18.0 per cent). Only Queensland attended casualty room incidents (0.4 per cent). The proportion of emergency incidents was highest in NSW (66.4 per cent) and lowest in WA (26.7 per cent) (table 8A.17). 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.

Human resources

Data on human resources for ambulance services are improved in this Report because more specific definitions were applied. The data are reported by operational status on a FTE basis to provide a detailed description of the human resources profile for ambulance agencies.

Human resources refers to any person involved in delivering an ambulance service or managing the delivery of this service, including:

- ambulance operatives (including qualified ambulance officers, intensive care officers, students and base level ambulance officers, patient transport 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); and
- remunerated and nonremunerated volunteers (including any paid and unpaid volunteer personnel providing ambulance services on an on-call basis, and corporate support).

Nationally, 9043 FTE salaried personnel were involved in the delivery of ambulance services. Across jurisdictions, the number of FTE salaried ambulance personnel ranged from 2983 people in NSW to 107 people in the NT. The majority of salaried ambulance personnel in 2001-02 were ambulance operatives (79.1 per cent). Across jurisdictions, this proportion ranged from 87.5 per cent in Tasmania to 61.6 per cent in the NT (table 8A.18).

Nationally, 5447 nonremunerated volunteer ambulance personnel, along with 328 remunerated volunteer ambulance personnel, participated in the delivery of ambulance services in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, the number of nonremunerated volunteer and retained ambulance operatives varied across jurisdictions, from 2705 in WA to 24 in the NT. Volunteer operational and business support personnel were used in WA (904), SA (400) and the NT (1). Due to the decentralised structure of its ambulance services, WA has a high number of volunteer operational and business support personnel (table 8A.18).

The participation of 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 the Country Fire Authority Victoria, for example, approximately 85 per cent of its 61 657 volunteers in 2001-02 functioned in rural areas (CFA, VRFBA and VUFBA 2001) (table 8.4). In Queensland, approximately 46 500 Rural Fire Brigade volunteers in 1600 brigades provided firefighting and fire hazard reduction services to local communities not covered by urban fire brigades in 2001-02 (DES 2002).

Table 8.4 Volunteers in fire and ambulance services, 2001-02 (number)

	NSW ^a	Vic ^{a, b}	Qld ^a	WA	SA ^a	Tas ^a	ACT	NT ^a	Aust
Ambulance	67	358	352	2 705	1 753	516	..	24	5 775
Fire	68 710	61 657	46 534	21 676	na	4 866	650	461	204 554
Total	68 777	62 015	46 886	24 381	1 753	5 382	650	485	210 329

^a Numbers for fire services include part paid volunteers. ^b Of the 358 Victorian ambulance service volunteers, 328 are remunerated for some time (usually response), but not for other time (usually on-call time). **na** Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.4 and 8A.18.

Volunteers in many emergency management organisations — 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. Some estimates of volunteer participation include the following:

- across Australia, over 500 000 volunteers participate each year in the management of a broad range of emergency situations and disasters (for example, floods and earthquakes) (EMA 2001);
- across Australia, in fire and ambulance services alone, there were 210 329 volunteers in 2001-02 (table 8.4);
- in WA, volunteers provided more than three million hours to a variety of functions in the St John Ambulance Service in 2001 (table 8.5); and
- in the Tasmanian Ambulance Service, volunteers participate in 36 of the 42 stations, supporting highly trained paramedics in 13 locations and working in 23 wholly volunteer stations. In on-call time alone, they provide 516 000 hours per annum, in addition to time spent on training and in responding to calls (Tasmanian Ambulance Service and KPMG 2001).

Table 8.5 Time provided to WA ambulance services and first aid by volunteers, 2001 ('000 hours)

<i>Description of function</i>	<i>Hours</i>
Ambulance services	
Training programs	60
Skills maintenance programs	45
Response to accidents, medical emergencies and patient transfers	57
24-hour rostered on-call availability	2 746
Total ambulance services	2 908
First aid courses and services	
Instructor training and accreditation	1
First aid courses to the public, other emergency services and industry	13
Literature and first aid products	2
Total first aid courses and services	17
Management	
Committee work	28
Secretary and Treasurer	38
Vehicles and equipment, stores and buildings and grounds	29
Total management	95
Total	3 021

Source: St John Ambulance WA (2001).

Cost to government relating to volunteer service provision

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 Tasmanian Ambulance Service undertook a study to estimate the costs to government of volunteer ambulance services in Tasmania. It estimated that the cost to the Tasmanian Government in 2000-01 of services wholly provided by ambulance volunteers 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 (Tasmanian Ambulance Service and KPMG 2001).

The differing flagfall values reflect the common infrastructure costs for all cases (for example, building, vehicles, medical equipment and communications infrastructure) and the impact of the very significant differences in caseload and economies of scale between high caseload urban areas and low caseload volunteer stations serving small populations. Additionally, the time involved in responding to cases outside urban areas may be longer due to the larger distances travelled and the time taken to mobilise an emergency response vehicle crewed by volunteers who may be in various locations and called away from work. Mobilisation time in such instances is likely to be longer than the time to mobilise a crew of paid personnel who are located together and ready to respond.

Cost to government per case in 2000-01 was estimated by the Tasmanian Ambulance Service, by accounting for:

- the costs of infrastructure utilised, including buildings, vehicles, capital equipment and radio communications;
- recurrent expenses for fuel, medical consumables, volunteer uniforms and training;
- actual caseload levels and recorded time spent on each case from computer dispatch system and case sheet records (the caseload time normally affects distance travelled and hence fuel costs and the use of medical consumables; for example, oxygen);
- the incidental and miscellaneous costs associated with volunteer units, including postage, catering for volunteer training courses, office requisites for volunteer training coursework materials, and volunteer meal and travelling expenses reimbursements; and
- the salary costs and recurrent expenses for paid personnel involved in volunteer training.

Volunteer developments

Ambulance authorities from Victoria, Queensland, WA, SA, Tasmania and the NT have surveyed volunteer ambulance officers to gain their input on strategies that will aid the long term sustainability of volunteer ambulance services in rural and remote areas of Australia. The survey particularly focused on recruitment, retention, and the training and support needs of ambulance volunteers, and provided recommendations for the future directions of ambulance services utilising volunteers.

Support for volunteers in emergency management has been increased through improved training, the provision of higher standards of operational and personal

protective equipment, and the enactment of legislation to provide liability protection. Emergency management volunteer organisations have also recently formed the Australian Emergency Management Volunteer Forum, to facilitate better communication between organisations and the sector, and to progress issues facing emergency management volunteers.

Other emergency management service categories

The Review does not report on a number of emergency service categories including: rescues; natural events; technological and hazardous material incidents; emergency relief and recovery; and quarantine and disease control. Emergency management departments and agencies that provide services in these areas are identified in table 8A.29.

8.2 Policy developments in emergency management

A summary of developments across the breadth of the emergency management sector is provided in this section.

- *Managing the consequences of acts of terrorism.* Crisis and consequence management links have been strengthened through the inclusion of Consequence Management in the revised National Counter Terrorism Plan and emergency management representation on the National Counter Terrorism Committee. The 2002 Federal Budget allocated \$17.8 million to procure specialised equipment and provide specialist training for State and Territory-based agencies and emergency personnel involved in the first response to chemical, biological and radiological incidents.
- *Council of Australian Governments' (COAG) reviews.* COAG is considering recommendations from the Review of Natural Disaster Mitigation and Relief Arrangements. The National Foot and Mouth Disease Taskforce has undertaken the Review of Foot and Mouth Disease Arrangements for the management of a major animal disease outbreak and attendant trade, industry and community recovery issues. The taskforce has developed national frameworks that were tested during Exercise Minotaur, held in September 2002.
- *Land use planning.* Emergency management agencies have developed guidelines to assist government decision makers, local government planners, emergency managers and other practitioners on the application of land use planning for managing risk from hazards to community safety, especially for assessing development proposals and designating land for community infrastructure.

-
- *Information initiatives.* The Commonwealth, States and Territories have jointly developed an Australian Disaster Information Network, which utilises a web portal to improve access to, and the sharing of, emergency management information. Boosted by GeoInsight, a \$2 million project supported by AusIndustry and delivered in 2001, State and Territory and national networks of Geographical Information System users have been formed to address common issues related to spatial data sharing and accessibility.
 - *Legislative issues.* Jurisdictions have taken measures to address the recommendations from the Linton Coronial Inquiry and lessons learned from the NSW Bushfires. Legislation has been amended to enable improved planning of developments in fire-prone areas and hazard reduction measures.
 - *Critical infrastructure protection (for example, relating to water supply, telecommunications, electricity and banking and finance).* The Business–Government Task Force on Critical Infrastructure — comprising industry leaders and government agency representatives with critical infrastructure and emergency management responsibilities — recommended that a network of consultative groups be formed to address both policy and operational information sharing needs. Risks to both the national information infrastructure and physical infrastructure will be addressed. States are taking measures to upgrade critical infrastructure protection and to review plans to deal with the consequences of infrastructure disruption or failure, so as to minimise impacts on communities.

8.3 Framework of performance indicators

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 emergency management agencies (box 8.3).

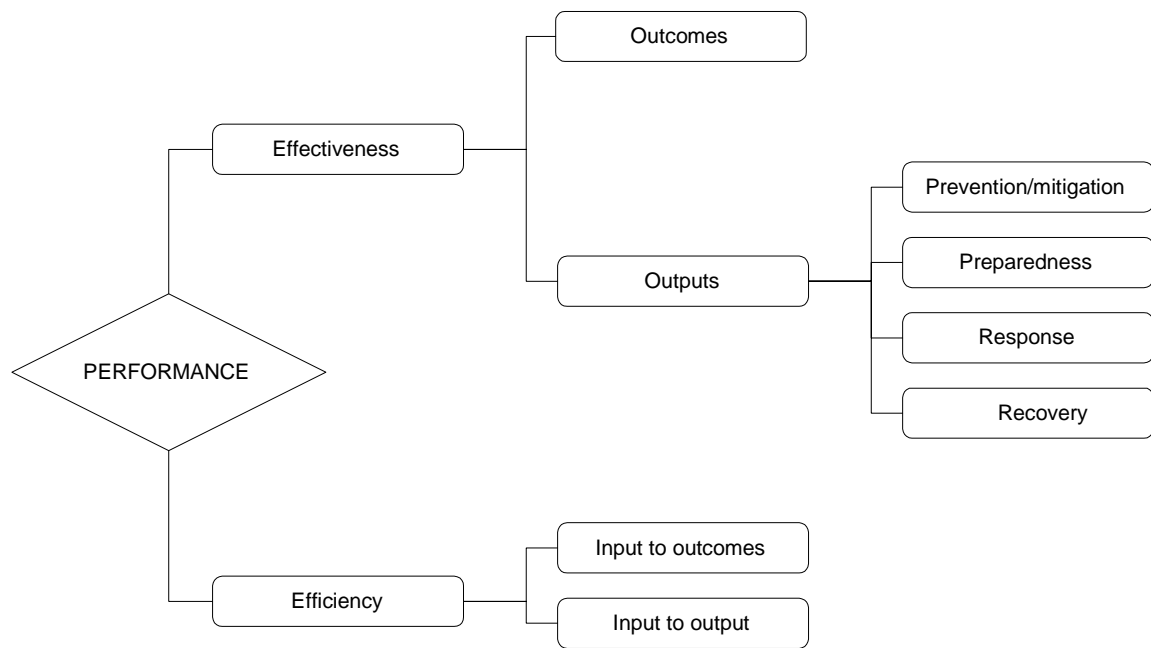
Box 8.3 Objectives for emergency management

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; and
- enhance public safety.

The general performance indicator framework presented in figure 8.3 has been applied to both fire and ambulance services (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services). This framework provides information on the efficiency and effectiveness of government provided and/or funded emergency management services.

Figure 8.3 **General performance indicators framework for emergency management**



The outcome indicators in the performance framework indicate the effects of a service on the community, economy and environment. The indicators may suggest the degree of service success. Outcomes indicators include: fire death rate; fire injury rate; the value of property lost from structure fire incidents; the number of fire incidents relative to the population; the survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest; and the number of ambulance incidents, responses and patients relative to the population.

The framework uses the widely accepted ‘comprehensive approach’ (prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery) to classify the key functions common to emergency agencies. Outputs for emergency services 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 that, should an emergency occur, 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 (emergency services)* — 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 salvage and restoration of the 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 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.

Descriptor information is also provided in this chapter and appendix A to assist in the interpretation of reported performance.

8.4 Key performance indicator results — fire services

A performance indicator framework for fire services (figure 8.4) has been developed from the framework described in figure 8.3. Definitions of all indicators are provided in table 8.6.

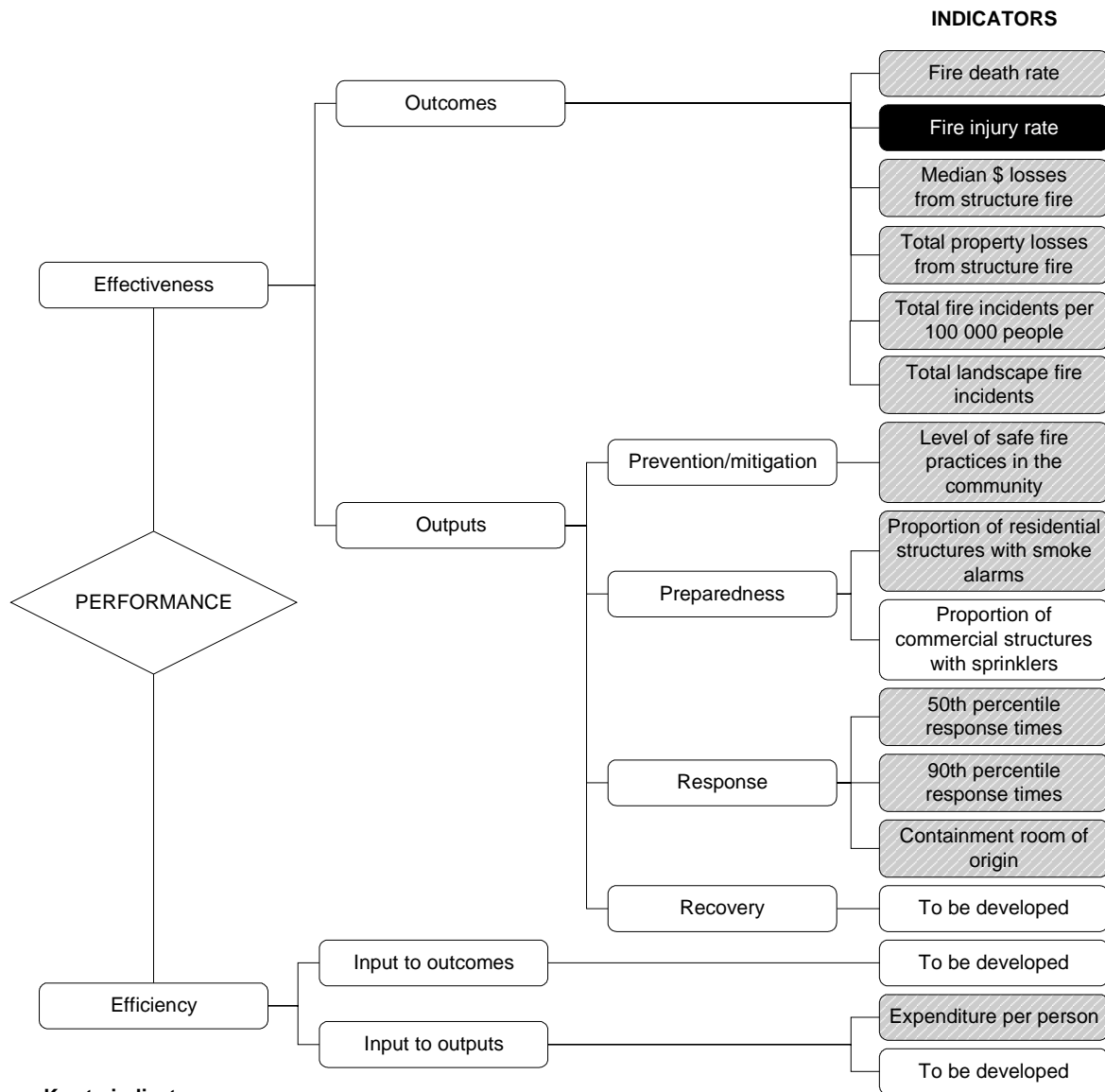
Performance information has been reported for a number of indicators. These results may have been influenced by factors such as differences in climatic and weather conditions, the socio-demographic and topographic composition of jurisdictions, property values and dwelling construction types. Importantly, jurisdictions also have diverse legislative fire protection requirements. Appendix A contains detailed statistics, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

Results need to be treated with care because data either were derived from small samples — as in the case of the ambulance patient satisfaction survey and the fire safety measures survey for some jurisdictions — or are highly variable as a result of the relatively small populations in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT. The role of volunteers, particularly for country and rural fire brigades, needs to be considered in the interpretation of indicators (for example, fire expenditure per person). Specifically, volunteer personnel provide a substantial proportion of fire services (and emergency services more generally) (ABS 2001a). While costs such as training and equipment associated with volunteers are included in calculating 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 was not reported for all fire agencies in each jurisdiction. Rural fire services are sometimes excluded from reported results. Partly for this reason, performance data are not always strictly comparable across jurisdictions. Fire services are cooperating to improve and enhance the standards for the collection of fire data. Differences in counting rules are expected to be minimised for future reports.

The performance indicator framework for fire services shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 8.4). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 8.4 Performance indicators for fire services



Key to indicators

- Text Provided on a comparable basis for this Report
- Text Information not complete or not strictly comparable
- Text Yet to be developed or not collected for this Report

Effectiveness

Outcomes

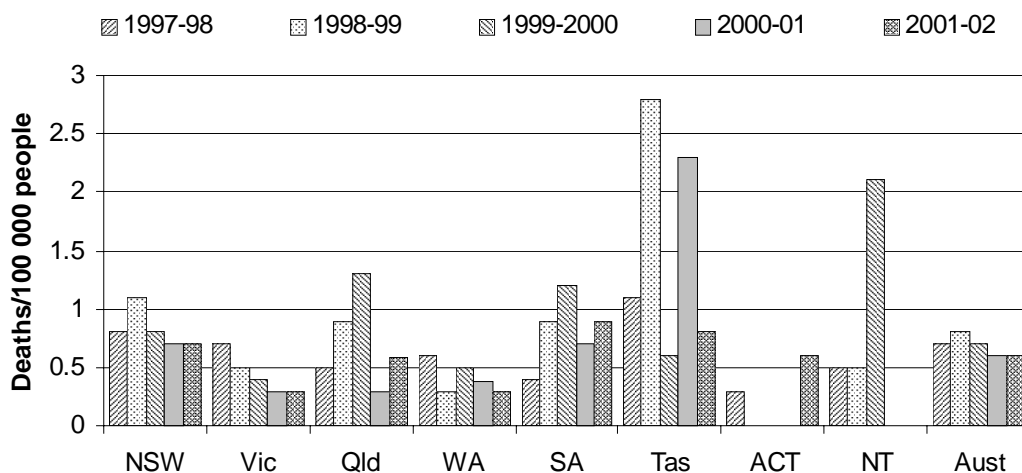
The indicators of outcomes reported here relate to the objective of fire services to minimise the effect of fire on life, property and the environment. The fire death rate and the fire injury rate are indicators of outcomes in terms of the effect of fire on life. Caution in interpreting data must be exercised, because of the relatively small numbers of deaths and significant fluctuations from year to year, particularly for jurisdictions with relatively smaller populations. Other outcomes indicators reported are median dollar losses from fire, total property losses from fire and fire incidents per 100 000 people.

Fire death rate

Nationally, the fire death rate was 0.6 per 100 000 people in 2001-02. The fire death rate was highest in SA (0.9 fire deaths per 100 000 people) and lowest in the NT (no fire deaths) (figure 8.5). Nationally, the three-year average fire death rate was 0.6 per 100 000 people. The three-year average fire death rate was highest in Tasmania (1.2 deaths per 100 000 people) and lowest in the ACT (0.2 deaths per 100 000 people) (table 8A.5).

The definitions used to count fire deaths varied across jurisdictions. Fire deaths resulting from all fire incidents were reported for all jurisdictions except Victoria, which reported fire deaths resulting from structure fires. Further, some jurisdictions included fire deaths that were suicides, whereas others excluded suicides from fire deaths data. Fire deaths reported in some jurisdictions were verified by the respective State coroner's findings, while fire deaths in other jurisdictions were estimated by fire agencies. Future reports are expected to use more uniform reporting methods.

Figure 8.5 Fire death rate^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a The small number of deaths means it is difficult to establish patterns and provide detailed analysis. The rates also fluctuate from year to year. This demonstrates the volatility of these numbers which must be taken into account in any interpretation of data. ^b Fire deaths resulting from all fire incidents were reported for all jurisdictions except Victoria, which reported fire deaths resulting from structure fires. ^c Figures for NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and Tasmania in 1999-2000, 2000-01 and 2001-02 include deaths involving civilians and operational personnel. Victorian and WA data for all years, and Queensland data for 2001-02 exclude murders and suicides where a fire subsequently occurred. ^d Data for 1997-98 have been validated by the State Coroners for NSW, Queensland, WA, Tasmania and the ACT. Data for 1998-99 and 1999-2000 have been validated by the State Coroners for NSW, Queensland, WA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT. Data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 have been validated by the State Coroner for NSW. ^e In SA data, the 19 deaths in 2001-02 include two suicides. Only 10 accidental deaths were associated with building fires. ^f The ACT had no fire deaths between 1998-99 and 2000-01. ^g The NT had no fire deaths in 2000-02.

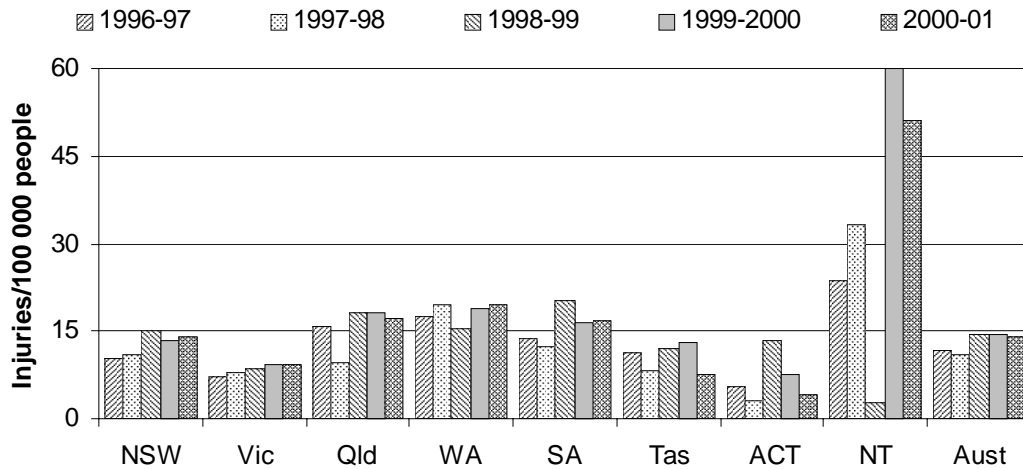
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.5.

Fire injury rate

Fire injuries data describe the number of 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.

Nationally, the fire injury rate was 14.2 per 100 000 people in 2000-01. Across jurisdictions, the rate was highest in the NT (51.0 fire injuries per 100 000 people), and lowest in the ACT (4.0 per 100 000 people) (figure 8.6). Nationally, the three-year average fire injury rate was 14.3 per 100 000 people. Across jurisdictions, the three-year average fire injury rate was highest in the NT (37.8 fire injuries per 100 000 people) and lowest in the ACT (8.3 fire injuries per 100 000 people) (table 8A.6).

Figure 8.6 Fire injury rate^{a, b}



^a Fire injuries are defined as the number of people admitted to public and private hospitals. Excludes emergency department non-admitted casualties and fire injuries arising from arson, secondary fires resulting from explosions, and transport accidents. ^b Excludes fire deaths for all years. The 2001 Report included deaths in the 1998-99 data. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) revised the fire injuries data for 1998-99 subsequent to its publication of *Australian Hospital Statistics 1998-99* (AIHW unpublished).

Source: AIHW, *Australian Hospital Statistics* (unpublished); table 8A.6.

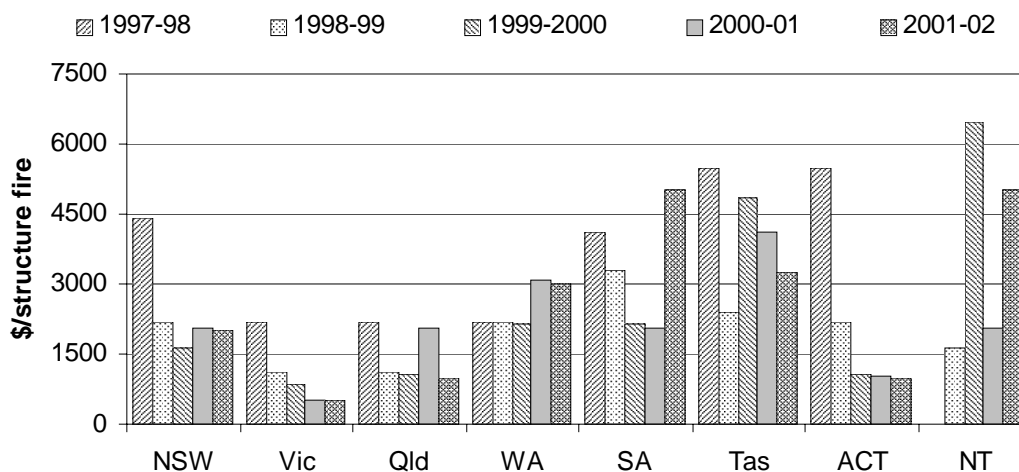
Losses from structure fire

The median dollar loss per structure fire and the total property loss from structure fires are indicators of outcomes in terms of the effect of fire on property. Structure fires are those fires contained in housing and other buildings. These data are expressed in real dollars. The data have not been adjusted for jurisdictional differences in the costs and values of various types of building. Information for some jurisdictions includes only urban fire services, so the results across jurisdictions are not strictly comparable. Further, the method of valuing property loss from fire varies across jurisdictions.

Median dollar losses from structure fire

The median dollar loss in 2001-02 was highest in SA and the NT (both \$5000 per structure fire) and lowest in Victoria (\$500 per structure fire) (figure 8.7). Across jurisdictions, the median dollar loss increased (in real terms) in SA and the NT, from 2000-01 to 2001-02, and decreased in all other jurisdictions. The substantial increase in the NT needs to be considered with care because data for the relatively smaller jurisdictions can be subject to high volatility. Similarly, the increase in SA may be an artefact of the calculation method in 2001-02 (table 8A.7).

Figure 8.7 Real median dollar loss from structure fires (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



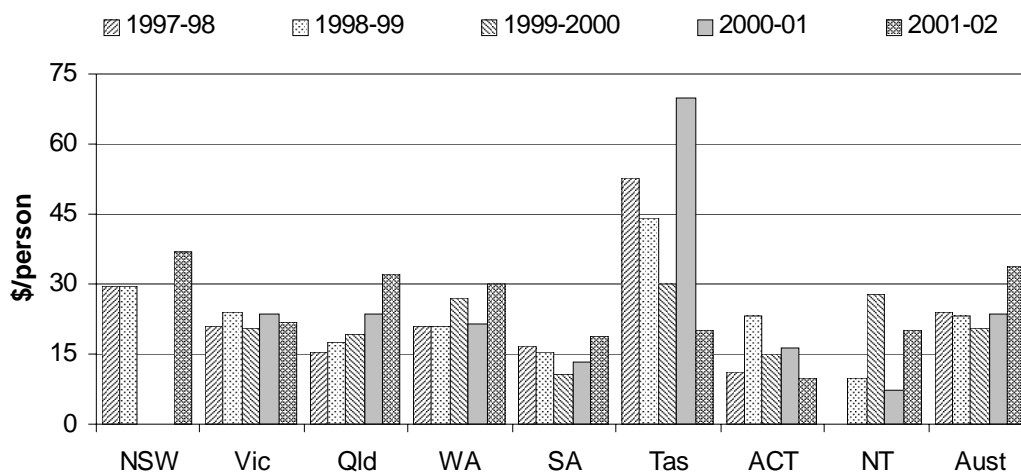
^a Real expenditure is based on the ABS GDP price deflator 2001-02 = 100 (table A.26). Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences. ^b NSW data for 1997-98, 1998-99, 1999-2000, 2000-01 and 2001-02 are for NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire districts. Due to industrial bans, 1999-2000 data are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of the incidents, and 2000-01 data are from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. Data for 2001-02 are complete and include an outlier, which resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million. ^c Queensland data exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Service. ^d WA data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 exclude Bush Fire Brigades. ^e SA 1997-98 and 1999-2000 data exclude the Country Fire Service. The Metropolitan Fire Service and the Country Fire Service supplied unit record data for the median value to be correctly calculated for the first time in 2001-02. ^f There is an inconsistency in the ACT data reported for 1997-98. Due to industrial bans, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 data are based on extrapolated results. Data for 2001-02 exclude the ACT Bushfire Service.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.7 and 8A.30.

Total property losses from structure fire

Nationally, the total property loss from structure fires in 2001-02 was \$34 per person. Across jurisdictions, it was highest in NSW (\$37 per person) and lowest in the ACT (\$10 per person) (figure 8.8). The total property loss increased (in real terms) from 2000-01 to 2001-02 in Queensland, WA, SA and the NT, and decreased in Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT. Data for NSW were available in 2001-02 for the first time since 1998-99 (table 8A.8). Nationally, the three-year average total dollar loss from structure fires was \$27 per person. Across jurisdictions, the three-year average total dollar loss from structure fires was highest in Tasmania (\$40 per person) and lowest in SA and the ACT (both \$14 per person) (table 8A.8).

Figure 8.8 **Real total property loss per person in structure fires (2001-02 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}**



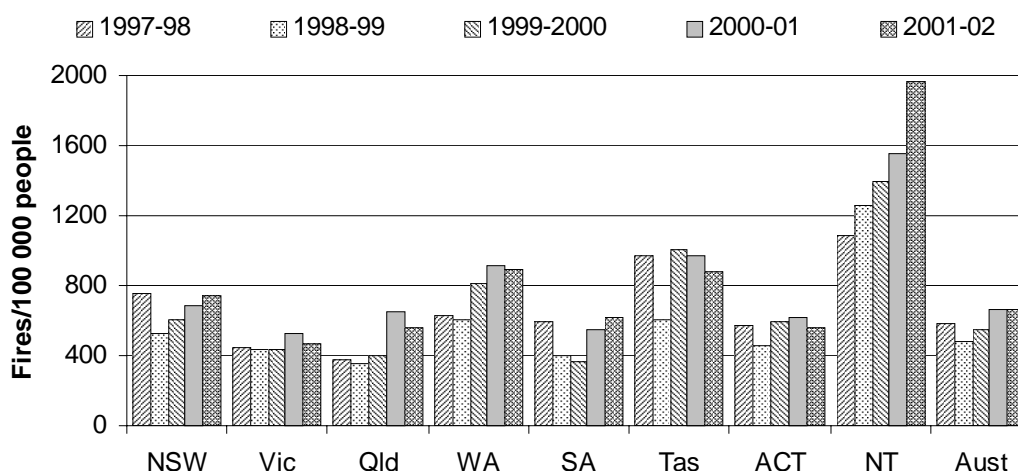
^a Real expenditure is based on the ABS GDP price deflator 2001-02 = 100 (table A.26). Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences. ^b NSW data for 1997-98, 1998-99 and 2001-02 are for NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire districts. Due to industrial bans, 1999-2000 and 2000-01 data are not available. Data for 2001-02 include an outlier, which resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million. ^c Queensland data exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Service. ^d WA data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 exclude Bush Fire Brigades. ^e SA data for 1997-98 and 1999-2000 exclude the Country Fire Service. ^f There is an inconsistency in the ACT data reported for 1997-98. Due to industrial bans, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 data are based on extrapolated results. Data for 2001-02 exclude the ACT Bushfire Service. ^g The NT data exclude incidents attended by the NT Bushfires Council and some NT Fire and Rescue Service volunteer units. ^h Average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.8 and 8A.30.

Fire incidents per 100 000 people

Nationally, the total number of fire incidents in 2001-02 was 658 per 100 000 people. Across jurisdictions, the total number of fire incidents was highest in the NT (1964 per 100 000 people) and lowest in Victoria (468 per 100 000 people). The total number of fire incidents per 100 000 people increased between 2000-01 and 2001-02 in NSW, SA, and the NT, and decreased in Victoria, Queensland, WA, Tasmania and the ACT (figure 8.9).

Figure 8.9 Total fire incidents per 100 000 people^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a Total fire incidents data include landscape fire incidents. ^b NSW data for 1997-98 include both the NSW Fire Brigades and the Rural Fire Service. NSW data for 1998-99 are for the NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside the NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire districts. Due to industrial bans, 1999-2000 data for the NSW Fire Brigades are derived from a sample representing 80 per cent of the incidents, and 2000-01 data for the NSW Fire Brigades are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. The increase in incident levels for 2001-02 is due to the expansion of the incident reporting system to include data from the Rural Fire Service. ^c Queensland data exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Service. ^d WA data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 exclude Bush Fire Brigades. ^e Industrial bans in the ACT mean 1998-99 and 1999-2000 data are based on extrapolated results. ^f In the NT data for 2001-02, 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 the improved monitoring of previously faulty fire alarms. ^g The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

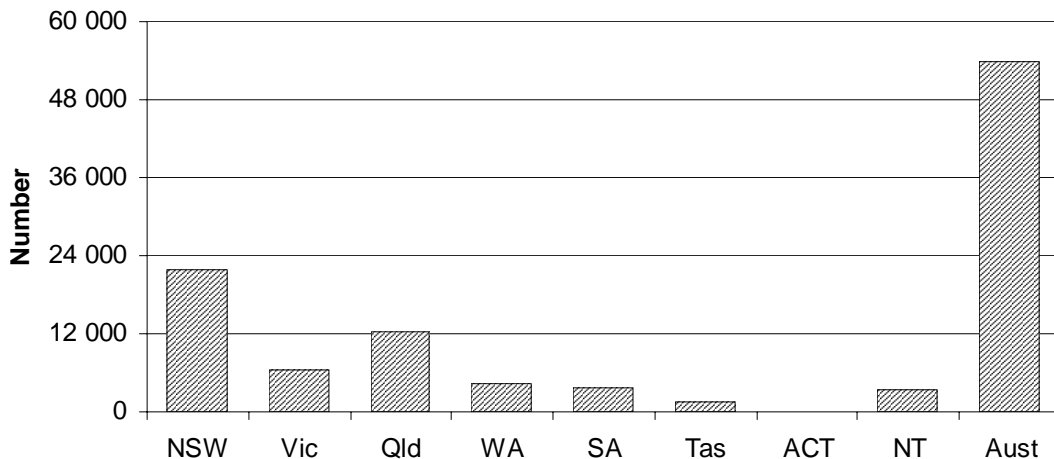
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.9 and 8A.30.

Nationally, the total number of landscape fire incidents in 2001-02 was 53 903. Across jurisdictions, the total number of landscape fire incidents was highest in NSW (21 739 incidents) and lowest in the NT (120 incidents) (figure 8.10). This is the first year of reporting landscape fire incidents, and data provided by fire agencies need to be interpreted with caution because they are subject to a number of methodological and definitional issues.

Reporting of the number of landscape fires across jurisdictions is problematic, because it is not sensitive to seasonal or regional differences and it does not indicate the relative damage or other consequences of landscape fires, or the action taken and resources deployed in extinguishment. Geographic differences in jurisdictions result in different approaches to counting, because some fires in very remote locations go undetected. In most cases, grass fires of under one hectare on unoccupied lots in urban localities are not reported as landscape fires by fire agencies. Use of fire by land management agencies for purposes of fuel reduction, regeneration of native vegetation, land clearing or in agriculture give rise to further

definitional and counting problems. Further, although land management agencies engage in emergency fire-fighting activities, they are not part of the State and Territory emergency services, so these fire-fighting costs are not included in the financial data included in the Report.

Figure 8.10 **Landscape fire incidents, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e, f}**



^a Financial data in the 2003 Report do not include funding for land management agencies. ^b NSW data include fires from land management agencies and the Rural Fire Service for all bush and grass fires regardless of size of area burnt. ^c Queensland data exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Service. ^d WA data include fires for area burnt greater than one hectare. The total number of landscape fires is comprised of 3680 (Fire and Emergency Services Authority) and 493 (Department of Conservation and Land Management) fires. ^e Tasmanian data include vegetation fires over one hectare. ^f 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.

Outputs

Indicators of fire prevention focus on the level of fire safety practices in the community. Selected fire risk management/mitigation strategies across jurisdictions are identified in table 8A.27. The ABS Population Survey Monitor (PSM) supplied national level data on household fire safety measures installed or prevention procedures followed. These data were collected for nine quarters from November 1998 to November 2000 (providing data for 1998-99 and 1999-2000) and were reported in previous reports. The PSM has been discontinued.

Data for 2001-02 have been collected by jurisdictions and collated by the Australasian Fire Authorities Council (AFAC). Data for 2001-02 are not strictly comparable with the PSM data, because the new survey instruments used to collect the data differ from that of the PSM. Further, the precision of survey estimates depends on the survey sample size and the sample estimate. Larger sample sizes

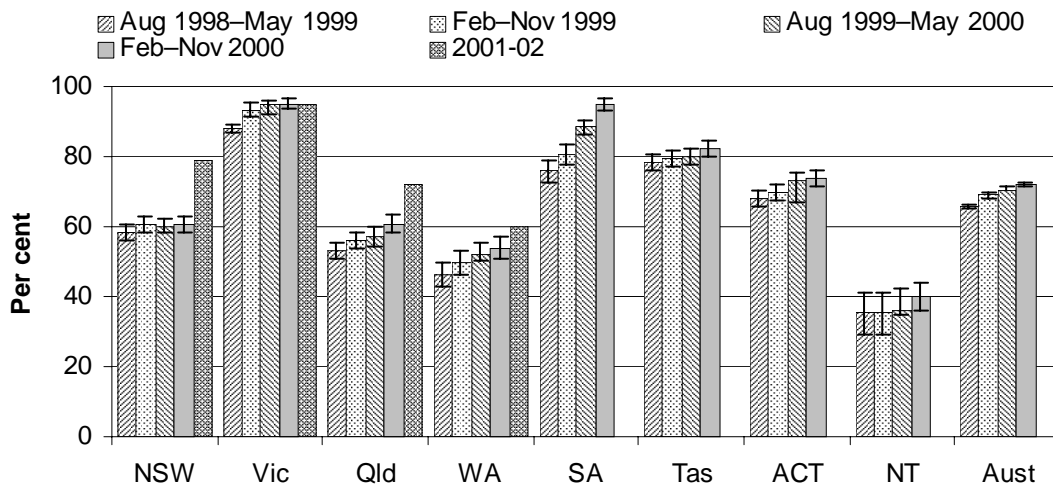
result in higher precision, while smaller sample sizes result in lower precision. Consequently, caution needs to be used when interpreting small differences in results of the survey data because these may be due to sample size rather than an actual difference in the population.

Preparedness — proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms

Household fire safety measures include operational smoke alarms or detectors, sprinkler systems, safety switches, fire extinguishers, fire blankets, fire evacuation plans, external water supplies, the removal of external fuel sources, and external sprinklers. Data for 2001-02 relate to operational smoke alarms installed, fire extinguishers, fire blankets and home escape plans.

Four jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland and WA) conducted surveys in 2001-02, collecting data on total households that had an operational smoke alarm or smoke detector installed. Some jurisdictions did not survey in 2001-02 because the proportion of total households with a fire safety measure is close to 100 per cent (as in SA) and in any case, this is a slow moving indicator. Across those jurisdictions that undertook a survey, the proportion of total households which had an operational smoke alarm or smoke detector installed was highest in Victoria (95.1 per cent) and lowest in WA (60.0 per cent). The proportions in 2001-02 represent an increase from the February–November 2000 figures for NSW, Queensland and WA, and no change for Victoria (figure 8.11).

Figure 8.11 Households with an operational smoke alarm installed^{a, b, c, d, e, f}

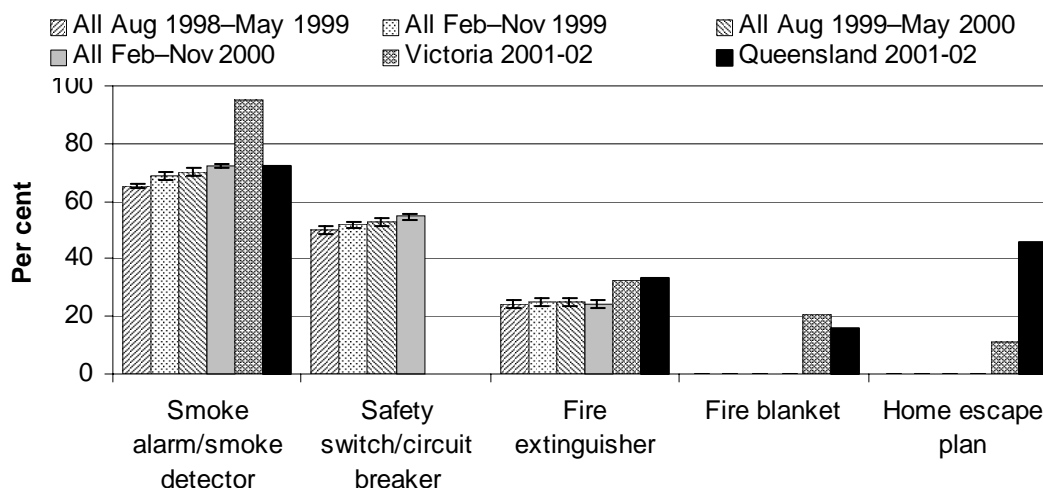


^a Caution needs to be used where there are small differences in the PSM results, which are affected by sample and estimate size (see section 11.8 of the 2002 Report). Standard errors relating to the PSM data are indicated by lines that appear at the top of each graph bar. ^b Only the final quarter for 2000 had new data because the PSM ceased. The 2001-02 data are from jurisdictional collections for the first time. Data for 2001-02 are not strictly comparable with the PSM data, because the new survey instruments used to collect the data differ from that of the PSM. ^c NSW 2001-02 data are sourced from the 2002 NSW Department of Health's Continuous Health Survey Program. ^d 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. ^e Queensland 2001-02 data are sourced from the Queensland Household Survey (November 2001) conducted by Queensland's Office of the Government Statistician. Values are based on 3000 completed telephone interviews conducted across all 10 statistical regions of the State. Around three quarters (75.5 per cent) of Queensland homes have smoke alarms installed. In 95.3 per cent of these homes, the smoke alarm was operational. ^f WA 2001-02 data are sourced from a survey by a market research organisation (a random telephone survey with residents of Perth households). Other measures were not surveyed.

Source: ABS (2001b); table 8A.10.

Two jurisdictions (Victoria and Queensland) collected data on other fire safety measures in 2001-02. In addition to smoke alarms installed, 32.8 per cent and 33.4 per cent of households in 2001-02, had a fire extinguisher in Victoria and Queensland, respectively. Also in those states in 2001-02, 20.6 per cent and 15.8 per cent had a fire blanket, and 11.0 per cent and 45.8 per cent had a home escape plan (figure 8.12). Data for the remaining safety measures were not available for 2001-02 and data for preceding years relate to all jurisdictions in aggregate (table 8A.11).

Figure 8.12 Households with a fire safety measure, by fire safety measure installed or followed^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Caution needs to be used where there are small differences in the PSM results, which are affected by sample and estimate size (see section 11.8 of the 2002 Report). Standard errors relating to the PSM data are indicated by lines that appear at the top of each graph bar. ^b The total number of households with at least one fire safety measure is smaller than the sum of the individual components because a number of households have more than one fire safety measure installed or followed. ^c Only the final quarter for 2000 had new data because the PSM ceased. The 2001-02 data are from jurisdictional collections for the first time. Data for 2001-02 are not strictly comparable with the PSM data, because the new survey instruments used to collect the data differ from that of the PSM. ^d 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. ^e Queensland 2001-02 data are sourced from the Queensland Household Survey (November 2001) conducted by Queensland's Office of the Government Statistician. Values are based on 3000 completed telephone interviews conducted across all 10 statistical regions of the State. Other measures were not surveyed.

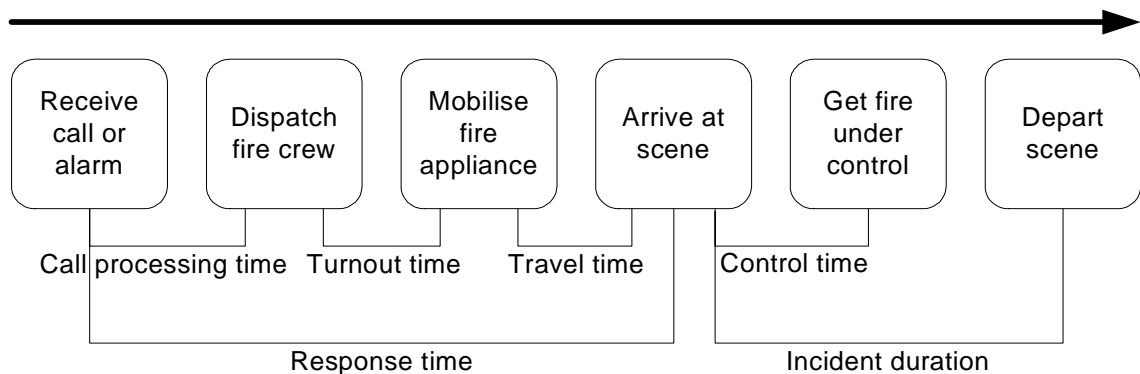
Source: ABS (2001b); table 8A.11.

Response

Response times and containment of structure fires (to the object or room of origin) are indicators of the effectiveness of fire services in terms of their ability to respond to and suppress fires. Response times to structure fires are reported first, followed by containment of structure fires to the object/room of origin.

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 8.13. Response times are provided on a jurisdictional basis, so they are not agency specific (which is consistent with information provided for other indicators in this chapter).

Figure 8.13 Response time points and indicators



The information was provided for response times to structure fires. The data relate to the performance of the reporting agency (or agencies) only, not necessarily to the performance of all fire services within each jurisdiction. Response time data need to be viewed with care because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions, given that:

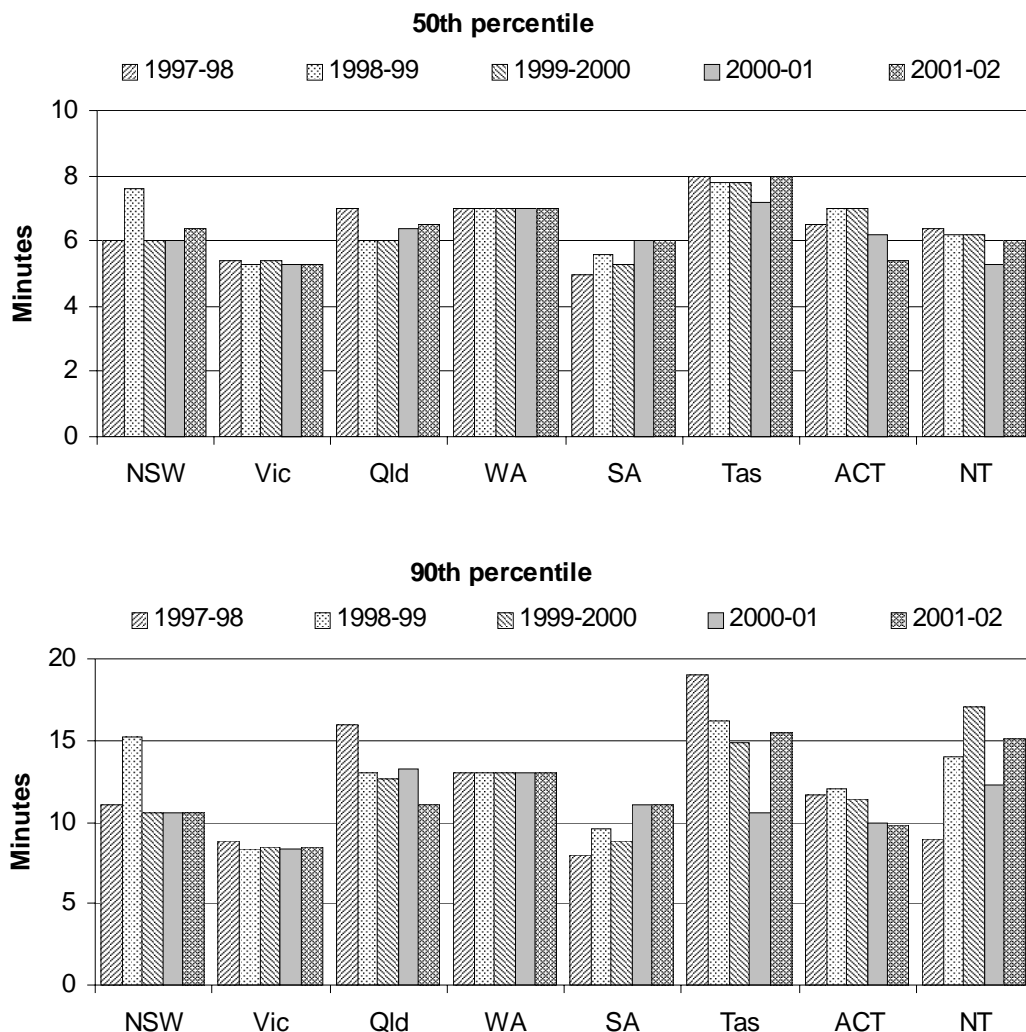
- response time data for some jurisdictions represent responses to urban, rural and remote areas;
- responses may include career firefighters, auxiliary/part time firefighters and volunteers;
- response times can be affected by the dispersion of the population; and
- definitions on response times vary across jurisdictions (that is, the data provided by jurisdictions may diverge from the definitions agreed for the Report).

Response — 50th and 90th percentile response times

The 50th percentile response time refers to the time within which 50 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrived at the scenes. The 50th percentile response time in 2001-02 was highest in Tasmania (8.0 minutes) and lowest in Victoria (5.3 minutes) (figure 8.14).

The 90th percentile response time refers to the time within which 90 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrived at the scenes. The 90th percentile response time in 2001-02 was highest in Tasmania (15.5 minutes) and lowest in Victoria (8.5 minutes). Response time data for Victoria, however, are not yet fully comparable because Victorian data are not uniformly consistent with the definition in the data dictionary (figure 8.14).

Figure 8.14 Response times to structure fires^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i}



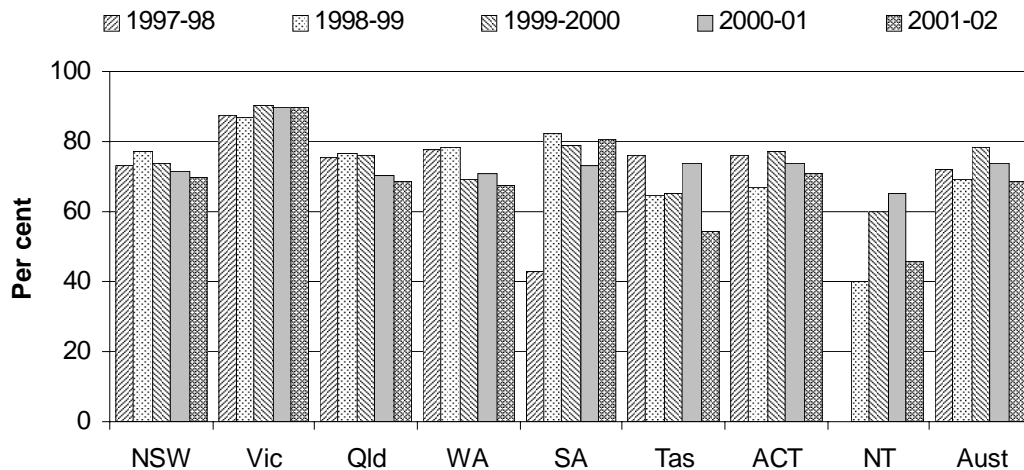
^a Definitions of response times may vary across jurisdictions. Also, some agencies use a manual system to calculate response time figures, while other services retrieve the data from computer aided dispatch systems. ^b NSW data are for NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire districts. Due to industrial bans, data for 1999-2000 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. ^c Victorian data are not uniformly consistent with the definition in the data dictionary. Specifically, some inner metropolitan calls do not include all of the call processing time (approximately 36 to 40 seconds per response time) due to the time stamp generated by the computer aided dispatch system. ^d Queensland data for 1997-98, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 exclude the Queensland Rural Fire Service. Data for 2001-02 include incidents within the Urban Fire Levy Boundary only and exclude incidents where the first attending appliance was from the Rural Fire Service. ^e WA data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 exclude Bush Fire Brigades. ^f SA data for 1997-98, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 exclude the Country Fire Service. Country Fire Service data for 2001-02 are for all structure fires, not the subset specified in the data dictionary for response time reporting. ^g Tasmanian data for 2000-01 exclude the Rural Fire Brigades. Data for 2001-02 include responses from unmanned stations. ^h Industrial bans in the ACT mean data for 1998-99 and 1999-2000 are based on extrapolated results. Data for 2001-02 are adjusted to combine manual and automatic timing data. ⁱ The NT data include auxiliary stations where generally speaking response is done 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); tables 8A.12 and 8A.30.

Response — containment to room of origin

Another indicator of response effectiveness is the proportion of structure fires contained to the object or room of origin. Nationally, the proportion of fires contained to the object or room of origin in 2001-02 was 68.4 per cent. Across jurisdictions, the proportion of fires contained to the object or room of origin was highest in Victoria (90.0 per cent) and lowest in the NT (46.0 per cent) in 2001-02 (figure 8.15).

Figure 8.15 **Structure fires contained to the object/room of origin**^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a NSW data exclude the Rural Fire Service, but include responses to calls outside the NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire districts. Due to industrial bans, 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. ^b Victorian data exclude the Country Fire Authority. ^c Queensland 2001-02 data exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Service. ^d WA 1997-98 and 1998-99 data exclude Bush Fire Brigades. ^e SA data exclude the Country Fire Service. ^f Industrial bans in the ACT mean data for 1998-99 and 1999-2000 are based on extrapolated results. Data exclude the ACT Bushfire Service. ^g The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.13 and 8A.30.

Efficiency

Efficiency indicators report on the unit cost of service delivery. Calculation of unit costs requires the specification of outputs. For fire services, this is a difficult task, given the diversity of activities undertaken. The fire sector has considered a range of options for specified outputs.

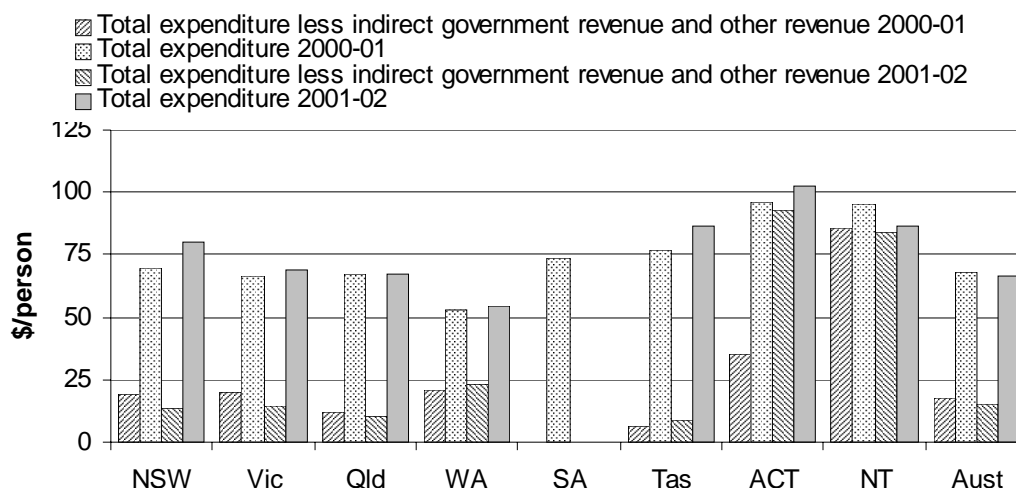
Input to outputs — expenditure per person

Expenditure per person is employed as a proxy for efficiency. Expenditure per fire is not used as a proxy for fire services efficiency because a fire service that devotes more resources to the prevention and preparedness components to reduce the number of fire incidents could erroneously appear to be less efficient.

The indicator of efficiency for fire services is the level of inputs per person in the population. The quality of efficiency data has improved for the 2003 Report with the adoption of a consistent basis for reporting payroll tax. The data are not fully comparable, however, because there are differences in the reporting of asset related costs.

Expenditure is reported as both the total cost (total expenditure) and net cost (expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue) to government of fire services. Total expenditure is a measure of efficiency for fire services, and net cost is a measure of the cost to government. Both are reported, because non-government revenue is significant for a number of jurisdictions. Nationally, the total cost to government per person in 2001-02 was \$66.90, ranging across jurisdictions from \$102.70 per person in the ACT to \$54.30 per person in WA. Nationally, the net cost to government per person in 2001-02 was \$15.10, ranging across jurisdictions from \$92.70 per person in the ACT to \$8.80 per person in Tasmania (figure 8.16).

Figure 8.16 Fire expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue, and total expenditure, 2001-02^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Revenue from indirect government and other sources includes levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges, fundraising and donations and indirect revenue. ^b Funding for a special resources initiative was first included in Victorian data for 2000-01. Fire appliances revaluation on June 2001 and land and buildings upwards revaluation in June 2002 for Victoria's Metropolitan Fire Brigade have resulted in an ongoing effect increasing the user cost of capital and depreciation amounts for the 2001-02 and future years. Training costs as part of other operating costs do not represent total training costs for the Country Fire Authority. Personnel and other costs associated with this item will be included under other expense headings. Communications expenditure for the Metropolitan Fire Brigade increased due to Intergraph costs. Provisions for losses expenditure for the Metropolitan Fire Brigade increased due to disposals of revalued fire appliances. ^c SA data are not available. ^d The high contribution by the ACT Government reflects the cessation of the Emergency Services Levy and that the ACT Government has had to fund a revenue shortfall because of the Commonwealth's non-payment for fire services. The ACT Government and the Commonwealth are currently negotiating a new agreement covering fire services for Commonwealth property in the ACT that will determine the Commonwealth funding contribution for 2001-02. ^e 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 Bush Fire Council only. Indirect government and non-government revenue data for the NT for 2000-01 include charges to landholders for aerial control burning and firebreaks, and the sale of assets.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.14 and 8A.15.

8.5 Key performance indicator results — ambulance services (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services)

An indicator framework for ambulance services (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services) (figure 8.17) has also been developed from the generic framework for all emergency services (figure 8.3). Definitions of all indicators are provided in table 8.6. 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 data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

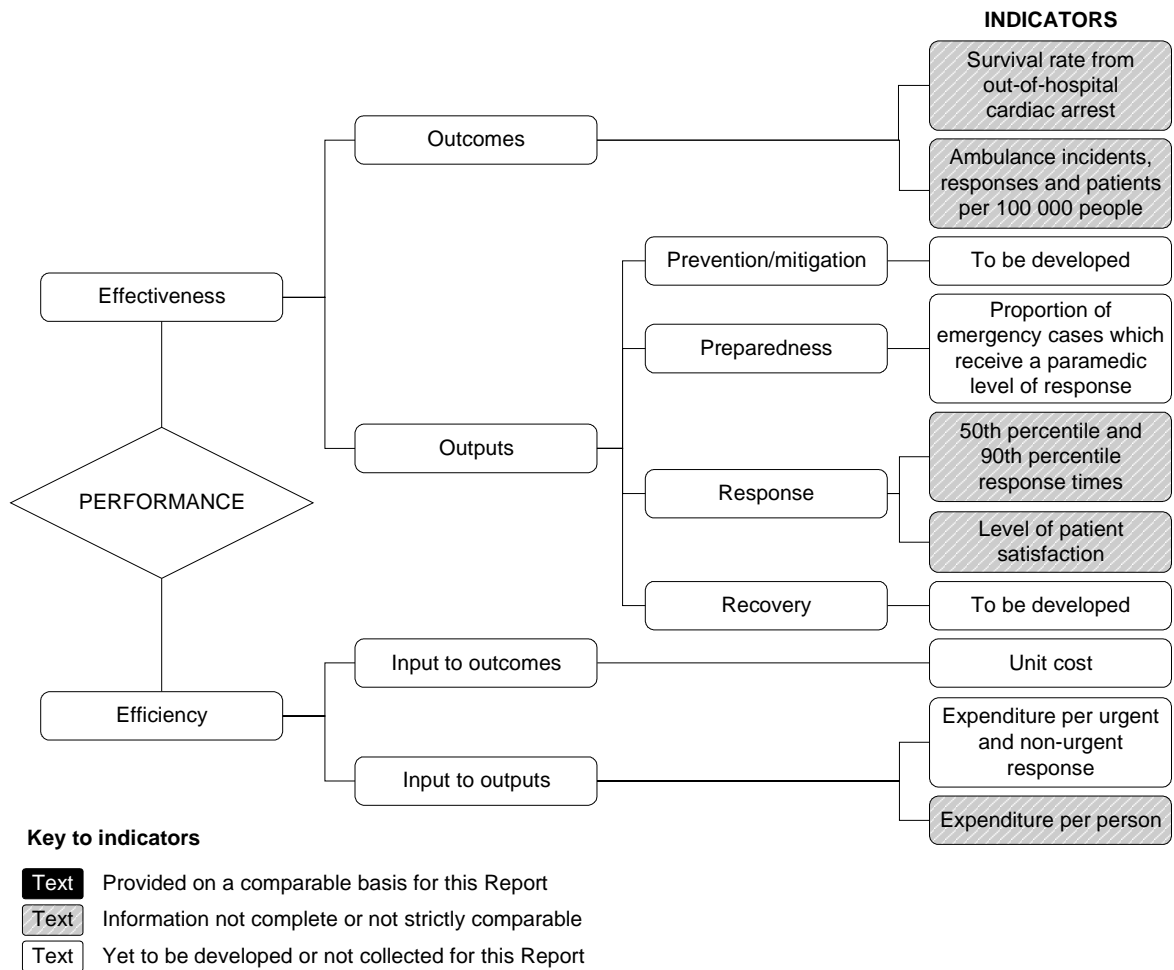
The performance indicator framework for ambulance services shows which data are comparable in the 2003 Report (figure 8.17). For data that are not considered strictly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

The performance of ambulance services has been compared at a 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 nonfinancial performance indicators in this chapter. The activities of volunteers are not reflected in monetary estimates of inputs or outputs. This 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 examines data on rural and remote service provision in the emergency services field.

Further, the ambulance data definitions were improved this year in consultation with the CAA. The specific implications of these refinements for the data are noted in the relevant tables and charts throughout the 2003 Report.

Figure 8.17 Performance indicators for ambulance services (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services)



There are difficulties in identifying useful and reliable indicators for the prevention/preparedness and recovery indicators, given that other elements of both the health and justice systems are involved in these areas.

Effectiveness

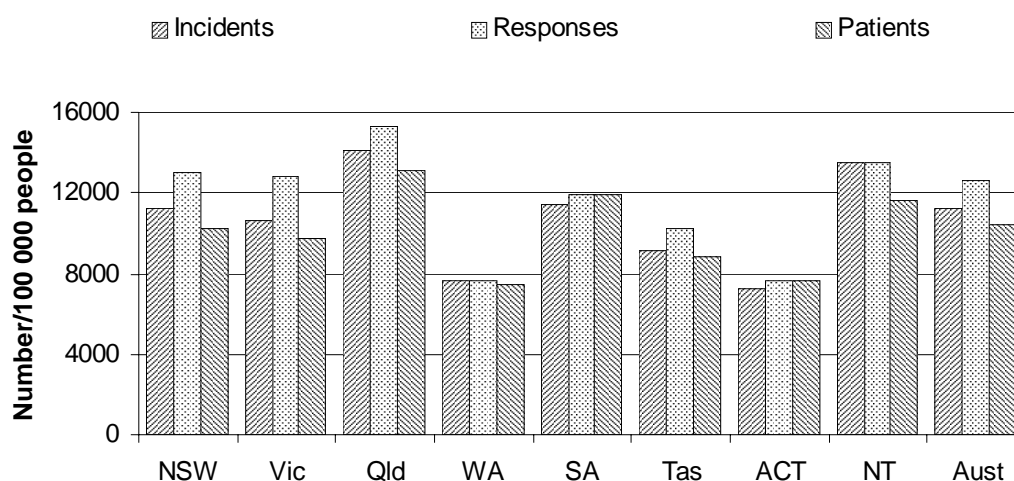
Outcomes

The measures of outcomes for ambulance services are: the numbers of ambulance incidents, responses and patients per 100 000 people and the survival rate from witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest.

Number of incidents, responses and patients per 100 000 people

The numbers of incidents, responses and patients are interrelated. Nationally in 2001-02, the number of incidents per 100 000 people was 11 182, the number of responses per 100 000 people was 12 620 and the number of patients per 100 000 people was 10 455. Across jurisdictions in 2001-02, the number of incidents per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (14 157) and lowest in the ACT (7220). The number of responses per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (15 352) and lowest in WA (7623), and the number of patients per 100 000 people was highest in Queensland (13 147) and lowest in WA (7474) (figure 8.18).

Figure 8.18 **Reported ambulance incidents, responses and patients, 2001-02**^{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. There may be multiple responses/vehicles sent to a single incident. A patient is someone assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service. ^b NSW currently does not triage emergency calls. Urgent incident and response caseload are included in emergency caseload figures. ^c In Victoria, incidents, responses and patients data include road incidents only. In 2001-02, there were 6774 air ambulance (fixed and rotary wing) incidents involving 6030 ambulance patients. Data exclude public duties. ^d Incidents, responses and patients data for Queensland are from the Ambulance Integrated Management System. Casualty room attendances for Queensland are not included in the response count. ^e WA does not have a policy of automatically dispatching more than one unit to an incident unless advised of more than one patient. Separate statistics are not kept for incidents and responses. Numbers shown under incidents are cases. ^f For the NT, a response is counted as an incident.

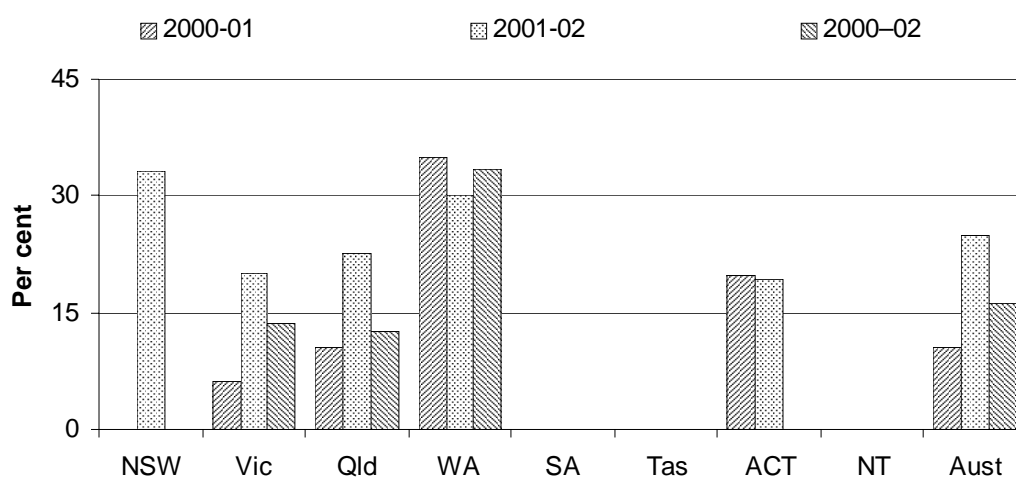
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.17.

Survival rate for out-of-hospital cardiac arrest

The survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest is a measure of the outcomes achieved by ambulance services. Reporting against this indicator is improved this year, with five jurisdictions (compared with four in the 2002 Report)

able to provide these data (table 8A.20). Nationally in 2001-02, the survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest was 24.8 per cent. Across jurisdictions, the highest survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest was in NSW (33.2 per cent) and the lowest was in the ACT (19.4 per cent) in 2001-02 (figure 8.19). The ACT data for 2001-02 are not strictly comparable with 1999-2000 and 2000-01 data, because the ACT provided a six-year moving average to December 2000 for the earlier years to overcome the potential error from the small population in the ACT.

Figure 8.19 Cardiac arrest survival rate^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a The definition of witnessed cardiac arrest survival rate relates to percentage of patients in witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac origin on whom resuscitation was attempted and who had vital signs on arrival at hospital. National data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 are inconsistent both within and across jurisdictions, resulting in substantial variation in cardiac arrest survival numbers and rates. The CAA is currently considering the definition of cardiac arrest survival and expects to provide advice to the Review in time to collect more comparable data for 2002-03. Data, therefore, need to be interpreted with caution. ^b Results need to be used with additional caution because 2001-02 is the first year that NSW has reported cardiac arrest survival data. ^c Victorian data for 2000-01 are for the Metropolitan Ambulance Service only, and are from a two-month sample (August and September 2000). Victorian data for 2001-02 are from an eight-month sample (July 2001 to March 2002). Data are subject to an ongoing quality review. ^d The WA data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 are paramedic or ambulance officer witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrests of presumed cardiac origin, where resuscitation was attempted and patient was in shockable rhythm. Data exclude all paramedic witnessed arrests and arrests where the patient was not in a shockable rhythm. Data for 2000-01 were revised from the 2002 Report. ^e The ACT survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrests for 2000-01 is calculated over six-year period to December 2000. The percentage rate for the ACT is a six-year rolling average.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.20.

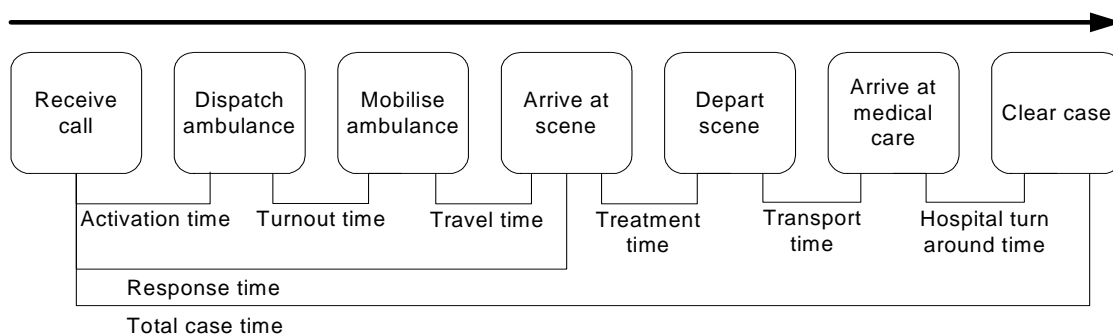
Outputs

Outputs are measured by response indicators: response times and level of patient satisfaction.

Response — 50th percentile and 90th percentile response times

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 8.20).

Figure 8.20 Response time points and indicators



Emergency responses are categorised by an assessment of the severity of the medical problem. These categories are:

- code 1 — responses to potentially life threatening situations using warning devices; and
- code 2 — responses to acutely ill patients (not in life threatening situations) where attendance is necessary but no warning devices are used.

Response time data need to be viewed with care because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions, given that:

- 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; and
- while definitions on response times are common, 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 level of responsiveness is reported as the times during which 50 per cent and 90 per cent of first responding ambulance resources actually respond in code I

situations (figure 8.20). Information is also reported on the national level of patient satisfaction.

In 2001-02, the 50th percentile response time — the time within which 50 per cent of first ambulance resources actually responded — was highest in Tasmania (10.0 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (7.3 minutes). The 90th percentile response time was highest in Tasmania (21.0 minutes) and lowest in the ACT (12.2 minutes) in 2001-02 (figure 8.21).

Response — geographic response times

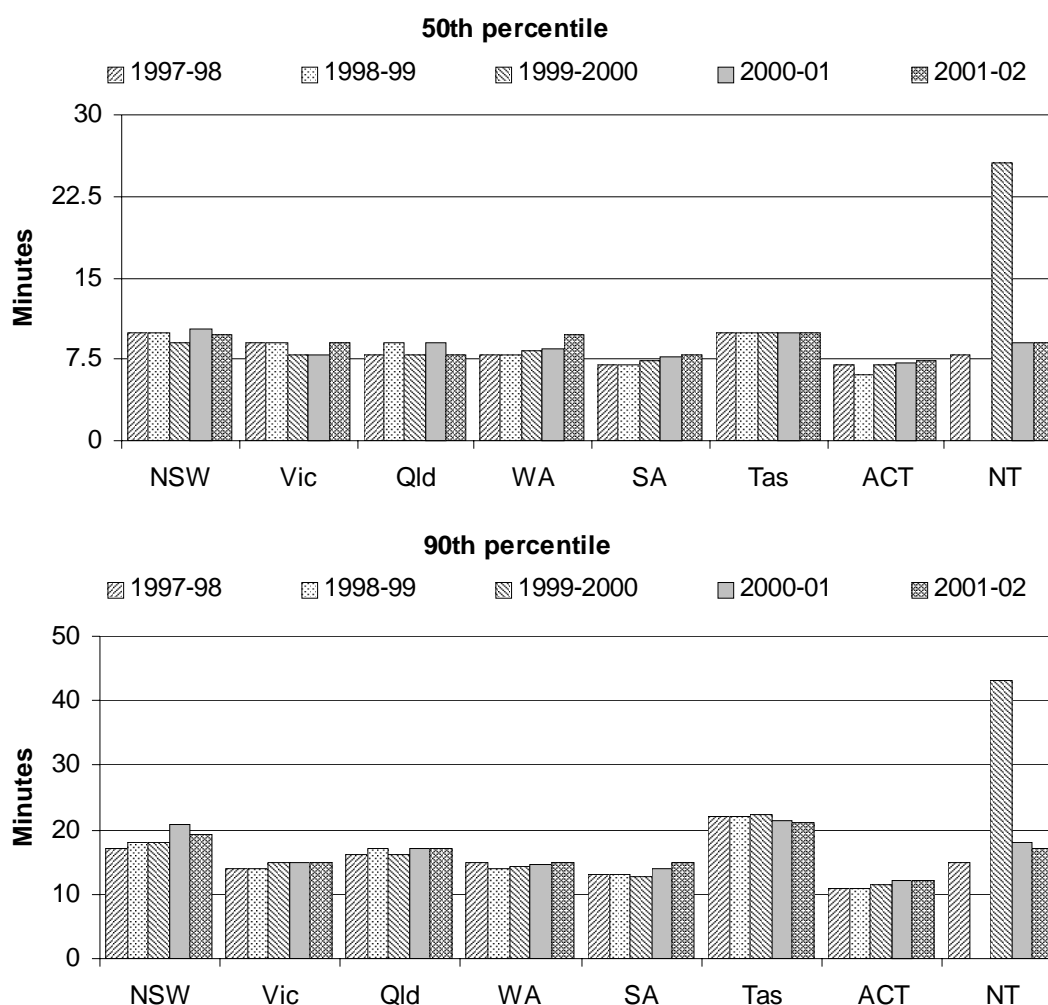
Comparisons of response times are limited by the geographic distribution of the service delivery requirements and the different types of service delivery model, particularly in rural areas. In Queensland, for example, there is a heavy dependence on paid personnel in rural and remote services compared with other States, which have a larger volunteer base in rural and remote areas.

Providing more detailed analysis at a local level (by segmenting the data according to the nature of the locality) can improve comparisons across regions. The CAA has previously collected some segmented data, but the effectiveness of that segmentation has been limited by the definition of communities in a consistent manner. By using segmented data, it may be possible to better compare the performance of ambulance services in Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide — three cities of roughly equivalent size — or to contrast service delivery performance and costs between cities and rural areas.

The ABS has included a remoteness index — based on the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA) classification — in the description of communities. This index could form the basis for reasonably high level segmentation of service delivery parameters, including costs for more relevant comparisons. The classification segments the community into six categories (major cities, inner regional, outer regional, remote, very remote and migratory). Ambulance response times can be compared on the basis of this classification.

Ambulance response times describe the time delay between a call for assistance being received by a service and the arrival of the ambulance crew at the location of the patient. This has traditionally been described as the percentage of cases in which a response is provided within a given time standard. The response, however, is best described by a response time curve, which illustrates the cumulative percentage of responses. This curve describes the pattern of responses and enables more detailed comparison between communities and across jurisdictions.

Figure 8.21 **Ambulance response times^{a, b, c, d, e}**

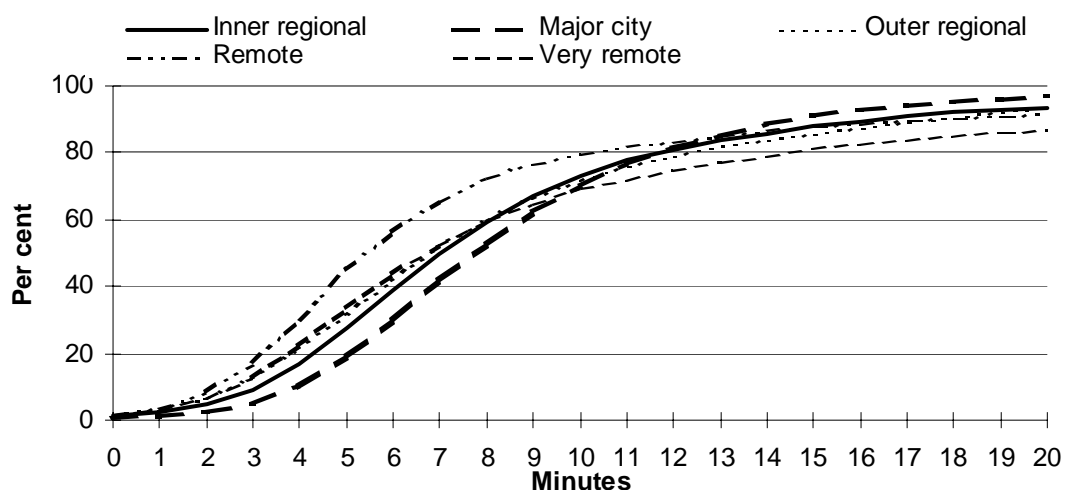


^a NSW does not triage emergency calls. Results for code 1 cases represent '000' and urgent medical incidents. ^b Victorian data for 1997-98 and 1998-99 relate to Metropolitan Ambulance Service responses only. Response times are estimated. Data are incomplete due to industrial action. ^c The Queensland Ambulance Service responded to 91.4 per cent of all urgent cases in less than or equal to 16 minutes in 2000-01. Casualty room attendances are not included in response count and, therefore, are not reflected in response times data. Response times are reported from the computer aided dispatch data. ^d WA data relate to urban responses only. ^e Tasmania has the largest proportion of rural population (figure A.4). ^f The NT data were not available for 1998-99.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.21.

The response times for the Queensland Ambulance Service are segmented by community type (figure 8.22). The pattern of responses varies considerably across communities. It may be misleading to compare the overall effectiveness of the service by accessing the response time curve at a single point. At the five minute mark, 44.7 per cent of responses in remote areas had occurred, compared with 27.4 per cent in inner regional areas, and 18.9 per cent in major city areas. At the 15 minute mark, 90.8 per cent of responses in major city areas had occurred, compared with 87.9 per cent in both remote and inner regional areas (figure 8.22).

Figure 8.22 **Code 1 responses, first unit on scene by response interval, Queensland, 2001-02^a**



^a Data for Queensland are from the Ambulance Integrated Management System, not the computer aided dispatch system.

Source: Queensland Ambulance Service (unpublished); table 8A.22.

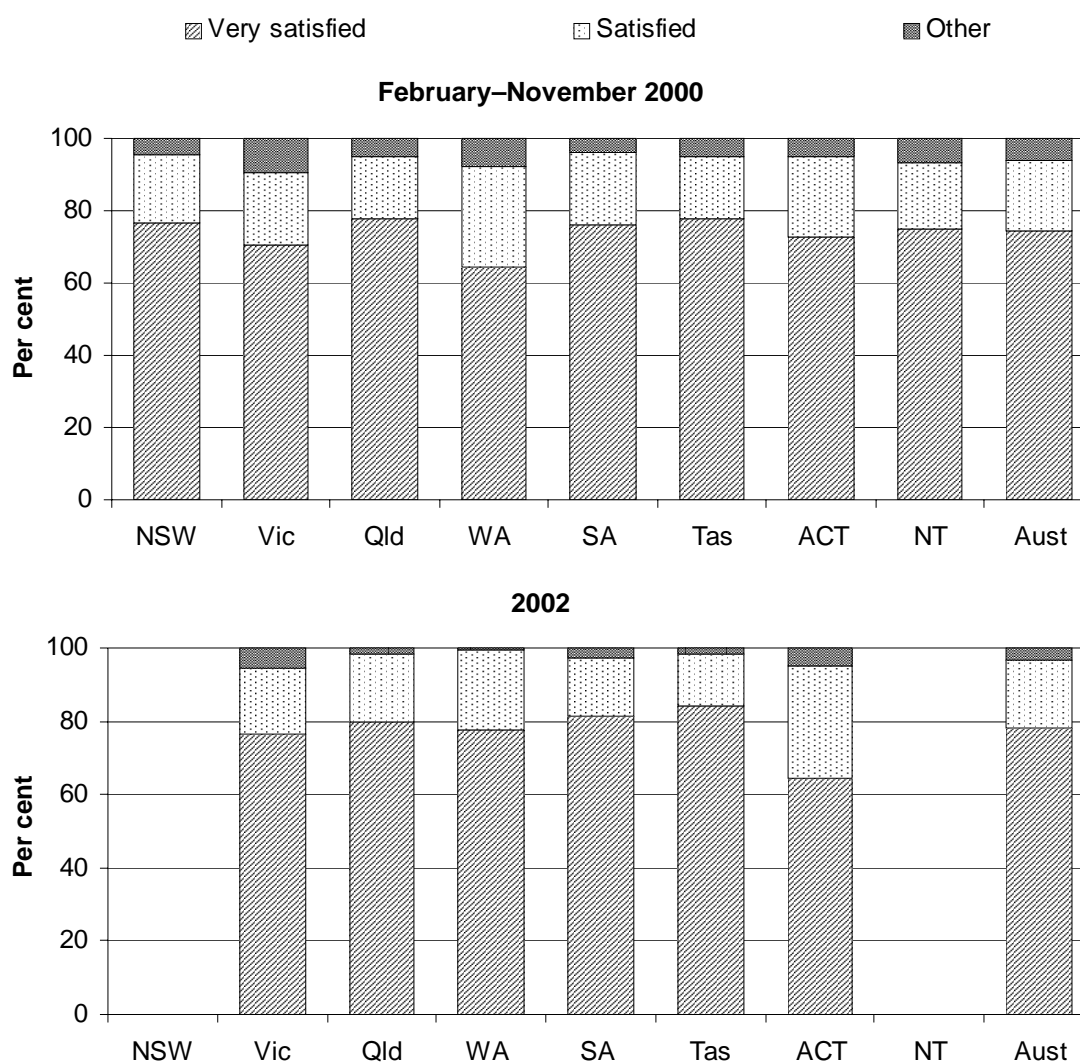
Response — levels of patient satisfaction

The performance of ambulance services in providing response services can be measured in terms of the satisfaction of those people who directly used the service (table 8A.23). Data for 2001-02 were collected by jurisdictions and collated by the CAA. These data are not strictly comparable with data for earlier years (which were collected using the PSM), because the survey instrument is different. Data for people who did not use the service were not collected for 2001-02.

The CAA surveyed approximately 2800 of the two million ambulance patients nationally who used an ambulance service in 2001-02 (table 8A.23). The satisfaction level for ambulance patients, nationally, increased to 96.6 per cent in 2001-02 from 94.0 per cent in 2000 (February to November) (figure 8.23).

Across jurisdictions, the proportion of ambulance users who were either very satisfied or satisfied increased in Victoria, Queensland, WA, SA and Tasmania, and remained constant in the ACT (95.2 per cent to 95.1 per cent) between 2000 and 2001-02. In 2001-02, the proportion of ambulance users who were either very satisfied or satisfied was highest in WA (99.2 per cent) and lowest in Victoria (94.3 per cent) (table 8A.23). No data are available for NSW and the NT for 2001-02.

Figure 8.23 **Satisfaction with ambulance services, people who had used an ambulance service in the last 12 months^{a, b, c, d, e}**



^a Caution needs to be used where there are small differences in the PSM results because they are affected by sample and estimate size (SCRCSSP 2002, p. 618). ^b Jurisdictions conducted surveys at various times during 2002. ^c Unusable survey responses are included under patients not surveyed. Includes missing responses to this question from usable patient surveys. ^d Only the final quarter for 2000 represents new data, due to the cessation of the PSM. Data relate to people aged 18 years and over who had used an ambulance service in the previous 12 months. ^e Data for NSW and the NT are not available.

Source: ABS (2001b); CAA (2002); table 8A.23.

Efficiency

The main efficiency indicator is ambulance expenditure per person. As with fire services, the quality of efficiency data has improved for the 2003 Report, with the adoption of a consistent basis for reporting payroll tax.

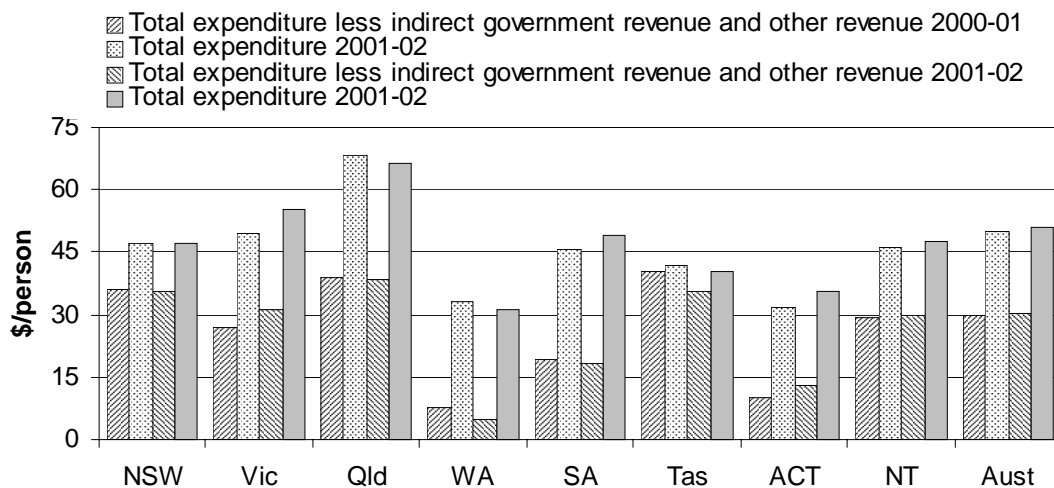
The data are still not fully comparable, however, because there are differences in geography and the reporting of asset related costs. Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response will be presented in future reports.

Input to outputs — expenditure per person

Expenditure is reported as both the total cost (total expenditure) and net cost (expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue) to government of ambulance services. Total expenditure is a more appropriate measure of efficiency for ambulance services, given that non-government revenue is significant for a number of jurisdictions.

Nationally, total ambulance expenditure per person was \$51.01 in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, Queensland had the highest (\$66.46 per person) and WA had the lowest (\$31.24 per person). Nationally, ambulance expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue per person was \$30.28 in 2001-02. Across jurisdictions, Queensland had the highest (\$38.43 per person) and WA had the lowest (\$4.60 per person) (figure 8.24).

Figure 8.24 Ambulance expenditure less indirect government and non-government revenue, and total expenditure, 2001-02^{a, b}



^a Indirect government and non-government revenue includes subscription fees, transport fees, donations and indirect revenue. ^b Tasmanian expenditure data for 2000-01 are provided on a full accrual basis and exclude expenditure on administration of the ambulance subscription scheme, hospital based transport services, independent ambulance services, first aid training and clinic transport services.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.24 and 8A.25.

Care needs to be taken when comparing data across jurisdictions, 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 funds than that of other jurisdictions. Differences in the reporting of payroll tax, however, have been eliminated for the first time in this Report.

8.6 Future directions in performance reporting

A number of developments are underway to improve data quality and comparability.

Expanding the scope of reporting

The Survey of Emergency Management Activities undertaken in 2000 (table 8A.29) identified the agencies involved in various event-type services. Road accident rescue was selected as the next event-type service to report, and a draft performance indicator framework, indicators and accompanying definitions were developed in 2002. The new road accident rescues framework, initial performance indicators and associated data are expected to be presented in the 2004 Report. The development of detailed indicators and data collection will be an iterative process extending over several years.

The survey also identified that land management agencies should be included in the Report to improve the coverage of data for fires. Data for landscape fire incidents are included this year, and expenditure data for landscape fires may be available for future reports. Other types of event-type service for which performance reporting has yet to be developed include: rescues (other than those relating to road accidents); natural events; technological and hazardous material incidents; emergency relief and recovery; and quarantine and disease control.

Improving data comparability

Work to improve the comparability and accuracy of data is underway. Performance indicators for fire and ambulance services are being improved with the assistance of the AFAC and the CAA. Under the auspices of the Review, these two organisations are investigating methods for disaggregating response times data to account for geographic and other factors that may differ across jurisdictions. Preliminary work has resulted in the reporting of case study data (based on Queensland) for ambulance response times this year and is expected to develop into geographic reporting across jurisdictions. During 2002-03, ambulance services will collect and collate data at industry level (according to the segmentation of communities) with a

view to evaluating how the segmented data may be used to provide more relevant comparisons across jurisdictions.

Performance indicator framework developments

More generally, the CAA is considering gaps in the performance indicator framework and identifying potential improvements as part of its ongoing work plan, which is likely to result in changes to the 2004 Report performance indicator framework for ambulance services.

Survey data

As outlined in the key performance indicator sections, the PSM is no longer part of the ABS collection. Data from the PSM were reported for the last time in the 2002 Report. New instruments and arrangements to collect these data were applied this year. In the future, it is envisaged that jurisdictions will be responsible for collecting similar data on fire safety measures (where appropriate) and ambulance services patient satisfaction.

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

“ NSW continues to strongly support comparisons of performance between jurisdictions. While some of the indicators in the chapter need further development, they do provide emergency management stakeholders with a transparent assessment of recent performance in meeting community needs and expectations.

In response to the increased risks of terrorism, emergency services increased training, awareness and response capabilities for potential terrorist attacks. The NSW Government announced an increase in funding for police and the emergency services to develop and establish: public order management, tactical response, counter terrorist intelligence response, critical infrastructure protection, consequence management and training.

The Christmas 2001 bushfires demonstrated the capacity of the emergency services to deal with a State-wide disaster. Emergency services were committed to these bushfires for 23 days, during which no lives were lost and far less property damage occurred than in previous bushfires. This was due to superior planning and coordination among the services, higher standards of fire-fighting equipment and personal protective equipment, the use of aircraft and the coordination of interstate resources. All these factors resulted in more effective fire-fighting operations. Bushfires continue to be a major focus in 2002 because of the unfavourable weather conditions and the State's severe drought.

In the wake of the Christmas bushfires, the Government has shown a continuing commitment to upgrading resources for bushfire protection. The powers of the Commissioner of the NSW Rural Fire Service have been enhanced to ensure bushfire hazard reduction is undertaken on any land where the owner has failed to do so. In addition, the approval process for hazard reduction has been streamlined. The Commissioner has also been included in the approval process for development applications relating to bushfire prone land.

The NSW Fire Brigades' Community Fire Unit (CFU) program, which enables residents to assist firefighters in defending their homes against the bushfires, has been supported by the allocation of additional funding to establish more units. At the end of the financial year there were 160 CFUs with more than 2000 community members of the urban/bushland interface, supported by local fire stations. Seven CFUs have been established in Aboriginal communities.

The Ambulance Service of NSW undertook an Operational Review to deliver improved emergency response times within current resources. Substantial improvement in response times have already been realised despite a significant increase in demand. The procurement and phased implementation of Ambulance 000 medical prioritisation dispatch procedures will ensure that the most urgent cases receive the quickest response.

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Victorian Government comments

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The Victorian Government continues its commitment to ensure consistent service to the community and maximum resource sharing across agencies. The Office of the Emergency Services Commissioner is developing a Model of Fire Cover as part of a fire safety strategy for Victoria, to provide a consistent, Statewide fire risk profiling methodology, contributing to the achievement of equitable fire safety outcomes for like-risk environments.

During 2001-02 the Metropolitan Fire Brigade's Emergency Medical Response pilot program improved response times to cases of suspected cardiac arrest and the program gained permanent status. The urgent need for assistance with the Christmas wildfires in NSW and the ACT resulted in a total deployment of 2794 Country Fire Authority (CFA) and 750 Department of Natural Resources and Environment (DNRE) firefighters. During the summer fire season a CFA and DNRE Joint State Aircraft Unit became operational. The Victorian Government approved the State-wide Integrated Public Safety Communications Strategy to coordinate the communications of all Emergency Services Organisations. The CFA received additional funding of \$35.15 million under the Strategic Resource Initiative for priority projects in areas such as recruitment, training, infrastructure, equipment and volunteer support. The completion of a 26 per cent expansion of metropolitan emergency ambulance services has also improved response time performance, particularly in outer metropolitan areas. In addition, 31 000 people were trained to administer CPR through the free 'Learn CPR — the Key to Survival' initiative. All ambulance paramedics commenced training in advanced life support skills.

In a continuing Government initiative with benefits of particular importance to Victorians living in rural and regional areas, Air Ambulance has significantly enhanced its transport capability. A new state-of-the-art ambulance helicopter service began operating in Bendigo, with the two existing air ambulance helicopter services scheduled to be upgraded to "Category A" by December 2001 and arrangements were made with private helicopter operators to provide back-up craft when necessary. In addition, four old Cessna Titan aircraft were replaced with new pressurised King Air planes. Other initiatives to improve ambulance services in Regional and Rural Victoria included the establishment of new professional branches, the extension of two-officer crewing and the provision of 24 hour intensive care paramedics in provincial cities.

Contract execution occurred for the implementation of electronic data capture in the field through the Victorian Ambulance Clinical Information System. The system will offer unprecedented opportunities for pre-hospital research and will provide a comprehensive picture of the profile of ambulance patients and the level of paramedic intervention.

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Queensland Government comments

“ The past year has been one of continuing developments in the Department of Emergency Services (DES) in seeking to contribute to the Government’s policy priorities and create safer communities in Queensland.

Queensland has, in a single department, skills in areas of ambulance, fire, search, rescue, disaster management and mitigation, and hazardous materials. Changes to governing legislation were introduced during the year to facilitate more cost effective, coordinated, and integrated service delivery outcomes for the community and improved governance and public administration.

Growth in demand for ambulance services continued to have an impact on service provision with Queensland Ambulance Service providing 558 078 responses — an increase of approximately 10 per cent over last year. The number of emergency and urgent responses totalled 335 629. Emergency responses increased by 7.5 per cent to 162 393, while urgent responses increased by 26.6 per cent to 173 236.

Findings by the Building Fire Safety Taskforce of inadequate fire safety provisions to protect the lives of occupants in many budget accommodation buildings (backpacker hostels, boarding houses, hotels and other similar shared accommodation style buildings) resulted in legislation being amended to ensure that occupiers of budget accommodation are afforded enhanced safety and a reasonable measure of protection in the event of fire.

The *Dangerous Goods Safety Management Act 2001* commenced on 7 May 2002. It provides strict guidelines for major hazard facilities designed to prevent potentially catastrophic incidents arising from the storage and handling of hazardous materials. Implementation of its provisions will greatly improve the protection of Queensland communities, workers and the environment from the potential dangers of hazardous chemicals.

The DES and the Department of Local Government and Planning are jointly developing the State Planning Policy and Guideline for Natural Disaster Mitigation to provide a more consistent approach in Queensland to land use planning in areas subject to flood, bushfire and landslide.

A review of the *State Counter-Disaster Organisation Act 1975* commenced to ensure it is modernised to provide comprehensive guidance for many modern disaster management issues.

Support for emergency service volunteers was enhanced, with emphasis given to ensuring the ongoing safety and wellbeing of all our volunteers through the provision of structured training and increased standards of operational and personal protective equipment and support.

Support to Indigenous communities was enhanced through initiatives that seek to achieve greater participation by Indigenous communities in the establishment of flexible models of service delivery in rural and remote Indigenous Australian communities.

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Western Australian Government comments

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Challenges influencing the provision of emergency services throughout the State continue to be addressed. Many relate to the State's size and sparse, widely dispersed regional population. Associated issues include the reliance on volunteers, and providing adequate levels of service according to different demand profiles and (often low) economies of scale.

In relation to ambulance, the model of service provision is via St John Ambulance as a non-government provider. Government contributes to the operation of the service that is funded through a combination of user-pays and community fund raising. Metropolitan ambulance services are provided almost entirely using paid ambulance officers and paramedics. Services are also provided by more than 3500 volunteers who contribute over 3 000 000 hours of service annually. St John Ambulance provides services with a total cost per capita significantly less than that of any other State.

In working towards community centred emergency management, three Fire and Emergency Services Authority (FESA) Units have been established. A FESA Unit is a multi-skilled emergency services body, formed to make more effective use of volunteers and resources in regional communities where these assets are limited. The establishment of more FESA Units is anticipated.

Legislation has been passed, formally establishing, empowering and providing liability protection for volunteers in the State Emergency Service, Volunteer Marine Rescue Services and FESA Units. Provision has also been made to increase penalties under the *Bush Fires Act 1954* to encourage compliance with fire prevention and safety measures.

A replacement funding system for the State's emergency services, the Emergency Services Levy (ESL), will come into effect in July 2003. A levy on all properties, the ESL will replace a complex mix of insurance levies, local government rates, State contributions and volunteer fundraising. It will remove the inequity of uninsured property owners escaping contributions to fire services in major centres and, equally important, will improve support to volunteers.

In August 2001, the State Mitigation Committee was established. Comprised of chief executive officers from relevant Government agencies and the WA Local Government Association, it coordinates a whole-of-Government approach to natural hazard mitigation. The State Mitigation Framework will include strategies relating to emergency mitigation in remote Indigenous communities, land use planning guidelines, and the marketing of, and investment in, mitigation.

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South Australian Government comments

“ The South Australian Government has been committed to the following strategic priorities for emergency services to better achieve outcomes in public safety:

- revising structural and governance arrangements to deliver services more effectively and efficiently;
- increasing support for voluntarism and regional communities;
- collocating emergency services for integrated service delivery;
- introducing a strategic framework for resource management;
- adopting a strategic approach to providing emergency services;
- achieving more cost effective delivery of emergency services; and
- improving telecommunications for emergency services and police.

The strategic reform agenda has delivered:

- a Strategic Directions Framework for all emergency services to provide a context for agency planning and performance measurement; and
- enhanced processes for emergency risk management.

SA Ambulance Service (SAAS) is a stand-alone agency that is not funded by the CESH, except for its rescue activity. SAAS continues to work closely with the other emergency agencies to ensure effective management of incidents. SAAS pursues co-location with these services wherever feasible, 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 2002-03 include:

- a review to examine and identify improvements to the management, administration and governance arrangements of emergency services;
 - a review of the *State Disaster Act 1980* and all other associated disaster prevention and management arrangements;
 - a review of workload and workforce planning to ensure that SAAS can continue to deliver world class ambulance services;
 - developing systems to ensure SAAS volunteers have access to training, communication, support and recognition. This will enable SAAS to retain and recruit volunteers in the long term. SAAS also aims to respond to the recommendations of the Stand Up and Be Counted survey via a newly developed Volunteer Support Team;
 - consolidating the SAAS communication centres to facilitate the effective and efficient dispatch of ambulances Statewide; and
 - implementing the SAAS Targeted Ambulance Response (STAR) dispatch system to enable a more detailed and accurate analysis of a patient's condition, ensuring the appropriate priority is given to an incident response.
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Tasmanian Government Comments

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Tasmania has a number of key issues which have an impact on the provision of both fire and ambulance 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 has an impact 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.

The Tasmania Fire Service (TFS) is comprised of four career brigades and 235 volunteer brigades that respond to fires in all metropolitan and rural areas. All incidents attended by the TFS brigades are reported on, and the TFS bears the full cost of funding both the operating and capital costs of these brigades.

Due to weather conditions, the number of bushfires and the area burnt by them was significantly less than usual this year. Only three bushfires managed by TFS grew larger than 100 ha and fewer than 30 per cent of fires were greater than one hectare. No deaths or serious injuries occurred as a result of these fires.

The TFS continued its commitment to the other key responsibility of fire prevention and the fostering of greater fire safety in the community. TFS has identified those in the community who are most at risk from fire and has established a broad range of programs to assist these people to prevent fires and minimise the impact of fires when they occur. Figures suggest that fire prevention programs targeting at-risk sectors of the community are particularly effective, with significant reductions in residential fire losses in low-income communities.

Tasmania is the only State which provides free ambulance services to the general public, and as a consequence there is a far greater reliance on government funding 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 and it does include operating an aeromedical service.

Tasmania continues to train a far greater proportion of its salaried ambulance personnel to paramedic level than do most jurisdictions, with up to 70 per cent of all emergencies in Tasmania responded to at paramedic level.

During the 2001-02 financial year the ambulance service completed major upgrade programs for its fleet and radio communications systems, the latter in conjunction with the TFS.

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Australian Capital Territory Government Comments

“ 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.

Due to the significant Commonwealth presence and national related functions in the Territory the Commonwealth contributed one third share of fire services funding until recently. The increased funding proportion by ACT Government for fire services partly reflects this shortfall in revenue due to the non-payment by the Commonwealth, pending renegotiated arrangements desired by the Commonwealth.

As a result of heightened terrorism threats the ACT formed a Critical Infrastructure Review Working Group to identify risk and examine the security of critical infrastructure and protection of people at major public venues and entertainment areas. Emergency response plans have also been reviewed in the light of this heightened awareness.

Although, tragically, fire deaths did occur in this reporting year, the ACT maintains the lowest fire death rate and continues to have the lowest fire injury rate of all jurisdictions across the three-year moving averages.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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In 1993 the Government of the day amalgamated emergency management and law enforcement agencies in the NT and formed Police, Fire and Emergency Services as a single government department. The Commissioner of Police also has the dual role of Chief Executive Officer of Fire and Emergency Services.

The primary focus of the NT Fire and Rescue Service (NTFRS) during the reporting period remains prevention, preparedness, response and recovery. The past 12 months have seen a continuation of those programs developed to help reduce the impact of fires on the community and the environment.

Government continues to provide brigades in rural and country locations with better resources to help them carry out the important task of emergency response in those areas. A new fully equipped rescue vehicle has been purchased for Yulara and another fully equipped rescue vehicle has been relocated to Nhulunbuy. These vehicles and the equipment they carry enable the NTFRS to provide a comprehensive road accident rescue service in those areas.

The NT has been fortunate to experience no fire deaths during the year. Even though the number of incidents attended by the NTFRS has increased, the number of structure fires within the NT continues to remain at a low level, as does the dollar loss from structure fires however because of the small population in the NT these figures can fluctuate markedly from year to year.

Government has increased the number of full time firefighter positions by five during the reporting period as part of its commitment to increase the overall number of full time firefighters by 16 over a three-year period.

The Ambulance Service in the NT is run by St John Ambulance Australia (NT) Inc. under a purchaser–provider model contract with the NT Government. The Ambulance Service has centres located in Darwin (two), Palmerston, Katherine, Tennant Creek, Alice Springs and Gove with a volunteer centre located in Batchelor.

The NT jurisdiction is the third largest in Australia but covers only 1 per cent of Australia’s population. This creates some diverse working environments and cultural differences regarding workloads and health issues. With such a small population, the statistical category for metropolitan is not met but is defined as the Darwin and Palmerston regions.

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8.8 Definitions

Table 8.6 Terms and indicators

<i>Term or indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
50 th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first ambulance resources actually respond.
50 th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first fire resources actually respond.
90 th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first ambulance resources actually respond.
90 th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first fire resources actually 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 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 incident is an event that results in a demand for ambulance resources to respond.
Ambulance patient	A patient is someone assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service.
Ambulance response	An ambulance response is 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.
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. This includes salaried ambulance personnel, remunerated volunteer and nonremunerated volunteer ambulance personnel.
Ambulance non-government revenue	Includes revenue from subscription fees, transport fees, donations and other non-government revenue. Excludes funding revenue from Commonwealth, State and local governments.
Emergency ambulance response	An emergency ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident which necessitates the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
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 sale of plant and equipment, donations and industry contributions). Excludes funding revenue from Commonwealth, State and local governments.

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Table 8.6 (Continued)

<i>Term or indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Fire death	A fatality that the reporting officer deems as directly attributable to the incident or the action of handling the fire incident. Excludes fatalities where a fire conceals a death that occurred before the fire incident. This information may be 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 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 that is reported to a fire service and 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 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.
Fire personnel	Any person employed by the fire service provider who delivers a firefighting or firefighting related service, or manages the delivery of this service. This includes paid and volunteer firefighters and support personnel.
Indirect revenue	All revenue or funding received indirectly by the agency (for example directly to treasury or other entity such) 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) of the structure loss in \$'000 per structure fire incident.
Non-emergency ambulance response	A non-emergency ambulance response which does not necessitate the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
Non-structure fire	A fire outside a building or structure — including a fire involving mobile properties (such as vehicles), a rubbish fire, a bush or grass fire, and an explosion.
Other incident	<p>An incident other than fire that is reported to a fire service and requires a response. This may include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an overpressure rupture (for example, steam or gas), explosion or excess heat (no combustion); • a rescue (for example, industrial accidents or vehicle accidents); • a hazardous condition (for example, escape of hazardous materials); • salvage; and • a storm or extreme weather.

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Table 8.6 (Continued)

<i>Term or indicator</i>	<i>Definition</i>
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).
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 fires in unconfined spaces). A room is an enclosed space, regardless of its dimensions or configuration. This category includes fires in residential and nonresidential structures.
Urgent ambulance response	An urgent ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident which 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 non-current physical assets (including land, plant and equipment).

8.9 References

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