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ISSN 1328 181X

ISBN 1 74037 191 7

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An appropriate citation for this Report is:

SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2006, *Report on Government Services 2006*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

Foreword

This is the eleventh edition of the Report on Government Services. The first Report was published in 1995, following an historic agreement by Heads of Government in July 1993. The Review has made great progress in the intervening years. The breadth and depth of reporting (and the size of the report!) have developed considerably. Services covered in this Report now represent around 90 billion dollars, or 61 per cent of government recurrent expenditure — equivalent to nearly 11 per cent of gross domestic product.

The Report is primarily a tool for government. It has been used for strategic budget planning, and for policy development and evaluation. Information in the Report has been used to assess the resource needs and service performance of departments. It has encouraged governments to work towards national approaches in data collection and has assisted agencies to benchmark their services against best practice. I believe that the Report will be of even greater value in this respect as we strengthen its focus on outcomes.

The Review's Steering Committee and working groups have again worked hard to improve the accuracy, consistency and comparability of data in the Report. The ultimate goal is to present comparable data for all jurisdictions. However, where this remains to be achieved, data are generally presented for those jurisdictions that can currently report (rather than waiting until data are available for all jurisdictions).

The 2006 Report contains a number of improvements. There is expanded reporting on school learning outcomes, including in science and mathematics and problem solving. In the health area, information on 'patient satisfaction' and 'sentinel events' are reported as outcome indicators for public hospitals, and data on the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme is reported in the primary and community health chapter.

Over recent years, the Review has progressively expanded its reporting on services to Indigenous Australians. This Report includes for the first time information on customer satisfaction with State-owned and managed Indigenous housing. Since 2003, a separate Compendium of data on services to Indigenous people has been published based on data in the Report (the Compendium for the 2006 Report is to be released in mid-year).

In 2002, COAG asked the Review to produce a regular report on indicators of Indigenous disadvantage ‘that are of relevance to all governments and Indigenous stakeholders, and that can demonstrate the impact of programme and policy interventions’. The Steering Committee has published two editions of the report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators*, in 2003 and 2005. The report complements the data in this report related to service delivery, by focussing on outcomes within a strategic framework. The next edition is planned for 2007.

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

Gary Banks
Chairman

January 2006

Contents

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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Ms Joanna Davidson	Aust. Govt.	Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet
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Ms Pam Williams	Vic	Department of the Premier and Cabinet
Ms Susan Killion	ACT	Chief Minister's Department

Acronyms and abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACAP	Aged Care Assessment Program
ACAT	Aged Care Assessment Team
ACCHS	Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Service
ACCMIS	Aged and Community Care Management Information System
ACHS	Australian Council on Health Care Standards
ACIR	Australian Childhood Immunisation Register
ACPR	Australian Centre for Policing Research
ACSAA	Aged Care Standards and Accreditation Agency
ACSQHC	Australian Council for Safety and Quality in Health Care
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
AFAC	Australasian Fire Authorities Council
AFP	Australian Federal Police
AGCCCS	Australian Government Census of Child Care Services
AGPAL	Australian General Practice Accreditation Limited
AGR	annual growth rate
AHCA	Australian Health Care Agreements
AHMAC	Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council
AIC	Australian Institute of Criminology
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
AJJA	Australasian Juvenile Justice Administrators
ANTA	Australian National Training Authority
AQF	Australian Qualifications Framework

AR-DRG	Australian refined diagnosis related group
ARHP	Aboriginal Rental Housing Program
ARIA	Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia
ASGC	Australian Standard Geographical Classification
ASO	Ambulance Service Organisation
ATSIC	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission
Aust	Australia
AVETMISS	Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard
BEACH	Bettering the Evaluation and Care of Health
CAA	Council of Ambulance Authorities
CACP	Community Aged Care Package (program)
CAD	computer aided dispatch
CAP	Crisis Accommodation Program
CAWG	Court Administration Working Group
CD ARIA	Census District Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia
CD-ROM	Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CFA	Country Fire Authority
CHINS	Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey
CI	confidence interval
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CRA	Commonwealth Rent Assistance
CRS	Commonwealth Rehabilitation Services
CSDA / CSTDA	Commonwealth State Disability Agreement / Commonwealth State/Territory Disability Agreement
CSDMAC	Community Services and Disabilities Ministers' Advisory Council
CSHA	Commonwealth State Housing Agreement
CSWG	Corrective Services Working Group
Cwlth	Commonwealth

DAC	delivery following primary caesarean
DCIS	ductal carcinoma in situ
DEA	data envelopment analysis
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Training
DEWR	Department of Employment and Workplace Relations
DoHA	Department of Health and Ageing
DOTARS	Department of Transport and Regional Services
DSE	Department of Sustainability and Environment
DVA	Department of Veterans' Affairs
EACH	Extended Aged Care at Home (program)
EBA	Enterprise Bargaining Agreement
EMA	Emergency Management Australia
ERP	estimated resident populations
ESL	Emergency Services Levy
ESO	emergency service organisation
FaCS	Department of Family and Community Services
FBT	Fringe Benefits Tax
FDCQA	Family Day Care Quality Assurance
FESA	Fire and Emergency Services Authority of WA
FMC	Federal Magistrates Court
FRS	Fire and Rescue Service
FSO	Fire Service Organisation
FTE	full time equivalent
FWE	full time workload equivalent
GDP	gross domestic product
GP	general practitioner
GST	goods and services tax
HACC	Home and Community Care (program)
HbA1c	glycated haemoglobin
HILDA	Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia

HMAC	Housing Ministers' Advisory Committee
HRSCEET	House of Representatives Standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training
ICD-10-AM	Australian modification of the International Standard Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, version 10
IPD	Implicit Price Deflator
ITAB	Industry Training Advisory Bodies
JJNMDS	Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set
K10	Kessler – 10 scale
LBOTE	Language background other than English
LCL	lower confidence level
LMO	local medical officer
LSI	Likert Summation Index
MBS	Medicare Benefits Schedule
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MDS	minimum data set
MFB	Metropolitan Fire Brigade
NCAC	National Childcare Accreditation Council
NCAG	National Corrections Advisory Group
NCPASS	National Child Protection and Support Services
NCSIMG	National Community Services Information Management Group
NCVER	National Centre for Vocational Education Research
NDA	National Disability Administrators
NDCA	National Data Collection Agency
NESB	non-English speaking background
NFD	not further defined
NHCDC	National Hospital Cost Data Collection
NIDP	National Information Development Plan

NMDS	national minimum data set
NMHS	National Mental Health Strategy
no.	number
np	not published
NRCP	National Respite for Carers Program
NRF	National Reporting Framework
NSCSP	National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing
NSMHS	National Survey of Mental Health Services
NSW	New South Wales
NT	Northern Territory
OATSIH	Office of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OMP	other medical practitioner
OSHCQA	Outside School Hours Care Quality Assurance
PBS	Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme
PDF	Portable Document Format
PHARIA	Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia modified for Pharmacies
PIP	Practice Incentives Program
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
PSM	Population Survey Monitor
QFRS	Queensland Fire and Rescue Service
QIAS	Quality Improvement and Accreditation System
Qld	Queensland
QPA	Quality Practice Accreditation
RACGP	Royal Australian College of General Practitioners
RCS	Resident Classification Scale
RFDS	Royal Flying Doctor Service
RPBS	Repatriation Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme
RRMA	Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Areas

RSE	relative standard error
RTO	Registered Training Organisation
SA	South Australia
SAAP	Supported Accommodation Assistance Program
SAAS	SA Ambulance Service
SAR	service activity reporting
SCRCSSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision
SCRGSP	Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision
SDA	service delivery area
SDAC	Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers
SE	standard error
SES/TES	State Emergency Service/Territory Emergency Service
SEWB Framework	National Strategic Framework for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Mental Health and Social and Emotional Wellbeing 2004–2009
SEWB	Social and Emotional Wellbeing
SLA	statistical local area
SMART	SAAP Management and Reporting Tool
SOMIH	state owned and managed Indigenous housing
TAFE	technical and further education
Tas	Tasmania
UCC	user cost of capital
UCL	upper confidence level
ULN	upper limit of normal
VBAC	vaginal birth following primary caesarean
VET	vocational education and training
VHC	Veterans' Home Care
Vic	Victoria
WA	Western Australia

Glossary

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

Access	Measures how easily the community can obtain a delivered service (output).
Appropriateness	Measures how well services meet client needs and also seeks to identify the extent of any underservicing or overservicing.
Constant prices	See ‘real dollars’.
Cost effectiveness	Measures how well inputs (such as employees, cars and computers) are converted into outcomes for individual clients or the community. Cost effectiveness is expressed as a ratio of inputs to outcomes. For example, cost per life year saved is a cost effectiveness indicator reflecting the ratio of expenditure on breast cancer detection and management services (including mammographic screening services, primary care, chemotherapy, surgery and other forms of care) to the number of women’s lives that are saved.
Current prices	See ‘nominal dollars’.
Descriptors	Descriptive statistics included in the Report that relate, for example, to the size of the service system, funding arrangements, client mix and the environment within which government services are delivered. These data are provided to highlight and make more transparent the differences among jurisdictions.
Effectiveness	Reflects how well the outputs of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service (also see program effectiveness).

Efficiency	Reflects how resources (inputs) are used to produce outputs and outcomes, expressed as a ratio of inputs to outputs (technical efficiency), or inputs to outcomes (cost effectiveness). (Also see ‘cost effectiveness’ and ‘technical efficiency’.)
Equity	Measures the gap between service delivery outputs or outcomes for special needs groups and the general population. Equity of access relates to all Australians having <i>adequate</i> access to services, where the term <i>adequate</i> may mean different rates of access for different groups in the community (see chapter 1 for more detail).
Inputs	The resources (including land, labour and capital) used by a service area in providing the service.
Nominal dollars	Refers to financial data expressed ‘in the price of the day’ and which are not adjusted to remove the effects of inflation. Nominal dollars do not allow for inter-year comparisons because reported changes may reflect changes to financial levels (prices and/or expenditure) and adjustments to maintain purchasing power due to inflation.
Output	The service delivered by a service area, for example, a completed episode of care is an output of a public hospital.
Outcome	The impact of the service on the status of individuals or a group, and the success of the service area in achieving its objectives. A service provider can influence an outcome but external factors can also apply. A desirable outcome for a school, for example, would be to add to the ability of the students to participate in, and interact with, society throughout their lives. Similarly, a desirable outcome for a hospital would be to improve the health status of an individual receiving a hospital service.
Process	Refers to the way in which a service is produced or delivered (that is, how inputs are transformed into outputs).
Program effectiveness	Reflects how well the outcomes of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service (also see effectiveness).

Quality	Reflects the extent to which a service is suited to its purpose and conforms to specifications.
Real dollars	Refers to financial data measured in prices from a constant base year to adjust for the effects of inflation. Real dollars allow the inter-year comparison of financial levels (prices and/or expenditure) by holding the purchasing power constant.
Technical efficiency	A measure of how well inputs (such as employees, cars and computers) are converted into service outputs (such as hospital separations, education classes or residential aged care places). Technical efficiency reflects the ratio of outputs to inputs. It is affected by the size of operations and by managerial practices. There is scope to improve technical efficiency if there is potential to increase the quantity of outputs produced from given quantities of inputs, or if there is potential to reduce the quantities of inputs used in producing a certain quantity of outputs.
Unit costs	Measures average cost, expressed as the level of inputs per unit of output. This is an indicator of efficiency.

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.

PART A

INTRODUCTION

1 The approach to performance measurement

1.1 Aims of the Review

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

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

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

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

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

In 2002, COAG asked the Steering Committee to prepare a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage, as part of the COAG reconciliation commitment. The first edition of this report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003* (the Indigenous Disadvantage Report) (SCRGSP 2003), was

released in November 2003. The second edition of this report was released in July 2005 (SCRGSP 2005).

The 2003 and 2005 Indigenous Disadvantage Reports are included on the CD-ROM that accompanies the Report on Government Services, and can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp).

In contrast to the Report on Government Services with its focus on efficiency and effectiveness, the Indigenous Disadvantage Report focuses on outcomes for Indigenous people. It does not report on individual government services. The reporting framework has two tiers: 'headline' indicators for the longer term outcomes sought; and a second tier of 'strategic areas for action' indicators that are potentially responsive to government policies and programs.

1.2 The role of government in delivering services

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

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

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

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

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
- imposing community service obligations on public and private providers
- reducing tax obligations in particular circumstances (known as ‘tax expenditures’).

1.3 Reasons for measuring comparative performance

Government services, including the services covered in this Report, are vital to the community’s wellbeing. Improving government service provision can result in major social and economic benefits. Governments are continually re-evaluating whether the community is receiving the appropriate mix of services and whether the services are reaching those most in need. Governments need to know whether their policies are effective, being implemented efficiently and reaching those people for whom they are intended.

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

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

Performance measurement provides one means of shifting the focus from the level of resources (or inputs) to the efficient use of those resources. Performance measurement can:

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

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

- to allow agencies to identify peer agencies that are delivering better or more cost effective services
- to generate additional incentives for agencies to address substandard performance
- to verify good performance and identify those agencies which are ‘getting it right’.

Comparative data are particularly important for government services, given that limited information is available to those deciding what services to supply and to whom. Each jurisdiction has, for example, only one police service and one protection and support service. As a result, 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. Choices are also constrained for consumers of these services.

Reporting measures of comparative performance facilitates interjurisdictional learning, particularly where governments have adopted different policy approaches. The information contained in the Report contributes to the ability of governments to assess the cost effectiveness of their service delivery.

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

- moving from historical or input based funding to output based funding (for example, casemix funding in public hospitals in Victoria)

-
- separating the purchaser and provider roles for government organisations (for example, the separation of functions and corporatisation)
 - outsourcing the provider roles (for example, competitive tendering for correctional services in Queensland)
 - devolving and decentralising decision making 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)
 - implementing user charging (for example, pricing court reporting services for Australian courts).³

Comparisons that draw on reliable performance information can help governments better understand the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, and the circumstances in which each may work best.

1.4 Scope

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

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

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

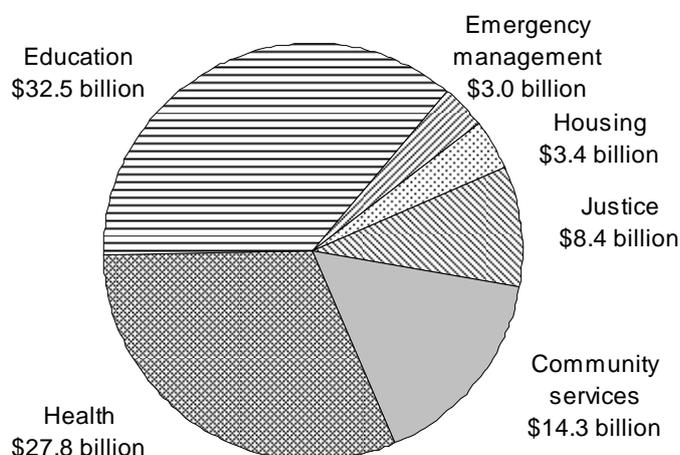
Box 1.1 Services covered in the 2006 Report

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

The services covered in this Report absorb a significant level of government expenditure. While not all data relate to the same time period, the services in this 2006 Report accounted for approximately \$89.4 billion in 2004-05 (figure 1.1), representing around 60.9 per cent of government recurrent expenditure in that year. (This is equivalent to about 10.8 per cent of gross domestic product.)

Funding from government may not meet the full cost of delivering a service to the community. Users of services and not-for-profit organisations 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.

Figure 1.1 **Estimated government recurrent expenditure on services covered by the 2006 Report^{a, b, c}**



^a Data for 2004-05 were not available for all services. Table 2.1 in chapter 2 indicates the latest year for which data are available for each service area. ^b Community services expenditure excludes juvenile justice. ^c The estimate for health expenditure includes only the health services discussed in the health chapters of the Report: public hospitals, primary and community health services, breast cancer screening and specialised mental health services.

Source: Various prefaces and chapters.

Box 1.2 **Cost to government and non-government organisations**

The Report provides information about the cost of services to government. Governments aim to maximise the benefit to the community from the use of government funds. Some argue that the Report should also account for the costs where non-government groups such as charities, not-for-profit organisations, private providers and users of services contribute resources for the services covered by the Report. Although the contributions of these other groups are not negligible, the purpose of the Report is to provide information to assist government decision making. The information required depends on the type of decision being made. 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, then it is accountable for all resources used. The Report thus aims to include the full costs of providing the service, 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.

(Continued on next page)

Box 1.2 (Continued)

The Report also includes information on the cost to government of services delivered in other ways, including through funding to government and non-government service providers. This information can assist governments in assessing their purchase decisions. This Report has not sought to facilitate comparisons between the internal management of government providers and that of non-government providers, and there would be difficulties in collecting data to make such comparisons. As a result, there is no attempt to compare the full cost of delivery by non-government organisations with the full cost of delivery by government service providers. 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 cost to government than the cost of government providing that service directly, even though the private organisation may use at least as many resources as the government provider. This situation can 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).

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

1.5 Approach

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

- the use of a common method across services leads to a data set that is a convenient and useful resource for people interested in more than one service area
- there are opportunities to share insights into approaches to performance assessment across services
- progress in performance reporting in any one service area is demonstrated to reinforce what is possible and to encourage improved reporting by other services

-
- there is the capacity to address issues that arise across service areas (for example, how to measure timeliness and other aspects of quality, and how to cost superannuation)
 - there is an opportunity to assess the full breadth of consequences to service areas of issues that have an impact on (or are affected by) multiple service areas. An example is recidivism and the various elements of justice services: a reduction in recidivism may be achieved by an increased allocation of resources in one service area — say, corrective services — but with a potentially greater saving achieved in other service areas — say, police and the courts.

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

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

Guiding principles

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

- *A focus on outcomes* — performance indicators should focus on outcomes from the provision of government services, reflecting whether service objectives have been met.
- *Comprehensiveness* — the performance indicator framework should be as comprehensive as possible, assessing performance against all important objectives.
- *Comparability* — data should be comparable across jurisdictions wherever possible. Reporting comparable information is a high priority of the Review and is related to progressive data availability. Where data are not yet comparable across jurisdictions, time series analysis within jurisdictions is particularly important. Time series comparisons have been made where possible to add another dimension to performance reporting.
- *Progressive data availability* — while the ultimate aim is comparable data for all jurisdictions, progress may differ across jurisdictions. Data are generally

presented for those jurisdictions that can currently report (rather than waiting until data are available for all jurisdictions).

- *Timeliness* — data published in the Report need to be as recent as possible to retain relevance for decision makers. In some cases, there may be a trade-off between the accuracy and timely availability of data, because recent data might have had fewer opportunities to undergo validation.

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

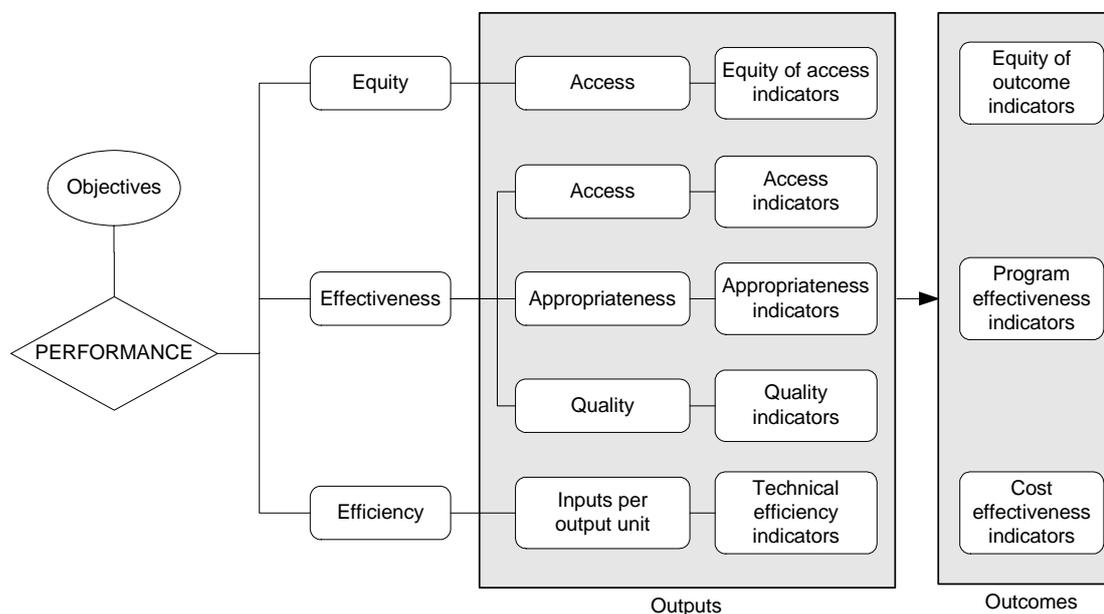
While the Report does not establish best practice benchmarks, the information in the Report could be used to help jurisdictions identify appropriate benchmarks (box 1.3).

The performance indicator framework

The Steering Committee revised the general framework for performance indicators in 2002 and this framework has now been implemented in all chapters. The new approach reflects governments' adoption of accrual accounting and depicts the Review's focus on outcomes, consistent with demand by governments for outcome oriented performance information. The new framework also emphasises the importance of equity and draws out the distinction between equity and access.

The Report's general performance framework is set out in figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 A general framework and examples of performance indicators



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. The three main forms of benchmarking are: (1) results benchmarking (comparing performance within and between organisations using performance indicators of effectiveness and efficiency), (2) process benchmarking (analysing systems, activities and tasks that turn resource inputs and outputs into outcomes) and (3) setting best practice standards (establishing goals and standards to which organisations can aspire).

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

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

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

The service process

The Report's general framework reflects the service process through which service providers transform inputs into outputs and outcomes in order to achieve desired objectives.

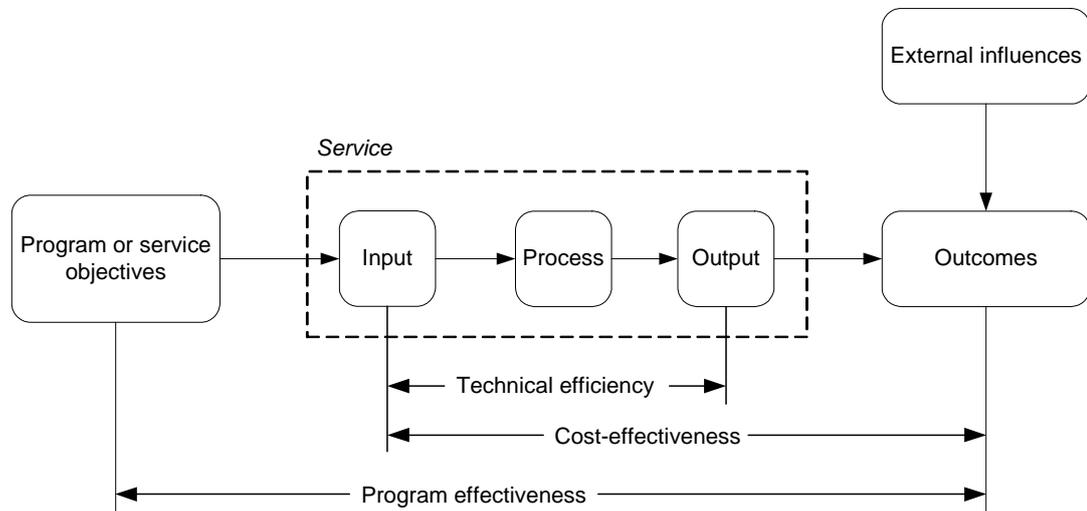
For each service, governments have a number of objectives that relate to desired outcomes for the community. To achieve these objectives, governments fund service providers and/or provide services. Service providers transform funds/resources (inputs) into services (outputs). The rate at which resources are used to make this transformation is known as 'technical efficiency'. The impacts of these outputs on individuals, groups and the community are the outcomes of the service. The rate at which resources are used to generate outcomes is referred to as 'cost effectiveness' in this Report. Often, outcomes are also influenced by factors external to the service. Outputs too may be affected by external factors, but to a lesser extent. The glossary to the Report provides further definitions. Figure 1.3 illustrates the service process, portrays the influence of factors external to a service, and distinguishes between program efficiency and program effectiveness.

Objectives

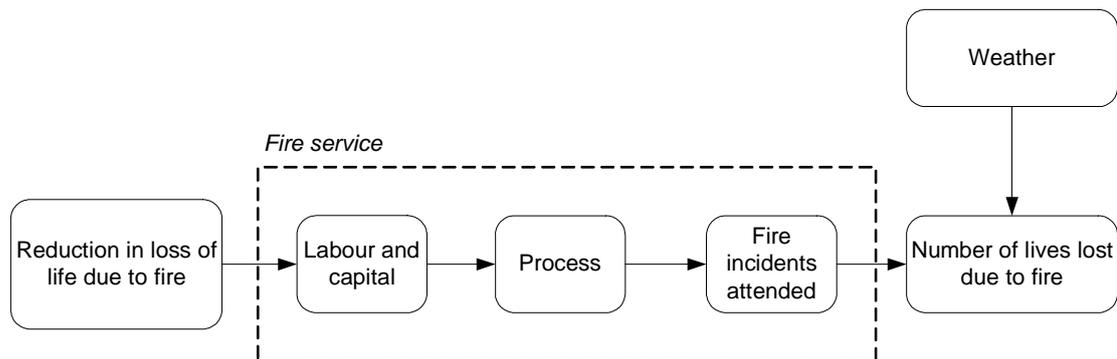
A number of the objectives (or desired outcomes) for each government funded service are similar across jurisdictions, although the priority that each jurisdiction gives to each objective may differ. The Steering Committee's approach to performance reporting is to focus on the extent to which each *shared*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

Figure 1.3 **Service process**

Example: general model



Example: fire services



Distinguishing outcomes and outputs

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. Outputs, on the other hand, are the services delivered.

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

Outcomes may be short term (intermediate) or longer term (final). A short term police random breath testing ‘blitz’, for example, (set up relatively quickly via a re-allocation of resources) may achieve the intermediate outcome of fewer drunk drivers and lead to a short term reduction in road deaths. The longer term outcome of a permanent reduction in road deaths is more likely to reflect external factors such as the design quality of cars and capital investment in improved roads or additional permanent random breath testing units.

The approach in this Report is to:

- use both short term and long term outcome indicators as appropriate
- make clear that government provided services are often only one contributing factor and, where possible, point to data on other factors, including different geographic and demographic characteristics across jurisdictions. (Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in the Report.)

Output indicators can be grouped according to the desired characteristics of a service — for example, accessibility, appropriateness or quality (see figure 1.2). These desired characteristics may differ across services. By contrast, outcome indicators are not grouped according to desired characteristics. Outcomes depend on a number of the characteristics of a service as well as being subject to external factors.

Equity, effectiveness and efficiency

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

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

Accentuating equity highlights the potential for trade-offs across all three performance dimensions — equity, effectiveness and efficiency. Improving outcomes for a group with special needs, for example, may necessitate an increase in the average cost per unit of service.

Equity

The term ‘equity’ has a number of interpretations, which are discussed in box 1.4. Equity in the context of this Report reflects equity of access, whereby all Australians are expected to have adequate access to services. Equity indicators measure how well a service is meeting the needs of certain groups in society with special needs.

Box 1.4 Equity

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

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

In the context of performance measurement for service delivery, *horizontal* equity is exhibited when services are equally accessible to everyone in the community with a similar level of need.

Service delivery exhibits *vertical* equity when it accounts for the special needs of certain groups in the community and adjusts aspects of service delivery to suit these needs. This approach may be needed where geographic, cultural or other reasons mean some members of the community have difficulty accessing a standard service.

A number of criteria can be used to classify those groups who may have special needs or difficulties in accessing government services. These include:

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

In May 1997, the Prime Minister (with the support of the Premiers and Chief Ministers) requested that the Review give particular attention to the performance of mainstream services in relation to Indigenous Australians. Improvements to

reporting for this group are discussed in chapter 2. The Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage report (mentioned earlier) focuses on outcomes for Indigenous Australians in a range of ‘strategic’ areas, and complements the Report on Government Services, which will continue to include indicators on the delivery of services to Indigenous Australians.

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

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

Where geographic location is used to identify groups with special needs, data are usually disaggregated according to either the metropolitan, rural and remote area classification system or the Australian Bureau of Statistics’ (ABS 2005) Australian Standard Geographical Classification of remoteness areas. These classifications are generally based on population density and/or the distance that residents need to travel to access services. The geographic classification system used in each chapter is outlined in chapter 2.

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

Effectiveness

Effectiveness indicators measure how well the outputs of a service achieve the stated objectives of that service. The reporting framework groups indicators of the effectiveness of outputs according to characteristics that are considered important to the service. For most chapters, these characteristics include access, appropriateness and/or quality.

Access

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

Appropriateness

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

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

Quality

Quality indicators reflect the extent to which a service is suited to its purpose and conforms to specifications. Information about quality is particularly important for performance assessment when there is a strong emphasis on increasing efficiency (as indicated by lower unit costs). There is usually more than one way in which to

deliver a service, and each alternative has different implications for cost and quality. Information about service quality is needed to ensure governments consider all relevant aspects of performance.

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

The reporting framework includes quality as one aspect of effectiveness, and distinguishes it from access and appropriateness (figure 1.2). This distinction is somewhat artificial because these other aspects of service provision also contribute to a meaningful picture of quality.

Efficiency

The concept of efficiency has a number of dimensions. Overall economic efficiency requires satisfaction of technical, allocative and dynamic efficiency:

- technical efficiency requires that goods and services be produced at the lowest possible cost
- allocative efficiency requires the production of the set of goods and services that consumers value most, from a given set of resources
- dynamic efficiency means that consumers are offered, over time, new and better products, and existing products at lower cost.

This Report focuses on technical (or productive) efficiency. Technical efficiency indicators measure how well services use their resources (inputs) to produce outputs for the purpose of achieving desired outcomes. Government funding per unit of output delivered is typically used as an indicator of technical efficiency — for example, recurrent funding per annual curriculum hour for vocational education and training.

Comparisons of unit cost of a service are a more meaningful input to public policy when they use the full cost to government, accounting for all resources consumed in providing the service. Problems can occur when some costs of providing services are overlooked or treated inconsistently (for example, superannuation, overheads or

the user cost of capital). The Steering Committee approach, where full cost information is not available in the short term, is that:

- data should be calculated consistently across jurisdictions
- data treatment should be fully transparent.

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

1.6 Using the data in this Report

Data comparability

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

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

These issues do not always lead to material differences, and even where the differences are significant, relatively simple adjustments may resolve them in many cases. For example, payroll tax exemption has a material influence on the comparability of unit cost indicators, and cost data are adjusted in most chapters to account for payroll tax (SCRCSSP 1999).

Validation

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

Timeliness and accuracy

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

The Steering Committee manages this trade-off between timeliness and accuracy by publishing available data with appropriate qualifications. The ongoing nature of the Report provides an opportunity for the data to be improved over time. Publication increases scrutiny of the data and encourages 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 this Report).

Effects of factors beyond the control of agencies

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

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

The Report provides information on environmental differences to assist readers to interpret performance indicator results. This information takes the form of profiles of each service area, footnotes to tables and figures, and a statistical appendix (appendix A). The statistical appendix provides a range of general descriptive

information for each jurisdiction, including the age profile, spatial distribution, income levels and education levels of the population, the tenure of dwellings and cultural heritage (such as Indigenous and ethnic status).

1.7 Related performance measurement exercises

Techniques for measuring efficiency

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

‘Measures of Australia’s Progress’

In April 2004, the ABS published the second issue of *Measures of Australia’s Progress* (ABS 2004), and summary indicators were updated in April 2005 (ABS 2005). The publication presents indicators across three domains of progress — economic, social and environmental. Each indicator signals recent progress, typically denoting developments over the past 10 years, to help Australians address the question, ‘Has life in our country got better, especially during the past decade?’. The framework includes both headline and supplementary indicators, and focuses on outcomes rather than inputs or processes. The publication includes special articles that relate to, rather than measure, progress — for example, material about multiple disadvantage, and levels of progress in Australia and other Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development countries.

Performance monitoring in other countries

Performance reporting is undertaken in other countries using various approaches (see previous Reports). In 2002, the United Kingdom introduced regular web-based reporting against public service agreements, and all key performance data on public service delivery is now available on a single website. Web-based reporting provides accountability and transparency, and allows the public to assess how the United

Kingdom Government is delivering across all areas of government. Public service agreements measure agency performance by setting out the aim of the department or program, the supporting objectives and the key outcome-based targets that are to be achieved during a specified period (HM Treasury 2004).

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2 Recent developments in the Report

2.1 Developments in reporting

This is the eleventh Report on Government Services produced by the Review. Reporting is an iterative process, and the Review endeavours each year to build on developments of previous years. Since the Review published its first Report in 1995 (SCRCSSP 1995), there has been a general improvement in the data collected.

Enhancements to the Report fall into two categories:

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

Improvements in reporting for the 2006 Report

Education

The scope of reporting in chapter 3 ('School education'), has been enhanced by including nationally comparable learning outcomes data for:

- year 6 primary science literacy performance
- year 7 reading, writing and numeracy performance
- year 3, 5 and 7 reading, writing and numeracy performance by geolocation
- reading literacy, mathematical literacy, scientific literacy and problem solving for 15 year olds.

This year, chapter 4 ('Vocational education and training'), has been enhanced by:

- reporting on 'government recurrent expenditure per load pass' and 'cost of capital per load pass'
- developing a stand-alone indicator for Indigenous people participating in vocational education and training (VET)
- revising data items following the redesign of the student outcomes survey
- replacing indicators 'students meeting main objective for doing a course' and 'vocational outcomes' with 'student satisfaction with VET' and 'student employment and further study outcomes' respectively
- reporting on skills output from VET.

Justice

Development work continues in chapter 5 ('Police services') and chapter 6 ('Court administration') but no significant improvements were introduced in this Report. In chapter 7 ('Corrective services'), the indicator framework was revised and indicators for 'escapes/absconds' and 'completion of community orders' reclassified as outcome rather than output indicators.

Emergency management

No significant improvements have been made to reporting on chapter 8 ('Emergency management') for this report.

Health

Reporting in chapter 9 ('Public hospitals') has been improved this year through the inclusion of three new indicators:

- 'pre-anaesthetic consultation rates' are reported as an indicator of the safety aspect of quality
- 'patient satisfaction' and 'sentinel events' are reported as indicators of outcomes for public hospitals.

The following significant improvements have been made in chapter 10 ('Primary and community health'):

- data on the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme (PBS) are included for the first time, including the 'availability of PBS medicines' indicator

-
- the ‘availability of GPs by region’ indicator is now reported by State and Territory
 - the previously reported ‘management of diabetes’ indicator has been split into ‘management of diabetes’ and ‘hospitalisations for diabetes’ indicators
 - the inclusion of Indigenous data for the ‘hospitalisations for vaccine preventable conditions’ and ‘hospitalisations for diabetes’ indicators (previously reported in the public hospitals chapter).

No significant improvements have been made to reporting on chapter 11 (‘Health management issues’) for this Report.

Community services

In chapter 12 (‘Aged care services’) additions and improvements this year include:

- provision of age and sex specific usage rates by jurisdiction and remoteness category for high and low care residential services, Community Aged Care Packages (CACP) and the Extended Aged Care at Home (EACH). (For Indigenous populations, these data are combined for high and low care residential services and for CACP)
- reporting of outcomes of appraisals of Home and Community Care (HACC) agencies over the three year period to 2003-04 for the indicator ‘compliance with service standards for community care’.

Significant improvements in the reporting of chapter 13 (‘Services for people with a disability’) include:

- the reporting of data on community access to services against the ‘service use by severity of disability’ indicator
- the reporting of data by special needs groups against the ‘labour force participation and employment’ outcome indicator
- the inclusion of Commonwealth State/Territory Disability Agreement (CSTDA) National Minimum Data Set (NMDS) service user data collected over a whole year (2003-04 data) — this is an improvement over the six months of data reported in last year’s report (2002-03 data) and the data for previous reports sourced from the CSDA NMDS snapshot day collections.

Major improvements in chapter 14 (‘Children’s services’) include reporting for the first time of data on preschool service costs, and hospital admissions resulting from injuries sustained in children’s services. There are also improvements to data quality and comparability.

In chapter 15 ('Protection and support'), the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) outcome indicator 'goals achieved on exit from service' is reported on a comparable basis for the first time.

Housing

In chapter 16 ('Housing'), the performance indicator framework for Commonwealth Rent Assistance has been revised and simplified. Data are reported for the first time on customer satisfaction with State owned and managed Indigenous housing.

2.2 Progress with indicator development

A revised Review framework was implemented for all chapters in the 2005 Report. The implementation of the framework has led to the development of new indicators in particular areas, and to a reassessment of indicators reported. Refinement of performance information is continuing as new research and data become available.

An examination of reporting against the framework across service areas identified the following issues:

- There continues to be a paucity of information about cost-effectiveness (that is, measures of cost per outcome achieved). The lack of cost-effectiveness data partly reflects the difficulty of collecting robust quantitative information on outcomes. No cost-effectiveness indicators are reported, and only one notional indicator of cost-effectiveness has been identified (for breast cancer detection and management) and the indicator has not been developed.
- Few outcome indicators relate directly to equity. This lack has been emphasised by the revised framework's distinction between equity and access.
- Similarly, there are relatively few output indicators of equity or access.
- There are relatively few indicators of output quality compared with those for other output characteristics (effectiveness, access and appropriateness).

Identification of gaps in reporting should also take into account how well currently reported indicators measure the various aspects of service provision. There may be scope to improve the appropriateness or quality of currently reported indicators.

2.3 Progress with key data issues

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

Timeliness

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

- There has been improvement in the timeliness of learning outcomes data, with data for 2003-04 available for several learning domains.
- The most recent police services data on reporting rates is for 2002 for the 2006 Report.
- All data for specialised mental health services are provided one year in arrears (that is, 2003-04 data for the 2006 Report).
- There is significant scope for improving the timeliness of maternity services quality data.
- The 'Children services' data collected by the Australian Government Census of Child Care Services are collected every two years. There were no new data available for the current Report, although previously published preliminary data were updated with final figures. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Child Care Survey is conducted every three years. Results from the 2005 survey were not available for this Report, and results from the 2002 survey were republished.
- In the 'Protection and support' chapter, the latest data for 'unmet demand' for SAAP were for 2002-03.
- In the 'Housing' chapter, community housing data for 'total rent collected as a proportion of total rent charged' is collected one year in arrears (2003-04 for the 2006 Report). Summary CSHA funding data were available for the 2003-04 financial year.

Data on the ‘interval cancer rate’ in the breast cancer detection and management section of chapter 11 rely on data matching and follow-up between screening periods and between screening services and medical services. Such processes take a number of years, resulting in a marked lag in reporting.

Timeliness of data for services for people with a disability was affected by the introduction of a new data collection methodology in 2002-03. The shift to a whole-of-year collection based on administrative data (replacing a previous snapshot day collection), has meant that data are provided one year in arrears (that is, 2003-04 data for the 2006 Report).

Table 2.1 Time period of reported performance results, 2006 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	2002-03 or 2002	Previous year (2003-04 or 2003)	Current year (2004-05 or 2004)
<i>Education</i>			
School education	Learning outcomes	Learning outcomes and efficiency	✓
VET		Number of VET qualifications completed	✓
<i>Justice</i>			
Police services	Reporting rates	Higher courts and hospitalisations	✓
Court administration			✓
Corrective services			✓
<i>Emergency management</i>			
Fire events		Hospitalisations and deaths	✓
Ambulance events			✓
Road rescue events			✓
<i>Health</i>			
Public hospitals		Hospitalisations	Quality✓
Maternity services	Quality	Hospitalisations, deaths and efficiency	Quality and outcomes✓
Primary and community health		Hospitalisations Cervical cancer	✓
Breast cancer ^a			✓
Mental health		✓	
<i>Community services</i>			
Aged care services		ACAT, HACC national service standards appraisal and assessment unit cost	✓
Services for people with a disability		Services Efficiency ^b	Efficiency ^c ✓
Children's services	Preschool services cost, Unmet demand	Hospital separations	✓
Child protection and out-of-home care		Substantiation/ re-substantiation	✓
SAAP	Unmet demand		✓
<i>Housing assistance</i>			
Public housing			✓
Community housing		Rent collected	✓
State owned and managed Indigenous housing			✓
Commonwealth Rent Assistance			✓

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

Comparability of data

Performance indicator framework diagrams in each chapter are shaded to reflect which indicators are reported on a comparable basis. Table 2.2 summarises the proportion of performance indicators in each service area with comparable data. Emergency management (13 per cent), child protection and out-of-home care (29 per cent), maternity services (30 per cent), public hospitals (36 per cent) and children's services (44 per cent) have the smallest proportions of indicators reported on a comparable basis.

Table 2.2 Indicators reported on a comparable basis, 2006 Report

<i>Service area/indicator framework</i>	<i>Indicators with data reported</i>	<i>Indicators reported on a comparable basis</i>	<i>Proportion comparable</i>	<i>Change since last year in number reported on a comparable basis</i>
	no.	no.	%	no.
<i>Education</i>				
School education	12	9	75	–
VET	12	10	83	4
<i>Justice</i>				
Police services	26	13	50	–
Court administration	6	3	50	–
Corrective services	12	10	83	–
Emergency management	15	2	13	–
<i>Health</i>				
Public hospitals ^a	14	5	36	–
Maternity services	10	3	30	–
Primary and community health	22	22	100	2
Breast cancer	11	7	64	–
Mental health	8	4	50	–
<i>Community services</i>				
Aged care services	13	12	92	–
Services for people with a disability	14	8	57	–
Children's services	16	7	44	3
Child protection and out-of-home care	14	4	29	–
SAAP	12	6	50	1
<i>Housing</i>				
Public housing	12	12	100	–
Community housing	10	–	–	–
State owned and managed				
Indigenous housing	11	11	100	2
Commonwealth Rent Assistance ^b	8	9	89	-3

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ^a Data previously reported as three indicators have been moved to the descriptive section of the chapter. ^b The performance indicator framework was revised and the total number of indicators reduced (rather than a decrease in comparability). – Nil or rounded to zero.

Changes to administrative data collections

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

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

Specialised mental health services

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

Justice

The ABS is coordinating a National Information Development Plan (NIDP) for crime and justice statistics. The plan outlines the nationally agreed needs for data in crime and justice, current key data sources (both ABS and other agencies) and information gaps with reference to national data requirements. The NIDP lists priority areas for improving the quality, coverage and use of crime and justice information across Australia and provides a map of the work planned over the next three years.

Juvenile justice

The AIHW has developed a NMDS set for juvenile justice. Detailed reporting for the period 2000-01 to 2003-04 is due to be published in 2005-06. A performance indicator framework is also being developed. The 'Community services' preface of the Report continues to include descriptive information on juvenile justice until performance-related data are available for future reports.

Services for people with a disability

A new Commonwealth State/Territory Disability Agreement (CSTDA) NMDS collection — developed jointly by the National Disability Administrators and the AIHW — was implemented in 2002-03. Full year data for 2003-04 were available for this Report.

Children's services

The National Community Services Information Management Group (NCSIMG) is developing a children's services NMDS. In September 2005, the data items were endorsed by NCSIMG, completing the development phase. The project is now moving to the implementation phase. Outstanding issues to be addressed are agreement about the best mechanism for data collection, funding arrangements and the creation and maintenance of a register of service providers.

Costing of services

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

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

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

- accounting for the goods and services tax

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

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

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

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

Superannuation

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

Table 2.3 Progress of unit cost comparability, 2006 Report

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

SAAP = Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. ✓ Majority of jurisdictions have included this item or reported it separately, or have included it on an accrual basis. x Majority of jurisdictions have not included or reported this item, or not included it on an accrual basis. ^a Accrual: the majority of jurisdictions have reported in accrual terms for the data in the 2006 Report. Transition: the majority of jurisdictions have not reported on either a pure cash or accrual basis. ^b Costs comprise mostly Australian Government transfer payments to private service providers or households. ^c Costs comprise mostly Australian, State or Territory government transfer payments to households. na Not available. .. Not applicable.

Payroll tax

Payroll tax makes up a small but significant part of the cost of many government funded and delivered services. It is particularly significant for services with a high

proportion of labour costs. Differences in the treatment of payroll tax therefore can affect the comparability of unit costs across jurisdictions and services. These differences include payroll tax exemptions, marginal tax rates, tax-free thresholds and clawback arrangements. Accounting for the effect of payroll tax can be particularly important for improving the comparability of the unit costs of private and public service providers where the tax treatment of the two types of organisation differ.

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

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

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

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

Capital costs

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

Capital costs comprise two distinct elements:

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

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

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

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

The study found that differences in asset measurement techniques can have a major impact on reported capital costs, and have the potential to affect the cost rankings among jurisdictions. Its results suggested that the differences created by these asset measurement effects are generally relatively small in the context of total unit costs because capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost (except for housing). In housing, where the potential for asset measurement techniques to

influence total unit costs is greater, the adoption under the Commonwealth State Housing Agreement of a uniform accounting framework has largely prevented this from occurring. The adoption of national uniform accounting standards across all service areas would be a desirable outcome from the perspective of the Review.

Other costing issues

Other costing issues include accounting for the goods and services tax, the reporting of accrued benefits to employees, the apportionment of costs shared across services (mainly overhead departmental costs) and the treatment of non-government sourced revenue.

Government agencies are treated in the same manner as other businesses for goods and services tax (GST). That is, government agencies are not exempt from GST on their purchases, and can claim input tax credits for the GST paid on inputs. Data reported in this Report are net of GST paid and input tax credits received unless otherwise specified. The GST appears to have little quantifiable impact on the performance indicators in this Report.

The issue of accrued benefits to employees is addressed primarily through the adoption of accrual accounting and the incorporation of explicit references to these benefits within the definition of costs.

Full apportionment of departmental overheads is consistent with the concept of full cost recovery. The practice of apportioning overhead costs varies across the services in the Report.

For non-government sourced revenue, some services deduct such revenue from their estimates of unit costs where it is relatively small (for example, in police services and court administration). The costs reported are therefore an estimate of net cost to government. However, where revenue from non-government sources is significant (such as with public hospitals, fire services and ambulance services), the net cost to government does not enable an adequate assessment of efficiency. In these instances, it is necessary to report both the gross cost and the net cost to government to obtain an adequate understanding of efficiency.

Reporting for special needs groups

Some chapters of the Report focus on the performance of agencies in providing services to specific groups in society — for example, the chapters on aged care services, services to people with a disability, and children’s services. Across the Report, the Review also seeks to report on the performance of agencies providing

services for three identified special needs groups: Indigenous people; people living in communities outside the capital cities (that is, people living in other metropolitan areas, or rural and remote communities); and people from a non English speaking background. There is a paucity of data on outcomes for these groups (tables 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6).

Indigenous Australians

In May 1997, the Prime Minister asked the Review to give particular attention to the performance of mainstream services in meeting the needs of Indigenous Australians. The Council of Australian Governments (COAG) reinforced this request at its 3 November 2000 meeting, where heads of government agreed that ministerial councils will develop action plans, performance reporting strategies and benchmarks to facilitate review of progress in this area. Table 2.4 provides an indication of which service areas report at least one data item on Indigenous Australians.

COAG report on Indigenous disadvantage

In April 2002, COAG commissioned the Steering Committee to produce a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage. The Review released the second edition of this Report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2005* (SCRGSP 2005a), in July 2005.

Indigenous compendium

Since 2003, the Steering Committee has compiled all of the data items on Indigenous Australians included in the Report on Government Services into a separate Indigenous compendium. The most recent compendium (of data from the 2005 Report) was released in May 2005 (SCRGSP 2005b). A compendium of Indigenous data from this Report will be released in mid-2006.

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 undertake sufficient sampling of Indigenous people to provide reliable results.

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

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

The Ministerial Council on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs has established a working party to develop an Indigenous Demographics paper, that aims to identify methodological issues in Indigenous data collections, outline how these are being addressed and identify any remaining gaps.

The Review will draw on these initiatives in future reports.

Table 2.4 Reporting of at least one data item on Indigenous Australians, 2006 Report

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

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

People living in rural and remote areas

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

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

People from a non English speaking background

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

Reporting data on people from a non English speaking background is complicated by the number of classification systems that exist. Different chapters of the Report use different classification systems based on: people speaking a language other than English at home (reported for VET, breast cancer detection and management, and children's services); people with a language background other than English (reported for school education and corrective services); and people born in a non English speaking country (reported for aged care services, services for people with a disability and protection and support services). In addition, some services are considering reporting future data using the cultural and language diversity classification.

Table 2.5 Reporting of at least one data item on rural and remote communities, 2006 Report

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

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

Table 2.6 Reporting of at least one data item on people from a non English speaking background, 2006 Report

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

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

2.4 'Cross-cutting' issues

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

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

This issue arises in several areas of the Report. The frameworks in chapter 11 ('Health management issues') are one means of reporting outcomes for a range of different services working in concert. The ultimate aim of that chapter is to report on the performance of primary, secondary and tertiary health services in improving outcomes for people with breast cancer or mental illness. The frameworks and the scope of services reported are evolving over time. The mental health management section, for example, currently reports only on the performance of specialised mental health services, but people with a mental illness also access primary and community health services (such as general practitioners, and drug and alcohol services) (chapter 10), as well as aged care services (chapter 12), services for people with a disability (chapter 13) and public housing (chapter 16). People with a mental illness sometimes also enter corrective services (chapter 7).

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

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

-
- the contributions of many services to child protection services (discussed primarily in chapter 15). Police services investigate serious allegations of child abuse and neglect, courts decide whether a child will be placed on an order, education and child care services provide services for these children, and health services support the assessment of child protection matters and deliver therapeutic, counselling and other services
 - close links between SAAP services (chapter 15) and other forms of housing assistance reported in the Housing chapter (chapter 16), particularly housing funded under the Crisis Accommodation Program.

Counter-terrorism

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

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

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

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

outputs or outcomes are not recorded in the chapters, then performance results will not reflect the improvement in productivity.

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

2.5 Related Review projects

The information in *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2005* (discussed earlier) complements the Indigenous data and performance indicators presented in this Report. The *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage* report describes high level outcomes for Indigenous people, for which all government departments and agencies are collectively responsible. There is very limited reporting on an individual government agency basis. The Report on Government Services, on the other hand, provides information on the performance of specified government agencies and programs in delivering services to Indigenous people.

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:

- patient satisfaction and responsiveness surveys conducted in relation to public hospital services in Australia (SCRGSP 2005c). A major aim of the commissioned consultancy was to identify points of commonality and difference between patient satisfaction surveys and their potential for concordance and/or for forming the basis of a minimum national data set on public hospital 'patient satisfaction' or 'patient experience'
- efficiency measures for child protection and support pathways (SCRCSSP 2003). The study developed and tested a method to allow states and territories to calculate more meaningful, comparable and robust efficiency measures for the protection and support services they deliver
- the extent to which differences in asset measurement techniques applied by participating agencies affect the comparability of reported unit costs (SCRCSSP 2001)
- a survey of the satisfaction of clients of services for people with a disability (Equal and Donovan Research 2000)
- the use of activity surveys by police services in Australia and New Zealand (SCRCSSP 1999a) as a means of drawing lessons for other areas of government

that are considering activity measurement in output costing and internal management

- an examination of payroll tax (SCRCSSP 1999b) and superannuation (SCRCSSP 1998b) in the costing of government services
- data envelopment analysis as a technique for measuring the efficiency of government services delivery (SCRCSSP 1997b).

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

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

and one (SCRCSSP 1998a) that covers:

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

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

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

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

2.6 References

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2005a, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2005*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 2005b, *Report on Government Services 2005: Indigenous Compendium*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

— 2005c, *Review of patient satisfaction and experience surveys conducted for public hospitals in Australia*, Productivity Commission, Canberra, www.pc.gov.au.

PART B

EDUCATION

B Education preface

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

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

- the school education sector, as reflected in the national goals for schooling (box 3.1), include a focus on developing the capacities and talents of all young people so they have the necessary knowledge, understanding, skills and values for a productive and rewarding life
- the VET sector, as reflected in the national strategy for VET 2004–10 (box 4.3), include a focus on giving industry a highly skilled workforce to support strong performance in the global economy; making employers and students the centre of VET; strengthening communities and regions economically and socially through learning and employment; and giving Indigenous Australians skills for viable jobs and to ensure their learning culture will be shared
- the higher education sector, as reflected in the *Higher Education Report for the 2003–2005 Triennium*, include advancing and applying knowledge and understanding to benefit the Australian economy and society.

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

Chapter 3 covers the performance of school education. Some comparison between the government and non-government school systems is included. Chapter 4 covers the performance of VET sector. Preschool programs, which provide a variety of

educational and developmental experiences for children before full time schooling, are covered in chapter 14.

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

- universities (although some information is included in this preface)
- the transportation of students
- income support payments for students
- adult community education (except VET programs)
- VET activity delivered on a fee-for-service basis by private and community education providers.

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

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

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

Profile of the education and training system

Roles and responsibilities

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

- providing funding to non-government schools and to State and Territory governments for government schools, to support agreed priorities and strategies

-
- providing funding through the Department of Education Science and Training (DEST) to states and territories for the delivery of VET programs and services, and support for VET infrastructure
 - being the primary funding source for, and developer of policy related to, the higher education sector
 - providing financial assistance for students.

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

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

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

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

In 2004, the Australian, State and Territory governments' funding of the VET system is through the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) agreement. The Agreement establishes government funding and accountability arrangements for VET and provided the basis for releasing more than \$3.92 billion of government funding in 2004 (DEST 2005).

In October 2004, the Prime Minister announced that the ANTA would be abolished from July 2005 and its responsibilities taken into the DEST. The Prime Minister also announced that a Ministerial Council on Vocational Education would be established to ensure continued harmonisation of a national system of standards, assessment and accreditations, with goals agreed in the Commonwealth-State Agreement for Skilling Australia's Workforce (DEST 2005).

Funding

Education and training is a major area of expenditure and activity for Australian, State and Territory governments. Total government operating expenses (net of transfers) for all governments for school education, VET and higher education was \$43.6 billion (table B.1) in 2003-04, which was equivalent to 5.4 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP). Private household final consumption expenditure on education in 2003-04 was \$11.5 billion, or 1.4 per cent of GDP (ABS 2005a).

Australian Government operating expenses for the three education and training sectors in 2003-04 were \$13.4 billion, of which \$12.2 billion (90.9 per cent) comprised grants to other levels of government. State, Territory and local government operating expenditure was \$31.3 billion for the same year. Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses were \$11.7 billion. The intra-sector transfers (which are transfers or transactions that occur between different levels of government for the purposes of education), such as grants, were \$12.8 billion. Between 2002-03 and 2003-04, the average annual real growth rate of total operating expenditure net of transfers on education was 4.2 per cent (table B.1).

Table B.1 Australian, State and Territory (including local) government real expenditure on education (2003-04 dollars)^a

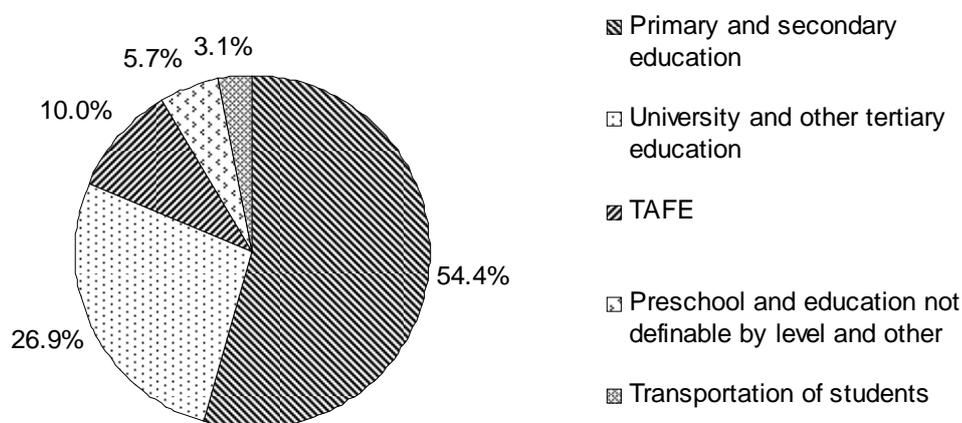
	2001-02 ^b	2002-03 ^b	2003-04	Average annual real growth
	\$m	\$m	\$m	
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(11 298)	(11 305)	(12 179)	3.9
Australian Government operating expenses	12 480	12 457	13 398	3.7
Australian Government expenses less transfers	1 182	1152	1219	1.6
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(208)	(225)	(222)	3.5
State and Territory (including local) operating expenses	28 922	30 377	31 251	4.0
State and Territory (including local) expenses less transfers	28 714	30 151	31 029	4.0
Transfers to other levels of government ^c	(328)	(365)	(355)	4.3
Multi-jurisdictional (university) operating expenses	10 597	11 444	11 718	5.2
Multi-jurisdictional (university) expenses less transfers	10 269	11 079	11 363	5.2
Total intra-sector transfers	(11 834)	(11 895)	(12 756)	3.9
Total Australia operating expenses	51 998	54 278	56 367	4.1
Total operating expenses net of transfers	40 164	42 383	43 611	4.2

^a Based on accrual operating expenses for education. ^b The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) provided nominal figures. Real expenditure was calculated from these figures based on the ABS GDP price deflator (2003-04 = 100) (table A.26). ^c Payments between levels of government within the public sector.

Source: ABS (2005a); ABS Public Finance Statistics (unpublished).

Schools accounted for the highest proportion of the \$43.6 billion government expenditure on education and training (54.4 per cent) in 2003-04, followed by universities (26.9 per cent) and TAFE institutes (10.0 per cent) (table B.1, figure B.1).

Figure B.1 Total government expenditure on education, 2003-04^{a, b}



^a Totals may not add to 100 as a result of rounding. ^b Based on accrual operating expenses for education.
Source: ABS (2005a).

Non-government schools received the highest proportion of Australian Government direct recurrent funding, accounting for 68.3 per cent of total recurrent Australian Government specific purpose payments to schools (table 3A.6). State and Territory governments provided 91.4 per cent of recurrent funding for government schools (table 3A.9). The Australian Government spent an average of \$4130 per student in non-government schools and an average of \$1001 per student in government schools in 2003-04 (table 3A.6). State and Territory governments spend an average of \$1557 per student in non-government schools, and an average of \$10 003 per student in government schools.

The largest proportion of State and Territory government expenditure went to primary and secondary schools (75.8 per cent) in 2004. TAFE received 13.3 per cent and preschools, special education and other education not definable by level received 10.3 per cent of the total expenditure (table B.2).

Table B.2 State and Territory (including local) government expenditure, 2003–04

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW^a</i>	<i>Vic^b</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA^c</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas^d</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
School education										
Preschool, not definable by level, and other ^e	%	11.4	7.1	12.2	12.7	9.4	6.6	4.3	10.7	10.3
Primary and secondary	%	75.8	75.0	77.5	74.2	75.0	82.7	78.0	70.0	75.8
Total ^f	%	87.2	82.2	89.8	86.8	84.4	89.2	82.3	80.6	86.1
TAFE	%	12.8	17.0	10.1	12.1	14.5	10.6	12.5	13.6	13.3
University	%	–	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	–	1.4
Other tertiary	%	–	–	–	0.6	–	–	–	5.8	0.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total	\$m	10 249	7 398	5 619	3 671	2 438	790	577	516	31 251

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

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

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

Source: ABS (2005a).

Size and scope

There were 3.3 million full time school students attending 9615 schools in Australia, including 6938 government schools, in 2004 (ABS 2005b). Over 1.6 million people undertook VET programs in Australia in 2004. Of these, 1.1 million students were government-funded (DEST 2005). These programs were delivered in 933 TAFE and other government provider locations and 7659 community education and other registered provider training locations (table 4A.3).

There were approximately 945 000 students attending higher education providers who received funding from the Australian Government in 2004, an increase of 1.6 per cent on the number in 2003. These students undertook a variety of courses ranging from diplomas to doctorates across almost 50 providers. The most common course was the bachelor degree, which accounted for around two thirds of all students. The majority of students undertook their course on campus on a full time basis. The most popular fields of study were management and commerce, and society and culture. Students in these fields undertook, for example, courses in

accounting, tourism, marketing, political science, law, economics and criminology. In addition to the providers in receipt of Australian Government funds, around 120 other higher education providers were accredited by State and Territory educational authorities (DEST unpublished).

Learning pathways

The Australian education and training system comprises the compulsory years of schooling (up to 16 years of age in SA and Tasmania and 15 years of age in all other jurisdictions) and the range of pathways and options available to students in post-compulsory education and training (box B.1). To encourage flexible learning pathways, Australian governments have implemented the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). The AQF provides a comprehensive, nationally consistent framework for all qualifications in post-compulsory education and training. Under this framework, modules from VET certificates can be, for example, integrated with senior secondary certificates, and both VET diplomas and higher education diplomas can gain credit towards a bachelor degree. Similarly, the VET sector recognises some higher education qualifications.

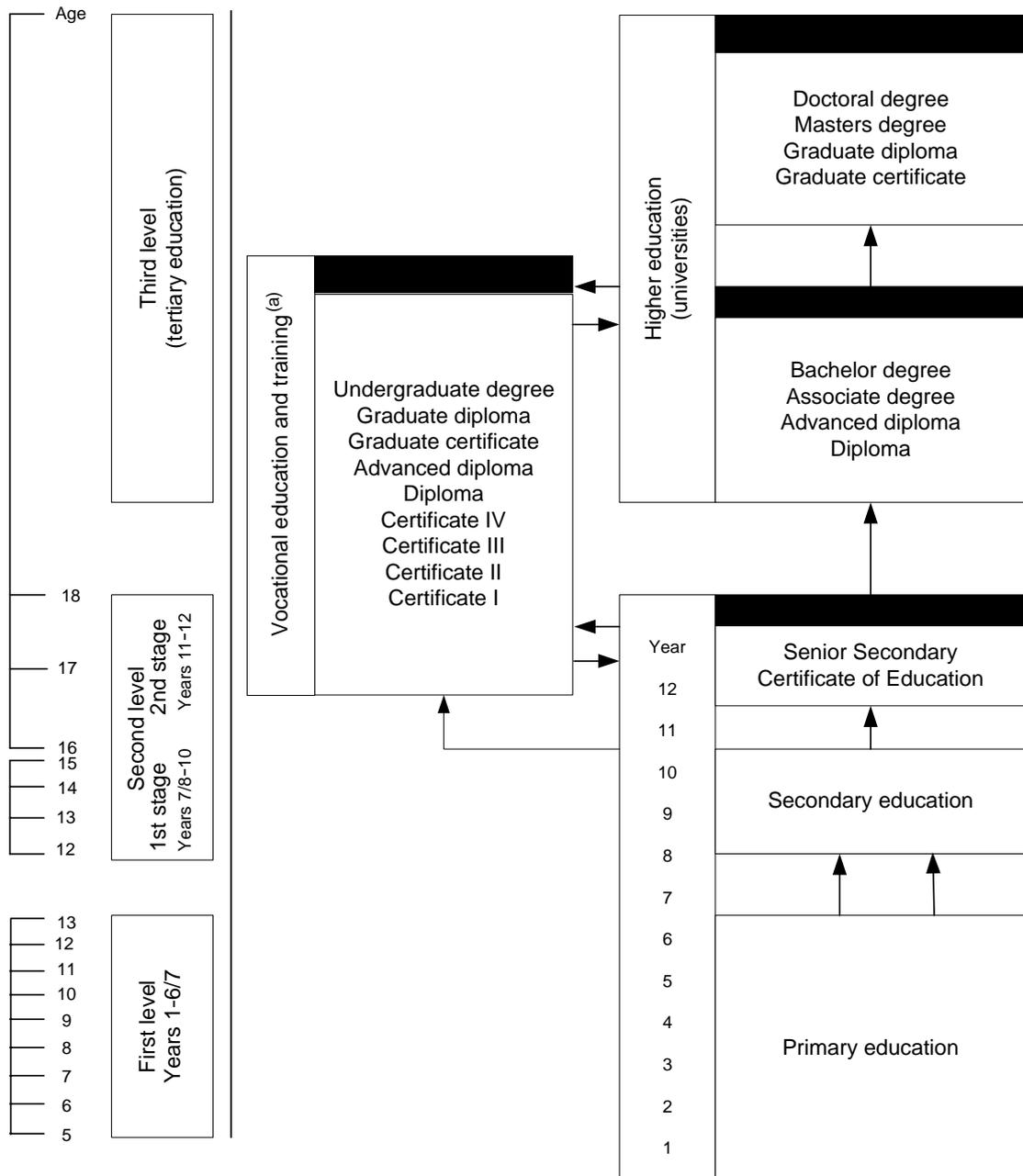
Under the AQF, VET certificates (mainly certificates I and II) may be achieved in schools and may contribute towards the Senior Secondary Certificate of Education, resulting in a dual qualification. There were 211 900 students enrolled in VET in schools programs in 2004, an increase of approximately 4.4 per cent on the number in 2003. Enrolments were highest in management and commerce programs, which accounted for 21.3 per cent of all enrolments by major field of education in 2004 (NCVER 2005).

Role and purpose of VET

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

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

Box B.1 Outline of the Australian education and training system^a



^a Providers deliver qualifications in more than one sector. Schools, for example, are delivering certificates I–II, universities are delivering certificates II–IV, and VET providers are delivering undergraduate degrees, graduate certificates and graduate diplomas (higher education qualifications in some jurisdictions, but in others also VET), all subject to meeting the relevant quality assurance requirements.

Source: Adapted from National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (2000).

Measuring the performance of the education and training system

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

Equity and effectiveness

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

Participation in education and training

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

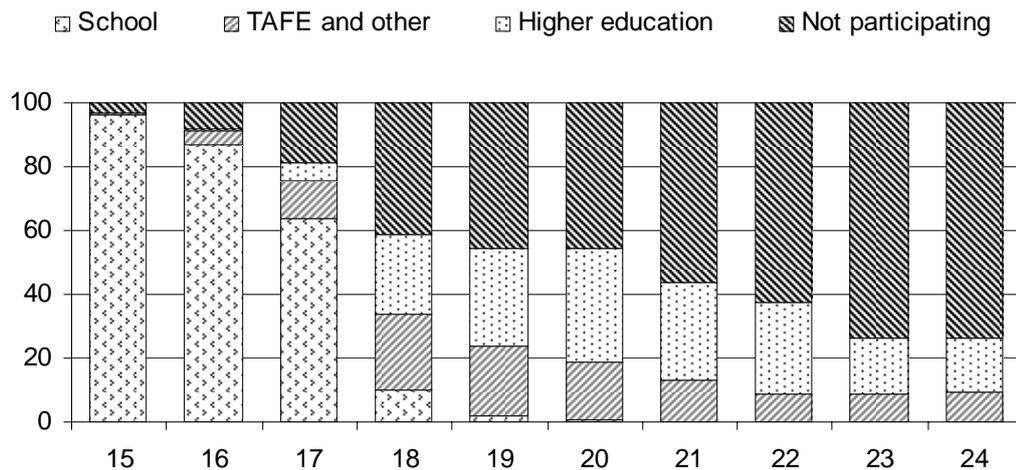
The education and training participation rates quoted in this section are estimates of the proportion of the population in a given age group who are enrolled in any course of study, on either a full or a part time basis, at an educational institution in May each year. These estimates are derived from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

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

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

Beyond the age of compulsory school education (up to 16 years in SA and Tasmania and 15 years in all other jurisdictions), the percentage of people participating in education and training declines. Nationally, the participation rate was 96.7 per cent for 15 year olds, 81.0 per cent for 17 year olds, 54.2 per cent for 19 year olds and 26.1 per cent for 24 year olds, in 2004 (figure B.2).

Figure B.2 Participation in education and training by people aged 15–24 years, by sector, 2004^{a, b}

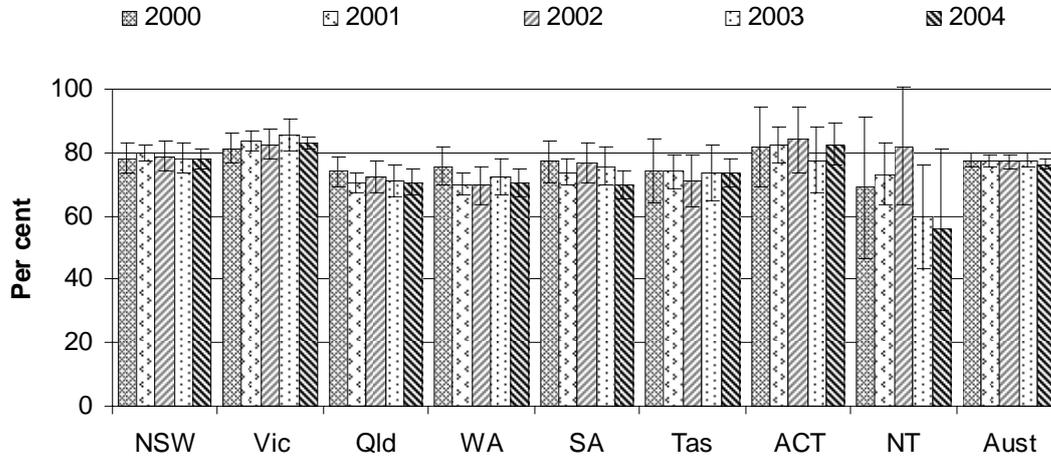


^a TAFE and other includes all education or training participation at institutions other than schools and higher education institutions. ^b Student participation is likely to be underestimated because data are for May, not for the whole year.

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

The level of participation in education and training varies across jurisdictions for many reasons. These include different age/grade structures, starting age at school, minimum leaving age, the number of compulsory years of schooling and the level of service provision. In addition there are other influences that State and Territory governments have less control over, such as labour market changes, population movements, urbanisation, socioeconomic status and Indigenous status.

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

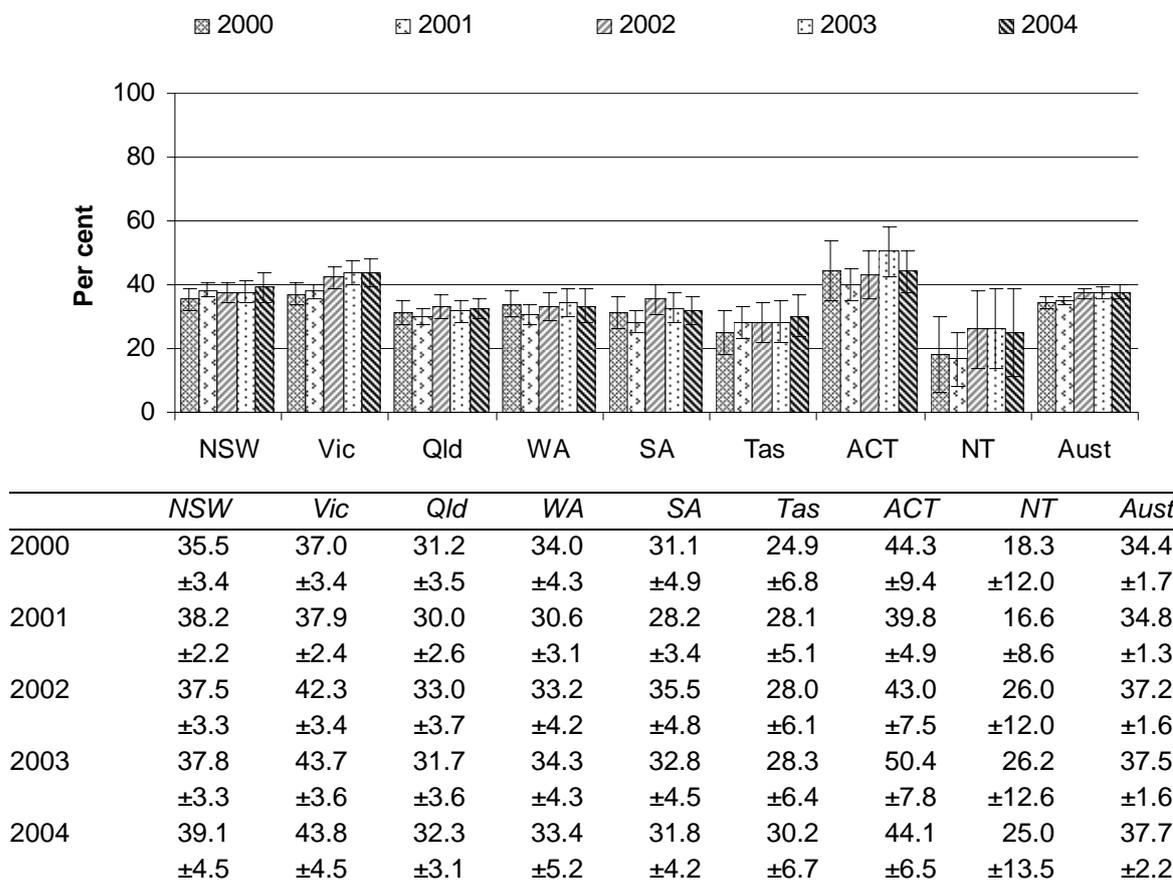


	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
2000	78.1	81.3	74.0	75.5	77.1	74.2	81.6	69.1	77.6
	±4.7	±4.6	±4.9	±6.0	±6.8	±9.8	±12.6	±22.4	±2.4
2001	80.1	83.5	70.4	70.0	73.7	73.9	82.4	73.2	77.4
	±2.6	±3.0	±3.2	±3.6	±4.1	±5.5	±5.7	±9.7	±1.8
2002	78.9	82.6	72.5	69.5	76.7	71.1	84.1	82.0	77.3
	±4.5	±4.6	±5.0	±5.7	±6.2	±8.0	±10.3	±18.5	±2.2
2003	78.3	85.3	71.1	72.4	75.7	73.3	77.5	59.7	77.5
	±4.5	±5.0	±5.1	±5.9	±6.1	±8.8	±10.5	±16.6	±2.2
2004	78.0	83.0	70.7	70.3	69.7	73.4	82.6	55.8	76.2
	±2.9	±2.0	±3.9	±4.3	±4.4	±4.5	±6.5	±25.5	±1.5

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

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

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



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

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

Participation in education, training and work

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

Table B.3 shows that, in most jurisdictions, full time participation rates decline from age 15 years through to age 18 years and remain stable from age 18 years through to age 24 years.

Table B.3 Full time participation in education, training or work, 2004 (per cent)^{a, b}

Age (years)	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
15	96.3 ±3.0	98.9 ±1.2	97.0 ±3.3	96.2 ±4.2	96.7 ±5.0	98.6 ±2.6	97.3 ±3.7	82.8 ±9.4	97.1 ±1.0
16	93.6 ±2.2	97.0 ±1.9	92.2 ±1.2	91.5 ±6.8	93.4 ±6.3	95.8 ±4.5	98.0 ±4.1	88.3 ±34.2	94.1 ±2.1
17	91.2 ±3.9	92.1 ±4.2	80.1 ±5.9	83.2 ±8.5	83.2 ±8.2	93.6 ±5.7	86.4 ±12.1	63.6 ±41.8	87.6 ±2.3
18	70.5 ±7.4	80.1 ±5.7	72.9 ±9.0	80.6 ±4.9	64.3 ±10.9	74.6 ±12.7	77.5 ±13.7	77.6 ±17.9	74.2 ±4.2
19	80.6 ±5.4	78.8 ±5.5	77.0 ±6.4	76.1 ±9.4	64.4 ±8.2	62.3 ±16.0	77.2 ±15.6	53.5 ±33.6	77.1 ±2.5
20	82.2 ±7.9	81.2 ±4.9	75.0 ±5.9	76.9 ±7.7	76.9 ±6.0	81.7 ±10.1	83.1 ±11.9	74.1 ±28.6	79.5 ±2.5
21	81.2 ±7.4	82.2 ±5.7	76.1 ±7.7	70.6 ±10.6	70.0 ±8.1	75.7 ±13.9	77.6 ±12.1	100.0 ..	78.5 ±3.0
22	75.7 ±6.0	80.8 ±5.4	79.2 ±5.8	78.2 ±8.0	67.4 ±11.0	74.9 ±14.2	85.1 ±12.6	88.4 ±45.7	77.7 ±3.1
23	76.2 ±5.6	77.7 ±7.1	75.6 ±7.8	79.7 ±7.4	67.7 ±17.1	70.4 ±14.9	93.9 ±2.5	47.3 ±29.2	76.3 ±3.7
24	75.5 ±7.1	79.3 ±5.2	74.0 ±8.9	75.0 ±8.8	69.8 ±10.6	58.6 ±35.7	75.7 ±17.5	69.3 ±35.1	75.2 ±3.9
15–19	86.4 ±2.4	89.2 ±2.1	83.6 ±3.3	85.4 ±3.0	80.0 ±3.9	86.2 ±3.4	87.5 ±5.8	70.7 ±28.6	85.9 ±1.3
20–24	78.2 ±2.9	80.3 ±2.7	76.0 ±3.4	76.1 ±4.0	70.6 ±5.0	72.2 ±10.1	82.9 ±7.0	75.9 ±31.8	77.5 ±1.5
15–24	82.3 ±2.3	84.6 ±1.8	79.8 ±2.5	80.8 ±2.4	75.3 ±3.4	79.7 ±5.0	85.0 ±4.7	73.5 ±22.3	81.7 ±1.3

^a 95 per cent confidence interval refers to the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b Full time participation is defined as participation in full time education or training or full time work, or a combination of both part time education or training and part time work. .. Not applicable.

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

School leaver destinations

Approximately 291 600 people aged 15–24 years who attended school in 2003 were not attending school in May 2004. Of these students, 88 300, or 30.3 per cent were early school leavers. Males were more likely to be early school leavers, making up 61.6 per cent of the total. Higher education institutions attracted 81 000 school leavers in 2004, or 27.8 per cent of all school leavers. Institutes of TAFE attracted

67 300 school leavers (23.1 per cent). While 64.1 per cent of year 12 leavers went on to post-school education and training, only 33.4 per cent of early school leavers undertook any further study. Of the early school leavers, 20.1 per cent of females went on to further education compared to 41.5 per cent of males (table B.4).

Table B.4 School leaver destination (15–24 year olds), 2004^{a, b}

Type of institution attended in May 2004	Early school leavers ^c			Year 12 leavers			All school leavers			
	Unit	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Enrolled										
Higher education ^d	%	np	np	np	35.0	42.5	38.9	22.9	33.1	27.8
TAFE institutes	%	35.1	8.3	24.9	23.3	21.3	22.3	27.5	18.2	23.1
Other study ^{e, f}	%	5.1	8.0	6.2	2.6	3.3	3.0	3.4	4.5	3.9
Total enrolled	%	41.5	20.1	33.4	60.7	67.2	64.1	53.9	55.7	54.8
Not enrolled	%	58.5	79.9	66.6	39.3	32.8	35.9	46.1	44.3	45.2
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enrolled										
Higher education ^d	'000	np	np	np	34.2	44.8	79.0	34.9	46.1	81.0
TAFE institutes	'000	19.1	2.8	22.0	22.8	22.5	45.3	41.9	25.3	67.3
Other study ^{e, f}	'000	2.8	2.7	5.5	2.5	3.5	6.0	5.2	6.2	11.4
Total enrolled	'000	22.6	6.8	29.5	59.4	70.8	130.2	82.1	77.6	159.7
Not enrolled	'000	31.8	27.0	58.8	38.4	34.6	73.0	70.3	61.6	131.9
Total ('000)	'000	54.4	33.8	88.3	97.8	105.4	203.2	152.4	139.2	291.6

^a Data for people who attended school in 2003 and were not attending school in May 2004. ^b Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^c Those who left school earlier than year 12. ^d The estimates for male, female and total early school leavers have relative standard errors of greater than 25 per cent and are considered to be too unreliable for general use. ^e Includes business colleges, industry skills centres and other educational institutions. ^f All estimates in this row (apart from all male and total all school leavers) have relative standard errors of 25–50 per cent and need to be used with caution. **np** Not published.

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

Education enrolment experience

Nationally, 2.6 million people aged 15–64 years applied to enrol in an educational institution in 2004. Of the people who applied to enrol, 2.4 million (91.8 per cent) were studying in 2004, while 5.4 per cent deferred study and 2.8 per cent were unable to gain placement (table B.5).

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

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>2002</i>	<i>2003</i>	<i>2004</i>
Applied to enrol						
Studying in May	%	89.3	90.5	91.8	91.1	91.8
Gained placement but deferred study	%	7.3	6.4	5.1	5.9	5.4
Unable to gain placement ^a	%					
TAFE	%	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.3
Other ^b	%	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4
Higher education	%	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
Total unable to gain placement		3.4	3.1	3.0	3.1	2.8
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total applied to enrol	'000	2 527.8	2 552.9	2 603.2	2 674.1	2 642.8
Did not apply to enrol	'000	10 124.9	10 235.4	10 323.6	10 401.0	10 530.2
Total^c	'000	12 652.7	12 788.3	12 926.8	13 075.1	13 173.0

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

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

Educational attainment

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

There were 6.7 million people aged 15–64 years who had a non-school qualification in 2004. Of this group, 37.1 per cent had a postgraduate degree, graduate diploma/graduate certificate or bachelor degree as their highest non-school qualification. Of the 6.5 million people in this age group without non-school qualifications, 34.2 per cent had completed the highest level of secondary school (ABS 2004).

There were 5.5 million employed people who had a non-school qualification in 2004, representing 58.1 per cent of employed people aged 15–64 years (ABS 2004a). Those people whose level of highest educational attainment is a bachelor degree or above were more likely to be employed (84.5 per cent), while people who did not complete secondary school were the least likely (57.1 per cent) (table B.6).

Table B.6 Level of highest educational attainment of people aged 15–64 years, by labour force status, May 2004^{a, b}

<i>Labour force status</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Bachelor degree or higher</i>	<i>Advanced diploma/ diploma</i>	<i>Certificate III or IV</i>	<i>Certificate I, II or NFD</i>	<i>Year 12</i>	<i>Year 11 or below</i>	<i>Total^c</i>
Employed	%	84.5	79.9	83.3	59.9	72.3	57.1	71.3
Unemployed	%	2.6	2.8	3.1	8.7	5.0	5.4	4.2
Not in labour force	%	12.9	17.3	13.6	31.4	22.7	37.5	24.5
Total^d	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All people	'000	2 487.8	1 027.8	2 038.1	146.4	2 636.9	4 719.7	13 173.0

NFD = not further defined. ^a Due to the way in which Level of highest educational attainment is derived, many certificate I and II qualifications are included indistinguishably under either Year 12 or Year 11 or below. ^b The use of 'highest qualification' attained underestimates the proportion of the population who have achieved a TAFE or VET qualification and should not be confused with measures of the proportion of the population with a VET qualification, either as their most recent qualification, or who have achieved a VET qualification in addition to a school or higher education qualification. ^c Includes people who never attended school and people whose level of highest educational attainment could not be determined. ^d Totals may not add as a result of rounding.

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

People employed as professionals were most likely to have completed a bachelor or higher degree as their level of highest educational attainment in 2004 (68.3 per cent), while the level of highest educational attainment for the majority of tradespeople and related workers was a certificate III or IV (54.4 per cent). People employed as clerical, sales and service workers, intermediate production and transport workers, elementary clerical, sales and service workers, and labourers and related workers were most likely to have year 12 or below as their highest level of educational attainment (table B.7).

Table B.7 Level of highest educational attainment of employed people aged 15–64 years, by occupation, May 2004^{a, b}

<i>Occupation in current job</i>	<i>Bachelor degree or higher</i>	<i>Advanced diploma/ diploma</i>	<i>Certificate III or IV</i>	<i>Certificate I, II or NFD</i>	<i>Year 12</i>	<i>Year 11 or below</i>	<i>Total^c</i>	<i>Total</i>
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Managers and administrators	32.0	11.7	16.9	0.5	16.3	21.7	100.0	650.8
Professionals	68.3	12.7	5.2	0.2	8.5	4.5	100.0	1830.1
Associate professionals	20.8	14.0	20.4	0.6	20.4	22.7	100.0	1145.0
Tradespeople and related workers	3.1	4.2	54.4	1.0	12.7	23.6	100.0	1207.1
Advanced clerical, sales and service workers	14.0	10.9	9.9	1.1	28.5	34.7	100.0	377.2
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	11.5	9.9	14.8	1.3	31.2	30.5	100.0	1599.6
Intermediate production and transport workers	4.3	3.2	18.0	1.5	18.3	53.4	100.0	783.4
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers	6.8	5.1	8.6	1.1	33.6	44.3	100.0	937.0
Labourers and related workers	3.9	3.6	12.4	1.7	22.3	55.1	100.0	861.5
All occupations	22.4	8.7	18.1	0.9	20.3	28.7	100.0	9391.7

NFD = not further defined. ^a Due to the way in which level of highest educational attainment is derived, many certificate I and II qualifications are included indistinguishably under either year 12 or year 11 or below. ^b The use of 'highest qualification' underestimates the proportion of the population who have achieved a TAFE or VET qualification and should not be confused with measures of the proportion of the population with a VET qualification, with a VET qualification as their most recent qualification or who have achieved a VET qualification in addition to a school or higher education qualification. ^c Includes people who never attended school and people whose level of highest educational attainment could not be determined, therefore, the sum of the row percentages will not add to 100.

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

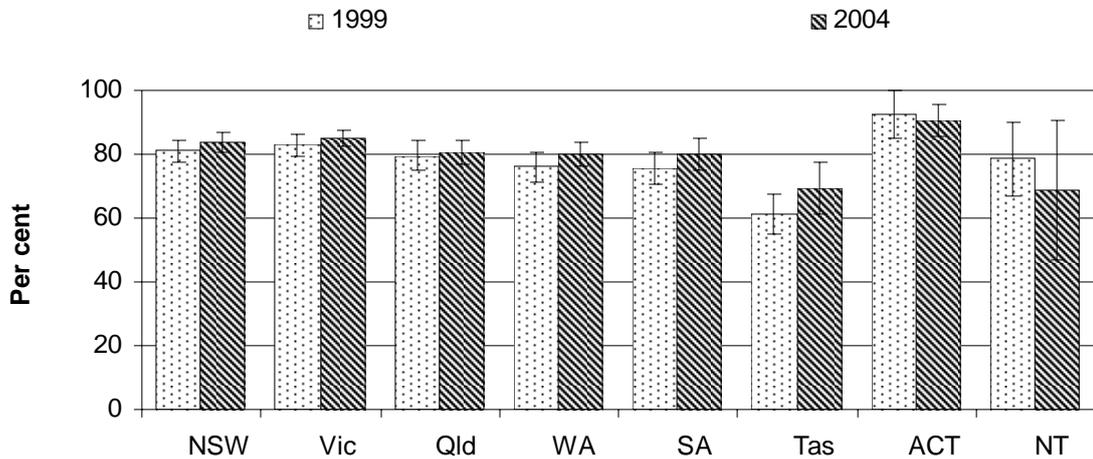
Supplementary attainment data for students are provided for this Report from the ABS survey of Education and Work. These data provide information on:

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

Nationally, the proportion of 20–24 year olds who have completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above increased from 80.1 per cent in 1999 to 82.4 per cent in 2004. Over this period, the proportion of males who gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above increased by 2.8 percentage points while the proportion of females who gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above increased by 1.7 percentage points (ABS unpublished).

The proportion of 20–24 year olds who have completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above varied across jurisdictions (figure B.5).

Figure B.5 **Proportion of 20–24 year olds who completed year 12 or equivalent or gained a qualification at AQF level 2 or above^{a, b}**



	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT
1999	81.1	82.9	79.6	76.0	75.7	61.2	92.4	78.5
	±3.5	±3.6	±4.5	±4.5	±5.0	±6.0	±7.3	±11.7
2004	83.6	85.2	80.5	80.0	80.0	69.6	90.6	68.9
	±3.0	±2.6	±3.6	±4.0	±4.8	±8.1	±4.9	±22.0

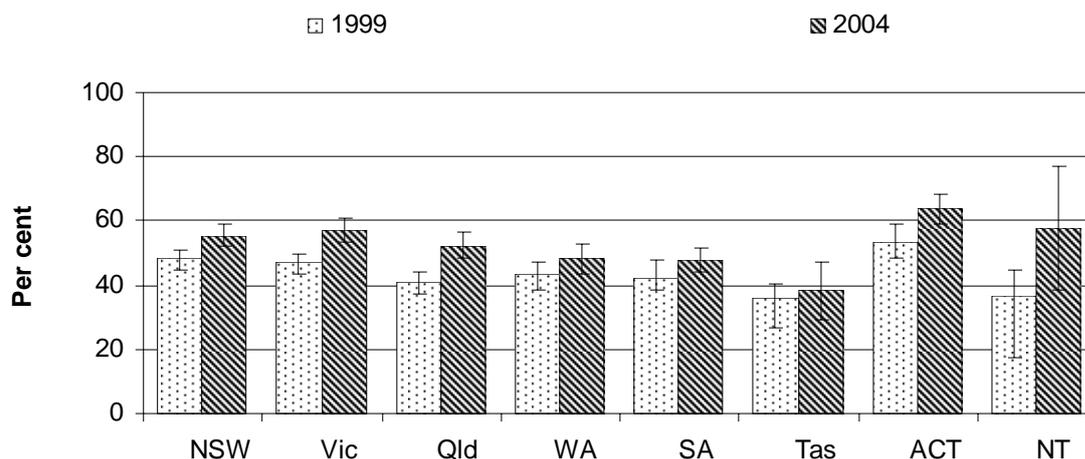
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b National data are reported in the text because they are not entirely comparable with the State and Territory data in both the years presented above.

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

Nationally, the proportion of 25–29 year olds who have gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above increased from 45.5 per cent in 1999 to 55.5 per cent in 2004. The proportion of males aged 25–29 who gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above increased by 4.2 percentage points (from 51.3 per cent to 55.5 per cent), while the corresponding proportion of females increased by 15.7 percentage points (from 39.7 per cent to 55.4 per cent) over the 5 year period (ABS unpublished).

The proportion of 25–29 year olds who have gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above varied across jurisdictions (figure B.6).

Figure B.6 **Proportion of 25–29 year olds who gained a post-secondary qualification at AQF level 3 or above^{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>
1999	48.4	46.9	41.1	43.6	42.2	35.8	53.2	36.7
	±2.7	±2.8	±3.3	±3.5	±5.7	±4.7	±5.8	±8.3
2004	55.5	56.9	52.3	48.3	47.9	38.2	63.9	57.6
	±3.5	±3.7	±4.0	±4.8	±3.6	±9.1	±4.7	±19.4

^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b National data are reported in the text because they are not entirely comparable with the State and Territory data in both the years presented above.

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

Efficiency

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

Comparing unit costs across jurisdictions

Comparing the unit costs of providing a particular service across jurisdictions can help to identify whether states or territories have scope to improve their efficiency. Special characteristics within jurisdictions, however, mean it would be difficult for all jurisdictions to attain the same level of unit costs while achieving similar outcomes in the government school education or VET areas, respectively.

Nationally, government expenditure on government primary school education was \$8515 per full time equivalent primary school student and on government secondary school education was \$11 053 per full time equivalent secondary school student

(table B.8). Government expenditure on VET was \$14.09 per adjusted annual curriculum hour (table B.9).

The greater jurisdictional variation in the unit costs of VET compared with those in schools raises questions about the likely causes. Further analysis would be necessary to identify, for example, whether the effects of scale or dispersion are greater for VET than for schools, or whether the quality of the services or the efficiency of service provision differs more. Notwithstanding this, school education unit costs are not comparable to those of VET, due to the differing bases upon which they are calculated, and the differences between the two education sectors.

Table B.8 School education recurrent unit costs, 2003-04^{a, b, c, d}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Government primary schools										
In-school cost per FTE student	\$	8 860	7 809	8 350	8 713	8 630	8 338	9 758	11 372	8 515
Difference from national average	%	4.1	-8.3	-1.9	2.3	1.4	-2.1	14.6	33.6	–
Government secondary schools										
In-school cost per FTE student	\$	11 518	10 442	10 441	11 692	10 972	10 365	12 458	15 628	11 053
Difference from national average	%	4.2	-5.5	-5.5	5.8	-0.7	-6.2	12.7	41.4	–

FTE = full time equivalent. ^a Based on accrual data. ^b A notional user cost of capital based on 8 per cent of total written down value of capital assets as at 30 June 2004 is applied to all jurisdictions. ^c Schools data include payroll tax estimates for WA and the ACT to achieve greater comparability across jurisdictions. ^d Schools data are total recurrent government expenditure on government schools divided by average FTE student population in 2003 and 2004. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: table 3A.8.

Table B.9 VET institution recurrent unit costs, 2004^{a, b, c}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
VET										
Cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour	\$	14.03	12.14	15.25	15.68	15.59	13.15	15.91	22.70	14.09
Difference from national average	%	-0.44	-13.82	8.23	11.29	10.63	-6.66	12.95	61.15	–

^a Based on accrual data. ^b VET data include payroll tax estimates for the ACT to achieve greater comparability across jurisdictions. ACT payroll tax estimates are excluded from the Australian total. ^c VET data are based on the 2004 calendar year. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: table 4A.13.

References

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3 School education

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

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

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

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

This year, the chapter has been enhanced by including nationally comparable learning outcomes data for:

- year 6 primary science literacy performance
- year 7 reading, writing and numeracy performance
- year 3, 5 and 7 reading, writing and numeracy performance by geolocation
- reading literacy, mathematical literacy, scientific literacy and problem solving for 15 year olds.

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

jurisdictions' comments in section 3.5, definitions of key terms and indicators in section 3.6, a list of supporting tables in section 3.7 and a list of references in section 3.8. Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 3A.3 is table 3 in the attachment). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report.

3.1 Profile of school education

Service overview

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

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

- its major activity is the provision of full time day primary, secondary or special school education or primary or secondary distance education
- it is headed by a principal (or equivalent) responsible for its internal operation
- it is possible for students to enrol and be active in a course of study for a minimum of four continuous weeks (excluding breaks for school vacations) (ABS 2005).

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

Roles and responsibilities

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

The Australian Government funds government and non-government schools through specific purpose payments provided directly to State and Territory governments and other payments that are made directly to school communities, students, and other organisations to support schooling. The Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) — comprising Australian, State and Territory, and New Zealand education ministers — is the principal forum for developing national priorities and strategies for schooling.

Funding

Australian, State and Territory government recurrent expenditure on school education was \$28.6 billion in 2003-04 (table 3.1). Expenditure on government schools was \$22.6 billion, or 79.0 per cent of the total. Government schools account for most of the expenditure by State and Territory governments. These governments also contribute to the funding of non-government schools and provide services used by both government and non-government schools. More information, including Australian Government spending on Indigenous specific programs, can be found in tables 3A.6 and 3A.7.

Nationally, State and Territory governments provided 91.1 per cent of total government recurrent expenditure on government schools in 2003-04, and the Australian Government provided 8.9 per cent. In contrast, government expenditure on non-government schools in that year was mainly provided by the Australian Government (72.2 per cent), with State and Territory governments providing 27.8 per cent (table 3.1).

Expenditure data presented from the 2004 Report onward are not directly comparable with data presented in earlier reports for three reasons. First, data presented in the 2003 and earlier reports included recurrent grants made by the Australian Government for capital expenditure. Second, they excluded notional user cost of capital (UCC) for State and Territory governments. Third, data presented in the 2001 and earlier reports were recorded using cash-based accounting principles.

These changes mean that the reported expenditure by the Australian Government in 2001-02 to 2003-04 on both government schools and all schools will be lower than in 2000-01 and earlier years, and expenditure by State and Territory governments on government schools and all schools will be higher. Australian Government recurrent grants for capital contribute to the assets base on which the State and Territory depreciation and notional UCC charge are calculated.

Table 3.1 **Government recurrent expenditure on school education, 2003-04 (\$ million)^{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>
Government schools									
Australian States and territories	670	458	398	202	151	55	30	51	2 015
Total	7 733	5 012	4 283	2 412	1 725	613	426	428	22 632
Non-government schools									
Australian States and territories	1 443	1 135	785	426	327	87	90	48	4 339
Total	2 050	1 434	1 152	627	431	119	124	75	6 012
All schools									
Australian States and territories	2 113	1 593	1 183	628	477	142	120	99	6 354
Total	9 783	6 446	5 434	3 039	2 156	733	550	503	28 644

^a See notes to table 3A.9 for definitions and other data caveats. Data presented here are expenditure, including notional UCC and excluding capital grants (which equates to recurrent expenditure). ^b Based on accrual accounting. ^c Totals may not add due to rounding. ^d Depreciation and user cost of capital expenses relating to government schools have been attributed to States/Territories based on ownership of the underlying assets. A portion of these assets will have been acquired through Australian Government capital contributions, with States and Territories responsible for maintenance costs. Australian Government expenditure data in this table include only Australian Government specific purpose payments. Other Australian Government funding for schools and students is not included.

Source: MCEETYA (2005e, unpublished); Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) (unpublished); Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.9.

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

Size and scope

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

Structure

The structure of school education varies across states and territories. These differences can influence the interpretation of data presented under common classifications. Formal schooling consists of six to seven years of primary school education followed by five to six years of secondary school education, depending

on the State or Territory (figure 3.1). All states and territories divide school education into compulsory and non-compulsory components based on age, not grade. School education is compulsory in all states and territories for people between 6 and 15 years of age (16 years of age in SA and Tasmania).

Figure 3.1 Structure of primary and secondary schooling, 2004

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

^a In some places in the NT, secondary schooling begins at year 7. ^b Pre-year 1 is not included in the pattern of study in Queensland. In addition to preschool in 2003 and 2004, Queensland conducted a trial of preparatory year of schooling for pre-year 1 at selected schools. ^c SA has an intake for each term. ^d The NT has an intake for terms 1–3 of its 4 terms.

Source: Adapted from MCEETYA (unpublished).

Schools

At the beginning of August 2004, there were 9615 schools in Australia. The majority of schools were government owned and managed (72.2 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. Nationally, 62.5 per cent of all secondary schools enrolled over 600 students (table 3A.15). A breakdown of primary and secondary schools by size for government, non-government and all schools is reported in tables 3A.13–15 respectively.

Student body

There were 3.3 million full time equivalent (FTE) student enrolments in primary and secondary schools in August 2004 (see section 3.6 for a definition of FTE student). Nationally, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in all schools was greater in primary schools (57.8 per cent) than in secondary schools (42.2 per cent) (table 3.3).

Differences in schooling structures influence enrolment patterns. Primary school education in Queensland, WA, SA and the NT, for example, includes year 7 whereas all other jurisdictions include year 7 in secondary school (figure 3.1). As a result, the proportion of students enrolled in primary school education would be expected to be higher in the above mentioned jurisdictions than in others (table 3.3).

Nationally, the proportion of FTE students enrolled in government schools was 67.6 per cent. The proportion of FTE students in all schools who were female was 49.1 per cent. A greater proportion of FTE students enrolled in primary schools was enrolled in government schools (61.0 per cent) than in non-government schools (51.1 per cent) (table 3.3).

Table 3.2 Summary of school characteristics, August 2004

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust
Government schools (no.)									
Primary	1 652	1 221	969	511	438	142	67	82	5 082
Secondary	368	262	183	98	74	39	22	11	1 057
Combined ^{a, b}	66	55	85	na	na	na	na	52	459
Special schools ^{b, c}	106	80	47	na	na	na	na	5	340
Combined and special schools ^b	166	97	33	7
Total	2 192	1 618	1 284	775	609	214	96	150	6 938
Non-government schools (no.)									
Primary	514	437	244	152	114	29	26	17	1 533
Secondary	143	101	82	37	20	7	5	7	402
Combined ^{a, b}	216	135	120	na	na	na	na	11	683
Special schools ^{b, c}	32	17	3	na	na	na	na	–	59
Combined and special schools ^b	100	66	30	12
Total	905	690	449	289	200	66	43	35	2 677
All schools (no.)									
Primary	2 166	1 658	1 213	663	552	171	93	99	6 615
Secondary	511	363	265	135	94	46	27	18	1 459
Combined ^{a, b}	282	190	205	na	na	na	na	63	1 142
Special schools ^{b, c}	138	97	50	na	na	na	na	5	399
Combined and special schools ^b	266	163	63	19
Total	3 097	2 308	1 733	1 064	809	280	139	185	9 615
Proportion of schools that are government schools (%)									
Primary	76.3	73.6	79.9	77.1	79.3	83.0	72.0	82.8	76.8
Secondary	72.0	72.2	69.1	72.6	78.7	84.8	81.5	61.1	72.4
Combined ^{a, b}	23.4	28.9	41.5	na	na	na	na	82.5	40.2
Special schools ^{b, c}	76.8	82.5	94.0	na	na	na	na	100.0	85.2
Combined and special schools ^b	62.4	59.5	52.4	36.8
All schools	70.8	70.1	74.1	72.8	75.3	76.4	69.1	81.1	72.2
Proportion of primary schools (%)									
Government	75.4	75.5	75.5	65.9	71.9	66.4	69.8	54.7	73.2
Non-government	56.8	63.3	54.3	52.6	57.0	43.9	60.5	48.6	57.3
All schools	69.9	71.8	70.0	62.3	68.2	61.1	66.9	53.5	68.8

^a Combined primary and secondary schools. ^b Data for combined and special schools in WA, SA, Tasmania and the ACT are not published separately due to the small number of schools in those categories. Australia totals are correct for both the combined and special school categories. ^c Special schools provide special instruction for physically and/or mentally disabled or impaired students, or those with social problems. Students must exhibit one or more of the following characteristics before enrolment is allowed: mental or physical disability or impairment, slow learning ability, social or emotional problems, and in custody, on remand or in hospital. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable. **–** Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2005); tables 3A.1, 3A.2 and 3A.3.

Table 3.3 **FTE student enrolments, August 2004^{a, b}**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Total FTE student enrolments at level of education ('000)									
Primary schools	624.1	455.8	386.5	206.4	157.5	46.4	31.5	24.9	1 933.2
Secondary schools	484.5	368.5	254.2	130.6	94.5	37.4	28.4	12.5	1 410.6
All schools	1 108.6	824.3	640.7	337.0	252.0	83.8	59.9	37.5	3 343.9
Proportion of FTE students who were enrolled in government schools (%)									
Primary schools	70.5	69.4	74.4	72.8	69.1	77.4	63.0	79.4	71.3
Secondary schools	63.0	60.1	64.0	61.4	63.8	70.3	56.5	71.4	62.5
All schools	67.2	65.3	70.3	68.3	67.1	74.2	59.9	76.8	67.6
Proportion of FTE students who were female (all schools) (%)									
Primary schools	48.7	48.5	48.8	48.2	48.7	48.6	48.8	48.1	48.6
Secondary schools	49.6	49.8	49.7	49.6	49.9	50.7	49.0	49.0	49.7
All schools	49.1	49.1	49.2	48.7	49.2	49.5	48.9	48.4	49.1
Proportion of FTE students who were enrolled in primary education (%)									
Government schools	59.1	58.8	63.9	65.2	64.3	57.7	55.3	68.9	61.0
Non-government schools	50.6	48.7	51.9	52.7	58.7	48.6	48.6	58.8	51.1
All schools	56.3	55.3	60.3	61.3	62.5	55.4	52.6	66.5	57.8

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

Source: ABS (2005, Schools Australia unpublished); tables 3A.1–3A.4.

Total full time student enrolments in schools in Australia were relatively stable over the five years to 2004, increasing by approximately 0.7 per cent each year between August 2000 and August 2004 (table 3A.17).

The proportion of full time students enrolled in non-government schools increased between 2000 and 2004 in all states and territories. Total non-government school enrolments expanded by an average of 2.1 per cent per year, while full time government school enrolments remained stable (table 3A.17). The expansion of full time enrolments in non-government schools, however, was from a lower base than that for government schools. In absolute terms, full time students in government schools increased from 2 248 287 in 2000 to 2 249 724 in 2004. Full time students in non-government schools increased from 999 138 in 2000 to 1 082 240 in 2004 (table 3A.16).

Part time secondary students form a significant proportion of enrolments in some jurisdictions (table 3.4). Part time courses are available to secondary students, including mature age students attending colleges and those studying years 11 or 12 or short courses (lasting five to 22 weeks). The proportion of secondary school students who were enrolled part time in 2004 varied considerably across jurisdictions, partly because jurisdictions' education authorities have different policy and organisational arrangements for part time study, as well as different

definitions of what constitutes part time study. The number of part time courses available also varied considerably across jurisdictions.

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> ^a	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Part time secondary school students in government schools (no.) ^b									
2000	3 638	2 489	3 868	4 154	7 015	3 538	7	977	25 686
2001	2 809	2 827	3 930	4 948	6 932	2 853	3	1 006	25 308
2002	2 455	3 029	4 096	4 880	7 099	2 684	10	1 052	25 305
2003	2 647	3 093	3 786	2 583	6 623	2 578	48	888	22 246
2004	2 441	3 106	3 764	2 925	6 818	2 260	25	1 043	22 382
Proportion of secondary school students in government schools who were part time students (%) ^c									
2000	1.2	1.1	2.5	4.8	10.7	12.0	–	10.9	2.9
2001	0.9	1.3	2.5	5.7	10.6	10.0	–	11.3	2.8
2002	0.8	1.4	2.6	5.6	11.0	9.6	0.1	11.7	2.8
2003	0.9	1.4	2.3	3.1	10.3	9.3	0.3	9.6	2.5
2004	0.8	1.4	2.3	3.5	10.7	8.3	0.2	10.9	2.5

^a Some 2004 student number data for Tasmania have been revised by the Tasmanian Government and these revisions may not be reflected in ABS, or other, publications. ^b Absolute number of part time secondary students (not FTE). ^c Absolute number of part time secondary students divided by absolute number of full time and part time secondary students (not FTE). – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: ABS (2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, Schools Australia (unpublished); Tasmanian Government (unpublished); table 3A.1.

Special needs groups

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

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

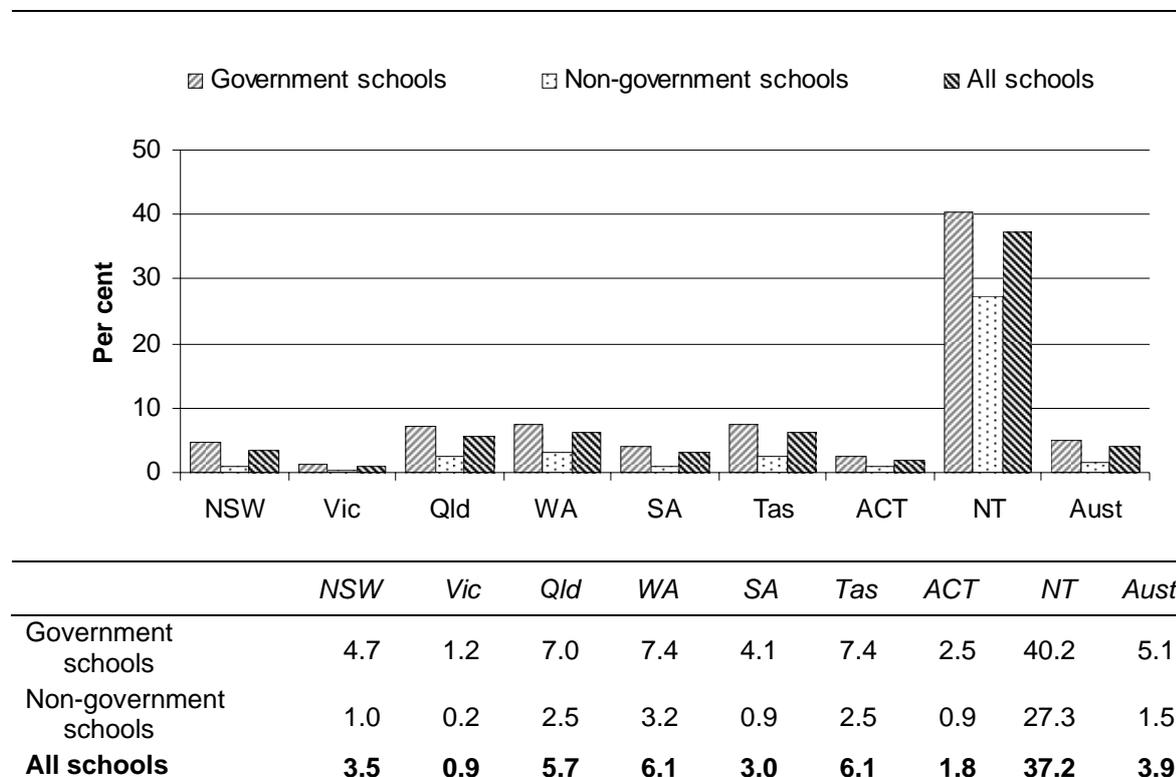
Government schools provide education for a high proportion of students from special needs groups. In 2004, 87.4 per cent of Indigenous students and 81.2 per cent of students with disabilities, for example, attended government schools (tables 3A.18 and 3A.20). This chapter reports on the proportions of Indigenous students, LBOTE students, students with disabilities and students who are geographically remote. Further information on student body mix is in tables 3A.21–23. Care needs to be taken in interpreting this information because some definitions of special needs students differ across states and territories.

Indigenous students

The proportion of full time Indigenous students in schools varies greatly across jurisdictions (figure 3.2). Table 3A.18 provides additional information on Indigenous enrolments.

In all jurisdictions, the proportion of full time Indigenous students was higher in government schools than in non-government schools. Nationally, the proportion of full time Indigenous students was 5.1 per cent for government schools and 1.5 per cent for non-government schools (figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 Indigenous students as a proportion of all students, 2004^a



^a Full time students.

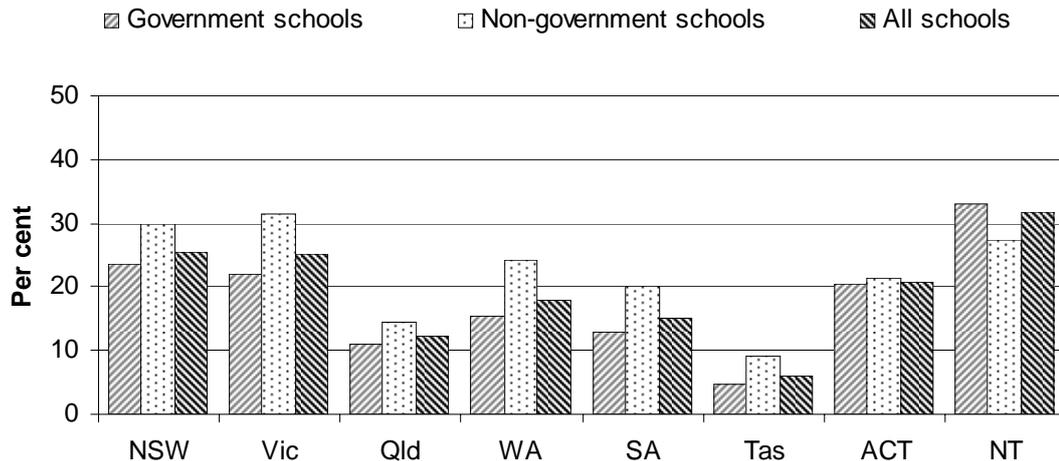
Source: ABS (2005); table 3A.18.

LBOTE students

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

Generally, non-government schools had a higher proportion of LBOTE students than government schools in 2001 (figure 3.3).

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



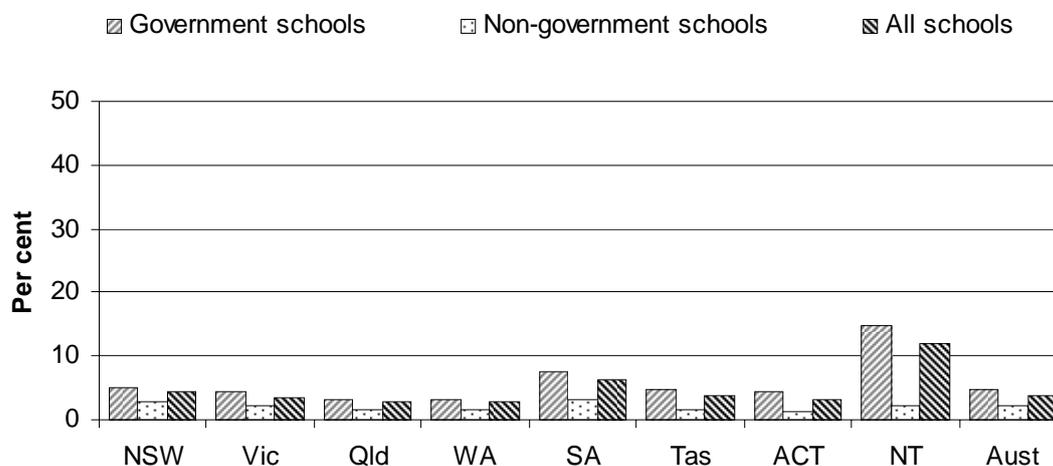
Source: DEST (unpublished) based on the ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing; table 3A.19.

Students with disabilities

Students with disabilities are educated in both mainstream and special schools. Students with disabilities are those students who satisfy the criteria for enrolment in special education services or programs provided in the State or Territory in which they are enrolled. These criteria vary across jurisdictions.

Nationally, the proportion of students with disabilities for all schools was 3.9 per cent and approximately twice as high in government schools (4.6 per cent), compared with non-government schools (2.2 per cent) in 2004 (figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 **Funded students with disabilities as a proportion of all students, 2004^{a, b, c}**



a FTE students. **b** To be an eligible student with disabilities, the student (among other things) must satisfy the criteria for enrolment in special education services or special education programs provided by the government of the State or Territory in which the student resides. Data should be used with caution as these criteria vary across jurisdictions, for example, SA data include a large number of students in the communication and language impairment category. This subset of students is not counted by other states/territories under funded students with disabilities. Other states/territories fund these students with other specific programs. **c** The 'funded' student data used by Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) refer to the FTE number of students that qualify for DEST recurrent funding. This excludes Full Fee Paying Overseas students from both the government and non-government sectors as well as a number of schools in the NT (these are funded through the Grants Commission process), and on Christmas and Cocos Islands (funded through the Department of Transport and Regional Services). The DEST funded figures also include Pre-year 1 students in part time programmes in Queensland schools.

Source: DEST (unpublished); table 3A.20.

Geographically remote students

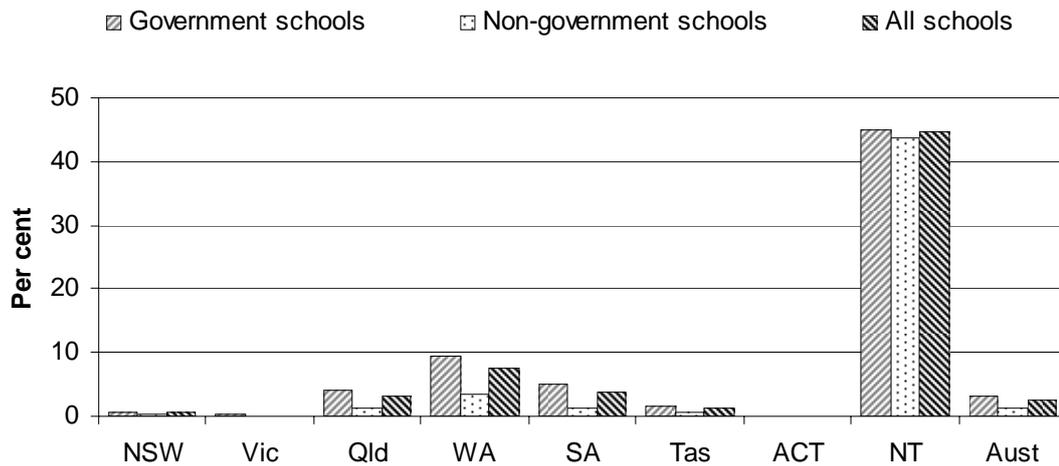
Identification of geographically remote students is based on the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones as stated in the MCEETYA agreed classification.¹ The proportion of students attending schools in remote areas varies greatly across jurisdictions (figure 3.5).

Nationally, the proportion of students enrolled in schools in remote areas was 2.4 per cent and more than twice as high in government schools (3.1 per cent), compared with non-government schools (1.2 per cent) in 2004 (figure 3.5).

¹ To investigate the possibility that these data may understate the proportion of students in remote areas as a result of relying on school location rather than students' home location, the 2001 MCEETYA data were compared with data derived from the 2001 Census. The two data sets were found to be similar, except that Tasmania had about one third more remote area students in the Census data. This result may be indicative for the 2004 data.

Table 3A.24 includes data relating to metropolitan and provincial areas, as well as remote areas (see section 3.6 for a definition of the geographic classification used).

Figure 3.5 **Students attending schools in remote zones as a proportion of all students, 2004^{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	0.7	0.2	4.0	9.4	5.1	1.6	..	44.9	3.1
Non-government schools	0.3	–	1.3	3.6	1.4	0.6	..	43.8	1.2
All schools	0.6	0.1	3.2	7.6	3.9	1.3	..	44.7	2.4

^a Remote includes very remote areas. ^b The ACT has no remote areas. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: DEST (unpublished); table 3A.24.

3.2 Framework of performance indicators

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

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

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

Preamble

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

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

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

Goals

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

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

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

2. In terms of curriculum, students should have:

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

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

and the interrelationships between them;

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

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

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

3. Schooling should be socially just, so that:

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

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

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

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

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.1 (Continued)

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

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

Source: Adapted from MCEETYA (1999).

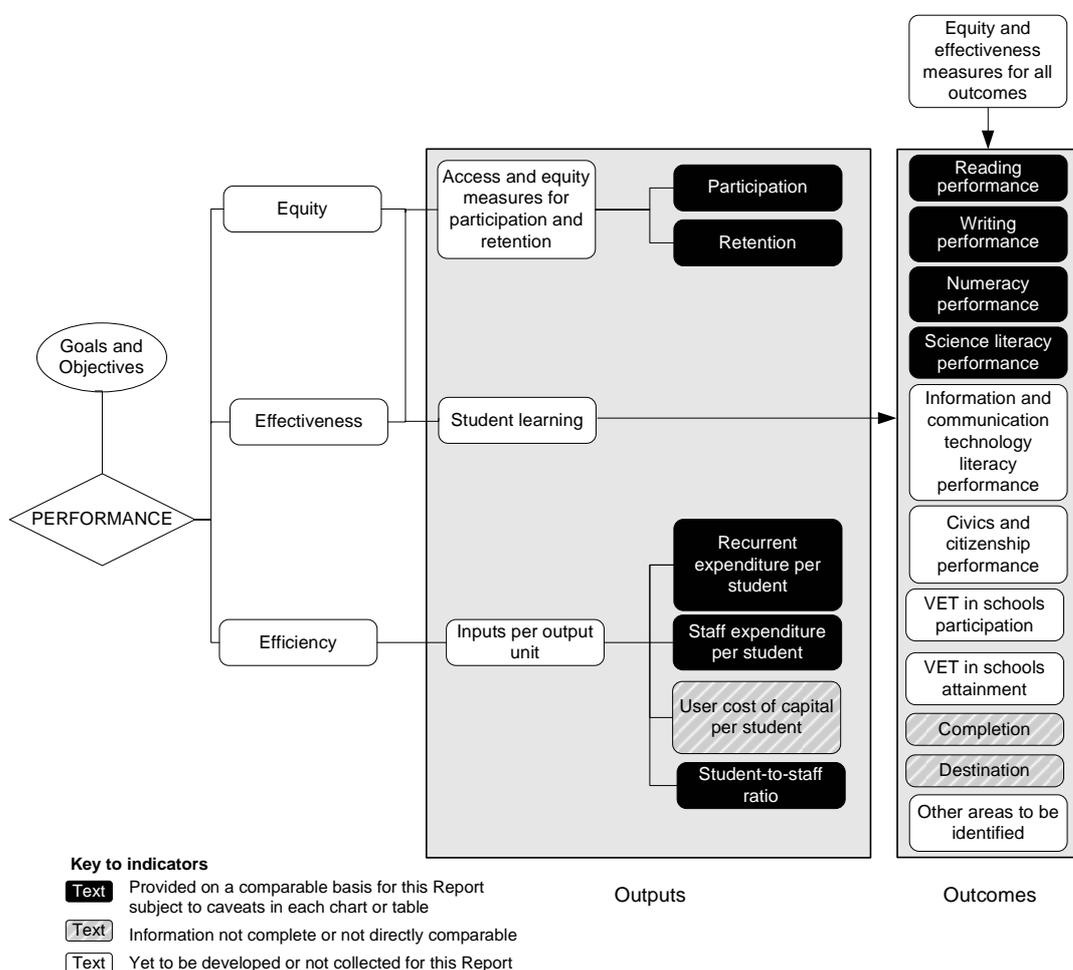
The performance of school education is reported against the indicator framework in figure 3.6. This framework is consistent with the national goals for schooling (box 3.1). The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report. For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

3.3 Key performance indicator results

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

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

Figure 3.6 Performance indicators for all schools



Outputs

Equity and effectiveness

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

Participation

‘Participation’ is an output indicator of equity-effectiveness (box 3.2).

Box 3.2 **Participation**

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

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

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

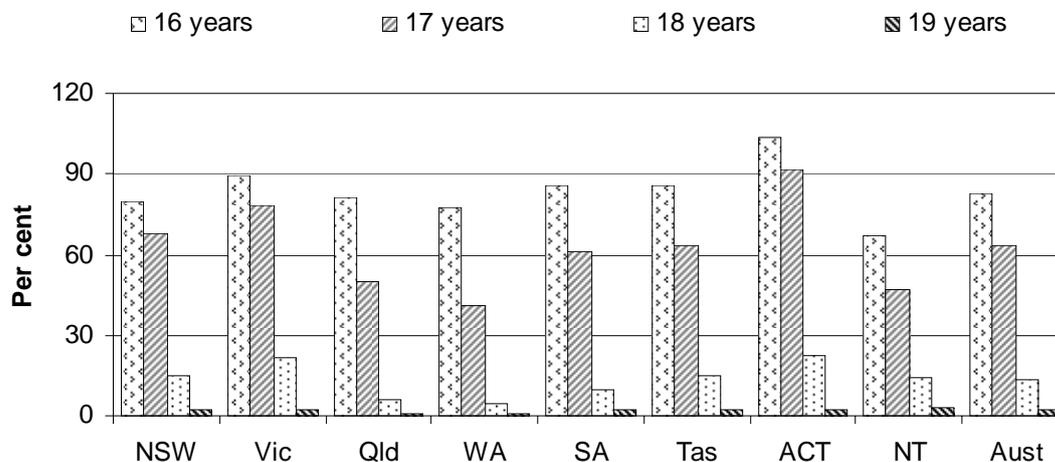
- school starting ages, year level at which secondary education commences (year 7 or year 8) and the age to which schooling is compulsory
- the extent of part time enrolment in schools (tables 3.4 and 3A.3).

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

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

Nationally, 50.5 per cent of 15–19 year olds were enrolled in schools in 2004 (table 3A.89). Participation rates varied by jurisdiction, age and gender. Participation rates for females (51.6 per cent) were 2.1 percentage points higher than those for males (49.5 per cent). Participation rates declined as students exceeded the maximum compulsory school age (figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7 Participation rate of people aged 16–19 in school education, all schools, 2004^{a, b, c}



^a Proportion of the population who were not of compulsory school age in some jurisdictions, but who were enrolled as full time students in August 2004. ^b School is compulsory for up to 16 year olds in SA and Tasmania. ^c Participation rates in the ACT exceed 100 per cent as a result of NSW residents from surrounding areas enrolling in ACT schools.

Source: ABS (2005); table 3A.89.

Retention

‘Retention’ is an output indicator of equity-effectiveness (box 3.3).

Box 3.3 Retention

‘Retention’ (apparent retention rate), to the final years of schooling, is an output-access indicator of governments’ objective to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through increased participation to higher levels of schooling.

The apparent retention rate is defined as the number of full time school students in a designated level/year of education as a percentage of their respective cohort group (which is either at the commencement of their secondary schooling — at year 7 or 8 — or at year 10). Data are reported for the proportion of:

- people commencing secondary school (at year 7 or 8) and continuing to year 10
- people commencing secondary school (at year 7 or 8) and continuing to year 12
- year 10 students continuing to year 12.

(Continued on next page)

Box 3.3 (Continued)

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

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

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

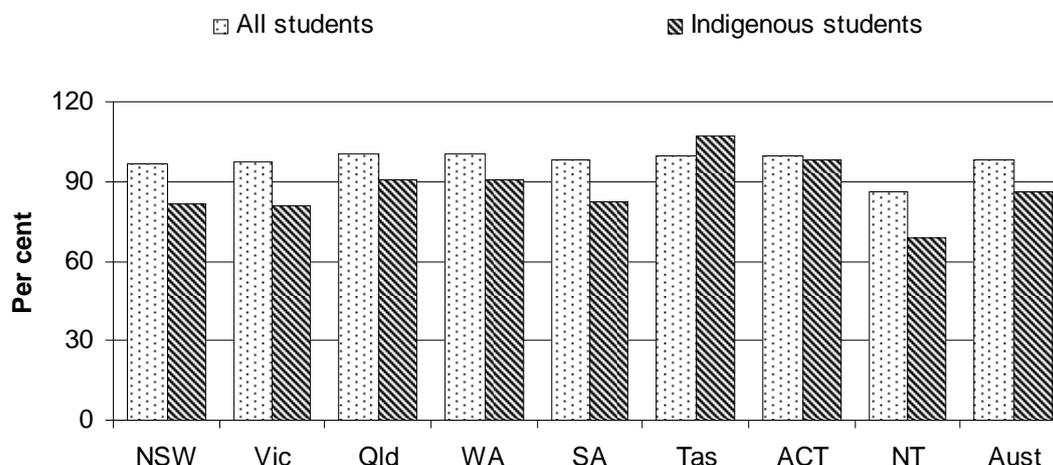
The indicator has been consistently reported over time, but does not reflect factors such as:

- students repeating a year of education or returning to education after a period of absence
- interstate movement of students
- movement between the government school sector and the non-government school sector
- the impacts of migration and full fee paying overseas students
- varying enrolment patterns in which students choose to complete their secondary schooling in TAFE institutes.

Apparent rates of retention from the commencement of secondary school at year 7 or 8 (figure 3.1 shows differences across jurisdictions) to year 10 provide one measure of the equity of outcomes for Indigenous students. Apparent retention rates for all students in most jurisdictions were 97–100 per cent in 2004 with a national proportion of 98.1 (figure 3.8). High rates are to be expected because normal year level progression means students in year 10 are generally of an age at which schooling is compulsory.

Rates for Indigenous students were considerably lower than those for all students in most jurisdictions. The national retention rate for Indigenous students was 85.8 per cent, or 12.3 percentage points lower than that for all students.

Figure 3.8 **Apparent retention rate from year 7 or 8 to year 10, full time secondary students, all schools, by Indigenous status 2004^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b Retention rates can exceed 100 per cent for a variety of reasons, including student transfers between jurisdictions and between government and non-government schools after the base year. ^c The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there are high proportions of part time students in government schools (table 3.4). ^d Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 34 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 6.9 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2005); table 3A.91.

The apparent rate of retention from year 10 to year 12 has been derived by expressing the number of full time school students enrolled in year 12 in 2004 as a proportion of the number of full time school students enrolled in year 10 in 2002.

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

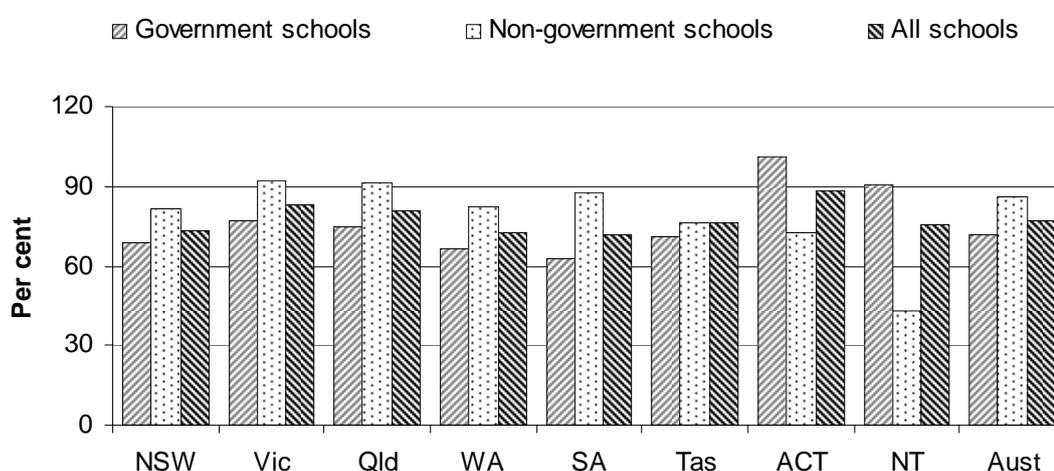
- in SA, if part time students are included in the 2004 year 12 total, then the apparent retention rate becomes 88.4 per cent (ABS 2005), compared with 71.6 per cent for full time students only (table 3A.92)
- in some jurisdictions, young people may choose to complete their post-compulsory education in the TAFE system rather than continue at school. In NSW, for example, 3807 students aged 15–19 years undertook their Higher

School Certificate or other tertiary preparation studies through TAFE institutes in 2004 (NSW Government unpublished).

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

Nationally, the apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12 for all schools was 77.1 per cent in 2004. The apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12 for government schools was 72.0 per cent in 2004. Across jurisdictions, the apparent retention rates for government schools varied (figure 3.9).

Figure 3.9 **Apparent retention rate from year 10 to year 12, full time secondary students, by school type, 2004^{a, b, c, d}**



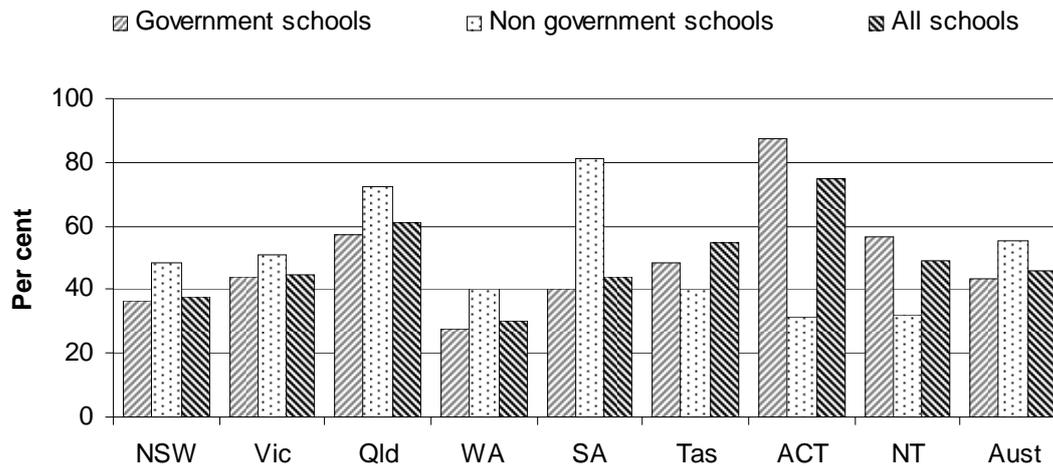
^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b Retention rates can exceed 100 per cent for a variety of reasons, including student transfers between jurisdictions and government and non-government schools after the base year. ^c The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there are high proportions of part time students in government schools (table 3.4). ^d Some student number data for Tasmania have been revised by the Tasmanian Government, resulting in changes to some apparent retention rates, and these revisions may not be reflected in ABS, or other, publications.

Source: ABS (2005); Tasmanian Government (unpublished); table 3A.92.

For all schools, apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12 for Indigenous students in 2004 varied across jurisdictions (figure 3.10). In interpreting this indicator, note that about 10–20 per cent of Indigenous students leave school before year 10 (figure 3.8) so are not included in the base year for retention from year 10 to year 12. Further, Indigenous students as a proportion of all students was 5.1 per cent in government schools compared with 1.5 per cent in non-government schools (table 3A.18). Nationally, Indigenous retention from year 10 to year 12 for all

schools in 2004 was 45.7 per cent (figure 3.10), or 31.4 percentage points lower than the rate for all students.

Figure 3.10 **Apparent retention rates from year 10 to year 12, Indigenous full time secondary students, 2004^{a, b, c, d}**

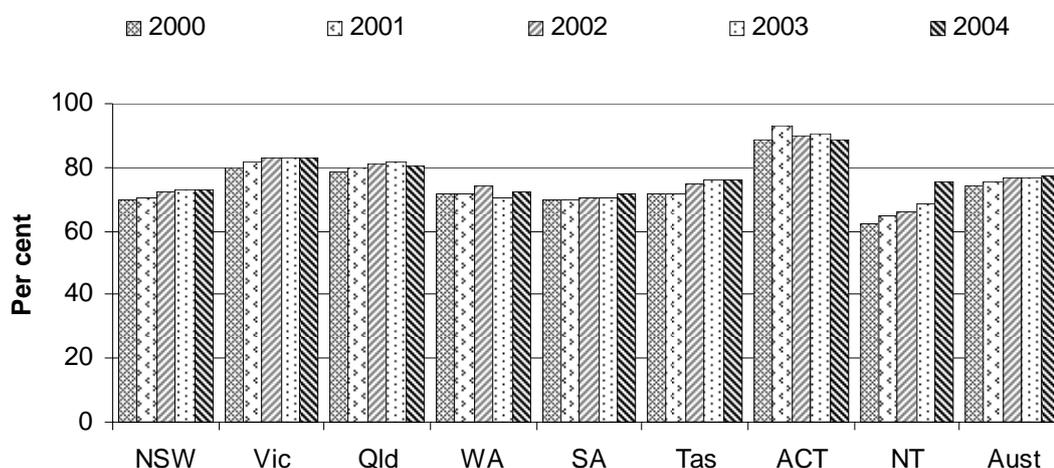


^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there are high proportions of part time students in government schools (table 3.4). ^c Some student number data for Tasmania have been revised by the Tasmanian Government, resulting in changes to some apparent retention rates, and these revisions may not be reflected in ABS, or other, publications. ^d Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 34 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 6.9 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2005); Tasmanian Government (unpublished); table 3A.92.

Between 2000 and 2004, the apparent rates of retention from year 10 to year 12 in all schools increased nationally by 2.7 percentage points (figure 3.11).

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



^a Apparent retention rates are affected by factors that vary across jurisdictions. For this reason, variations in apparent retention rates over time within jurisdictions may be more useful than comparisons across jurisdictions. ^b The exclusion of part time students from standard apparent retention rate calculations has implications for the interpretation of results for all jurisdictions, but particularly for SA, Tasmania and the NT where there are high proportions of part time students in government schools (table 3.4). ^c Some student number data for Tasmania have been revised by the Tasmanian Government, resulting in changes to some apparent retention rates, and these revisions may not be reflected in ABS, or other, publications. ^d Ungraded students are not included in the calculation of apparent retention rates. This exclusion has particular implications for the NT, where 34 per cent of Indigenous secondary students are ungraded (compared with an average of 6.9 per cent for the rest of Australia). As a result, Indigenous apparent retention rates may misrepresent the retention of students in secondary schooling in the NT.

Source: ABS (2005); Tasmanian Government (unpublished); table 3A.95.

Efficiency

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

Table 3.5 shows information on the comparability of the source expenditure data used for this chapter.

Table 3.5 Comparability of government expenditure on government schools — items included, 2003-04

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

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

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Recurrent expenditure per student

‘Recurrent expenditure per student’ is an output-efficiency indicator (box 3.4).

Box 3.4 Recurrent expenditure per student

‘Recurrent expenditure per student’ (government recurrent expenditure per student) is an output-efficiency indicator of governments’ objective to fund and/or provide education in an efficient manner.

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

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

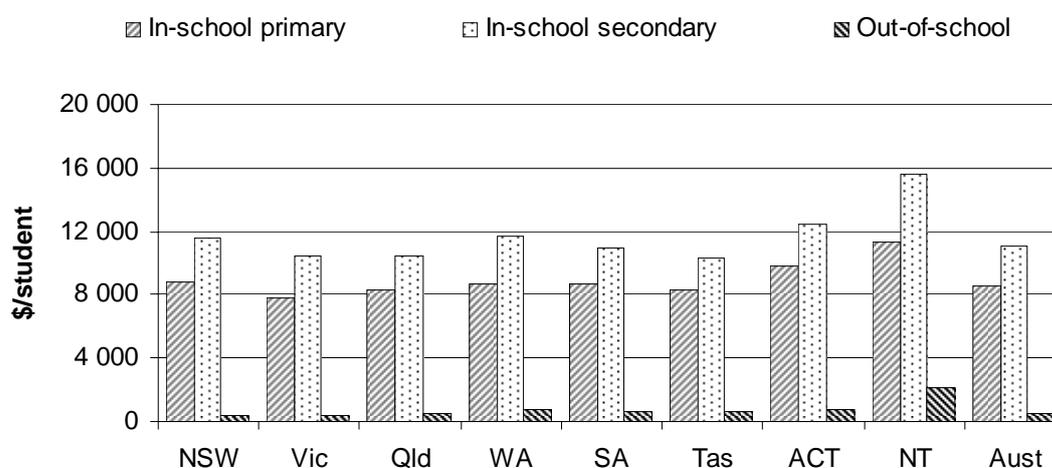
A number of factors may influence government recurrent expenditure per student. Differences in the costs of educating students can be driven by:

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

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

A proxy indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). Nationally, in-school government expenditure per FTE student in government primary schools was \$8515 in 2003-04. In-school government expenditure per FTE student in government secondary schools was \$11 053 in 2003-04. Out-of-school government expenditure per FTE student in government schools was \$500 in 2003-04 (figure 3.12).

Figure 3.12 **Government recurrent expenditure per FTE student, government schools, 2003-04^{a, b}**

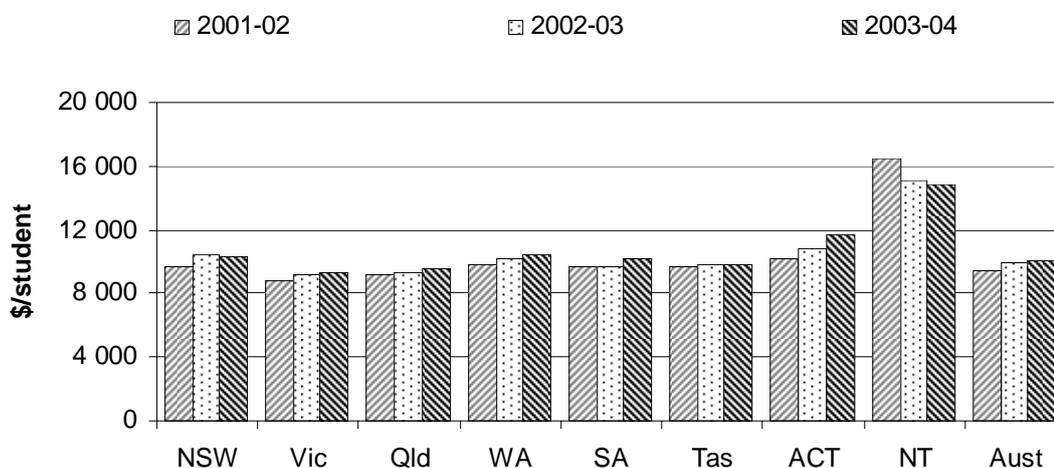


^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Payroll tax estimates have been included for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: ABS (2005); MCEETYA (2005e); table 3A.8.

Nationally, government expenditure per FTE student in government schools was \$10 003 in 2003-04. It increased (in average real terms) between 2001-02 and 2003-04 (figure 3.13) by 2.7 per cent per year (table 3A.9).

Figure 3.13 **Government real recurrent expenditure per FTE student, government schools (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c}**

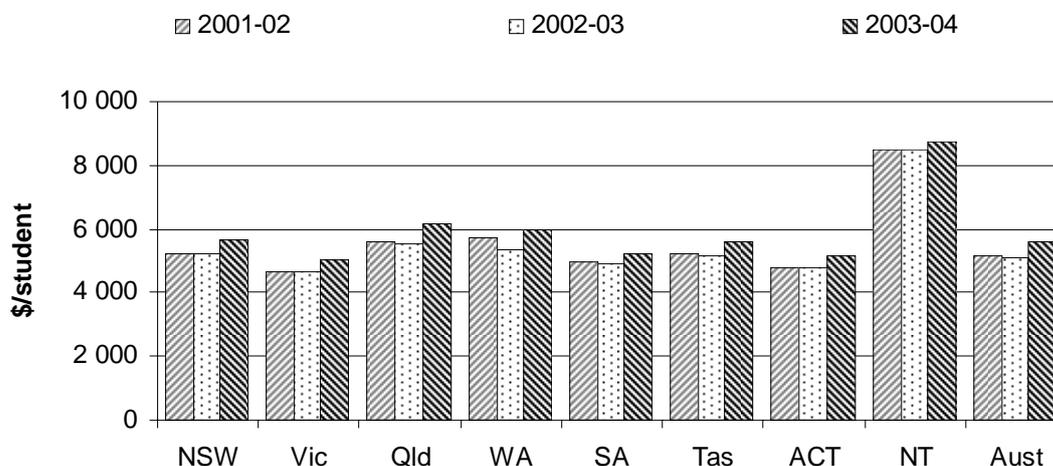


^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 have been adjusted to 2003-04 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator. ^c Payroll tax estimates have been included for WA and the ACT for comparability reasons.

Source: ABS (2005); MCEETYA (2005e); table 3A.9.

Nationally, government expenditure per FTE student in non-government schools was \$5595 in 2003-04. It increased (in average real terms) between 2001-02 and 2003-04 (figure 3.14) by 3.9 per cent per year (table 3A.9).

Figure 3.14 **Government real recurrent expenditure per FTE student, non-government schools (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b, c}**



^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 have been adjusted to 2003-04 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator. ^c The sum of Australian Government specific purpose payments for non-government schools, and State and Territory government payments to non-government schools. Data on State and Territory government payments to non-government schools are not fully comparable across jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (2005); DEST (unpublished); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 3A.9.

Tables 3A.99, 3A.102, 3A.109, 3A.114, 3A.118 and 3A.122 contain time series data on expenditure per government school student by geographic location for some jurisdictions. Tables 3A.100, 3A.103, 3A.110, 3A.115 and 3A.123 contain time series data on expenditure per government school student by socioeconomic disadvantage for some jurisdictions. These data should be interpreted with caution because different definitions of geolocation and socioeconomic disadvantage are applied across jurisdictions.

Staff expenditure per student

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

Box 3.5 Staff expenditure per student

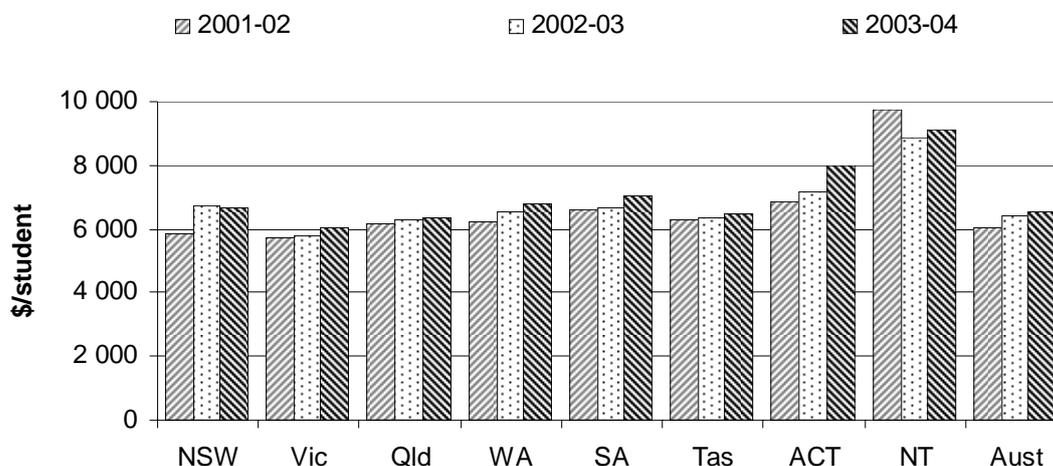
'Staff expenditure per student' (government recurrent expenditure on staff per student) is an output-efficiency indicator of governments' objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

Government recurrent expenditure on staff per student is defined as government expenditure on staff per FTE student in government schools. Expenditure on staff is the major component of spending on schools.

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

Expenditure on staff is the major component of government recurrent expenditure on government schools (\$14.8 billion), accounting for 65.3 per cent of the national total, in 2003-04. Of this expenditure, 80.7 per cent was on in-school teachers and 19.3 per cent was on other staff (table 3A.7). The average real increase in expenditure on staff between 2001-02 and 2003-04 was 3.7 per cent per year (figure 3.15).

Figure 3.15 Real government recurrent expenditure on staff per FTE student, government schools (2003-04 dollars)^{a, b}



^a See notes to tables 3A.7 and 3A.8 for definitions and data caveats. ^b Data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 have been adjusted to 2003-04 dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) price deflator.

Source: ABS (2005); MCEETYA (2005e); table 3A.8.

User cost of capital per student

‘UCC per student’ is an output-efficiency indicator (box 3.6).

Box 3.6 User cost of capital per student

‘UCC per student’ (notional UCC per student) is an output-efficiency indicator of governments’ objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

Notional UCC per student is defined as the dollars of UCC per FTE student.

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

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

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

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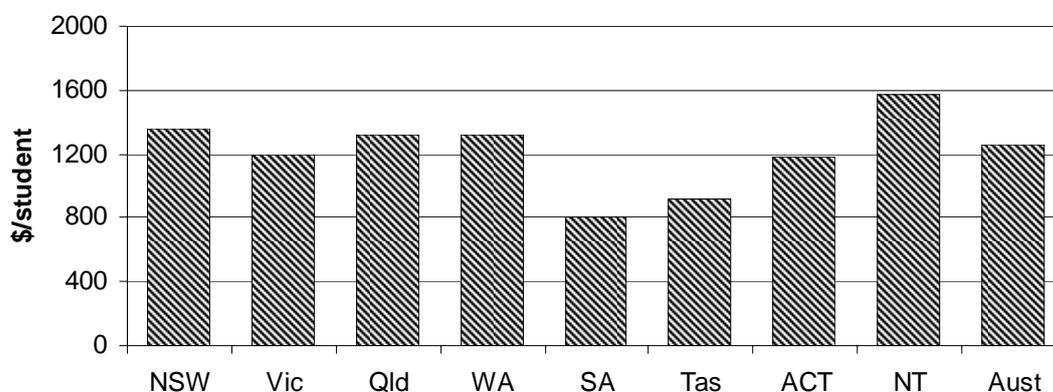
Box 3.6 (Continued)

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

The Steering Committee accepts that the asset valuation data, from which the notional UCC has been calculated, are not fully comparable across jurisdictions until 2003-04 (table 3A.11). It also recognises that the treatment of costs in the past has not fully recognised the cost of public capital used by agencies to deliver services — that is, capital has generally been considered ‘free’. This can lead to significant underestimation of costs of those services for which government capital is a major input. Using an imperfect costing of government capital, therefore, is preferable to not costing it at all, and also provides an incentive to improve data over time. The data definitions for asset reporting and valuation methods applied for 2003-04 are nationally consistent resulting in comparable asset values data across jurisdictions which are used to calculate the notional UCC.

The notional UCC per FTE government school student in 2003-04 averaged \$1254 nationally (figure 3.16).

Figure 3.16 Notional UCC per FTE student, government schools, 2003-04^a



^a See notes to table 3A.9 for definitions and data caveats.

Source: ABS (2005); MCEETYA (unpublished); table 3A.9.

Student-to-staff ratio

The 'student-to-staff ratio' is an output-efficiency indicator (box 3.7).

Box 3.7 Student-to-staff ratio

The 'student-to-staff ratio' is an output-efficiency indicator of governments' objective to provide education in an efficient manner.

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

Holding other factors constant, a high or increasing student-to-teacher ratio represents better or improved efficiency, but only when output quality and outcomes are the same as (or higher than) those in the other systems being compared. A low or decreasing student-to-teacher ratio may reflect decreasing efficiency, but may also reflect 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.

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Box 3.7 (Continued)

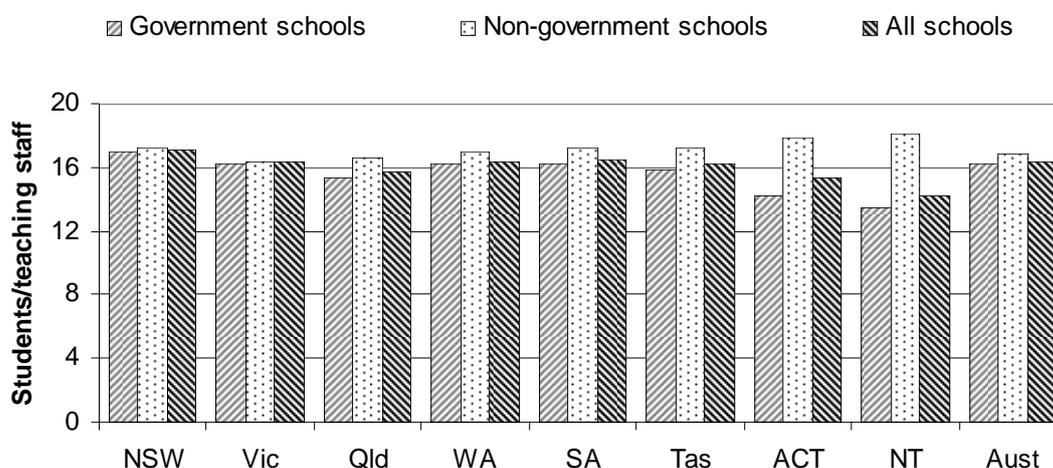
The ratio needs to be interpreted with care because it is aggregated across all subjects and year levels, so it does not reflect the fact that a lower ratio may be more important for certain subjects and/or year levels and it does not account for learning outcomes, teacher quality, experience and qualifications. Further, it can be affected by a number of factors, including:

- the proportion of small rural schools — for example, a large proportion of small rural schools can significantly lower the overall average student-to-teacher ratio, while a large proportion of students in metropolitan schools can increase the ratio
- the proportion of special needs students — for example, special schools catering for students with disabilities generally have significantly lower student to teacher ratios than those of mainstream schools because additional resources are required in mainstream schools for these students
- the degree to which administrative work is undertaken by people classified as teachers (such as principals, deputy principals and senior teachers)
- other inputs to school education (for example, non-teaching staff, computers, books and laboratory equipment).

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

Nationally, for government primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 16.2 in 2004. For non-government primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 16.9 in 2004. For all primary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 16.4 in 2004 (figure 3.17).

Figure 3.17 Ratio of FTE students to FTE teaching staff, primary schools, 2004^a

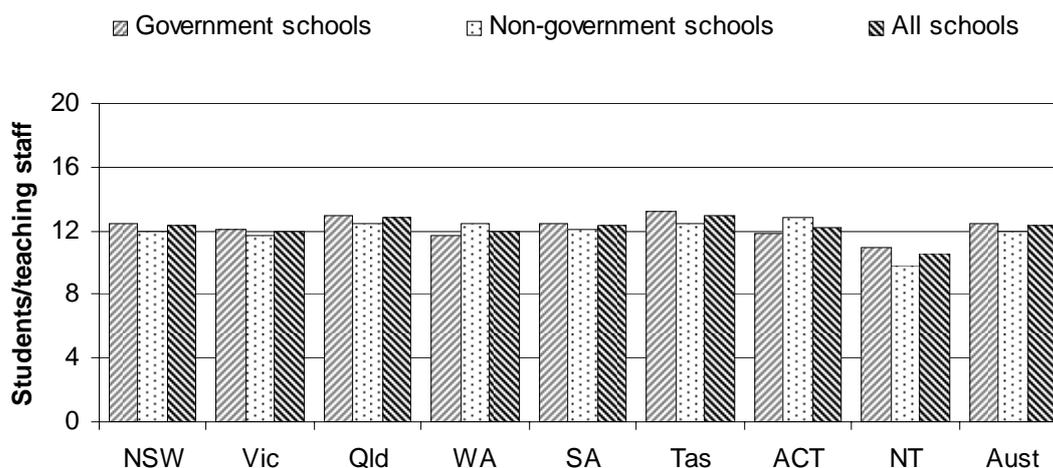


^a See notes to table 3A.12 for definitions and data caveats.

Source: ABS (2005); table 3A.12.

Nationally, for government secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.4 in 2004. For non-government secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.0 in 2004. For all secondary schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 12.3 in 2004 (figure 3.18).

Figure 3.18 Ratio of FTE students to FTE teaching staff, secondary schools, 2004^a



^a See notes to table 3A.12 for definitions and data caveats.

Source: ABS (2005); table 3A.12.

Nationally, for all government schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.5 in 2004. For all non-government schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.1 in 2004. For all schools, the student-to-teacher ratio was 14.3 in 2004 (table 3A.12).

Refer to table 3A.12 for further detail on student-to-staff ratios for all jurisdictions. Tables 3A.101, 3A.104-5, 3A.107-8, 3A.111-12, 3A.116, 3A.119-120 and 3A.124 contain time series data on student-to-staff ratios by geographic location for some jurisdictions. Tables 3A.106, 3A.113, 3A.117 and 3A.121 contain time series data on student-to-staff ratios by socioeconomic disadvantage for some jurisdictions. These data should be interpreted with caution because different definitions of geolocation and socioeconomic disadvantage are applied across jurisdictions.

Outcomes

Nationally comparable learning outcomes

‘Reading performance’, ‘writing performance’, ‘numeracy performance’ and ‘science literacy performance’ have been identified as outcome indicators of school education (boxes 3.8–3.11). Years 3, 5 and 7 nationally comparable learning outcomes data for 2002 and 2003 for reading, writing and numeracy performance, and year 6 scientific literacy performance for 2003 are reported. Learning outcomes data and accompanying information from the national collection for 2001–03 are reported in tables 3A.25–72. Limitations of national learning outcomes data are detailed in the 2004 Report (box 3.1, pages 3.36-7).

Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2003 learning outcomes data for 15 year olds are reported across three domains: reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy. Problem solving was also assessed as a discrete test in 2003, and data are reported in table 3A.87. PISA is an initiative of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and assessments are conducted triennially. PISA focuses on the ability of 15 year olds to apply their knowledge and skills to real-life problems and situations, rather than on how much curriculum based knowledge they possess.

In 2003, approximately 276 000 students from 41 countries participated in the PISA survey. From Australia this included over 12 500 students from 321 schools. Mathematical literacy was the major domain tested. Detailed information about PISA 2003 is available in Thomson et al. (2004a, 2004b) and OECD (2004). PISA 2003 assessment results are reported as the proportion of Australian students who achieved at or above the OECD mean, as well as at or above proficiency level 3 for reading literacy. Thirty of the 41 participating countries were OECD

countries. Information and data on PISA 2000 are included in the 2003 Report (SCRCSSP 2003, pages 3.18-19, 3.22-23 and 3.26–28) and tables 3A.76, 3A.78–81, 3A.83–86.

Interpreting learning outcomes data

Caution needs to be exercised in making comparisons in the results across the two PISA surveys. In relation to the results against the OECD averages, there are small changes to the countries included in the OECD averages in 2000 and 2003, which mean that the OECD averages are not strictly comparable across the two surveys. In addition, care needs to be exercised in making conclusions about trends based on data from only two points in time.

To assist with making comparisons between jurisdictions, 95 per cent confidence intervals are presented in charts, calculated from the standard errors in accompanying tables (tables 3A.76–88). Confidence intervals are a standard way of expressing the degree of sampling and measurement error associated with the survey estimates or performance data. An estimate of 80 with a confidence interval of ± 2 , for example, means that if the total population had been surveyed rather than a sample, or had another sample been drawn, there is a 95 per cent chance that the result would lie between 78 and 82. The learning outcomes proportion for a jurisdiction, therefore, can be thought of in terms of a range. If one jurisdiction's rate ranges from 78–82 and another's from 77–81, then it is not possible to say with confidence that one differs from the other (because there is unlikely to be a statistically significant difference). Where ranges do not overlap, there is a high likelihood that there is a statistically significant difference. To say that there is a statistically significant difference means there is a high probability that there is an actual difference; it does not imply that the difference is necessarily large or important.

Reading performance

'Reading performance' is an outcome indicator (box 3.8).

Box 3.8 Reading performance

'Reading performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

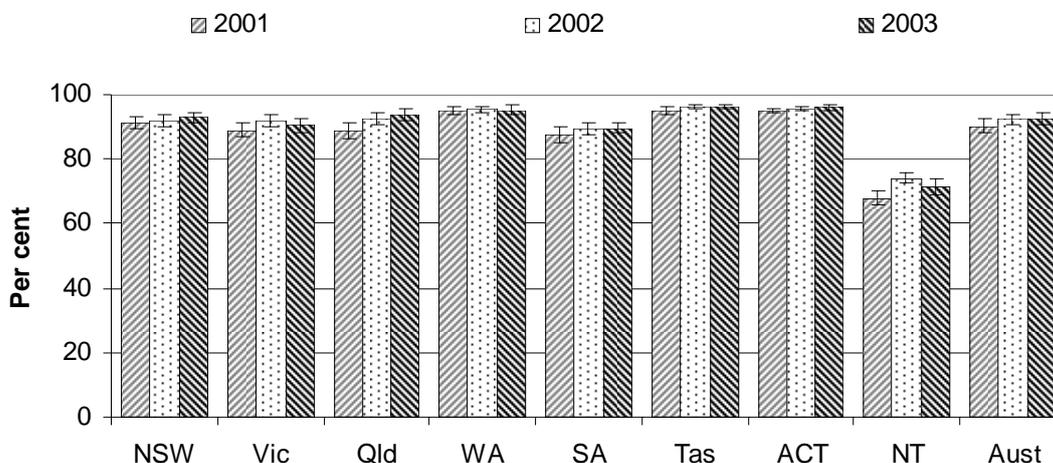
Reading performance is defined as the proportion of assessed years 3, 5 and 7 students who achieved the national reading benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for reading performance at years 3, 5 and 7. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by State-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

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

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 3 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2003 was 90.7–94.1 per cent (figure 3.19). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 3 reading benchmark in 2003 was:

- 92.9–95.7 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (88.8–92.8 per cent)
- 71.9–85.7 per cent for Indigenous students
- 88.0–92.0 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.20).

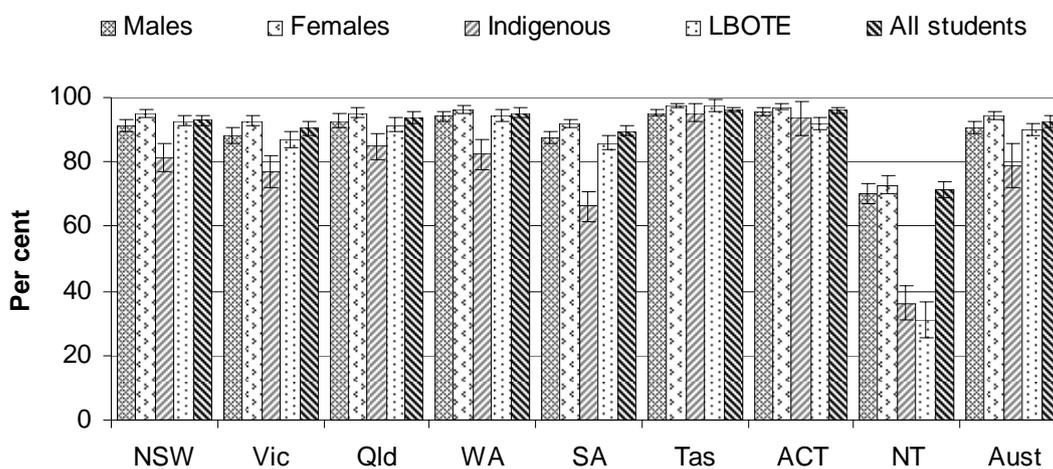
Figure 3.19 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the reading benchmark^{a, b}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.28-29, 3A.43-44 and tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.25, 3A.40 and 3A.55.

Figure 3.20 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the reading benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



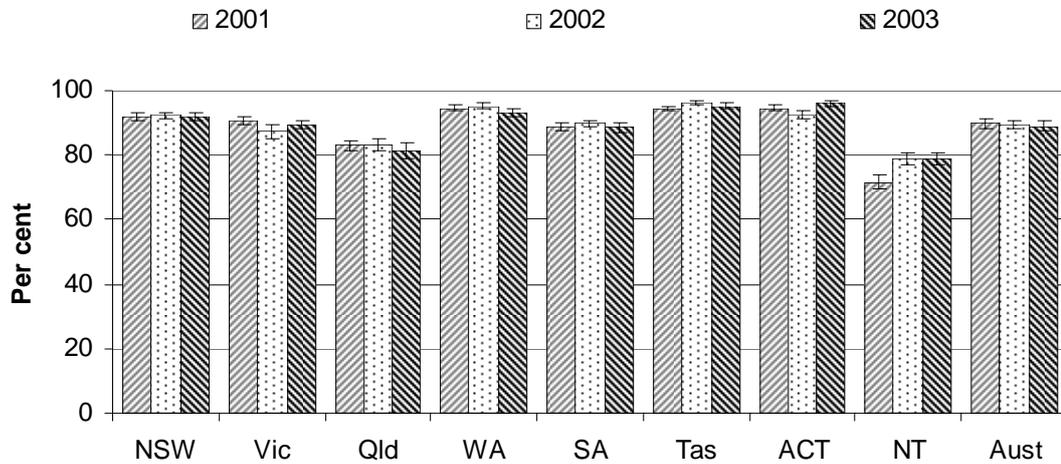
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.55.

The proportion of assessed year 5 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2003 was 87.5–90.5 per cent nationally (figure 3.21). The proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 5 reading benchmark in 2003 was:

- 90.2–93.0 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (85.0–88.6 per cent)
- 63.6–71.8 per cent for Indigenous students
- 87.1–90.3 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.22).

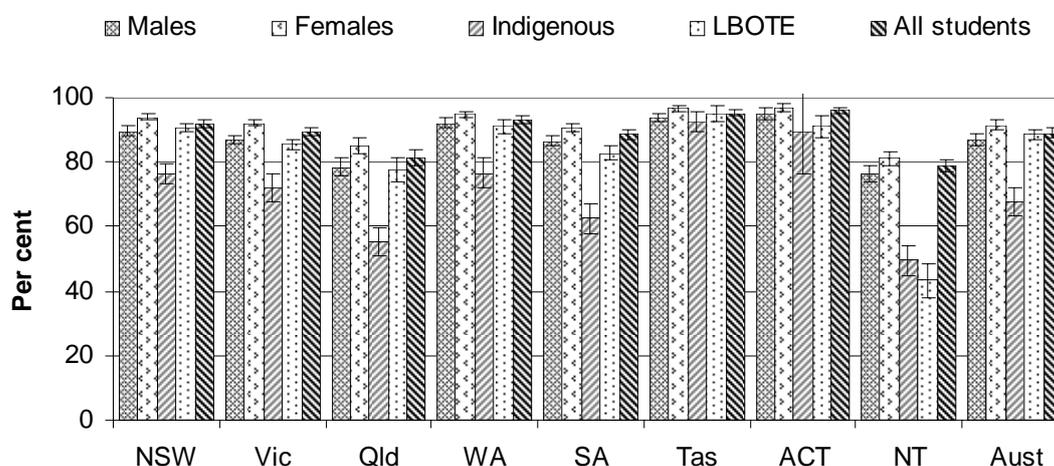
Figure 3.21 **Proportion of year 5 students achieving the reading benchmark^{a, b}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.28-29, 3A.43-44 and tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.26, 3A.41 and 3A.56.

Figure 3.22 Proportion of year 5 students achieving the reading benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



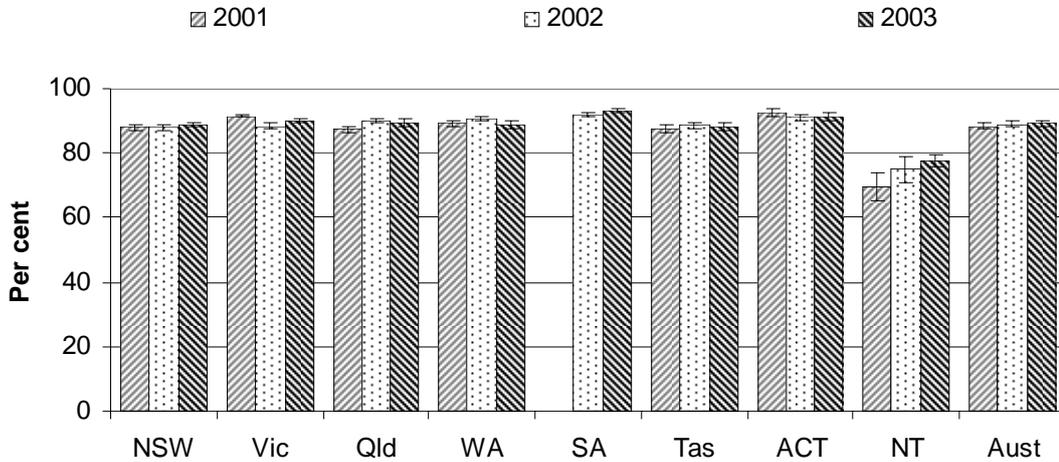
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.28-29, 3A.43-44 and tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.56.

The proportion of assessed year 7 students who achieved the reading benchmark in 2003 was 88.5–90.3 per cent nationally (figure 3.23). The proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 7 reading benchmark in 2003 was:

- 91.1–92.7 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (86.0–88.2 per cent)
- 63.3–69.5 per cent for Indigenous students
- 85.2–87.6 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.24).

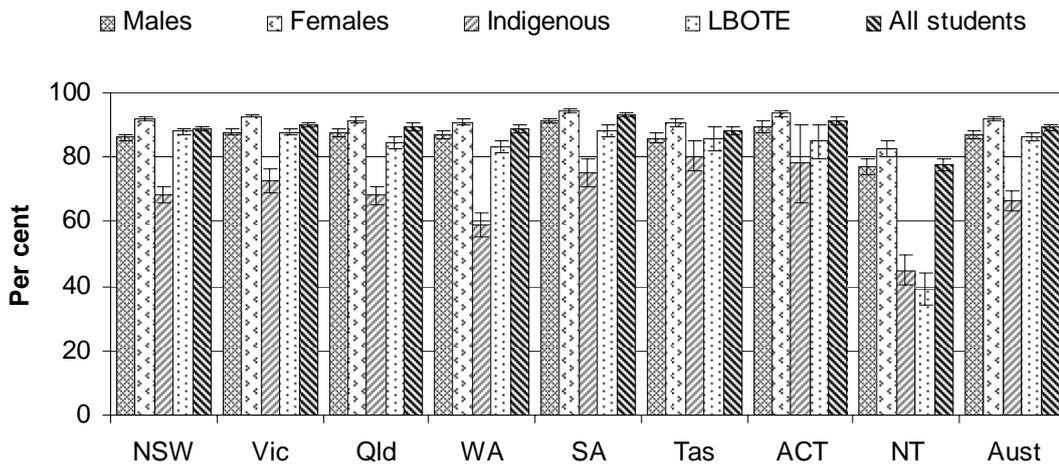
Figure 3.23 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the reading benchmark^{a, b, c}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b SA 2001 data were not available. ^c For further information and caveats see tables 3A.28-29, 3A.43-44 and tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.27, 3A.42 and 3A.57.

Figure 3.24 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the reading benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



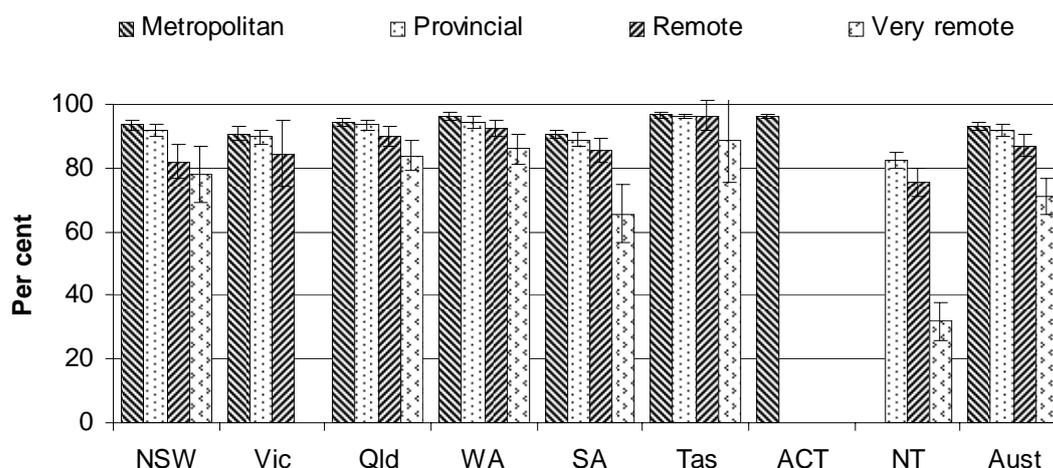
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.59-60.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.57.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed students from remote areas who achieved the reading benchmark in 2003 was:

- 83.7–90.5 per cent for year 3 students, below the proportion for metropolitan students (91.6–94.6 per cent), no different to the proportion for provincial students (89.7–93.7 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (65.5–76.9 per cent) (figure 3.25)
- 78.4–84.6 per cent for year 5 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (88.6–91.4 per cent) and provincial students (86.0–89.4 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (57.5–67.5 per cent)
- 79.3–85.7 per cent for year 7 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (89.7–91.3 per cent) and provincial students (87.1–89.3 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (55.6–66.4 per cent) (table 3A.58).

Figure 3.25 **Proportion of year 3 students achieving the reading benchmark, by geolocation, 2003^{a, b, c}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b Data for year 3 students are shown and may not be representative of all primary students. ^c Insufficient or no students in an area of geographic classification are not included. There are no remote or very remote areas in the ACT.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.58.

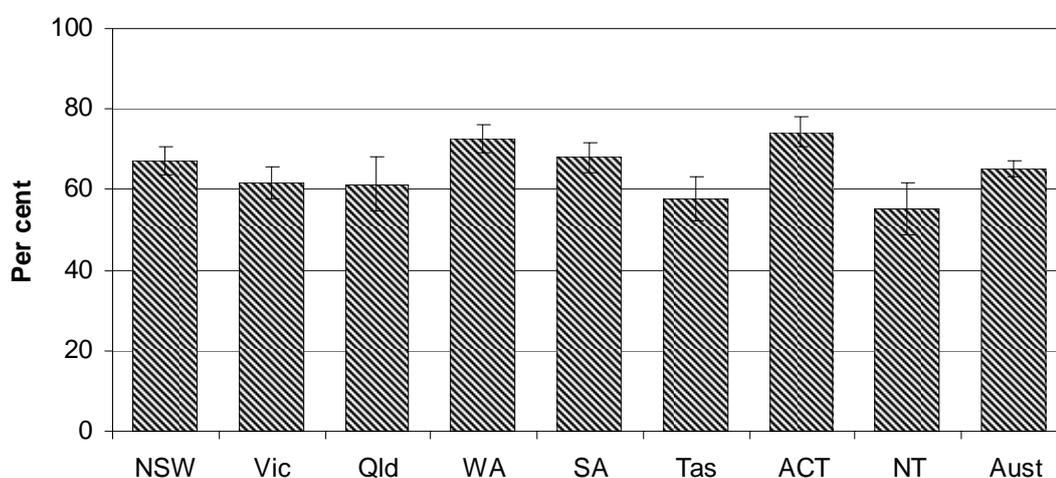
Reading literacy was a domain tested in the PISA 2003 survey. Nationally, in 2003 the proportion of 15 year old students who achieved at the OECD mean or above for reading literacy was:

- 63.3–67.3 per cent for all 15 year old students (figure 3.26)
- 71.1–75.9 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (54.9–59.9 per cent)

- 26.1–40.3 per cent for Indigenous students, 38.1–60.5 per cent for geographically remote students and 47.8–53.2 per cent for students from low socioeconomic status families (tables 3A.77–78).

State and Territory data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.77. Data for PISA 2000 are shown in tables 3A.76 and 3A.78. Results for reading literacy between PISA 2000 and PISA 2003 cannot be compared.

Figure 3.26 Proportion of 15 year old students who achieved at the OECD mean or above, reading literacy, 2003^a



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

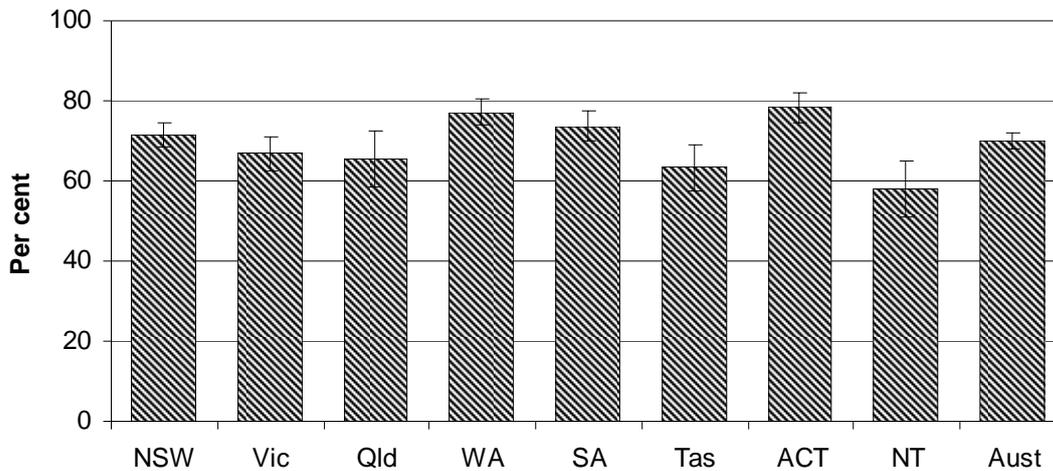
Source: Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (unpublished); table 3A.77.

Results for reading literacy are also available as the percentage of students achieving proficiency level 3 or above in the overall reading literacy scale for both 2000 and 2003 (tables 3A.79-80). Reading literacy is the only domain where data by proficiency level are currently available across two cycles.

The PISA 2003 results indicate that nationally, the proportion of 15 year old students who achieved at level 3 or above in the overall reading literacy scale was:

- 67.9–71.9 per cent for all Australian students, higher than the proportion for the all students OECD average (57.9–58.7 per cent) (figure 3.27)
- 75.6–80.0 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (59.8–64.8 per cent)
- 30.5–45.7 per cent for Indigenous students, 44.5–62.5 per cent for geographically remote students and 53.5–58.9 per cent for students from low socioeconomic status families (table 3A.80).

Figure 3.27 Proportion of 15 year old students achieving level 3 or above, overall reading literacy scale, 2003^{a, b}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence intervals associated with each point estimate. ^b The PISA overall reading literacy scale has five defined proficiency levels, from level 5 (the highest) to level 1 (the lowest) with an additional level referred to as 'Below level 1' which covers those students who are unable to reach even the first threshold of the skills that PISA seeks to measure. At level 3, students are capable of reading tasks of moderate complexity such as locating multiple pieces of information, making links between different parts of a text and relating it to familiar everyday knowledge. Level 3 or above can be described as a level of achievement that is reasonably challenging and which requires students to demonstrate more than minimal or elementary skills to be regarded as reaching it.

Source: Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (unpublished); table 3A.79.

Writing performance

'Writing performance' is an outcome indicator (box 3.9).

Box 3.9 Writing performance

'Writing performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

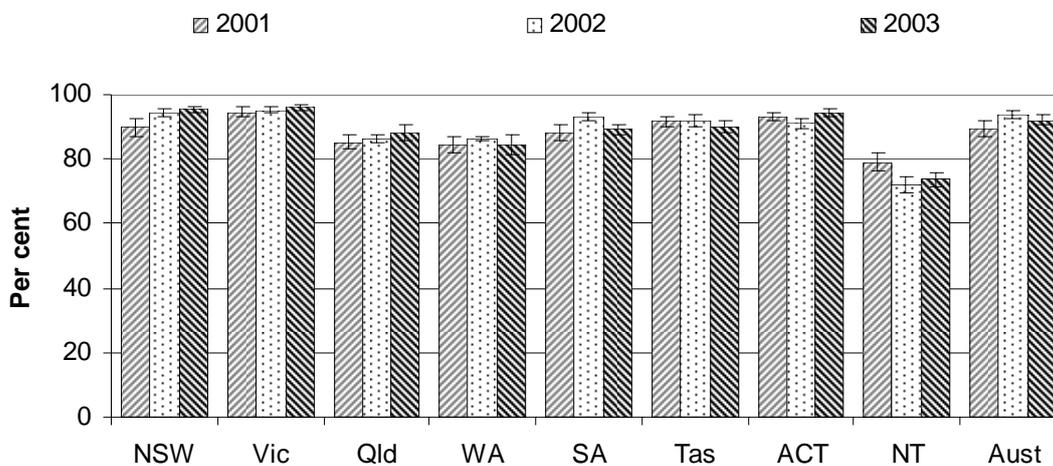
Writing performance is defined as the proportion of assessed years 3, 5 and 7 students who achieved the national writing benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for writing performance at years 3, 5 and 7. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by State-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

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

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 3 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 2003 was 90.7–93.7 per cent (figure 3.28). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 3 writing benchmark in 2003 was:

- 93.5–95.9 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (87.9–91.9 per cent)
- 71.1–79.3 per cent for Indigenous students
- 90.9–93.7 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.29).

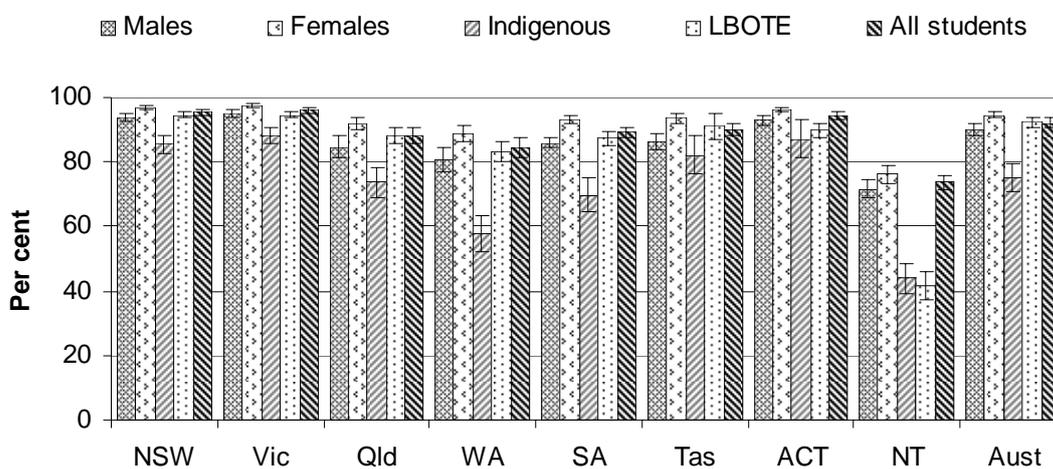
Figure 3.28 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the writing benchmark^{a, b}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.33-34, 3A.48-49 and tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.30, 3A.45 and 3A.61.

Figure 3.29 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the writing benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



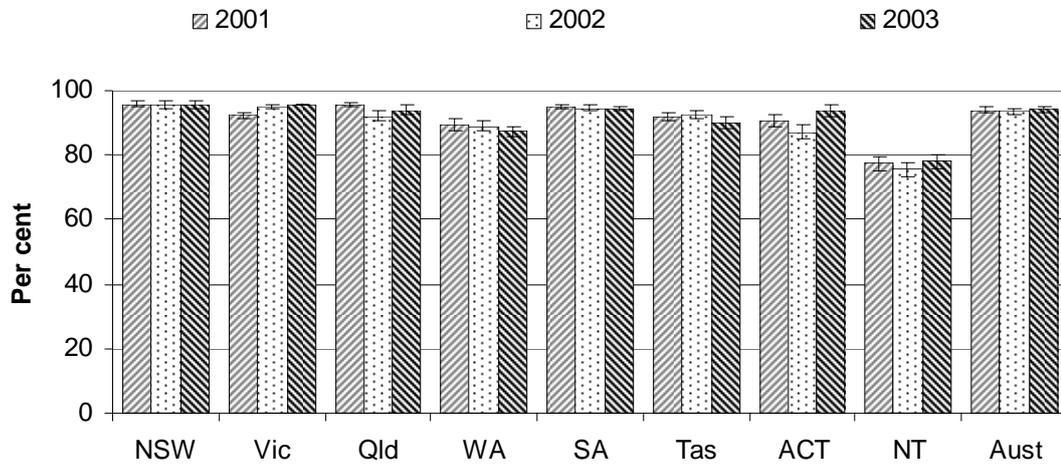
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.61.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 5 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 2003 was 93.0–95.2 per cent (figure 3.30). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 5 writing benchmark in 2003 was:

- 95.0–97.2 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (90.6–93.6 per cent)
- 75.8–83.4 per cent for Indigenous students
- 91.3–93.7 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.31).

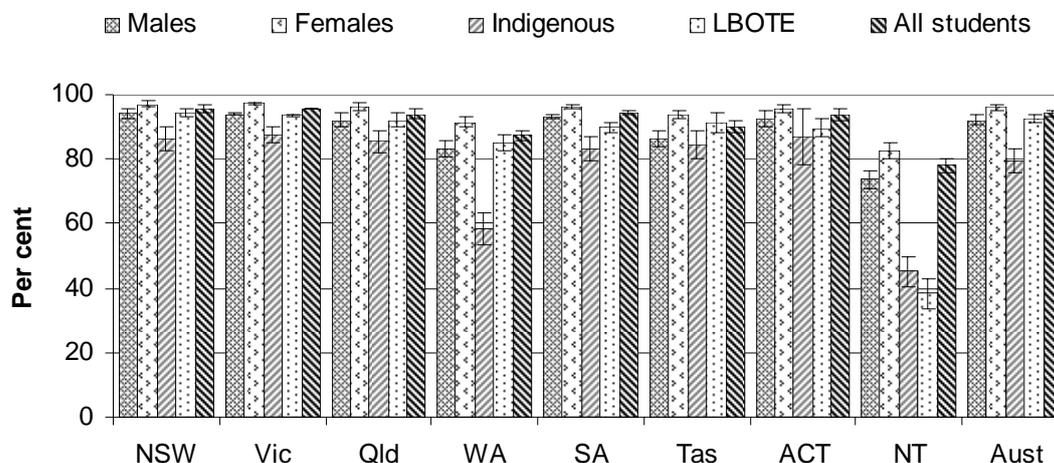
Figure 3.30 **Proportion of year 5 students achieving the writing benchmark^{a, b}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.33-34, 3A.48-49 and tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.31, 3A.46 and 3A.62.

Figure 3.31 Proportion of year 5 students achieving the writing benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



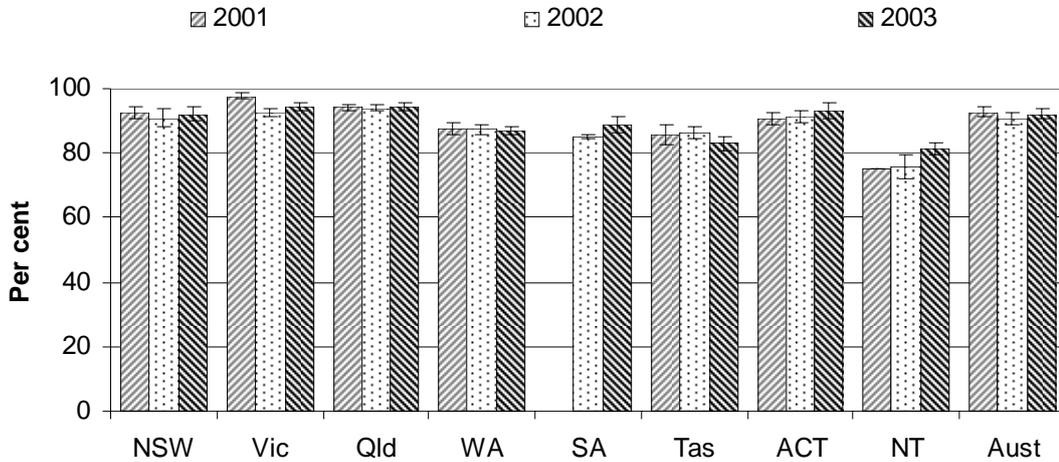
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.62.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 7 students who achieved the writing benchmark in 2003 was 90.4–93.8 per cent (figure 3.32). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 7 writing benchmark in 2003 was:

- 94.0–96.4 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for male students (87.0–91.4 per cent)
- 70.0–78.8 per cent for Indigenous students
- 88.9–93.1 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.33).

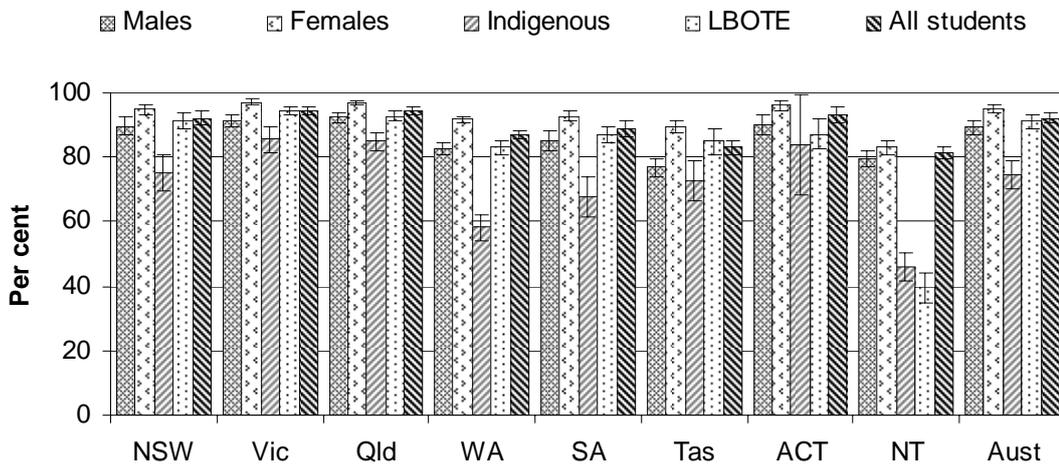
Figure 3.32 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the writing benchmark^{a, b, c}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b SA 2001 data were not available. ^c For further information and caveats see tables 3A.33-34, 3A.48-49 and tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.32, 3A.47 and 3A.63.

Figure 3.33 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the writing benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



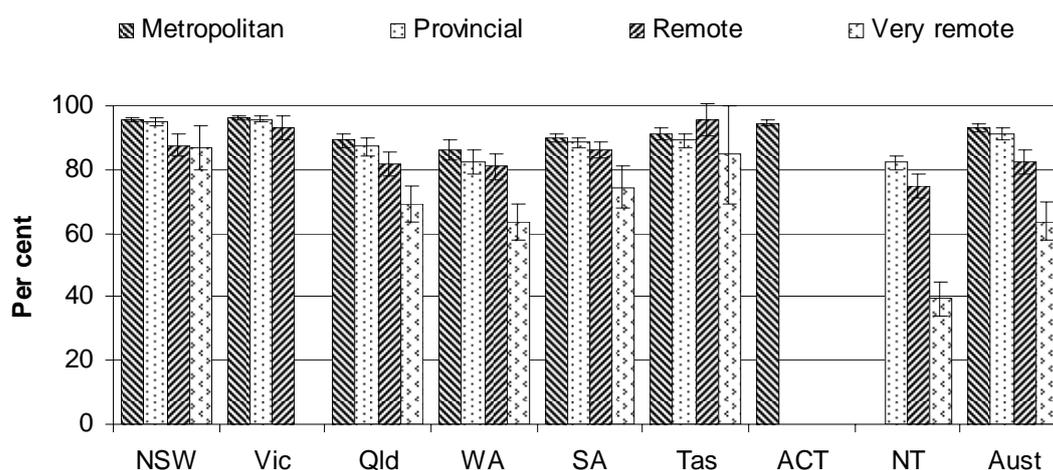
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.65-66.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.63.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed students from remote areas who achieved the writing benchmark in 2003 was:

- 78.6–86.0 per cent for year 3 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (91.7–94.5 per cent) and provincial students (89.6–93.2 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (57.7–69.5 per cent) (figure 3.34)
- 84.9–91.1 per cent for year 5 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (93.8–95.8 per cent) and provincial students (92.2–95.0 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (63.7–74.1 per cent)
- 80.1–87.1 per cent for year 7 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (91.5–94.7 per cent) and provincial students (88.7–92.7 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (61.7–72.3 per cent) (table 3A.64).

Figure 3.34 **Proportion of year 3 students achieving the writing benchmark, by geolocation, 2003^{a, b, c}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b Data for year 3 students are shown and may not be representative of all primary students. ^c Insufficient or no students in an area of geographic classification are not included. There are no remote or very remote areas in the ACT.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.64.

Writing literacy was not a domain tested in either the 2000 or 2003 PISA surveys.

Numeracy performance

‘Numeracy performance’ is an outcome indicator (box 3.10).

Box 3.10 Numeracy performance

'Numeracy performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

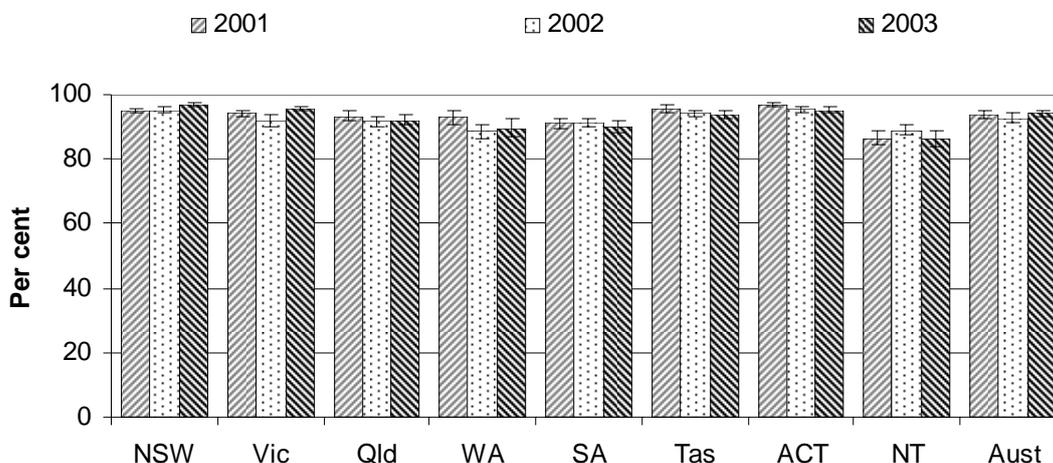
Numeracy performance is defined as the proportion of assessed years 3, 5 and 7 students who achieved the national numeracy benchmark for a given year, reported by sex, Indigenous status and LBOTE status. The benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for numeracy performance at years 3, 5 and 7. Student performance is measured (or assessed) by state-based testing programs which are equated by a national process designed to (or intended to) allow comparable reporting against the benchmarks.

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

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 3 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2003 was 93.1–95.3 per cent (figure 3.35). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 3 numeracy benchmark in 2003 was:

- 93.5–95.9 per cent for female students, no different to the proportion for male students (92.7–94.9 per cent)
- 76.8–84.2 per cent for Indigenous students
- 92.2–94.4 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.36).

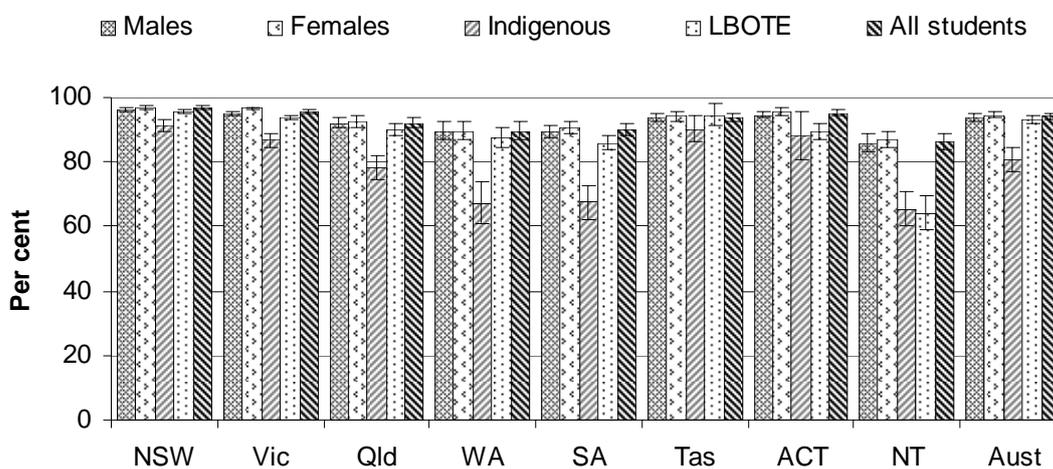
Figure 3.35 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the numeracy benchmark^{a, b}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.38-39, 3A.53-54 and tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.35, 3A.50 and 3A.67.

Figure 3.36 Proportion of year 3 students achieving the numeracy benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



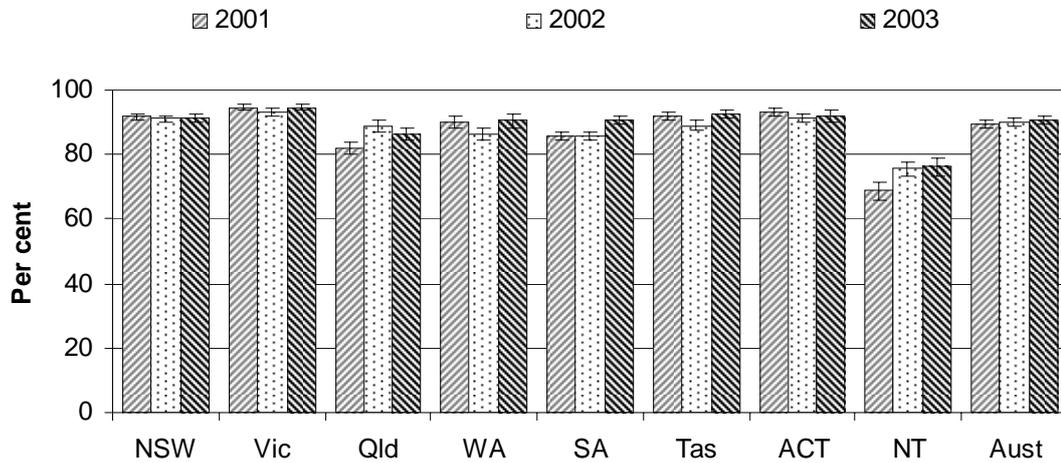
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.67.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 5 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2003 was 89.6–92.0 per cent (figure 3.37). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 5 numeracy benchmark in 2003 was:

- 90.1–92.7 per cent for female students, no different to the proportion for male students (89.0–91.6 per cent)
- 63.7–71.5 per cent for Indigenous students
- 87.9–90.7 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.38).

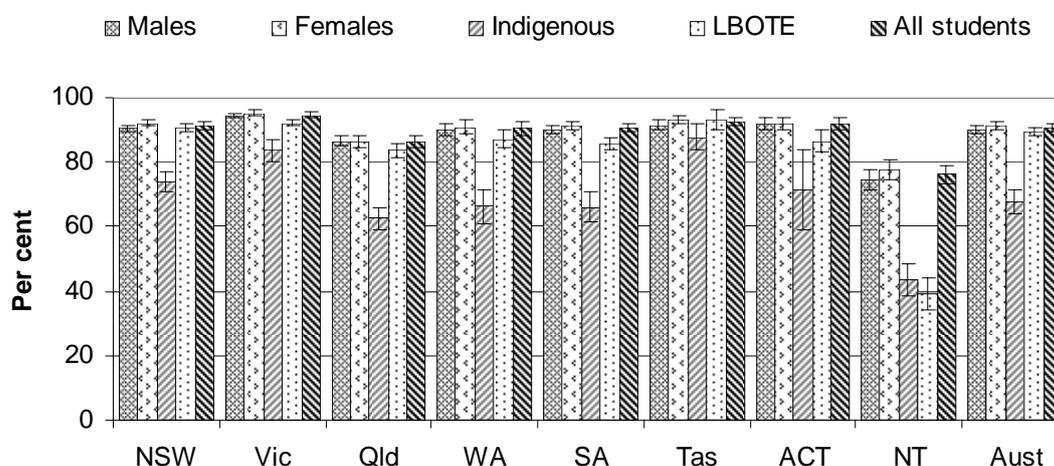
Figure 3.37 **Proportion of year 5 students achieving the numeracy benchmark^{a, b}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.38-39, 3A.53-54 and tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.36, 3A.51 and 3A.68.

Figure 3.38 Proportion of year 5 students achieving the numeracy benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



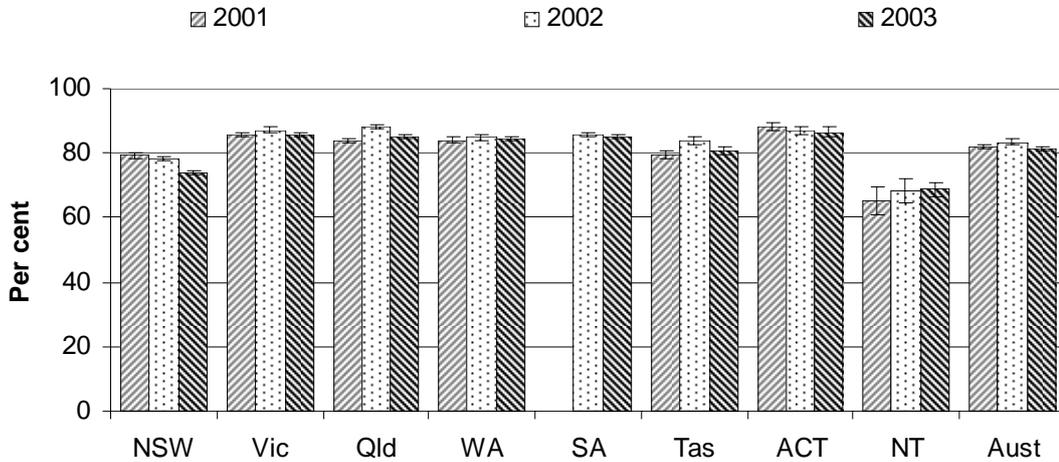
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.68.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed year 7 students who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2003 was 80.5–82.1 per cent (figure 3.39). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved the year 7 numeracy benchmark in 2003 was:

- 80.7–82.5 per cent for female students, no different to the proportion for male students (80.1–81.9 per cent)
- 46.4–52.2 per cent for Indigenous students
- 75.4–77.8 per cent for LBOTE students (figure 3.40).

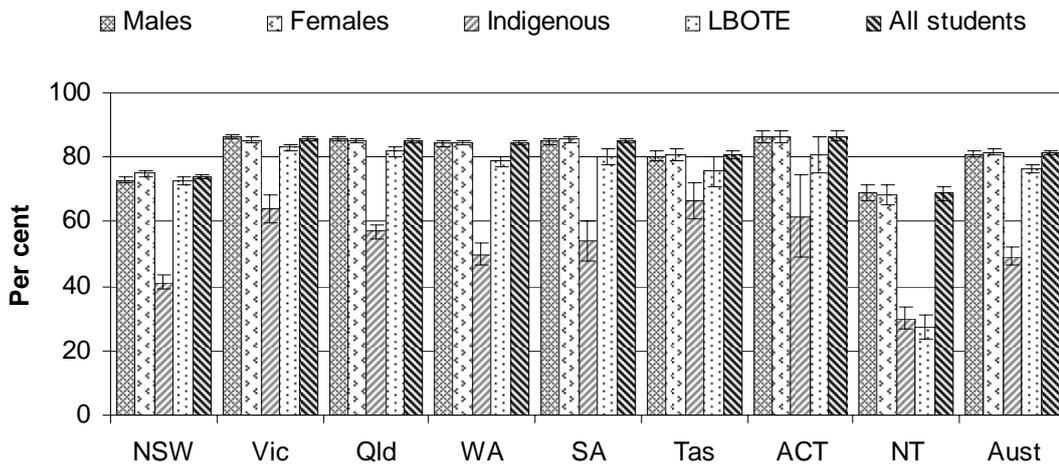
Figure 3.39 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the numeracy benchmark^{a, b, c}



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b SA 2001 data were not available. ^c For further information and caveats see tables 3A.38-39, 3A.53-54 and tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; tables 3A.37, 3A.52 and 3A.69.

Figure 3.40 Proportion of year 7 students achieving the numeracy benchmark, by equity group, 2003^{a, b}



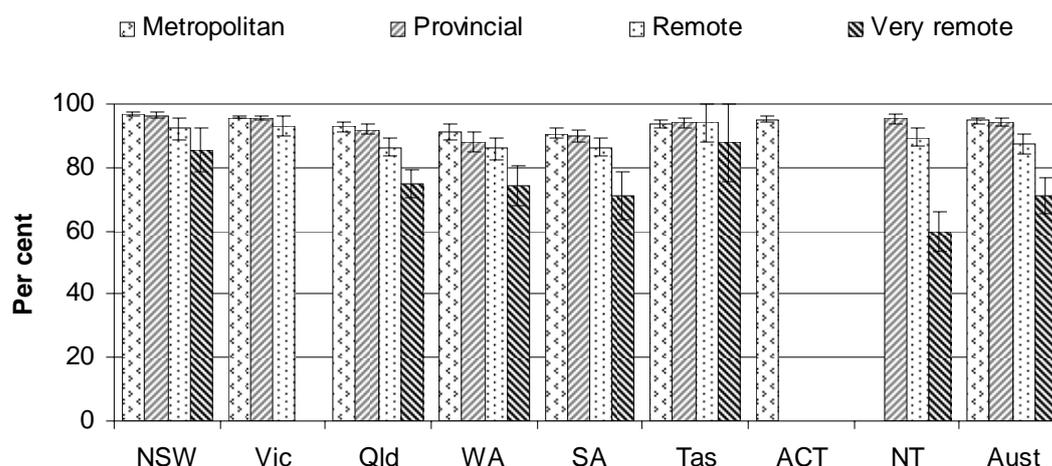
^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b For further information and caveats see tables 3A.71-72.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.69.

Nationally, the proportion of assessed students from remote areas who achieved the numeracy benchmark in 2003 was:

- 84.4–90.8 per cent for year 3 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (93.7–95.7 per cent) and provincial students (92.8–95.4 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (65.5–76.9 per cent) (figure 3.41)
- 78.6–85.8 per cent for year 5 students, below the proportion for metropolitan (90.7–92.9 per cent) and provincial students (87.9–91.7 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (55.8–66.6 per cent)
- 71.2–78.4 per cent for year 7 students, below the proportion for metropolitan students (81.7–83.3 per cent), no different to the proportion for provincial students (78.2–80.4 per cent), and above the proportion for very remote students (46.2–56.0 per cent) (table 3A.70).

Figure 3.41 **Proportion of year 3 students achieving the numeracy benchmark, by geolocation, 2003^{a, b, c}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^b Data for year 3 students are shown and may not be representative of all primary students. ^c Insufficient or no students in an area of geographic classification are not included. There are no remote or very remote areas in the ACT.

Source: MCEETYA 2005a, 2005b; table 3A.70.

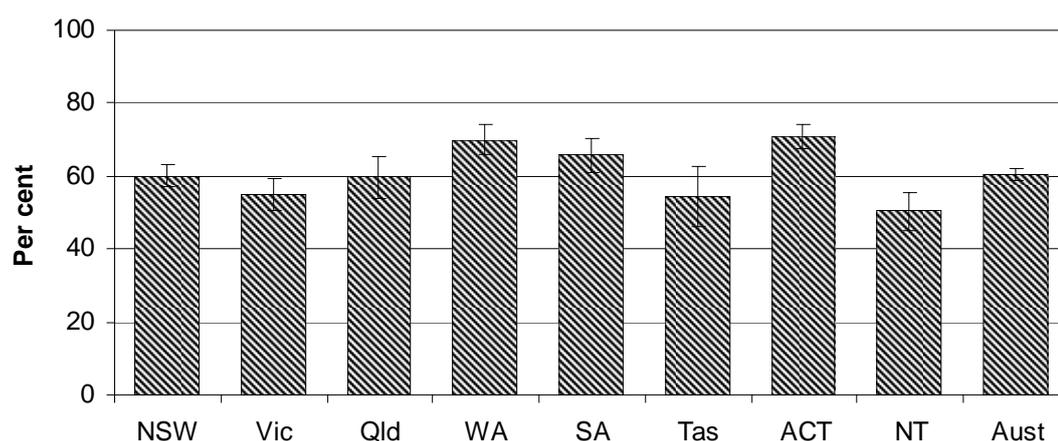
Mathematical literacy was the major domain focused on in testing for the PISA 2003 survey. Nationally, in 2003 the proportion of 15 year old students who achieved at the OECD mean or above for mathematical literacy was:

- 58.6–62.2 per cent for all students (figure 3.42)
- 57.2–62.2 per cent for female students, higher than the proportion for males (58.4–63.8 per cent)

- 18.2–29.6 per cent for Indigenous students, 31.5–59.3 per cent for geographically remote students and 40.8–46.6 per cent for students from low socioeconomic status families (tables 3A.82-83).

State and Territory 2003 data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.82. Data for PISA 2000 are shown in tables 3A.81 and 3A.83. Results for mathematical literacy between PISA 2000 and PISA 2003 cannot be compared. The PISA 2000 mathematical literacy minor assessment included items in two content areas, rather than the four content areas examined in the PISA 2003 major assessment. It is expected that trend data for mathematical literacy will be available from 2003 onwards.

Figure 3.42 **Proportion of 15 year old students who achieved at the OECD mean or above, mathematical literacy, 2003^a**



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

Source: Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (unpublished); table 3A.82.

Science literacy performance

‘Science literacy performance’ is an outcome indicator (box 3.11).

Box 3.11 Science literacy performance

'Science literacy performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that young Australians should attain high standards of knowledge, skill and understanding in core curriculum areas.

Science literacy performance is defined as the proportion of year 6 primary students achieving at or above the proficient standard in scientific literacy, reported by sex, Indigenous status, LBOTE status and geolocation (national data only for subgroups). The proficient standard for year 6 scientific literacy is set at proficiency level 3.2 (of levels 1 to 4 or above). This is a level of performance based on what 'well advanced' or 'expert' students should know and be able to do by the end of year 6. It differs from the literacy and numeracy benchmark standards where the focus is on identifying the minimum skill and knowledge requirements students would be expected to demonstrate to progress to the next level of schooling (MCEETYA 2005d). Student performance is measured (or assessed) by a national sample assessment program resulting in comparable reporting against the standard.

Holding other factors equal, a high proportion of students achieving at or above the proficient standard in scientific literacy is desirable. This indicator is affected by socioeconomic circumstances, age, length of time spent in schooling, and LBOTE and Indigenous status.

The National Year 6 Science Assessment measures scientific literacy and was conducted for the first time in 2003, and will be conducted triennially. Approximately 6 per cent of the total Year 6 student population was sampled randomly and assessed. The sample was drawn from all states and territories and both government and non-government schools participated. In 2003, 14 172 students from 650 government and non-government schools across states and territories participated in the national science literacy assessment (MCEETYA 2005d).

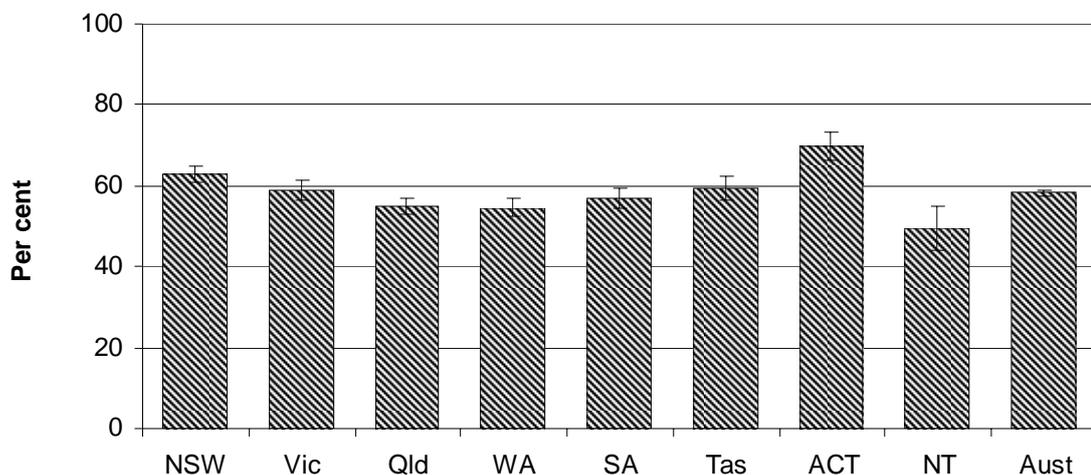
Year 6 scientific literacy 2003 results are reported as the proportion of Australian students from the sampled students (year 6 enrolled in participating schools) who achieved at the proficient standard or above. Nationally, the proportion of participating year 6 students who achieved at the proficient standard or above in scientific literacy was 57.3–59.1 per cent (figure 3.43). The national proportion of students by equity group who achieved at the proficient standard or above in scientific literacy was:

- 56.2–58.6 per cent for female students, no different than the proportion for male students (57.8–60.4 per cent)
- 25.3–34.3 per cent for Indigenous students
- 45.1–51.1 per cent for LBOTE students (table 3A.75).

The national proportion of students by geolocation who achieved at the proficient standard or above in scientific literacy was:

- 58.0 per cent for mainland state capital city region students, (49.5–52.3 per cent of these students achieving at the proficient standard)
- 55.5 per cent for provincial city statistical district students, (45.6–51.2 per cent of these students achieving at the proficient standard)
- 48.6 per cent for remote zone students, (35.8–46.8 per cent of these students achieving at the proficient standard) (table 3A.74).

Figure 3.43 **Proportion of year 6 students achieving at the proficient standard or above, scientific literacy, 2003^{a, b}**



^a Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence intervals associated with each point estimate. ^b Minimum standards like the benchmarks in literacy and numeracy have not been set for scientific literacy. The standard for scientific literacy is set at proficiency level 3.2 (of levels 1 to 4 or above) a challenging level of performance, with students needing to demonstrate more than minimal or elementary skills to be regarded as reaching it. Data represent the proportion of students at or above the proficient standard.

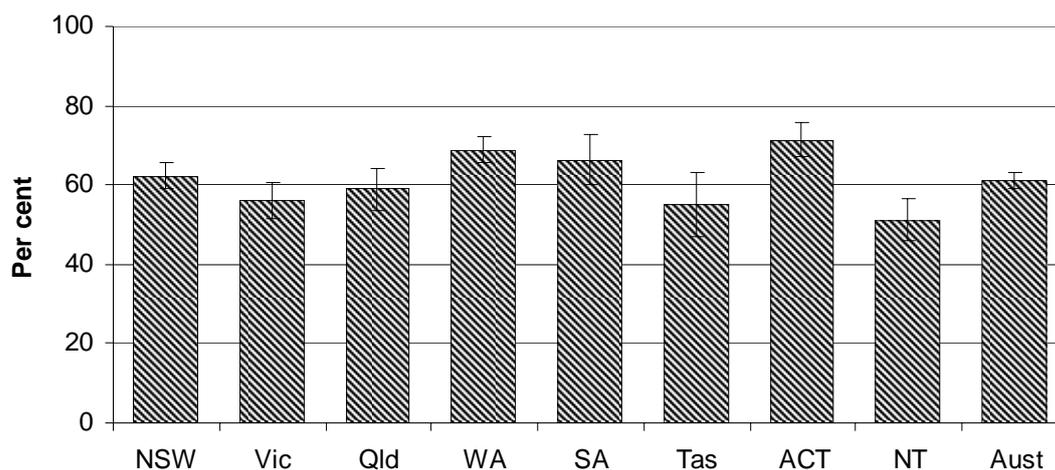
Source: MCEETYA (2005d); table 3A.73.

Scientific literacy was a domain tested in the PISA 2003 survey. Nationally, in 2003 the proportion of 15 year old secondary students who achieved at the OECD mean or above for scientific literacy was:

- 59.4–63.0 per cent for all students (figure 3.44)
- 58.9–63.9 per cent for female students, no different than the proportion for male students (58.6–63.4 per cent)
- 19.9–31.3 per cent for Indigenous students, 32.4–56.4 per cent for geographically remote students and 42.0–47.4 per cent for students from low socioeconomic status families (tables 3A.85-86).

State and Territory data for males, females and students from low socioeconomic status families are shown in table 3A.85 and data for PISA 2000 are shown in tables 3A.84 and 3A.86.

Figure 3.44 **Proportion of 15 year old students achieving at the OECD mean or above, scientific literacy, 2003^a**



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

Source: Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) (unpublished); table 3A.85.

Other outcomes

Information and communication technology literacy performance

The Steering Committee has identified 'information and communication technology literacy performance' as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.12).

Box 3.12 Information and communication technology literacy performance

'Information and communication technology literacy performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that young Australians should be confident, creative and productive users of new technologies.

Information and communication technology literacy performance is a measure of the proportion of years 6 and 10 students achieving the proficient standard. Data collections for information and communication technology indicators have been developed (see section 3.4 for details).

Vocational education and training (VET) in schools participation

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET in schools participation’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.13).

Box 3.13 VET in schools participation

‘VET in schools’ participation is an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain employment related skills.

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

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

Vocational education and training (VET) in schools attainment

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET in schools attainment’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.14).

Box 3.14 VET in schools attainment

‘VET in schools’ attainment is an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that young Australians should attain employment related skills.

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

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

Civics and citizenship performance

The Steering Committee has identified ‘civics and citizenship performance’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.15).

Box 3.15 Civics and citizenship performance

'Civics and citizenship performance' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective that students be active and informed citizens with an understanding and appreciation of Australia's system of government and civic life through broad curricula.

Civics and citizenship for year 6 and year 10 is defined as the:

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

Data collections for civics and citizenship indicators have been developed (see section 3.4 for details).

Completion

'Completion' is an outcome indicator (box 3.16).

Box 3.16 Completion

'Completion' (estimated completion rate) is an outcome indicator of governments' objectives to develop fully the talents and capacities of young people through participation in schooling and for students to attain high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the higher years of schooling.

The estimated completion rate is defined as the number of students who obtain a year 12 (or equivalent) certificate as a proportion of the estimated potential year 12 population. The criteria for obtaining a year 12 certificate vary across jurisdictions. The estimated completion rate is reported by socioeconomic status, location and gender. Geographic isolation is determined using the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification. Socioeconomic status is determined according to the ABS Index of Disadvantage on the basis of postcode of students' home addresses. Low socioeconomic status is the average of the three lowest deciles, medium socioeconomic status is the average of the four medium deciles and high socioeconomic status is the average of the three highest deciles.

Holding other factors constant, a higher or increasing estimated completion rate suggests an improvement in educational outcomes. 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.

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

- assessment, reporting and requirements for obtaining year 12 certificates vary across states and territories — for example, from moderated school-based assessment to a mix including external and internal assessment, and from completion of a pattern of study to a prescribed level of attainment
- inaccuracies arise from using both home postal address and school location address in compiling completion rates data. Small changes in population or completions can affect the estimates of completion rates, particularly for smaller states and territories
- students completing their secondary education in TAFE institutes are included in reporting for some jurisdictions and not in others, and the proportion of these students also varies across jurisdictions.

Year 12 completion rates in 2004 by socioeconomic background, location and gender are provided in tables 3.6 and 3.7. Nationally, completion rates for students from low (59 per cent) and medium socioeconomic backgrounds (66 per cent) were 20 percentage points and 13 percentage points respectively below those for students from a high (79 per cent) socioeconomic background in 2004. Completion rates were higher for female (73 per cent) students than for male (62 per cent) students in total and in all socioeconomic categories (table 3.6).

Table 3.6 Completion rates, year 12, by socioeconomic status and gender, 2004 (per cent)^{a, b, c}

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^d</i>	<i>NT^d</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Low socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	58	55	55	49	44	39	np	11	53
Female	69	67	69	58	67	51	np	19	66
All students	64	61	62	53	55	45	np	15	59
Medium socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	60	58	65	60	58	56	np	35	60
Female	70	73	74	71	81	62	np	48	72
All students	65	65	69	66	69	59	np	41	66
High socioeconomic status deciles									
Male	74	78	69	73	72	61	79	np	75
Female	81	89	73	79	92	70	76	np	83
All students	77	83	71	76	82	65	77	np	79
Total									
Male	63	65	63	61	58	48	79	25	62
Female	73	78	72	70	80	58	76	36	73
All students	68	71	67	66	69	53	77	30	68

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

Source: DEST (unpublished).

Nationally, the completion rate was higher in the metropolitan zone (70 per cent) than in all areas (68 per cent). The completion rate was lower in the provincial (63 per cent) and remote (54 per cent) zones than for all areas (table 3.7). Gender differences are also evident with completion rates higher for females for all localities. In the metropolitan zone, the female completion rate was 75 per cent compared with 65 per cent for males. In the remote zone, the female completion rate was 63 per cent compared with 47 per cent for males (table 3.7). Time series data on national completion rates are shown in tables 3A.96 and 3A.97.

Table 3.7 **Completion rates, year 12, by locality and gender, 2004**
(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>
Metropolitan zone ^c									
Male	66	68	64	63	62	56	79	np	65
Female	74	79	71	71	80	64	76	np	75
All students	70	73	67	67	71	60	77	np	70
Provincial zone ^d									
Male	56	57	60	56	48	42	np	32	55
Female	68	73	74	68	81	53	np	50	70
All students	62	64	67	62	63	47	np	41	63
Remote zone ^e									
Male	53	61	61	52	54	29	..	17	47
Female	83	74	78	65	87	59	..	22	63
All students	67	67	69	58	69	43	..	20	54
All areas									
Male	63	65	63	61	58	48	79	25	62
Female	73	78	72	70	80	58	76	36	73
All students	68	71	67	66	69	53	77	30	68

^a Data are estimates. They express the number of year 12 completions (year 12 certificates issued by State and Territory education authorities) as a proportion of the estimated population that could attend year 12 in that calendar year. There are variations in assessment, reporting and certification methods for year 12 across states and territories. ^b Definitions are based on the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification. ^c The ACT is included in the metropolitan zone. ^d Darwin is included in the provincial zone. ^e The remote zone includes both remote and very remote areas. There are no very remote areas in Victoria and the ACT, and only a small population in Tasmania. .. Not applicable. **np** Not published.

Source: DEST (unpublished).

Destination

The Steering Committee has identified ‘destination’ as an outcome indicator of school education (box 3.17).

Box 3.17 Destination

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

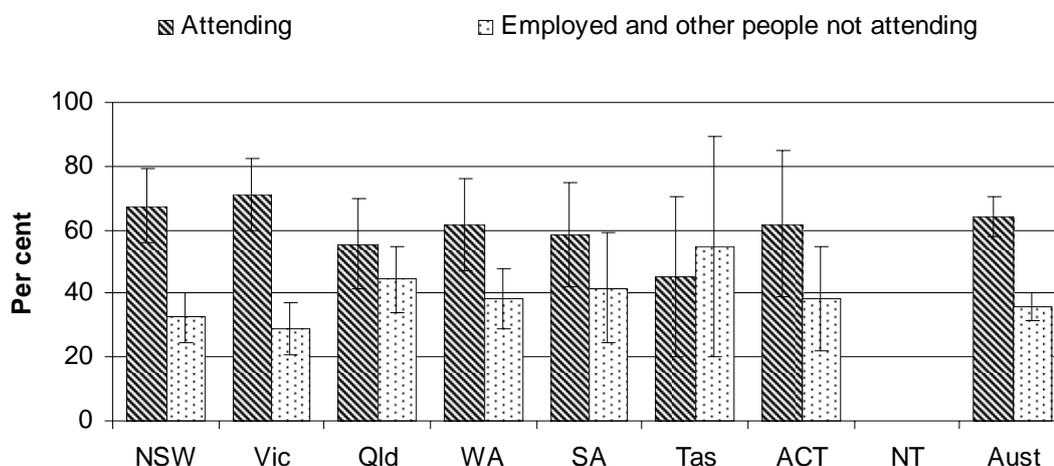
School leaver destination is defined as the number of school leavers who attend post school education as a percentage of all school leavers. It is reported by highest level of schooling completed (year 12 or year 11 and below).

Holding other factors constant, a higher or increasing estimated proportion of school leavers attending post school study suggests that school leavers have greater exposure to further study which is likely to result in improved educational and employment outcomes. Destination of school leavers is influenced by a number of factors including the level of unemployment.

Nationally, 64.1 per cent of year 12 school leavers were enrolled in further study, with 38.9 per cent attending higher education and 25.2 per cent attending TAFE courses or other study (figure 3.45, table 3A.98). For year 11 and below school leavers 33.4 per cent were attending further education (table 3A.98).

Of the 35.9 per cent of year 12 school leavers who were not attending further education, 13.1 per cent were employed full time and 22.8 per cent were either employed part time, unemployed or not in the labour force (figure 3.45). Detailed information relating to year 12, year 11 and below and all school leavers across jurisdictions is in table 3A.98.

Figure 3.45 Destination of year 12 students, 2004^{a, b, c, d}



^a Data are for year 12 students who left school in 2003. ^b Estimates with a relative standard error of 25 to 50 per cent should be used with caution. Estimates with a relative standard error greater than 50 per cent are considered too unreliable for general use. Some estimates reported are between 25 to 50 per cent or greater than 50 per cent. A confidence interval of greater than 12.75 per cent reflects a relative standard error of greater than 25 per cent. Error bars represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. Data are not published for the NT due to unreliable estimates as described above but NT data are included in Australia totals. ^c The categories for employment and enrolment are not exclusive. That is, for example, people enrolled may also be employed. ^d 'Other' includes part time workers, unemployed people and people not in the labour force.

Source: ABS survey of Education and Work (unpublished); table 3A.98.

The Education preface of this Report includes destination data of year 12 and year 11 and below school leavers in 2004 at the national level, and examines the proportions of male and female students attending other educational institutions in 2004 after leaving school in the previous year (table B.4).

3.4 Future directions in performance reporting

Participation, retention and completion rates

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

Nationally comparable reporting of learning outcomes

The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is developing performance measures to assess outcomes in a range of learning areas. This work will provide additional nationally comparable data that will be incorporated into the Review's performance indicator framework.

Enhanced literacy and numeracy measures

Education ministers have agreed to pursue a broadening of the national reporting framework to enhance reporting of literacy and numeracy outcomes at the years 3, 5 and 7 levels, and from 2007 to include Year 9 students in the assessment program. Three areas for potential enhancements to the reporting of literacy and numeracy outcomes were identified: reporting an extended range of student achievement so as to be consistent with information from the national sample assessments; reporting against a common scale in order to improve understanding of student development; and development of a more nationally consistent approach to improve national comparability of test results. A report was provided to ministers in December 2003, and the MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is continuing its work in this area. A trial of the new literacy and numeracy tests will take place in May 2006, and a report will be provided to ministers in August 2006.

VET in schools

Education ministers have endorsed two new indicators for VET in schools, replacing five measures previously approved or noted. Participation and attainment data for VET in schools are expected to be collected annually from 2005 and reported annually from 2006. These new indicators are detailed in boxes 3.13 and 3.14.

Civics and citizenship

Education ministers have agreed to a national civics and citizenship assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. The first national sample assessment was undertaken in October 2004. Years 6 and 10 civics and citizenship assessment data are expected to be available by 2006 and will be reported triennially.

Information and communication technology

Education ministers have agreed to a national information and communication technology assessment of students at years 6 and 10 every three years. The

MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce has developed a definition of information and communication technology literacy, and the first assessment was undertaken in 2005, with further assessments to be undertaken at three year intervals. Years 6 and 10 information and communication technology literacy data are expected to be available in 2006 and will be reported triennially.

Attendance measures

The Steering Committee has identified school attendance as an important area for future reporting. Attendance at school has a significant impact on later academic success and if attendance is erratic then children are unable to reach educational benchmarks (SCRGSP 2005b). The MCEETYA Performance Measurement and Reporting Taskforce is working on developing key performance measures for attendance.

Nationally consistent definitions

The collection of nationally comparable data — against which educational achievement and outcomes can be reported — involves, among other factors, the collection of nationally consistent information on student group background characteristics. National definitions have been developed for gender, Indigenous status, LBOTE students, geographic location and socioeconomic status and have been nationally agreed. National definitions for all items (except students with disabilities) will be applied to data collection instruments in 2005 for literacy and numeracy testing and the National Assessment Program sample assessments for science, civics and citizenship, and information and communication technology. The nationally agreed definitions will be applied to all new student enrolments from 2006 for all national reporting requirements on student outcomes.

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

3.5 Jurisdictions' comments

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

Australian Government comments

“ The Australian Government provides funding to government and non-government schools to improve learning outcomes for all students.

Targeted funding is provided to improve the learning outcomes of students with special needs, including Indigenous students, students with disabilities, those from a language background other than English, low socioeconomic status or who are geographic isolated. Indigenous students are slowly closing the gap but still achieve substantially below national averages. The Australian Government is continuing to fund the Scaffolding Literacy programme, which aims to develop literacy skills of Indigenous students to a high level very quickly. Ongoing funding for the What Works project will continue to assist teachers share best practice and prepare new materials based on the needs identified by schools with significant numbers of Indigenous students.

The Government's priorities also include support for VET in School to help those 49 per cent of senior secondary students with abilities which lie outside traditional academic skills successfully complete schooling and achieve a Year 12 Certificate. Assistance for all young Australians to make the transition from school to further education and training or work is also funded by the Australian Government. Successful pilot programmes, the Career and Transition (CAT) Pilot and the Partnership Outreach Education Model (POEM) are supporting young people (aged 13 to 19 years) through this transition.

Consistent with accountability requirements under the *Schools Assistance (Learning Together – Achievement Through Choice and Opportunity) Act 2004*, the Australian Government is providing significant funding to support the trialling during 2006 of common national test instruments in literacy and numeracy, at Years 3, 5, 7 and 9. Common national tests in these two foundational areas should ensure the prompt reporting of results, including the achievements of students against the agreed minimum benchmarks.

Also during 2006, the Government will be working with the States, Territories and the non-government school sector to develop and trial measures of student attendance, to enable nationally comparable reporting of student attendance up to Year 10, including separate reporting for Indigenous students.

A further focus of the Australian Government is the continued professional development of teachers. The National Institute of Quality Teaching and School Leadership is being funded under the Australian Government Quality Teacher Programme.”

New South Wales Government comments

“ The NSW 2005-06 recurrent and capital budget for education exceeded \$10 billion for the first time — \$440 million more than the previous year. The Budget confirms the NSW Government’s commitment to public education and its determination to meet the challenges of the future. In 2003-04, NSW spent an average of \$10 334 per student in Government schools, well above the Australian average.

Over the next four years, over \$538 million will be allocated to the NSW State Literacy and Numeracy Strategy. Literacy and numeracy programs such as Reading Recovery and Count Me in Too will continue to provide essential support in the early years of schooling to ensure all students have sufficient basic skills to underpin success in later years.

Funding of \$583 million over the next four years, including recurrent funding of \$476 million and capital funding of \$107 million for additional classrooms, is also being provided to continue the class size reduction program. This initiative is being delivered in stages, with class sizes being reduced to a State-wide average of 19.7 in 2005 for Kindergarten. By 2007, it is intended that the statewide average class size not exceed 22 students in Year 1 and 24 in Year 2.

NSW is providing \$146 million over the next four years to significantly enhance professional development for teachers in Government schools. In 2005, approximately \$16 million was provided to Government schools under the Professional Learning Policy for Schools.

Over the next four years, \$60 million is being allocated to improving the range of placement and support options for disruptive students. By 2007, eight new behaviour schools and seven new tutorial centres will be established. This will bring the total number of behaviour schools to 35 and tutorial centres to 40. Additional specialist teacher positions are also being established to improve students learning opportunities and outcomes.

NSW leads Australia through its investment in information and communications technology in schools. Over the next four years, \$942 million will be provided for technology. The continuing Technology for Learning program includes the provision of internet services and technology support in schools and capital funding for new computers. Bandwidth has been progressively upgraded in schools and TAFE NSW colleges, using both Government owned infrastructure and a range of telecommunication carriers.

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Victorian Government comments

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The Victorian Government is committed to a vision of an assured future for all Victorians and a prosperous society through learning. A strong education system is vital to ensure that Victorians have the knowledge and skills to be active, informed and productive citizens.

The Government's continued investment in school education has had a positive effect on class size. Class sizes in prep to year 2 continue to drop, with average class sizes of 20.8 students in 2005, the lowest level on record since 1973.

Increasing the participation rates in all stages of education is a key goal of the Government. Retention rates remain strong with high numbers of students staying on to the beginning of year 12. The February apparent retention rate from year 7 to year 12 has increased from 81.2 per cent in 1999 to 85.1 per cent in 2005.

The proportion of young people completing year 12 or equivalent has continued to improve. In 2004, 78.5 per cent of 19 year-olds completed year 12 or its equivalent, an improvement on the 77.5 per cent who completed in 2003. In addition, the number of 20–24 year-olds who had completed year 12 or equivalent in 2004 was 85.2 per cent, nearly 3 per cent higher than the Australian average.

Key initiatives from the Blueprint for Government Schools continue to be implemented by the Government. The Blueprint outlines the reform agenda for a highly effective government school system for Victoria. The development of the Victorian Essential Learning Standards, scheduled for release in term 4 of 2005, is a key Blueprint initiative. The Standards will ensure that students finish their compulsory years of schooling equipped with the knowledge, skills and personal qualities needed for further education, work and life.

The Leading Schools Fund has supported whole-school transformation for government secondary schools. The fund provides \$162 million over the three year implementation phase to employ 450 additional teachers and to redevelop and build new facilities.

A new School Accountability and Improvement Framework which assists schools to focus on key improvement strategies was launched in March 2005. The framework is supported by a number of targeted programs designed to build the leadership capacity of principals and teachers.

The Student Resource Package was launched in January 2005, replacing the School Global Budget. In a major step forward, funding allocation is now student-focused rather than expenditure input-focused. This will ensure that funding is directed to where it is most needed.

The Victorian Certificate of Applied Learning (VCAL) provides an alternative pathway to the Victorian Certificate of Education for students in years 11 and 12. In 2005, 8125 students enrolled in the VCAL at 322 sites. Sixty per cent of those students complete the VCAL successfully.

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Queensland Government comments



A strong focus on improving outcomes for all Queensland students has informed a number of initiatives announced in 2005.

Further implementation of the Education and Training Reforms for the Future saw the preparatory year introduced in an additional 25 State and five non-State schools, along with the statewide expansion of the senior phase of learning trials, to improve opportunities for young people to achieve a Senior Certificate or Certificate III vocational qualification. In support of these reforms, Queensland announced in April 2005 the introduction of the Queensland Certificate of Education. The Certificate will require Year 12 students to meet strict standards and will recognise a broader range of achievements by students, such as TAFE courses, university subjects and structured work experience.

In May 2005, Queensland released the Bound for Success consultation paper, to improve educational outcomes for Indigenous students in the Cape York and Torres Strait. Consultations with Cape and Torres Strait communities and other key stakeholders commenced in June, and will inform the development of comprehensive strategies to improve Indigenous education in the far north.

The Queensland Government announced the development of the Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Framework (QCAR) in April 2005, followed by a detailed policy statement and expert paper in July 2005. QCAR aims to improve student learning through the implementation of comparable assessment and reporting of student achievement right across the state. QCAR will introduce comparable assessment at key junctures in Years 4, 6 and 9, in addition to the existing national testing agenda at Years 3, 5, 7 and 9. The Queensland Studies Authority will develop the materials and tools for the framework, to be introduced in all schools — state, Catholic and Independent — from Prep to Year 10.

Queensland has committed to increased consistency and transparency in reporting to parents and school communities about student and school performance. As part of this commitment, Queensland will publish annually a broad range of Year 12 outcomes and student destinations. In 2005, young people across the state participated in the first Next Step Destination survey, to identify their work, training and further education pathways after they complete Year 12. The information gained from the survey will provide a rich evidence base to inform school practice and policy at a local, regional and state level. The survey will be conducted each year.

In 2005, Queensland introduced several other important initiatives designed to make schools safer and healthier places, including the introduction of the Healthy Food and Drink Supply Strategy to increase the nutritional value of food and drinks supplied in Queensland schools and the implementation of a new plan to improve services and support for students with disabilities. The passage of the *Education (Queensland College of Teachers) Act 2005* in October 2005 introduced a new system of teacher registration to raise professional standards and provide new levels of student safety.



Western Australian Government comments



The Department of Education and Training is committed to providing all young people a high quality of education or training to meet their particular needs, regardless of where they live.

For government schools the emphasis continues to be on standards of student achievement, pastoral care, values, behaviour management and quality of teaching. For training institutions it is on improving access, flexibility and quality of provision.

The Department has strengthened its focus on ways to address skill shortages, reform of apprenticeship training, and strategies for post-compulsory education and training that specifically target improvements in Years 11 and 12.

The Department's retention and transition strategy requires that each education district develop a District Education and Training Plan detailing how all young people aged between 15 and 17 years will have access to appropriate learning environments, learning programs and career development and support services. Legislation to increase the compulsory education period by a further two years focuses on the importance of educational provision for 15 to 17 year olds.

The number of apprenticeships and traineeships increased, and 350 students joined the new School Apprenticeship Link program which aims to address the skills shortages in trades by offering direct pathways from school into apprenticeships. Over a third of school-based traineeships provided opportunities to Aboriginal youth.

The Department's focus on improving literacy and numeracy standards continued with the four-year Getting it Right literacy and numeracy strategy reaching its target of 200 FTE extra specialist teachers. Also, the Aboriginal Literacy Strategy, based on English as a second language practices, was introduced in remote schools to develop literacy programs that can be sustained over time despite staff turnover.

The Department's comprehensive testing program of student performance included the Monitoring Standards in Education (MSE) sample testing program at Years 3, 7 and 10, the Western Australian Literacy and Numeracy full-cohort testing program at Years 3, 5 and 7 and MSE9 full-cohort testing of all Year 9 government school students in reading, viewing, mathematics and science.

Additional funding has been allocated to the Behaviour Management and Discipline strategy over the next four years to reduce class sizes in Years 4 to 9 and to develop strategies for managing student behaviour problems more effectively. A total of 200 primary and 75 secondary schools are being assisted.



South Australian Government comments



As part of South Australia's strategic plan, education is acknowledged as intrinsically important to the social and economic development of the State.

In 2005, the Department of Education and Children's Services (DECS) Statement of Directions 2005–10 was released representing a blueprint for action for public education and care in South Australia.

The State's commitment to give children the best start from an early age has resulted in the reduction of junior primary class sizes and the forging of stronger foundations in literacy. Since 2003-04, \$9.28 million per annum has been targeted to reduce the number of children in junior primary classes in our most disadvantaged schools. The commitment of \$35 million over four years towards the Early Literacy Program in schools and preschools has resulted in over 5000 educators attending core professional learning days and over 180 extra teacher positions being provided for school mentoring programs in 2005.

Measures to increase the engagement of young people in school training or work have gained momentum. In 2004, student data revealed that retention rates were at an eight-year high. Programs forming part of the Social Inclusion School Retention Action Plan have seen significant increases in students participating in Vocational Education Training programs. Members of local communities across the state are working together through the seventeen Futures Connect clusters across the state and the Innovative Community Action Networks to support the engagement and retention of those students who have disengaged from school, or are at risk of leaving school early. Other projects include a community-mentoring program for young people and the development of innovative curriculum to engage young people in applied learning.

Inclusive policy and practice is continuing. Secondary students with disabilities previously transported by taxi or special bus are being provided with transport training to use public transport. The installation of cutting edge technology is assisting students with hearing impairments in Aboriginal Anangu schools.

The state's commitment to significantly improve the educational outcomes of all Aboriginal children and students across South Australia will be implemented through the DECS Aboriginal Strategy 2005–2010.

Quality teaching has been furthered through the development of the DECS Professional Standards for Teachers in South Australia. And to help ensure that students will experience science and mathematics are exciting, relevant and engaging, the Premier's Industry Awards for Teachers of Science and Mathematics are providing 36 teachers each year with the opportunity to take up 10-day placements with a local business to learn how science and mathematics is applied in the workplace.



Tasmanian Government comments

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In December 2003 the Minister announced an extended review of all services for students with special educational needs and/or additional educational needs. The Review was asked to consider the full scope of service provision across the department, including policy and practice, resourcing, capacity-building and accountability. The review report, *Essential Learnings for All*, was formally launched in July 2004. The review acknowledged that Tasmania is at the forefront of inclusive educational practises nationally.

The report stressed the importance of the values base of the new *Essential Learnings* curriculum and the community orientation of Tasmanian public education. It made recommendations intended to translate the department's inclusion policies into greater practical effort in schools and classrooms. The recommendations of the Review were accepted in full including a major organisational restructure within the school sector with the creation of 27 new clusters of schools with each having a board of Principals to develop new strategies that specifically suit the needs of all students.

Tasmania's strategy for post-Year 10 education and training, *Tasmania: A State of Learning*, was published. It was the result of widespread consultation with learners, parents, employers, unions, government agencies and community groups. The strategy proposed four key elements and 27 initiatives aimed at:

- improving young Tasmanians' participation in education and training beyond compulsory schooling
- building a skilled workforce with the capacity to support Tasmanian business and industry in a growing economy
- enabling second-chance learning opportunities for people of all ages, and
- creating communities that value lifelong learning.

Among those initiatives is one that will require participation of young people in education beyond Year 10. Other initiatives designed to better support youth transition include the provision of pathway planning and transition support, integrating youth services, reviewing Year 11 and 12 curriculum and enabling appropriate career, work and enterprise education.

From the commencement of 2004 the Tasmanian Qualifications Authority was established to combine and integrate the functions of three previous bodies including the Tasmanian Secondary Assessment Board, responsible for the accreditation of the Tasmanian Certificate of Education. The development of a much closer relationship between schools, VET providers and Higher Education, in particular the University of Tasmania, means that the pathways available for young people moving from compulsory schooling will become clearer, allowing greater flexibility in the movement between the three sectors.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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The Department of Education and Training has responsibility for the delivery of quality education services through government preschools and schools, the registration of non-government schools and the administration of vocational education and training in the ACT. The Canberra Plan and in particular the Social Plan (2004) outline the ACT Government's commitment to education, lifelong learning and training.

In February 2005, the first phase of the new curriculum framework for ACT schools, *Every Chance to Learn Curriculum for ACT Schools (preschool to year 10), Principles and Framework (Phase 1) 2005* was released.

Development work on the new ACT curriculum framework has involved the refinement of the Essential Learning Achievements and identification of markers of progress for early childhood, later childhood, early adolescence and later adolescence, for each of the Essential Learning Achievements. The framework will be trialled and validated in schools in 2006.

As part of its Canberra Plan commitment to education, the ACT has also introduced the Promoting Healthy Students initiative that aims to improve the health and fitness of all students in ACT schools. The focus on student health and well being specifically addresses nutrition, physical activity and drug education for students from preschool to year 12, school canteen accreditation and the development of a primary school physical activity resource. In addition two senior secondary health coordinators were appointed to coordinate health services on college campuses.

The ACT Government also provided funding for all schools in the territory to be connected to broadband services to improve information and communication technology delivery to schools.

In accord with the equity principles of the Education Act (2004) the ACT Government has provided additional support funding to each ACT government school to assist disadvantaged students from lower social economic backgrounds to access specific educational activities or services offered by their school.

The department launched its School Excellence Initiative in 2004. An integral part of this, the School Improvement Framework, guides and directs the school review and development processes in ACT government schools. In addition, the department published *Teachers: The Key to Student Success: A Discussion Paper*, to assist ACT government schools with this process.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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The Department of Employment, Education and Training works with Territorians to improve education and training outcomes for our students of all ages by creating and improving pathways between school, training and employment so all Territorians have the opportunity to actively participate in the future of the Territory.

In primary school education, while there has been a small improvement overall in the percentage of Indigenous students reaching national benchmarks in reading, numeracy and writing, overall our Indigenous students fall far short of the percentages of non-Indigenous students reaching benchmark.

In secondary education, while the number of Indigenous students receiving an NT Certificate of Education (NTCE) has risen from 28 in 1999 to 60 in 2004, this is still a very small number and represents only 9 per cent of the total number of NTCEs awarded.

The \$42 million Building Better Schools (BBS) initiative to improve secondary schools over the next four years was launched following extensive community consultation on the Secondary Education Report. BBS is focussed on improving student outcomes in secondary schools across the NT, better engaging young people and their families in secondary schooling and providing access to secondary education for Indigenous students.

An independent Teacher Registration Board was established to ensure teachers employed in government and non-government schools have suitable qualifications and are encouraged to commit to ongoing professional development.

In the past year, Interactive Distance Learning (IDL) lessons have continued for schools of the air and the NT Open Education Centre, including over 100 indigenous community students. There has been a marked increase in support and training for home tutors and parents from both Katherine School of the Air and Alice Springs School of the Air over IDL with ICT skills of students and families proving to be greatly enhanced as a flow on benefit of IDL. Through the Building Better Schools initiative, an IDL studio will be established at Katherine School of the Air in 2005 to enable the school to provide full time IDL lessons.

Due to the success of the Accelerated Literacy pilot, the program now involves a further 14 schools, bringing the total to 20. At the end of 2004, the program involved 1446 target students. A further 121 teachers and about 80 non-teaching staff have been trained in the methodology. Charles Darwin University has undertaken an analysis of available data, which shows measurable improvements in literacy levels for accelerated literacy students.

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3.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Apparent retention rates	The number of full time students in a designated year of schooling, expressed as a percentage of their respective cohort group at an earlier base year — for example, the percentage of full time students who continued to year 12 in 2004 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 2004 by the total number of full time students in year 10 in 2002.
Full time equivalent student	The FTE of a full time student is 1.0. The method of converting part time student numbers into FTEs should be based on the student's workload compared with the workload usually undertaken by a full time student. The FTE of part time primary students was included for the first time for 2001.
Full time student	A person who satisfies the definition of a student and undertakes a workload equivalent to, or greater than, that usually undertaken by a student of that year level. The definition of full time student varies across jurisdictions.
Geographic classification	<p>Geographic categorisation is based on the agreed MCEETYA Geographic Location Classification which, at the highest level, divides Australia into three zones (the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones). A further disaggregation comprises five categories: metropolitan and provincial zones each subdivided into two categories, and the remote zone. Further subdivisions of the two provincial zone categories and the remote zone category provide additional, more detailed, classification options. When data permit, a separate very remote zone can be reported along with the metropolitan, provincial and remote zones, as follows.</p> <p><i>A. Metropolitan zone</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Mainland State capital city regions statistical divisions: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth statistical divisions.2. Major urban statistical districts (100 000 or more population): ACT–Queanbeyan, Cairns, Gold Coast–Tweed, Geelong, Hobart, Newcastle, Sunshine Coast, Townsville, Wollongong. <p><i>B. Provincial zone (non-remote)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">3. Provincial city statistical districts plus Darwin statistical division. Provincial city statistical districts and Darwin statistical division (50 000–99 999 population): Albury–Wodonga, Ballarat, Bathurst–Orange, Burnie–Devonport, Bundaberg, Bendigo, Darwin, Launceston, La Trobe Valley, Mackay, Rockhampton, Toowoomba, Wagga Wagga. Provincial City Statistical Districts (25 000–49 999 population): Bunbury, Coffs Harbour, Dubbo, Geraldton, Gladstone, Shepparton, Hervey Bay, Kalgoorlie–Boulder, Lismore, Mandurah, Mildura, Nowra–Bomaderry, Port Macquarie, Tamworth, Warrnambool.

	<p>4. Other provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score \leq 5.92)</p> <p> Inner provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score $<$ 2.4)</p> <p> Outer provincial areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 2.4 and $<$ 5.92)</p> <p>C. Remote zone</p> <p>5. Remote zone (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 5.92)</p> <p> Remote areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 5.92 and \leq 10.53)</p> <p> Very remote areas (CD ARIA Plus score $>$ 10.53)</p>
Government recurrent expenditure per full time equivalent student	Total government recurrent expenditure divided by the total number of FTE students. Expenditure is based on the National School Statistics Collection (MCEETYA 2004b), with adjustments for notional UCC charges and payroll tax. Notional UCC is included for all jurisdictions and payroll tax estimates are included for those jurisdictions not subject to it (WA and the ACT). Expenditure figures are in financial years and student numbers are in calendar years, so the total number of students is taken as the average of two years. When calculating the 2003-04 average expenditure per student, for example, the total expenditure figure is at 2003-04 but the total student number figure is the average of student numbers from 2003 and 2004.
Indigenous student	A student of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin who identifies as being an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander or from an Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander background. Administrative processes for determining Indigenous status vary across jurisdictions.
In-school costs	Costs relating directly to schools. Staff, for example, are categorised as being either in-school or out-of-school. They are categorised as in-school if they usually spend more than half of their time actively engaged in duties at one or more schools or ancillary education establishments. In-school employee related expenses, for example, represent all salaries, wages awards, allowances and related on costs paid to in-school staff.
Language background other than English (LBOTE) student	A status that is determined by administrative processes that vary across jurisdictions.
Out-of-school costs	Costs relating indirectly to schools. Staff, for example, are categorised as being either in-school or out-of-school. They are categorised as out-of-school if they do not usually spend more than half of their time actively engaged in duties at one or more schools or ancillary education establishments. Out-of-school employee related expenses, for example, represent all salaries, wages awards, allowances and related on costs paid to out-of-school staff.
Part time student	A student undertaking a workload that is less than that specified as being full time in the jurisdiction.
Participation rate	The number of full time school students of a particular age, expressed as a proportion of the estimated resident population of the same age at June.
Potential year 12 population	An estimate of a single-year age group that could have participated in year 12 that year, defined as the estimated resident population aged 15–19 years, divided by 5.
Real expenditure	Nominal expenditure adjusted for changes in prices, using the GDP price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.

Scientific literacy	Scientific literacy and scientific literacy: the application of broad conceptual understandings of science to make sense of the world, understand natural phenomena, and interpret media reports about scientific issues. It also includes asking investigable questions, conducting investigations, collecting and interpreting data and making decisions.
Socioeconomic status	As per footnotes to table 3A.96, which provide definitions specific to each table. Elsewhere in the Report, socioeconomic status data are presented that are not fully comparable across jurisdictions because administrative processes for determining socioeconomic status vary across jurisdictions.
Source of income	In this chapter, income from either the Australian Government or State and Territory governments. Australian Government expenditure is derived from specific purpose payments (current and capital) for schools. This funding indicates the level of monies allocated, not necessarily the level of expenditure incurred in any given financial year. The data provide, therefore, only a broad indication of the level of Australian Government funding.
Student-to-staff ratios	The number of FTE students per FTE teaching and non-teaching staff. Students at special schools are allocated to primary and secondary. The FTE of staff includes those who are generally active in schools and ancillary education establishments.
Student	A person who is formally (officially) enrolled or registered at a school, and is also active in a primary, secondary or special education program at that school. Students at special schools are allocated to primary and secondary on the basis of their actual grade (if assigned); whether or not they are receiving primary or secondary curriculum instruction; or, as a last resort, whether they are of primary or secondary school age.
Student, primary	A student in primary education, which covers pre-year 1 to year 6 in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT, pre-year 1 to year 7 in WA, SA and the NT, and year 1 to year 7 in Queensland.
Student, secondary	A student in secondary education, which commences at year 7 in NSW, Victoria, Tasmania and the ACT, and at year 8 in Queensland, SA, WA and the NT.
Students with disabilities	Students included in the annual system reports to DEST. The definitions of students with disabilities are based on individual State and Territory criteria, so data are not comparable across jurisdictions.
Teacher	Teaching staff have teaching duties (that is, they are engaged to impart the school curriculum) and spend the majority of their time in contact with students. They support students, either by direct class contact or on an individual basis. Teaching staff include principals, deputy principals and senior teachers mainly involved in administrative duties, but not specialist support staff (who may spend the majority of their time in contact with students but are not engaged to impart the school curriculum) (MCEETYA 2002b).
Ungraded student	A student in ungraded classes who cannot readily be allocated to a year of education. These students are included as either ungraded primary or ungraded secondary, according to the typical age level in each jurisdiction.

3.7 Supporting tables

The files containing the supporting tables are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach3A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach3A.pdf. The files containing the supporting tables can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without access to the CD-ROM or Internet can contact the Secretariat to obtain the supporting tables (see contact details on the inside front cover of the Report).

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4 Vocational education and training

This chapter focuses on performance information — equity, effectiveness and efficiency — for government funded vocational education and training (VET) in Australia in 2004. The VET system delivers employment related skills across a wide range of vocations. It provides Australians with the skills to enter or re-enter the labour force, retrain for a new job or upgrade skills for an existing job. The VET system includes government and privately funded VET delivered through a number of methods by a wide range of training institutions and enterprises.

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

This year, the chapter has been enhanced by:

- reporting on ‘government recurrent expenditure per load pass’ and ‘cost of capital per load pass’
- developing a stand-alone indicator for Indigenous people participating in VET
- revising data items following the redesign of the Student Outcomes survey
- replacing indicators ‘students meeting main objective for doing a course’ and ‘vocational outcomes’ with ‘student satisfaction with VET’ and ‘student employment and further study outcomes’, respectively
- reporting on skill outputs from VET.

Section 4.1 contains a profile of the VET sector in Australia, and provides the context for assessing performance indicators in the subsequent sections. Section 4.2 describes the framework of performance indicators for VET, and section 4.3 presents and discusses the available data relating to this framework. In section 4.4, future directions in the development and reporting of performance indicators for VET are discussed. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions’ comments in section 4.5, definitions of key terms and indicators in section 4.6, a list

of supporting tables in section 4.7 and a list of references in section 4.8. Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 4A.4 is table 4 in the attachment). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report.

4.1 Profile of vocational education and training

Service overview

The VET system involves the interaction of employers, the Australian, State, Territory and local governments (as both purchasers and providers), and an increasing number of private and community registered training organisations. The system provides a diverse range of programs and qualification levels to students, with course durations varying from a module or unit of competency (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

Levels of VET range from a single module or unit of competency (which can involve fewer than 10 contact hours) to advanced diplomas (which can involve up to four years of study). All training levels in the VET system need to be assessed because many students complete modules or units of competency 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, often in combination. The availability of distance education has increased, with off-campus options such as correspondence, Internet study and interactive teleconferencing.

The types of training organisation include institutions specialising in VET delivery, such as government owned TAFE institutes, agricultural colleges and private training businesses; adult community education providers; secondary schools and colleges; universities; industry and community bodies with a registered training organisation (RTO) arm; and businesses, organisations and government agencies that have RTO status to train their own staff. Group Training Organisations are RTOs and some RTOs may also be New Apprenticeship Centres. Schools and universities provide dual award courses that combine traditional studies with VET, with an award from both the VET provider and the secondary school or university. In addition to formal VET delivered by an RTO, many people undertake on-the-job training in the workplace or attend training courses that do not lead to a recognised VET qualification.

(continued on next page)

Box 4.1 (continued)

This Report covers VET services provided by organisations receiving government funding allocations. It does not include privately funded training or training funded by government outside the funding allocations. These VET services include the provision of vocational programs of study in government owned TAFE institutes and universities with TAFE divisions, other government and community institutions, and government funded activity by private RTOs.

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

- obtain a qualification to enter the labour force
- retrain or update labour force skills
- develop skills, including general education skills such as literacy and numeracy, that enhance students' ability to enter the labour force
- provide a pathway to further tertiary education, including entrance to higher education.

Government funding

Recurrent expenditure on VET by Australian, State and Territory governments totalled \$3.9 billion in 2004 — a real decrease of 3.1 per cent from 2003 (table 4A.1). Government recurrent expenditure was equal to \$284.9 per person aged 15–64 years across Australia in 2004 (table 4A.2).

Size and scope

The VET sector is large and varied. In 2004, 30.2 per cent of Australians aged 15–64 years held a VET qualification (DEST 2005). VET qualifications can vary significantly by length, level and field.

Students

Approximately 1.6 million people participated in VET programs across Australia in 2004. The total number of VET students decreased by 7.1 per cent between 2003 and 2004, and by 6.6 per cent between 2000 and 2004. Of the VET students in 2004, 1.1 million (70 per cent of all VET students) participated in VET programs that were funded by government recurrent expenditure through State and Territory

agencies (table 4A.3). The number of government recurrent funded VET students declined by 10.7 per cent between 2000 and 2004, although the number of government recurrent funded curriculum hours increased by 4.5 per cent. In addition, a small number of VET students (35 400, or 2.2 per cent of all VET students in 2004) were funded through specific purpose government programs (DEST 2005).

The remaining 422 200 VET students in 2004 participated on a fee-for-service basis as domestic students (26.5 per cent of all VET students) or international students (1.3 per cent of all VET students). The proportion of domestic fee-for-service students increased from 23.2 per cent of all VET students in 2000 to 26.5 per cent in 2004 (DEST 2005). Of the 1.6 million students who participated in VET programs in 2004, 3.0 per cent or 47 872 gained some sort of recognition for prior learning (table 4A.3).

All other VET student data presented in this Report refer only to VET students who were funded by government recurrent expenditure and attended government institutions (primarily TAFE institutions and universities), community education providers and private registered VET providers. They do not include students who participated in VET programs in schools or undertook 'recreation, leisure or personal enrichment' education programs (DEST 2005).

To maintain consistency with the *Annual National Report of the Australian VET System 2004* (DEST 2005), the VET student participation data were not adjusted for recognition of prior learning or for students who enrolled but did not participate.¹

Hours

Government funded VET students participated in 279.7 million government funded adjusted curriculum hours in 2004. The number of adjusted annual hours delivered per government funded VET student in 2004 was 250.5 hours per student (table 4A.3).

¹ The scope of the *Annual National Report of the Australian VET System 2004* is VET training through public and private training providers that is recurrently funded by Australian, State and Territory governments. It excludes government special purpose funding, activities funded by private and overseas providers, students enrolled in fee-for-service activity, overseas full-fee paying activity and any activity that took place at an overseas training provider location. The same scope applies to this Report.

Courses

VET qualifications range from non-award courses to certificates (levels I–IV), diplomas and advanced diplomas. In 2004, 13.4 per cent of government funded VET students were undertaking a diploma or advanced diploma, 44.2 per cent were enrolled in a certificate level III or IV, 23.7 per cent were enrolled in a certificate level I or II or lower, and 18.8 per cent were enrolled in a course that did not lead directly to a qualification (DEST 2005).

Fields of study also varied greatly. In 2004, 27.0 per cent of units of competency or modules undertaken by government funded VET students were in management and commerce, 15.8 per cent were in engineering and related technologies, 9.4 per cent were in health, 8.8 per cent were in society and culture and 6.6 per cent were in food, hospitality and personal services. Other fields studied by government funded VET students included information technology, architecture and building, education, and creative arts (DEST 2005).

Institutions

Government funded VET programs were delivered at 933 TAFE and other government provider locations, and at 7659 community education and other registered training provider locations (that is, the locations of all other registered training providers, including private providers, that receive government recurrent funding for VET delivery) across Australia in 2004 (table 4A.3). The infrastructure (noncurrent physical assets) of government owned TAFE institutions and TAFE divisions of universities was valued at \$6.9 billion in 2004, of which 94.1 per cent comprised the value of land and buildings (table 4A.15). The value of net assets of government VET providers was \$522.30 per person aged 15–64 years across Australia in 2004. Asset values varied across jurisdictions (table 4A.4).

Roles and responsibilities in 2004

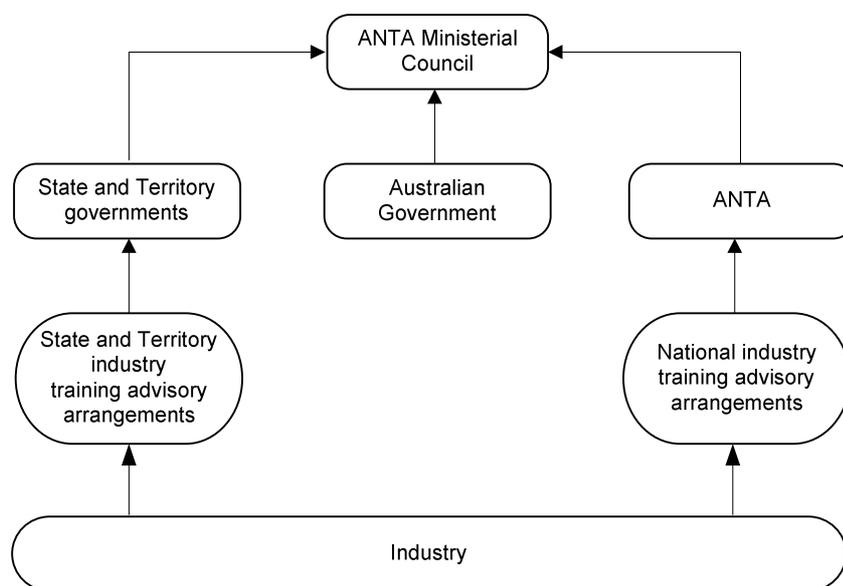
The national VET system is a cooperative arrangement between the Australian, State and Territory governments, industry and service providers. The Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) Ministerial Council of Australian, State and Territory government ministers leads the system, providing direction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

In October 2004, the Prime Minister announced that the ANTA would be abolished from July 2005 and its responsibilities taken into the Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST). The Prime Minister also announced that a Ministerial Council on Vocational Education would be established to ensure continued harmonisation of a national system of standards, assessment and accreditations, with goals agreed in the Commonwealth-State Agreement for Skilling Australia's Workforce (DEST 2005).

National industry training advisory arrangements in 2004

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

Figure 4.1 Policy advice and decision making within the VET system in 2004



State industry training advisory arrangements

Prior to 2003, ITABs were the key conduits for advice and information between the VET system and industry in each jurisdiction. In 2002, the Australian Government

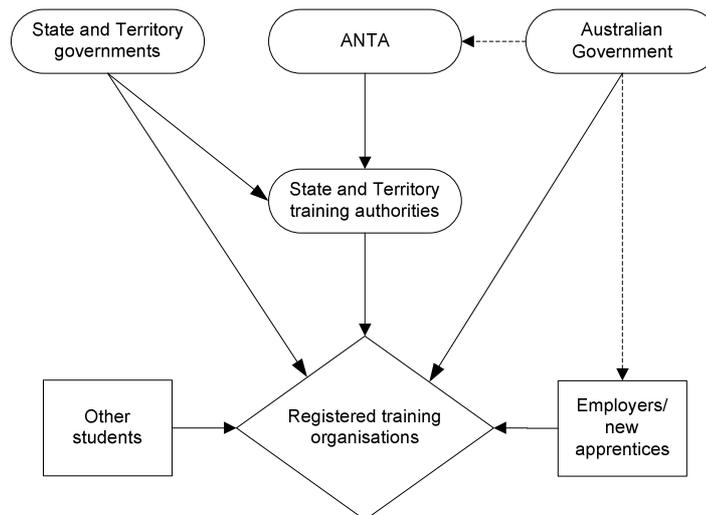
ceased contributing to State and Territory ITABs, and State and Territory governments reviewed their industry advisory arrangements. Most jurisdictions maintained their respective ITABs either on an interim basis or with a changed role. Tasmania replaced its ITABs with new arrangements overseen by a high level strategic advisory group. The ACT established the ACT Industry Training Advisory Association Inc. to provide industry training advisory services.

VET funding flows

State and Territory governments provide funding for VET services through the State and Territory training authorities. They provided \$2.6 billion in 2004 — 71.4 per cent of government recurrent funding, similar to 71.3 per cent in 2003. The Australian Government provided the remainder of government recurrent funding (NCVER 2004). In 2004, Australian Government funding of VET services was administered and allocated to the State and Territory training authorities by DEST through ANTA.

Registered training organisations also receive revenue from individuals and organisations for fee-for-service programs, ancillary trading revenue, other operating revenue and revenue from Australian, State and Territory government specific purpose funds (figure 4.2). The Australian Government also provides funding for new apprenticeship centres and employer incentives for New Apprenticeships.

Figure 4.2 Funding flows within the VET system



Allocation of VET funding

The bulk of government VET funds are allocated to government VET providers based on the planned activity set by State and Territory training authorities. Funding of non-government providers for VET delivery was \$342.9 million in 2004 — a 4.6 per cent increase in real terms from 2003 (table 4A.5).

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

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

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

An estimated \$702.4 million of government VET funding was allocated on a competitive basis in 2004 (including user choice arrangements) — 3.3 per cent less in real terms than in 2003 (table 4A.6). The degree of competition in the tendering process varies across jurisdictions. Some tenders can be contested by both government providers and private registered training organisations (open competitive tendering), while some tenders are restricted to either government providers or private registered training organisations (limited competitive tendering).

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

Box 4.2 TAFE institutes and competitive tendering

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

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

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

Source: HRSCEET (1998).

4.2 Framework of performance indicators

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

For the 2006 Report, the performance indicator framework was revised to incorporate the new national strategy for 2004–10. The revised framework is built around the VET objectives established under the national strategy (box 4.3). For example, ‘VET participation by target groups’ is a measure of equitable access to VET, ‘student employment and further study outcomes’ is a measure of the effect of VET on equipping Australians for participation in the workforce, and ‘government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour’ is an indicator of the extent to which the value of government VET expenditure is maximised.

Box 4.3 Objectives for VET, 2004–10

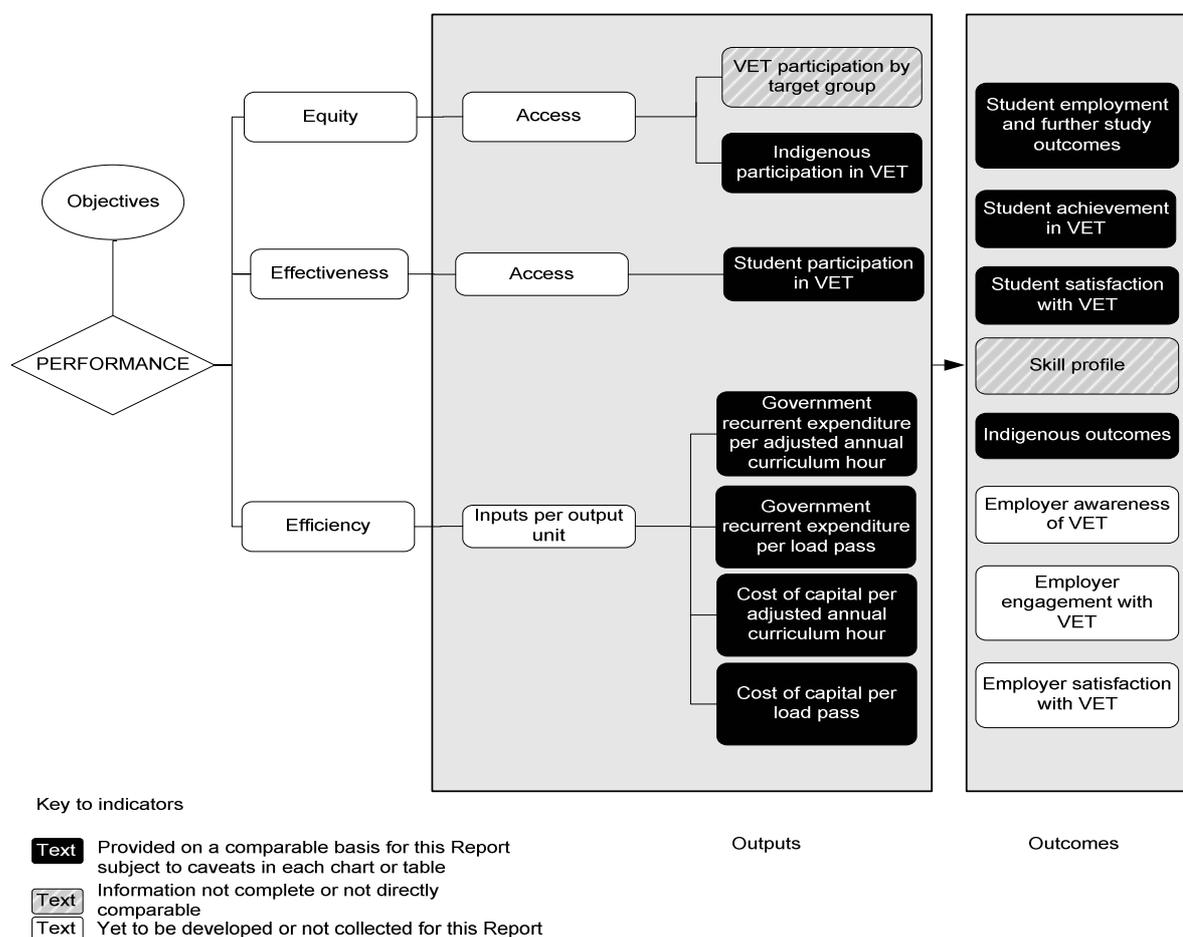
The ANTA Ministerial Council agreed in 2005 on four objectives for the VET system for the period 2004–10:

- industry will have a highly skilled workforce to support strong performance in the global economy
- employers and individuals will be at the centre of vocational education and training
- communities and regions will be strengthened economically and socially through learning and employment
- Indigenous Australians will have skills for viable jobs and their learning culture will be shared.

Source: ANTA (2004).

The performance indicator framework (figure 4.3) shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report. For data that are not directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective.

Figure 4.3 Performance indicators for VET services



4.3 Key performance indicator results

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

Outputs

Equity

A key national goal of the VET system is to increase opportunities and outcomes for disadvantaged groups. The designated target equity groups are females, residents of rural and remote areas, Indigenous people, people with a disability and

people speaking a language other than English at home. This section includes indicators of access to VET by these equity groups in 2004.

VET participation by target equity group

The Steering Committee has identified ‘VET participation by target equity group’ as an indicator of the equity of access to VET services (box 4.4). The student data for all target equity groups in this Report are for government funded students only and are not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and students who enrolled but did not participate.

Box 4.4 VET participation by target equity group

‘VET participation by target equity group’ (females, residents of rural and remote areas, Indigenous Australians, people with a disability, and people speaking a language other than English at home) is an indicator of the target group’s access to the VET system, compared with that of the general population, and reflects performance against the objective of achieving equitable outcomes in VET.

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

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

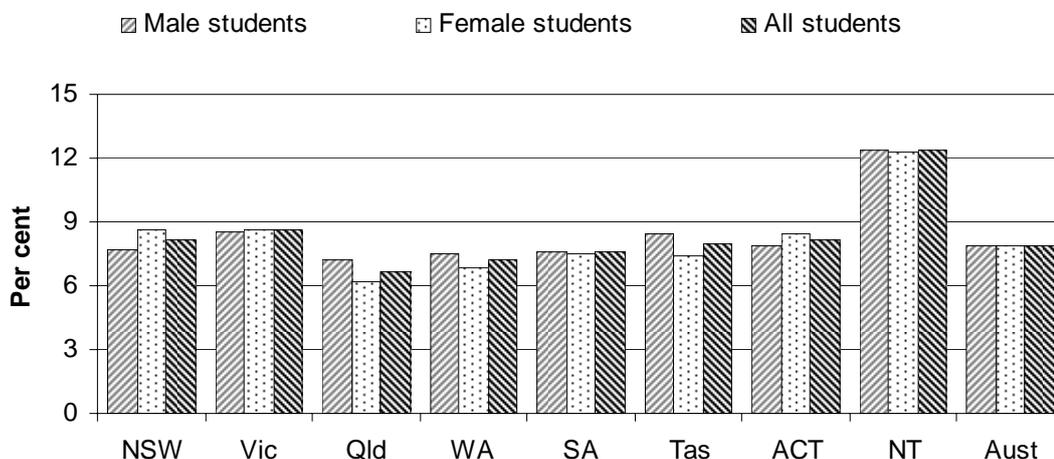
Care needs to be taken in interpreting the participation rates presented for Indigenous people, people with a disability and people speaking a language other than English at home because (1) the data depend on self-identification at the time of enrolment and (2) the number of non-responses (that is, students who did not indicate whether they belong to these groups) varies across jurisdictions.

Data are for government funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. It is not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and ‘student enrolment no participation’ (that is, students who enrolled but did not participate in VET programs).

VET participation by target equity group — females

Traditionally, males have had a higher VET participation rate than females. In 2004, however, the national VET participation rate was the same for both females and males (7.9 per cent) (figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years, by sex, 2004^{a, b}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b The participation rate is the number of 15–64 year old students participating in VET expressed as a proportion of the population aged 15–64 years.

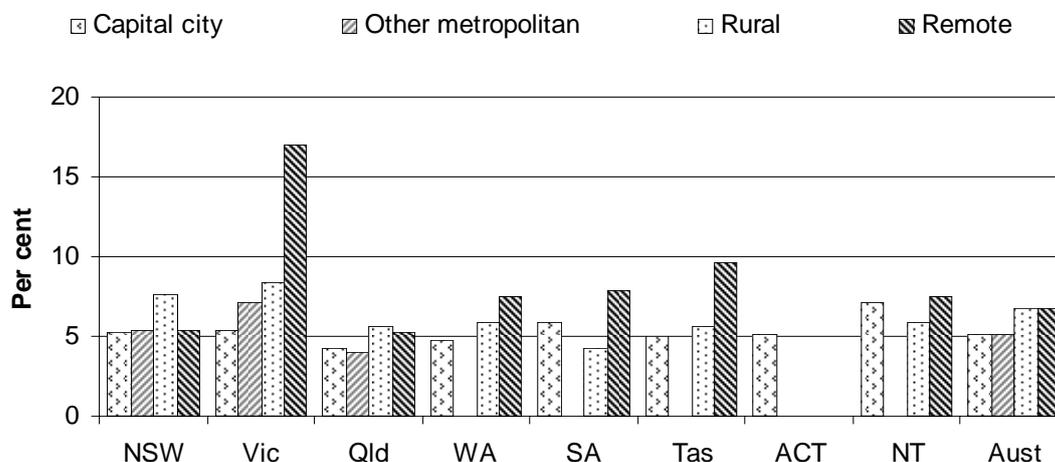
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.8.

VET participation by target equity group — people from rural and remote areas

Nationally, the VET participation rate in 2004 was higher for people from rural (6.8 per cent) and remote areas (6.7 per cent) than for people from other geographic regions (5.1 per cent for capital cities and 5.2 per cent for other metropolitan areas) (figure 4.5).² Employment opportunities and the availability of alternative education services in rural and remote areas may affect the level of VET participation in these areas.

² VET student participation data by region are based on students' home postcode using the Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Area Classification system (RRMA) classification of regions (which includes the classifications: capital city; other metropolitan; rural; remote; interstate and overseas), as distinct from the Accessibility and Remoteness Index for Australia (ARIA) classification currently used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (table A.6). Data for 2004 in other VET related publications may be based on ARIA or other geographic classifications.

Figure 4.5 **VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years, by region, 2004^{a, b, c, d}**



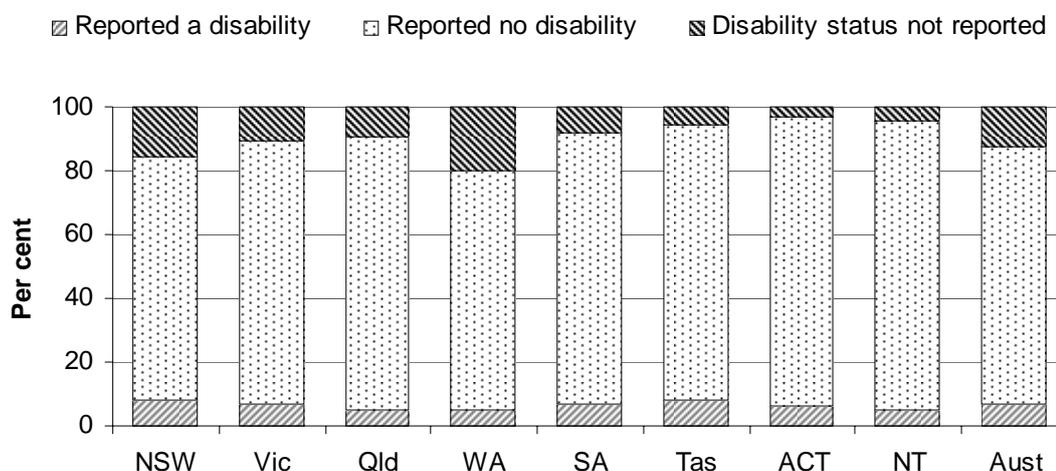
^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Capital city areas are defined as State and Territory capital city statistical divisions. Other metropolitan areas are defined as other statistical subdivisions that include urban centres of population of 100 000 or more. Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. Rural areas include the remainder of non-metropolitan statistical local areas. ^c There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are for students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions. In the ACT, the data for students from other metropolitan and rural areas are too small to calculate meaningful participation rates. ^d In WA, SA, Tasmania and the NT the data for students from other metropolitan areas are too small to calculate meaningful participation rates.

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

VET participation by target equity group — people with a disability

Nationally, 6.8 per cent of government funded VET students in 2004 reported having a permanent or significant disability (figure 4.6), compared with 5.6 per cent of all VET students (that is, government funded and other VET students) (table 4A.7). Based on the data for all VET students, an estimated 4 per cent of Australian people aged 15–64 years who had a disability undertook VET in 2004 (derived by NCVET from ABS [2004a] and NCVET [unpublished]).

Figure 4.6 VET students, by disability status, 2004^{a, b}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools.

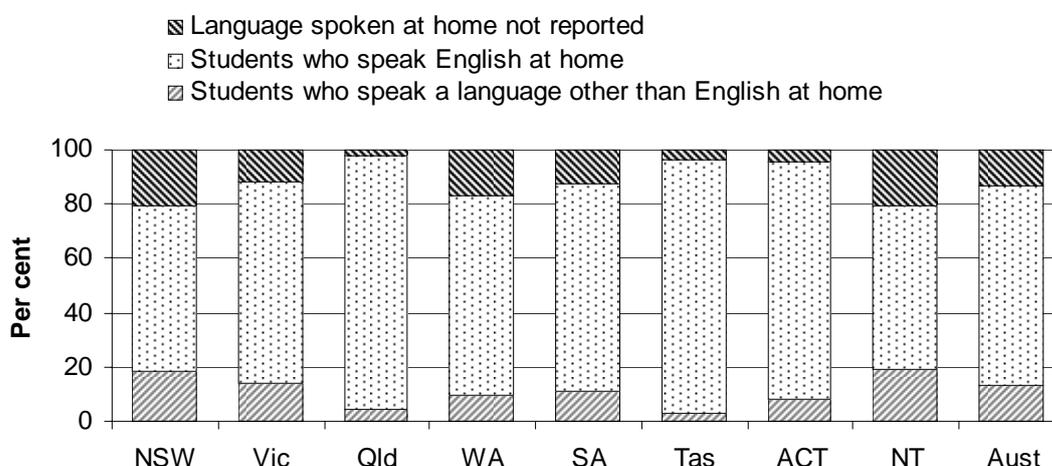
^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.10.

VET participation by target equity group — students speaking a language other than English at home

In 2004, 13.1 per cent of government funded VET students reported speaking a language other than English at home (figure 4.7). By comparison, 15.2 per cent of the total population of Australia spoke a language other than English at home in 2001. Nationally, the proportion of VET students who reported speaking a language other than English at home in 2004 was lower than the equivalent proportion in the total population (tables A.5 and 4A.11).

Figure 4.7 VET students, by language spoken at home, 2004^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

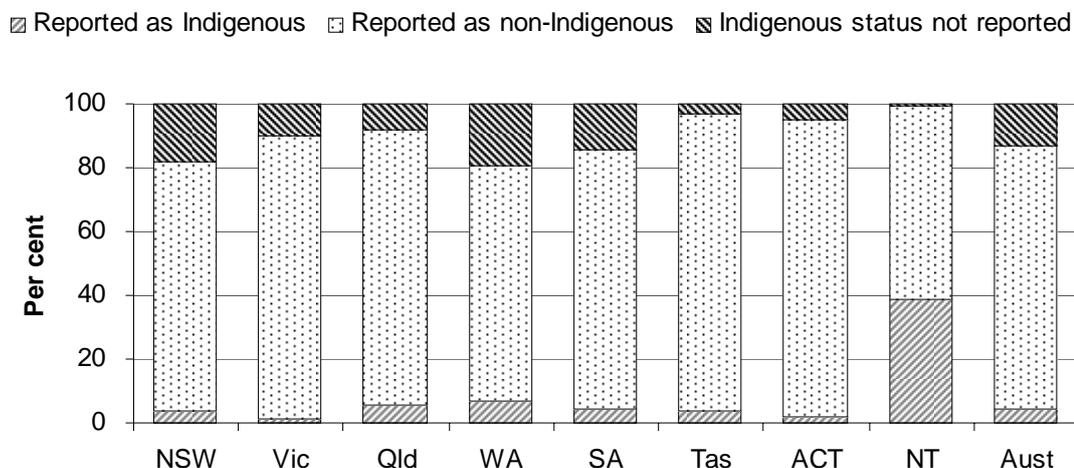
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.11.

Indigenous participation in VET

In 2004, 4.1 per cent of government funded VET students in Australia identified themselves as Indigenous, while 13.3 per cent of students did not report their Indigenous status (figure 4.8). The proportion of government funded VET students who identified as Indigenous was higher than the proportion of Indigenous people in the total population nationally (2.4 per cent) (table 4A.12).

Nationally, the VET participation rate for Indigenous people aged 15–64 years was 16.0 per cent, compared with 8.3 per cent for all people (figure 4.9). These student participation data are not age standardised, so the younger age profile of the Indigenous population relative to all Australians is likely to affect the results.

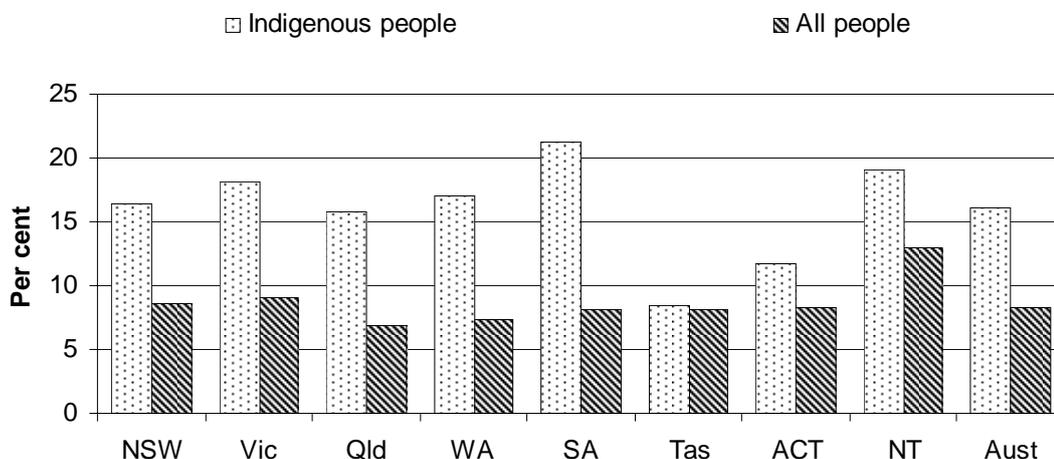
Figure 4.8 VET students, by Indigenous status, 2004^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.12.

Figure 4.9 VET participation rate, by Indigenous status, 2004^{a, b, c}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b The Indigenous participation rate is the number of students who reported being Indigenous as a percentage of the experimental estimates of Indigenous people aged 15–64 years for 30 June 2004 (ABS Experimental estimates and projections, Indigenous Australians, 3238. 0 (30 June 1991 to 30 June 2009); low projection series, tables 25–34, pp. 53–62). The Indigenous participation rate in the 2005 Report and in other VET publications was based on the number of students who reported being Indigenous as a percentage of the total Indigenous population from the ABS experimental projection of all Indigenous people. ^c Care needs to be taken in interpreting these data because the Indigenous population's age profile is younger than that of the non-Indigenous population. Participation rates for all ages are likely to differ from participation rates for working age populations.

Source: ABS (2004b); ABS (unpublished); NCVET (unpublished); tables A.2, A.7 and 4A.12.

Effectiveness

Student participation in VET

The Steering Committee has identified ‘student participation in VET’ by target age group (people aged 15–64 years) as an indicator of the effectiveness of VET services (box 4.5).

Box 4.5 Student participation in VET

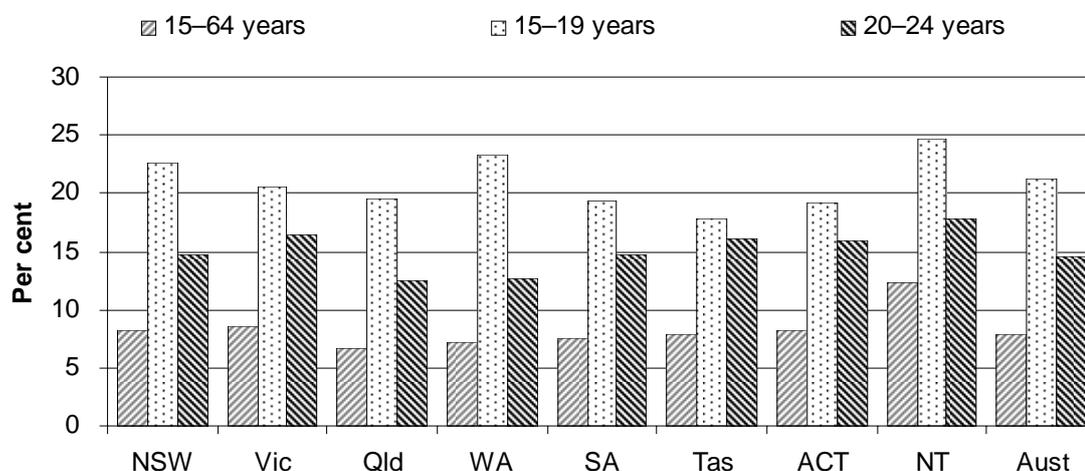
‘Student participation in VET’ is an indicator of the level of access for people aged 15–64 years to the VET system. It reflects the performance of the VET system against the objective of enhancing mobility in the labour market.

The ‘student participation in VET’ rate is the number of 15–64 year olds participating in VET expressed as a proportion of the population aged 15–64 years. High VET participation rates indicate high levels of access to the VET system by the general population.

Data are for government funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. It is not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and ‘student enrolment no participation’ (that is, students who enrolled but did not participate in VET programs).

In 2004, 1.1 million people aged 15–64 years participated in government funded VET programs (table 4A.7). This included 293 536 people aged 15–19 years and 205 576 people aged 20–24 years. These student numbers were equivalent to national participation rates of 7.9 per cent for people aged 15–64 years, 21.2 per cent for people aged 15–19 years and 14.6 per cent for people aged 20–24 years (figure 4.10).

Figure 4.10 VET participation rates, by target age groups, 2004^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.7.

Efficiency

In the last national VET strategy (1998–2003), one of the stated objectives for VET was to maximise the value of government VET expenditure (SCRGSP 2005). During the ANTA agreement for the period 2001–03, states and territories re-affirmed their commitment to this objective and agreed to strive for improved efficiency levels (ANTA 2003). An indicator of efficiency is the level of government inputs per unit of output (unit cost). The indicator of unit cost reported here is ‘recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour’.

The Steering Committee has identified issues that may reduce the comparability of cost estimates across jurisdictions in VET (box 4.6). To address some of these comparability issues, the Steering Committee has included estimates of a payroll tax for the ACT (SCRCSSP 1999) and a user cost of capital for all jurisdictions (box 4.6) in the efficiency indicators presented.

Box 4.6 **Comparability of cost estimates**

It is an objective of the Review to report comparable estimates of costs. Ideally, the full range of costs to government is counted on a comparable basis. The Steering Committee has identified four areas that could affect the comparability of costs across government and private providers.

- Superannuation costs are included in cost estimates for VET. Preferably, superannuation would be costed on an accrued actuarial basis (SCRCSSP 1998).
- Depreciation costs are included in cost estimates for all VET services.
- The user cost of capital is not included in estimates of recurrent expenditure, although it is reported separately as the 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' (box 4.9). The user cost of capital represents the opportunity cost to government of the funds tied up in VET assets. Including the user cost of capital from accrued costs in VET increases the costs per annual curriculum hour. Comparability can be improved by adding the reported user cost of capital to accrued costs if debt servicing costs and State- and Territory-based capital asset charges are deducted from accrual costs.
- Payroll tax is payable by all jurisdictions (except the ACT) for VET. A payroll tax estimate has been included in cost estimates for the ACT (SCRCSSP 1999).

Source: SCRCSSP (1998, 1999).

Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour

The Steering Committee has identified 'government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour' as an indicator of the efficiency of VET services (box 4.7). Financial and activity data from states and territories are reported here within an agreed scope to ensure unit costs accurately reflect the relative efficiency of government service provision across jurisdictions. Data used to calculate unit cost are derived from data that comply with the Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard (AVETMISS).

Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour of government funded VET programs in 2004 was \$14.09 nationally. Real government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour decreased from \$14.20 in 2000 to \$14.09 in 2004 (figure 4.11).

Box 4.7 Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour

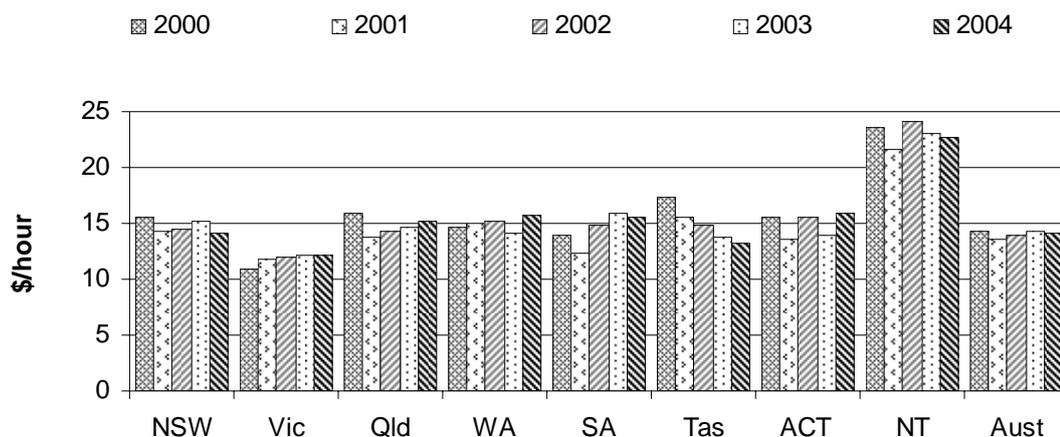
‘Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour’ is the cost to government to deliver VET services per unit of output. Recurrent cost per nominal hour of training measures the average cost of producing a training output of the VET system (a unit cost) and is an indicator of efficiency. ‘Government recurrent expenditure per nominal hour’ of delivery is defined as total government recurrent expenditure (excluding capital costs) per total adjusted nominal hour. Expenditure is adjusted for coursemix differences across jurisdictions.

Low unit costs may indicate efficient delivery of VET services, but care needs to be taken in interpreting efficiency indicators because low unit costs may also reflect lesser quality, so are not necessarily synonymous with better outcomes.

The factors that have the greatest impact on efficiency include:

- training related factors, such as class sizes, teaching salaries, teaching hours per full time equivalent staff member, and differences in the length of training programs
- differences among states and territories, including socio-demographic composition, administrative scale, coursemix and dispersion, and scale of service delivery
- the industry mix in a jurisdiction and its effect on the nature of training required
- VET policies and practices, including the level of fees and charges paid by students.

Figure 4.11 Government real recurrent expenditure per adjusted annual curriculum hour (2004 dollars)^{a, b}



^a The ACT is the only jurisdiction not to levy payroll tax on its VET employees. A payroll tax estimate based on the ACT payroll tax rate has been included in the expenditure data for the ACT. ^b Data for Australia exclude the ACT payroll tax estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.13.

Government recurrent expenditure per load pass

The Steering Committee has identified ‘government recurrent expenditure per load pass’ as an indicator of the efficiency of VET services (box 4.8).

Box 4.8 Government expenditure per load pass

Government expenditure per publicly funded load pass is the cost to government of each successfully completed VET module or unit of competency (that is, the cost per successfully achieved output). Government expenditure per publicly funded load pass is defined as the total government recurrent expenditure divided by the number of hours completed from assessable modules or units of competency.

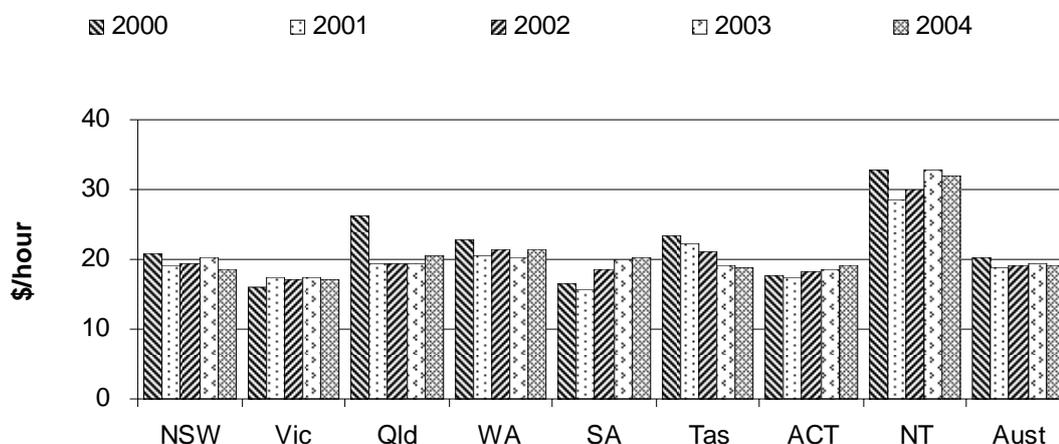
Low unit costs may indicate efficient delivery of VET services per successfully completed load pass hour.

The factors that have the greatest impact on efficiency include:

- training related factors, such as class sizes, teaching salaries, teaching hours per full time equivalent staff member, and differences in the length of training programs
- differences among states and territories, including socio-demographic composition, administrative scale, coursemix and dispersion, and scale of service delivery
- the industry mix in a jurisdiction and its effect on the nature of training required
- VET policies and practices, including the level of fees and charges paid by students.

Government expenditure per load pass hours of government funded VET programs in 2004 was \$19.12 nationally. Real government recurrent expenditure per load pass hour decreased from \$20.18 in 2000 to \$19.12 in 2004 (figure 4.12).

Figure 4.12 Government expenditure per load pass, 2004^{a, b, c}



^a The ACT is the only jurisdiction not to levy payroll tax on its VET employees. A payroll tax estimate based on the ACT payroll tax rate has been included in the expenditure data for the ACT. ^b Data for Australia excludes the ACT payroll tax estimate. ^c Load pass hours includes assessable modules and units of competency only, it does not include non-assessed modules and units of competency. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished) table 4A.14.

Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour

The Steering Committee has identified 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' as an indicator of efficiency of the VET system (box 4.9).

Box 4.9 Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour

The 'cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour' allows the full cost of VET services to be considered in a single measure. The cost of capital is included in estimates of the cost of government services because it reflects the opportunity cost of government assets that could otherwise be used to provide other services or to retire debt. Not reporting the user cost of capital underestimates the cost to government of service provision.

The 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.

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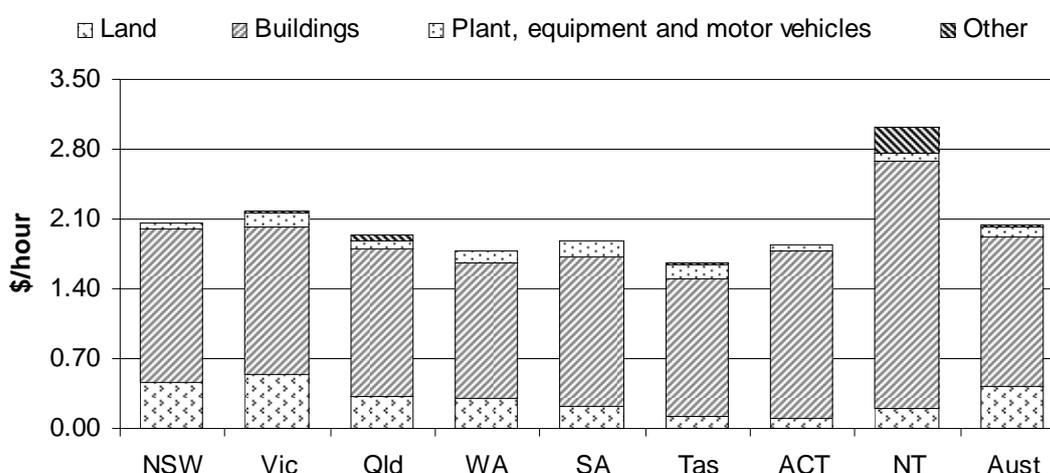
Box 4.9 (continued)

The full cost of VET service delivery includes both the cost of capital and recurrent costs. Lower total costs per adjusted annual curriculum hour may reflect higher efficiency in the delivery of VET services, but efficiency indicators need to be interpreted carefully because low unit costs may also reflect lesser quality, so are not necessarily synonymous with better outcomes.

The cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour needs to be interpreted carefully because differences in some input costs (for example, land values) could affect reported costs across jurisdictions without necessarily reflecting the efficiency of service delivery. The cost of capital for land is presented separately from the cost of other assets, to allow users assessing the results to consider any differences in land values across jurisdictions.

Nationally, the largest components of cost of capital per adjusted curriculum hour were building costs (\$1.50) followed by land costs (\$0.41) in 2004 (figure 4.13).

Figure 4.13 Cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2004^a

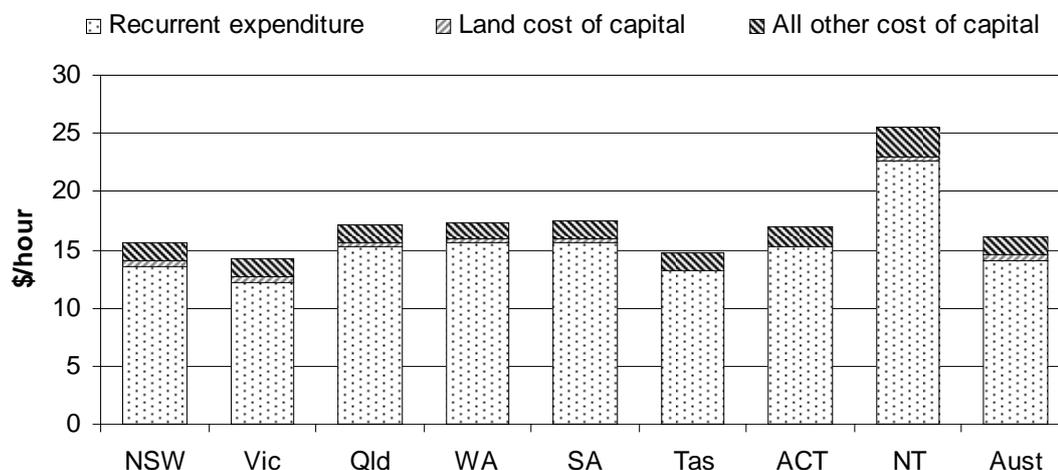


^a Annual curriculum hours adjusted by NCVET for invalid enrolments, recognition of prior learning and course mix weight. Cost of capital includes an imputed user cost of capital of 8 per cent.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.15.

Nationally, the total cost to government of funding VET per adjusted annual curriculum hour in 2004 was \$16.12, comprising \$14.09 in recurrent costs and \$2.03 in capital costs (figure 4.14). These results need to be interpreted carefully, however, because the asset data used to calculate the cost of capital are less reliable than the recurrent cost data.

Figure 4.14 **Total government VET costs per adjusted annual curriculum hour, 2004^{a, b}**



^a The ACT is the only jurisdiction not to levy payroll tax on its VET employees. A payroll tax estimate based on the ACT payroll tax rate has been added to the recurrent expenditure data presented for the ACT. ^b All other cost of capital includes buildings, plant, equipment, motor vehicles and other capital. The cost of capital includes a user cost of capital rate of 8 per cent for all jurisdictions.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.16.

Cost of capital per load pass

The Steering Committee has identified ‘cost of capital per load pass’ as an indicator of efficiency in the VET system (box 4.10).

Box 4.10 Cost of capital per load pass

The ‘cost of capital per load pass’ allows the full cost of VET services to be considered in a single measure. The cost of capital is included in estimates of the cost of government services because it reflects the opportunity cost of government assets that could otherwise be used to provide other services or to retire debt. Not reporting the user cost of capital underestimates the cost to government of service provision.

The 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.

The full cost of VET service delivery includes both the cost of capital and recurrent costs. Lower total costs per load pass hour may reflect higher efficiency in the delivery of VET services.

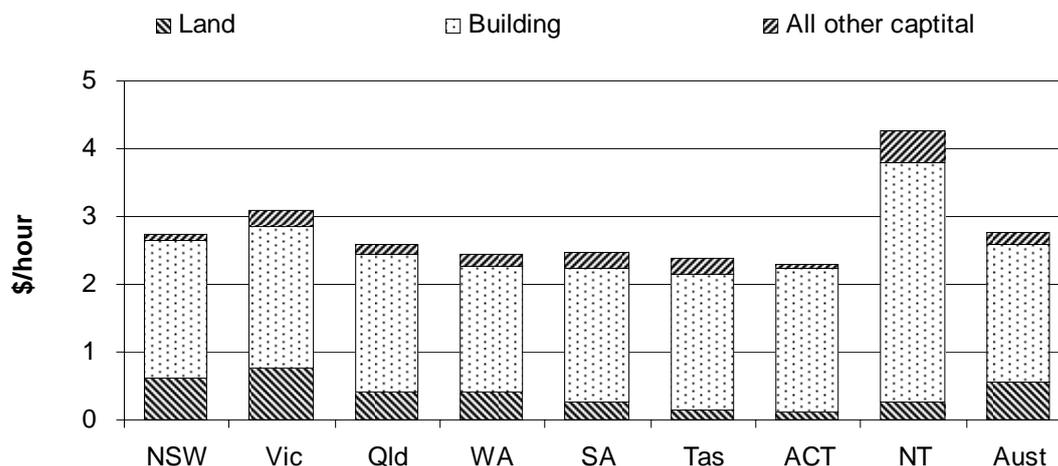
(continued on next page)

Box 4.10 (continued)

The 'cost of capital per load pass hour' needs to be interpreted carefully because differences in some input costs (for example, land values) could affect reported costs across jurisdictions without necessarily reflecting the efficiency of service delivery. The cost of capital for land is presented separately from the cost of other assets, to allow users assessing the results to consider any differences in land values across jurisdictions.

In 2004, the cost of capital per load pass hour was \$2.76 nationally, the largest components were building (\$2.04) and land (\$0.56) costs (figure 4.15).

Figure 4.15 Cost of capital per load pass, 2004^{a, b}



^a Load pass hours includes assessable modules and units of competency only, it does not include non-assessed modules and units of competency. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Cost of capital includes an imputed user cost of capital of 8 per cent.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4.17.

Outcomes

The objectives for VET services are to achieve a range of outcomes for students and employers (box 4.3). The Steering Committee has identified a range of indicators relating to student and employer outcomes.

Student outcomes

The annual 'Student Outcomes Survey' conducted by the NCVET identifies training outcomes for students who graduated with a qualification from a course

(graduates) and students who successfully completed some training below the level of full qualification and who were no longer engaged in training when the survey was undertaken (module completers). The students must have been studying at a TAFE institute or university with a TAFE division in Australia in the previous year (box 4.11).

Box 4.11 Student Outcomes Survey

The data collected about TAFE graduates and module completers describes their general characteristics, fields of study, employment outcomes, occupations, industries of employment, satisfaction with their course of study, and further study outcomes.

The survey collects the opinions of a sample of VET students, so the results are estimates of the opinions of the total VET student population. The sample is randomly selected and stratified by TAFE institute, field of study, gender and age. Responses are weighted to population benchmarks to minimise non-response bias.

The precision of survey estimates depends on the sample size and the distribution of sample responses. Consequently, jurisdictional comparisons need to be made with care. The 95 per cent confidence intervals for the estimates are provided in the tables presenting the survey data. These confidence intervals can be used to test whether the estimates are statistically different across jurisdictions. When comparing the estimates, if the confidence intervals for the jurisdictions overlap, then no statistical difference is detected between the estimates (at the 95 per cent confidence level). Confidence intervals are included in the relevant tables of the attachment.

Care needs to be taken when comparing student outcomes across states and territories, because each jurisdiction has different economic, demographic and social profiles that are likely to have an effect on a range of training related outcomes. In particular, economic parameters beyond the control of the TAFE system may affect employment outcomes for VET graduates (Appendix A).

Source: NCVET (2002, 2003).

Student employment and further study outcomes

The Steering Committee has identified ‘student employment and further study outcomes’ as an indicator of the outcomes achieved by students through completion of their VET training program (box 4.12).

Box 4.12 **Student employment and further study outcomes**

The 'student employment and further study outcomes' indicator measures the VET system's ability to meet individual students' objectives. It reports on the benefits students gained from the VET system. These benefits include immediate employment, improved employment circumstances, a pathway for further study/training as well as personal development.

This indicator is defined using five components:

- the proportion of graduates who were employed and/or continued on to further study after completing their VET course
- the employment rate after participating in VET for students who were specifically seeking vocational or immediate employment-related outcomes and who were not employed before their course
- the employment rate after participating in VET for students who were specifically seeking vocational or immediate employment-related outcomes and who were employed before their course
- the proportion of graduates who were employed before their course, who undertook the course for vocational reasons and who reported that their course was highly relevant or of some relevance to their main job
- the proportion of graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons and who reported at least one work-related benefit from completing the course.

Holding other factors constant, high or increasing proportions indicate positive employment or further study outcomes after training, a high level of relevance of the training to an employed students' main job, and a high level of students who received at least one work-related benefit from completing the course. The proportion of students who improved their employment outcomes or were encouraged in further studying may overlap, since students may realise the two outcomes simultaneously.

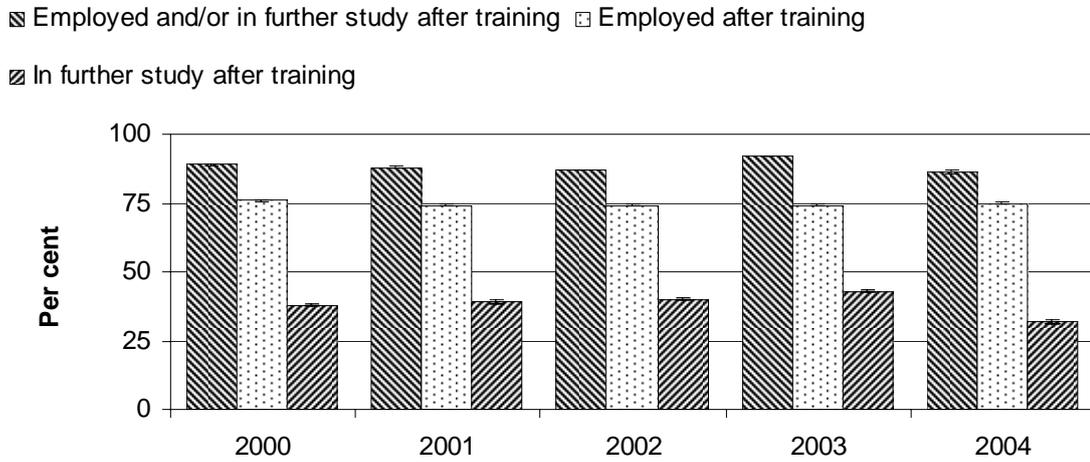
Comparison of labour market outcomes must also account for the general economic conditions in each jurisdiction (appendix A).

Source: DEST (2005).

Jurisdictional comparisons of employment outcomes need to be made with care because high standard errors may be associated with the survey estimates (tables 4A.18–4A.28).

Nationally, 86 per cent of graduates surveyed indicated that they were either in employment and/or pursuing further study after completing a VET course in 2004 — compared with 92 per cent in 2003. The proportion of graduates who were in employment and/or continued on to further study decreased by 3 percentage points between 2000 and 2004 (from 89 per cent to 86 per cent) (figure 4.16).

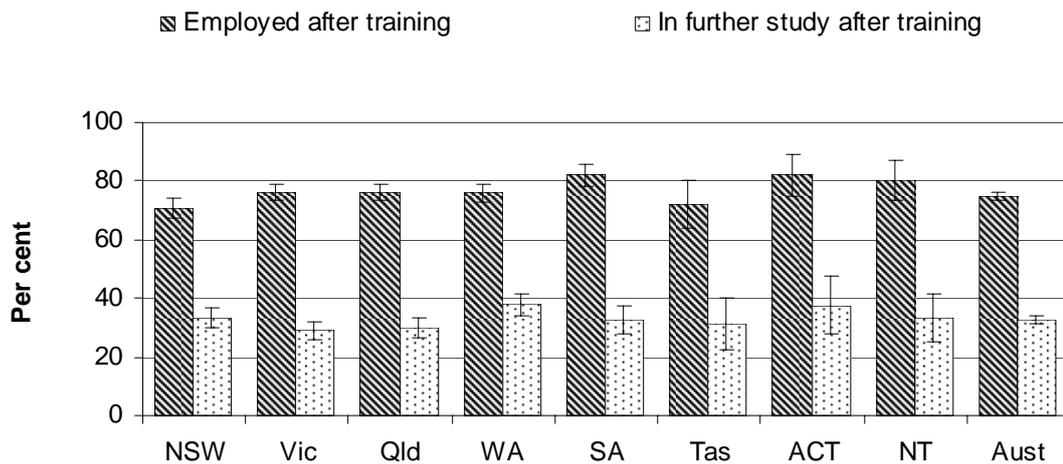
Figure 4.16 Proportion of graduates who were in employment and/or continued on to further study after completing a VET course^{a, b}



^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^b The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: DEST (2005); table 4A.18.

Figure 4.17 Proportion of graduates who were in employment and/or continued on to further study after completing a VET course, 2004^{a, b}



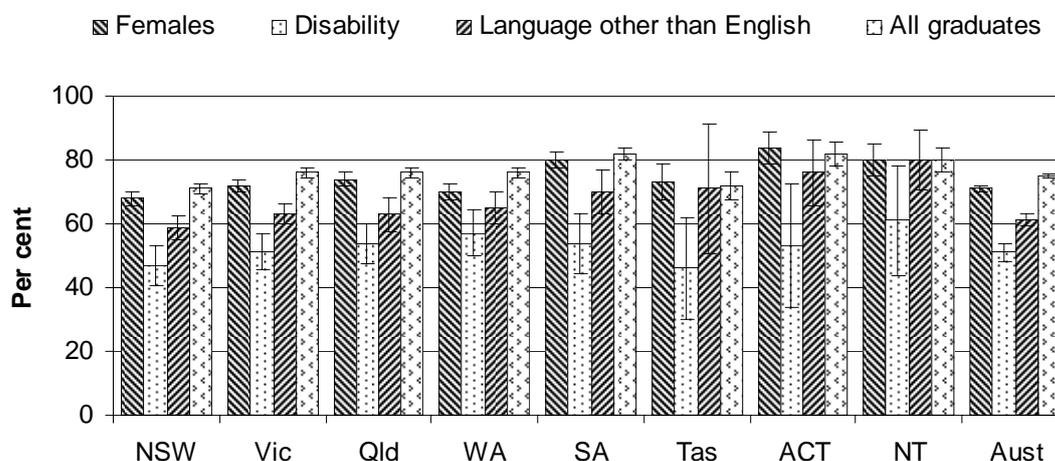
^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition is someone who has left the system. ^b The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.19.

Of those graduates who were either employed and/or continued on to further study after completing a VET course in 2004, 75 per cent said they were in employment while 32 per cent continued on to further study (figure 4.17).

Female graduates (71 per cent) were most likely to indicate that they were employed after training, while graduates with a disability (51 per cent), and graduates who spoke a language other than English at home (61 per cent) were least likely to indicate that they were employed after training (figure 4.18).

Figure 4.18 Proportion of graduates who were in employment after completing a VET course, by target equity group, 2004^{a, b, c, d, e}

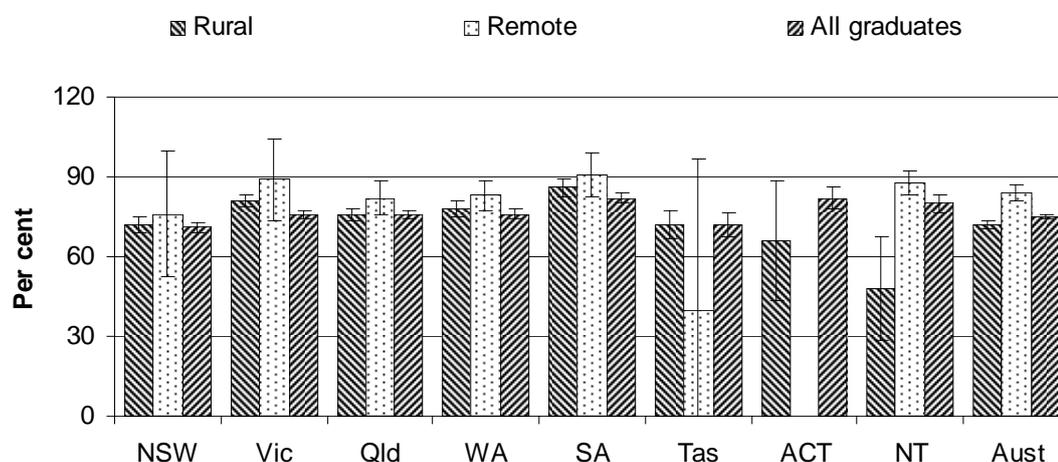


^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing outcomes for students reporting a disability and students speaking a language other than English at home because of the high non-identification rates for these groups. ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^e The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.19–23).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19–23.

Nationally, 84 per cent of graduates from remote areas who were surveyed indicated that they were employed after completing a VET course, compared with 75 per cent of all graduates in 2004 (figure 4.19).

Figure 4.19 Proportion of graduates who were in employment after completing a VET course, by region, 2004^{a, b, c, d}

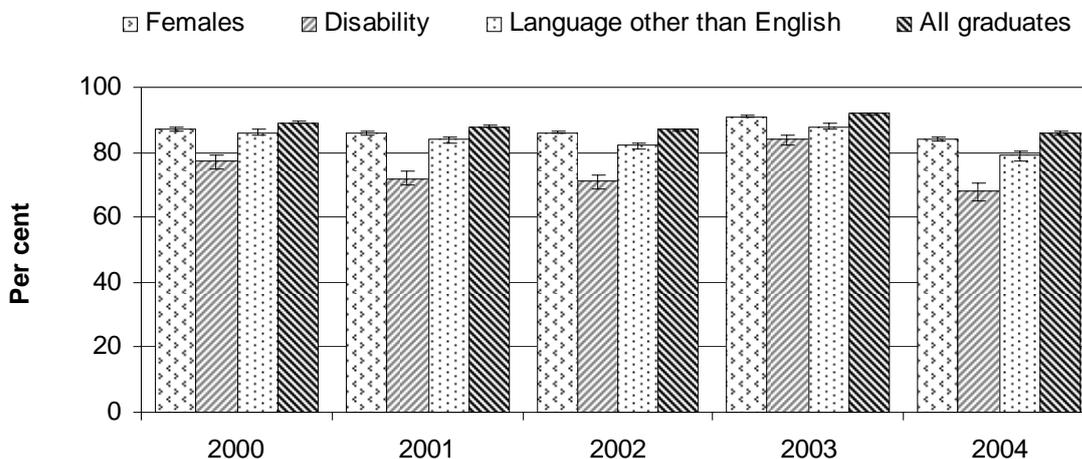


^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. ^b Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are for students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions. The remote data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^d The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.21-22).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19, and 4A.21-22.

Between 2000 and 2004, the proportion of graduates with a disability who were in employment and/or continued on to further study declined by 9 percentage points (figure 4.20). National totals for 2000–04 for target equity groups are reported in figure 4.20.

Figure 4.20 Proportion of graduates who were in employment and/or continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by target equity group^{a, b, c, d}



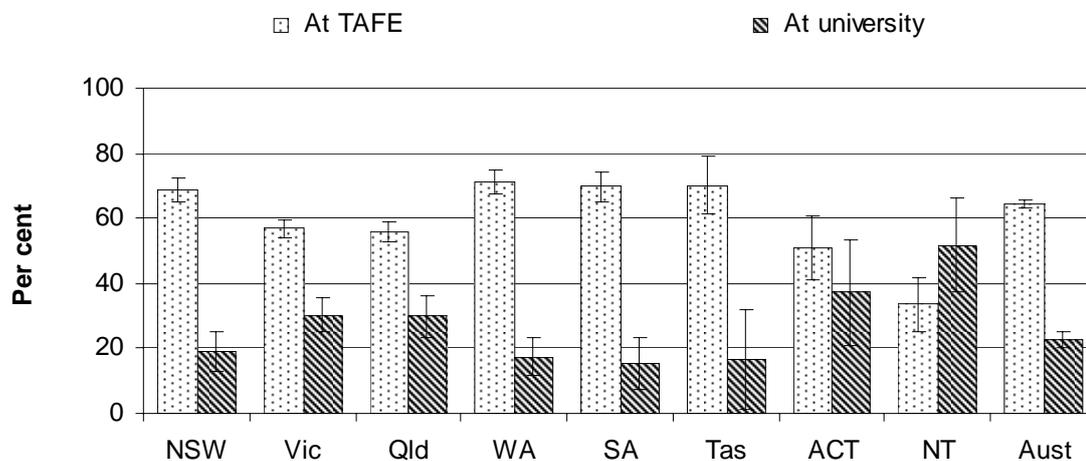
^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition is someone who has left the system. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing outcomes for students reporting a disability and students speaking a language other than English at home because of the high non-identification rates for these groups. ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: DEST (2005); table 4A.18.

Students who continued on to further study after completing their training

Of those students who continued on to further study, 64 per cent pursued their further study within the TAFE system, while 23 per cent went on to further study at universities (figure 4.21).

Figure 4.21 Proportion of graduates who continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by type of institution, 2004^{a, b, c, d}

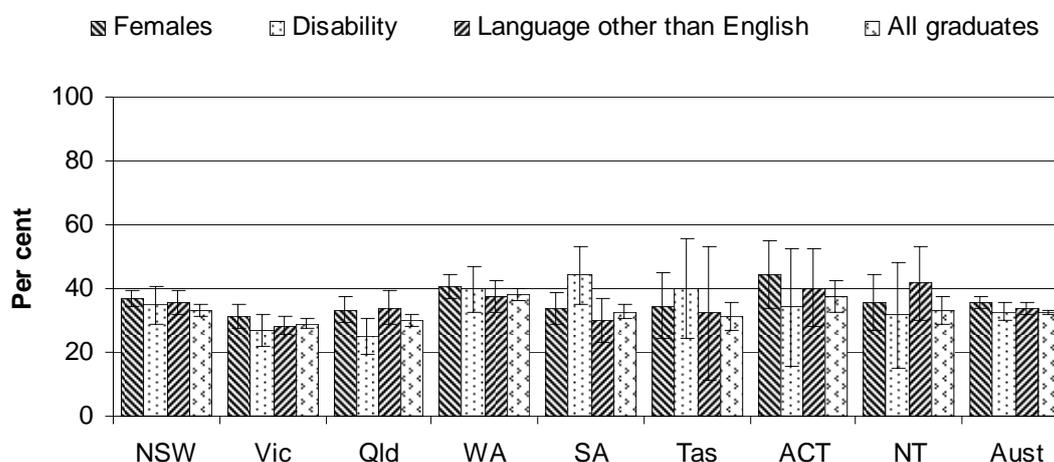


^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^b TAFE includes TAFE institutes and TAFE divisions of universities. ^c The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^d The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.19).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.19.

A higher proportion of female students (36 per cent) and students speaking a language other than English at home (34 per cent) continued on to further study in 2004, compared to all students (32 per cent), while the proportion of students with a disability who continued on to further study is almost the same as that of all students (33 per cent) (figure 4.22).

Figure 4.22 Proportion of graduates who continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by target equity groups, 2004^{a, b, c, d, e}

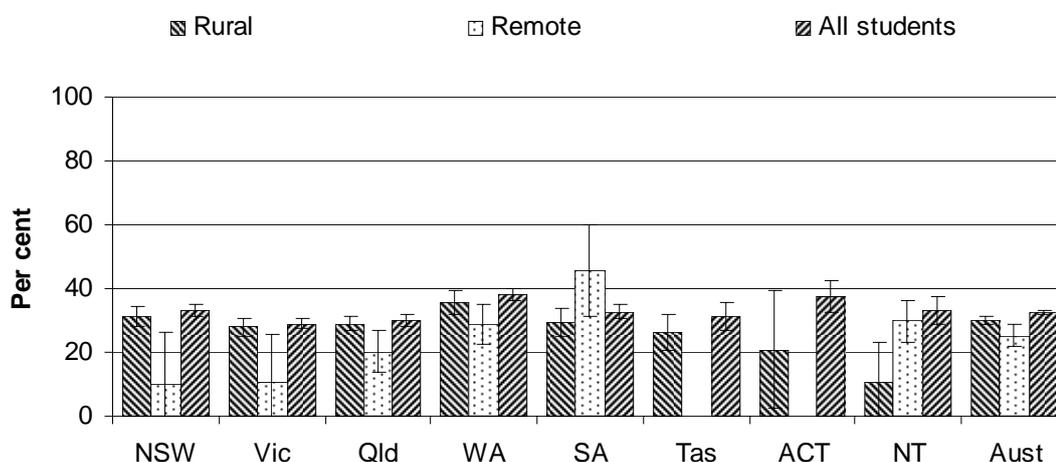


^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing results for students reporting a disability and students speaking a language other than English at home because of the high non-identification rates for these groups. ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^e The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.23-24).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19-20 and 4A.23-24.

The proportion of students from remote (25 per cent) and rural areas (30 per cent) who continued on to further study were lower than for all students (32 per cent) (figure 4.23). Care needs to be taken in interpreting these figures due to the high proportion of students from remote areas reported as being employed (84 per cent) while students with a disability had low proportions in both the employed and/or in further study categories after their VET course.

Figure 4.23 Proportion of graduates who continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by region, 2004^{a, b, c, d}



^a The further study outcomes findings are not applicable to module load completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^b There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are for students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions. The remote data for Tasmania and the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^d The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.21-22).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19 and 4A.21-22.

Students seeking immediate employment-related outcomes

Students who were unemployed before undertaking a VET course and were doing a VET course for vocational reasons are considered to be seeking immediate employment-related outcomes.

Nationally, of the graduates surveyed in 2004 who were seeking immediate employment outcomes, 47 per cent indicated they were employed after the course while 13 per cent were not in the labour force (figure 4.24).

Figure 4.24 Labour force status after the course of TAFE graduates who were not employed before the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2004^{a, b, c}

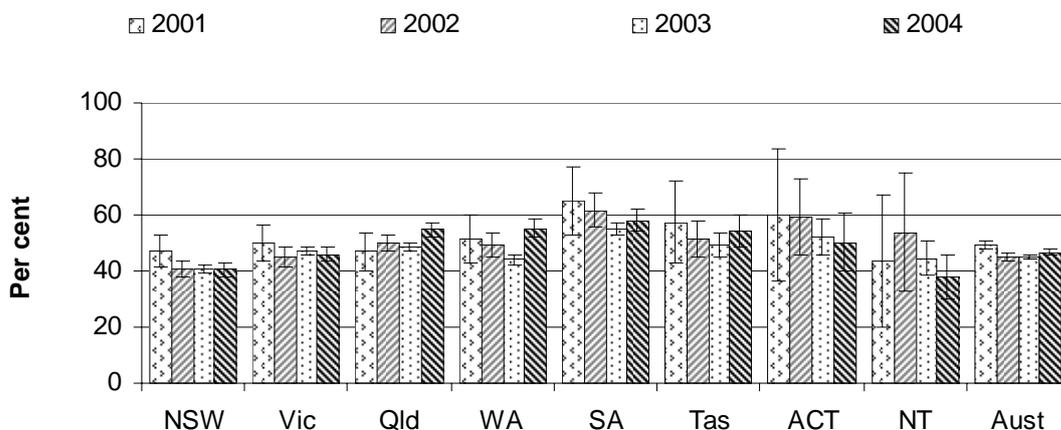


^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.25. ^b Numbers may not add to 100 due to unknown responses and to rounding. ^c The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.25).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.25.

Between 2001 and 2004, the proportion of people who undertook a VET course seeking immediate employment-related outcomes and who became employed after the course declined by 2 percentage points (from 49 to 47 per cent) (figure 4.25).

Figure 4.25 Proportion of graduates who were not employed prior to commencing a VET course and were employed after completing a VET course^{a, b, c}



^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.25. ^b The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate. ^c The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.25).

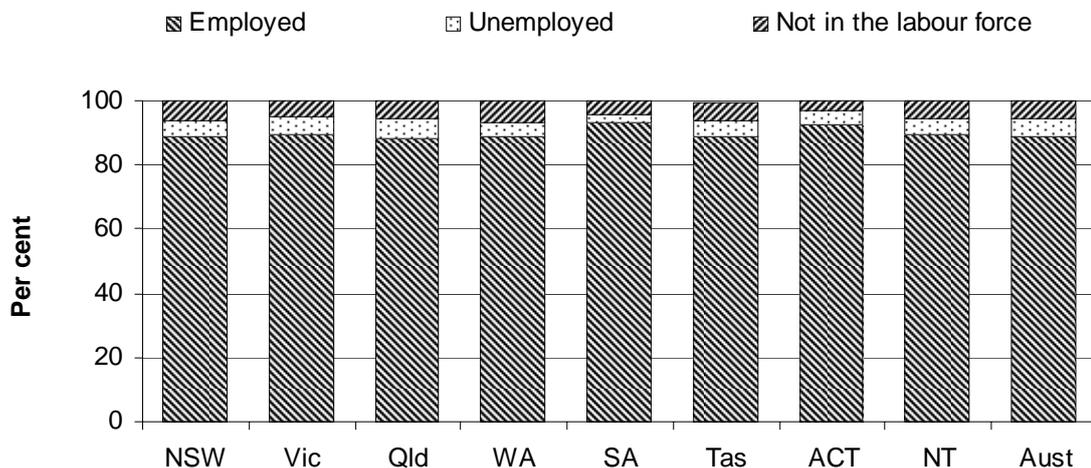
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.25.

Students seeking to improve their employment circumstances

Students who were employed before undertaking a VET course and took the course for vocational reasons are considered to be seeking to improve their employment circumstances.

Nationally, of the graduates surveyed in 2004 who were seeking to improve their employment circumstances, 89 per cent were employed after the course while 6 per cent were not in the labour force (figure 4.26).

Figure 4.26 Labour force status after the course of graduates who were employed before the course and took the course for vocational reasons, 2004^{a, b}



^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.26. ^b Numbers may not add to 100 due to unknown responses and to rounding.

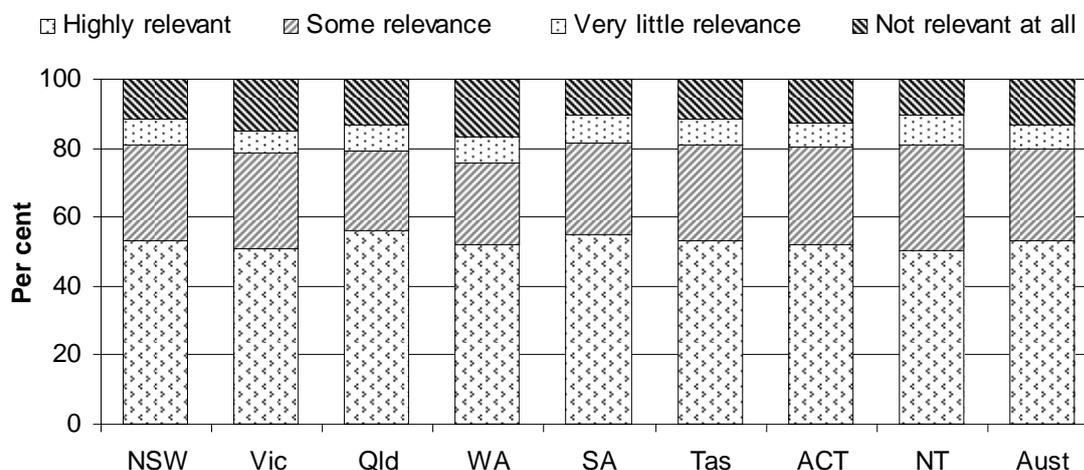
Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.26.

Students rating the relevance of their course to their main job

Students who were employed before undertaking a VET course and took the course for vocational reasons were asked to rate the relevance of the course they completed to their main jobs.

Of those graduates surveyed in 2004 who were employed before their course and who undertook their course for vocational reasons, 80 per cent indicated their course was highly relevant or of some relevance to their main job, while 13 per cent indicated it was not relevant at all (figure 4.27).

Figure 4.27 Employed graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons, by relevance of course to main job, 2004^a



^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the percentage estimates are reported in table 4A.27.

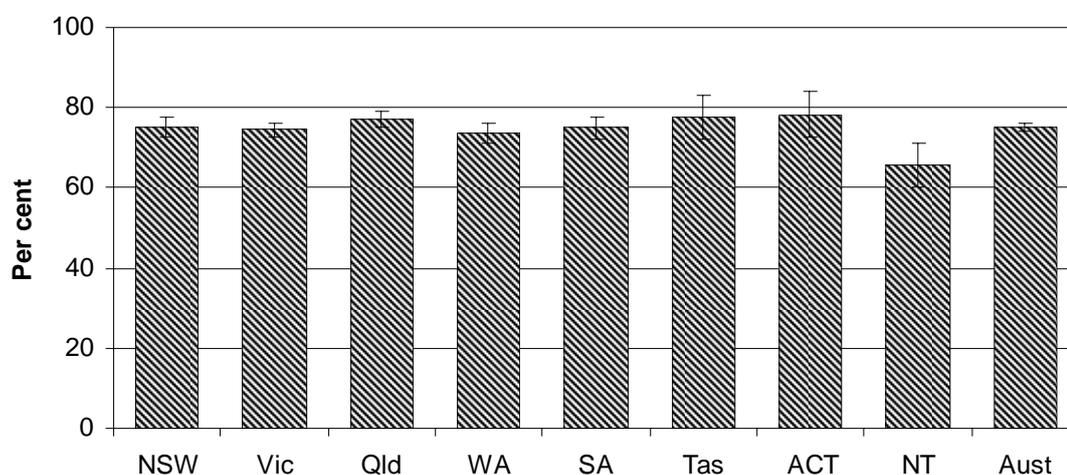
Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.27.

Students receiving work-related benefit

For graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons in 2004, 75 per cent indicated they had gained at least one work-related benefit from completing the course (figure 4.28). The benefits reported by graduates included:

- obtained a job (28 per cent)
- achieved an increase in earnings (28 per cent)
- achieved a promotion or an increased status at work (27 per cent)
- a change of job or new job (19 per cent)
- gaining the ability to start their own business (8 per cent) (table 4.A28).

Figure 4.28 TAFE graduates who undertook their course for vocational reasons and who received at least one work-related benefit from completing the course, 2004^a



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

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

Some additional information on VET employment outcomes is available from the 'Down the Track' survey of long term VET outcomes for 15–24 year olds (box 4.13).

Box 4.13 'Down the Track' survey of long term VET outcomes for 15–24 year olds

In 2004, the NCVET undertook a follow up survey of people aged 15–24 who completed TAFE training in 2001 and had participated in the 2002 Student Outcomes Survey. The interviews were conducted with 2733 graduates and 599 module completers. The results indicate that:

- 86 per cent of graduates and 78 per cent of module completers were employed in 2004, compared to 76 per cent of graduates and 60 per cent of module completers in 2002
- 63 per cent of graduates/module completers were employed full time in 2004, compared to 50 per cent in May 2002. Of the graduates surveyed, 28 per cent were employed prior to commencing their VET course
- 60 per cent of those who were not employed in 2002 were employed in 2004. Of those who were employed in 2002, 92 per cent of graduates and 87 per cent of module completers were still employed in 2004.

Source: DEST (2005).

Student achievement in VET

The Steering Committee has identified ‘student achievement in VET’ by the five VET target equity groups — females, residents of rural and remote areas, people with a disability and people speaking a language other than English at home — as an indicator of the equity of access to VET services (box 4.14). The indicator ‘student achievement in VET’ includes ‘load pass rate’ and the ‘number of VET students commenced and completed, expressed as a proportion of all course commencing enrolments in that year’. Data for the number of VET students commenced and completed, however, were not available for the 2006 Report.

Box 4.14 Student achievement in VET

‘Student achievement in VET’ is an indicator of students’ success in VET. It reports on load pass rates and the number of students who commenced and completed expressed as a proportion of all course commencing enrolments in that year.

‘Load pass rate’ is an indicator of students’ success, which has an impact on a student’s attainment of skills. The rates for target equity groups, relative to those for the general student population, indicate whether target equity groups are as successful as other students.

‘Load pass rate’ is defined as the ratio of hours attributed to students who passed assessment in an assessable module or units of competency, to all students who were assessed and either passed, failed or withdrew. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or units of competency. High ‘load pass rates’ indicate that student achievement is high.

‘The number of students who commenced and completed’ is defined as the number of VET students in a given year who commenced a course and eventually completed their course, expressed as a proportion of all course commencing enrolments in that year.

Care needs to be taken in comparing data across jurisdictions because average module durations vary across jurisdictions.

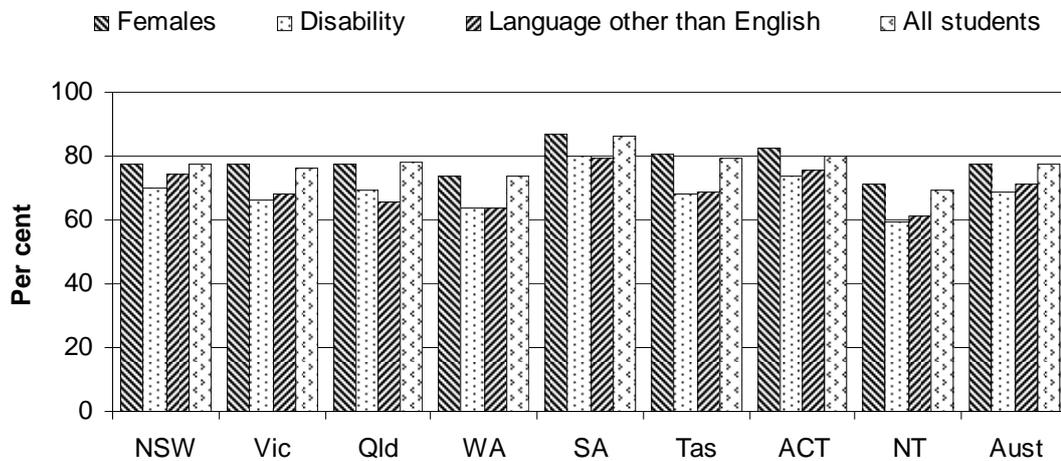
Reporting on the ‘number of students who commenced and completed, expressed as a proportion of all course commencing enrolments in that year’ is dependent on the capacity to track individual students over more than one calendar year and data are not yet available.

Source: ANTA (2005).

Load pass rate

In 2004, the 'load pass rate' for all students was 77.4 per cent — 0.3 percentage points higher than in 2003. Load pass rates for students from rural areas (79.0 per cent) and females (77.7 per cent) were higher than for all students. The load pass rates for students from remote areas (75.4 per cent), students reporting a disability (69.0 per cent) and students speaking a language other than English at home (71.2 per cent) were lower than for all students (figures 4.29-30).

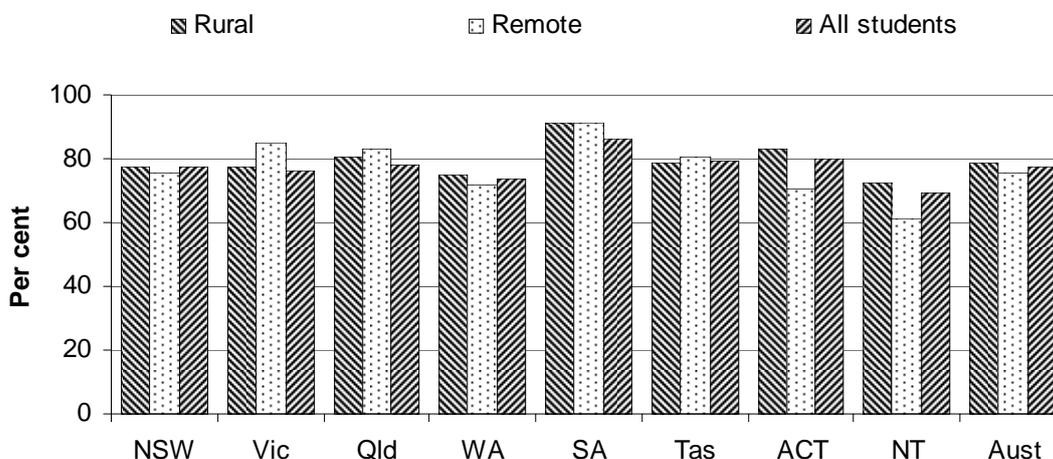
Figure 4.29 Load pass rates, by target equity group, 2004^{a, b, c}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing 'load pass rates' for students reporting a disability and students speaking a language other than English at home because the non-identification rates for these groups are high.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.29 and 4A.31-32.

Figure 4.30 Load pass rates, by region, 2004^{a, b}

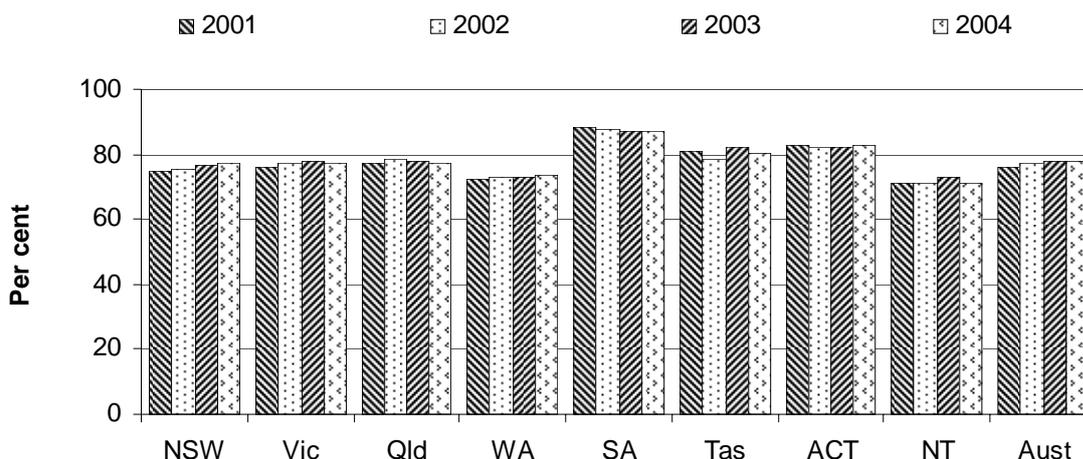


^a Government recurrent funded VET students excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. Rural areas include the remainder of non-metropolitan statistical local areas. There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are as a result of students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions.

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

Between 2001 and 2004, the load pass rate for female students increased by 1.4 percentage points nationally (from 76.3 to 77.7 per cent) (figure 4.31).

Figure 4.31 Load pass rates, by female students, 2004^a

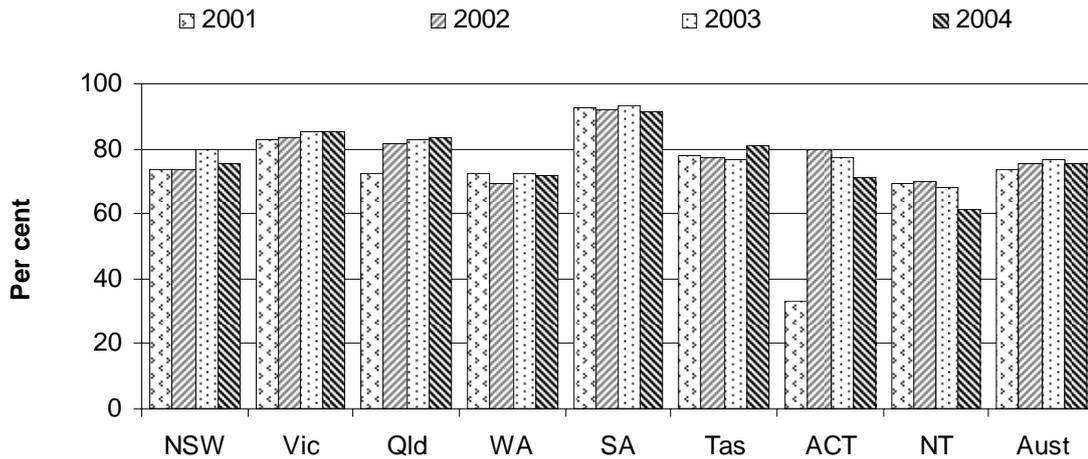


^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

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

The load pass rate for students from remote areas increased nationally by 2.1 percentage points (from 73.3 to 75.4 per cent) between 2001 and 2004 (figure 4.32).

Figure 4.32 Load pass rates, by students from remote areas^{a, b}

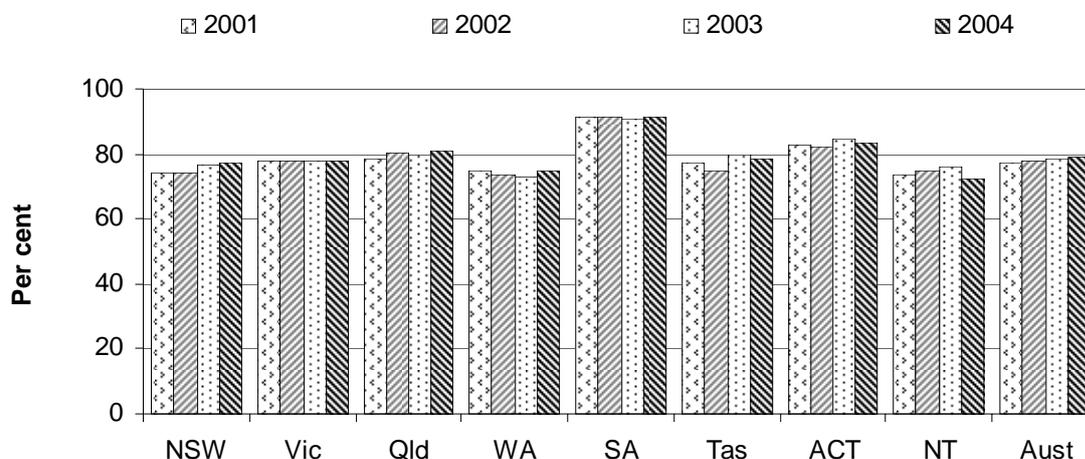


^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Remote areas are defined in terms of low population density and long distances to associated large population centres. There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are as a result of students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions.

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

Between 2001 and 2004, the load pass rate for students from rural areas increased by 1.6 percentage points nationally (from 77.4 to 79.0 per cent) (figure 4.33).

Figure 4.33 Load pass rates, by students from rural areas^{a, b}



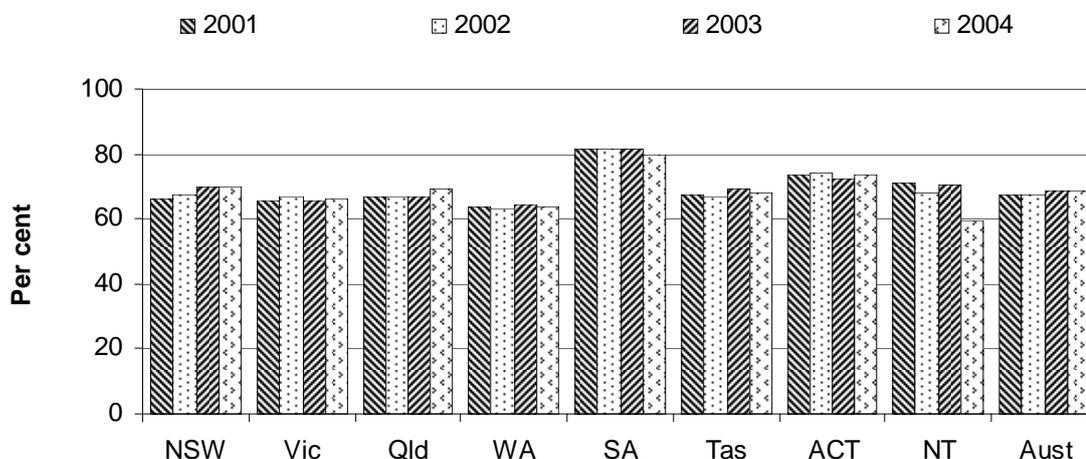
^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Rural areas include the remainder of non-metropolitan statistical local areas.

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

The load pass rate for students with a disability increased by 1.3 percentage points nationally (from 67.7 per cent to 69.0 per cent) between 2002 and 2004 (figure 4.34). There is a time-series break in the data for students with a disability prior to 2002, and as a result, comparison is made between 2002 and 2004 as distinct from between 2001 and 2004 as is the case with all remaining target equity groups reporting.

The load pass rate for students speaking a language other than English at home increased by 1.9 percentage points nationally between 2001 and 2004 (from 69.3 to 71.2 per cent) (figure 4.35).

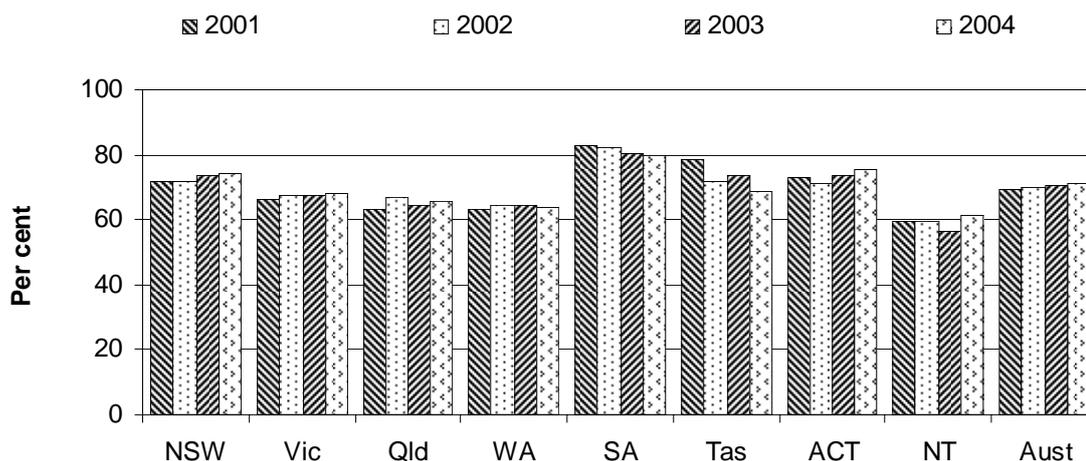
Figure 4.34 Load pass rates, by students with a disability^{a, b, c}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing load pass rates for students reporting a disability because the non-identification rate for this group is high.

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

Figure 4.35 Load pass rates, by students speaking a language other than English at home^{a, b}



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation. ^b Care needs to be taken in comparing load pass rates for students speaking a language other than English at home because the non-identification rate for this group is high.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.32.

Student satisfaction with VET

The Steering Committee has identified 'student satisfaction with VET' as an indicator of the outcomes of VET services for students (box 4.15).

Box 4.15 Student satisfaction with VET

'Student satisfaction with VET' is an outcome indicator of students' satisfaction with their training program. It measures whether students achieved their main reason for doing a VET course and whether they were satisfied with the overall quality of their training program.

Under this indicator, two elements, 'proportion of students who achieve their main reason for doing a VET course' and 'proportion of students who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course', are reported. While the first element indicates whether the VET system is delivering the outcomes that students seek, the second element measures students' perceptions of the quality of their training.

The first element is defined as the proportion of VET graduates in the annual NCVER Student Outcomes Survey who indicate that they achieved or partly achieved their main reason for doing the course. The second element is defined as the proportion of VET graduates in the annual NCVER Student Outcomes Survey who indicate that they were satisfied with their VET training program.

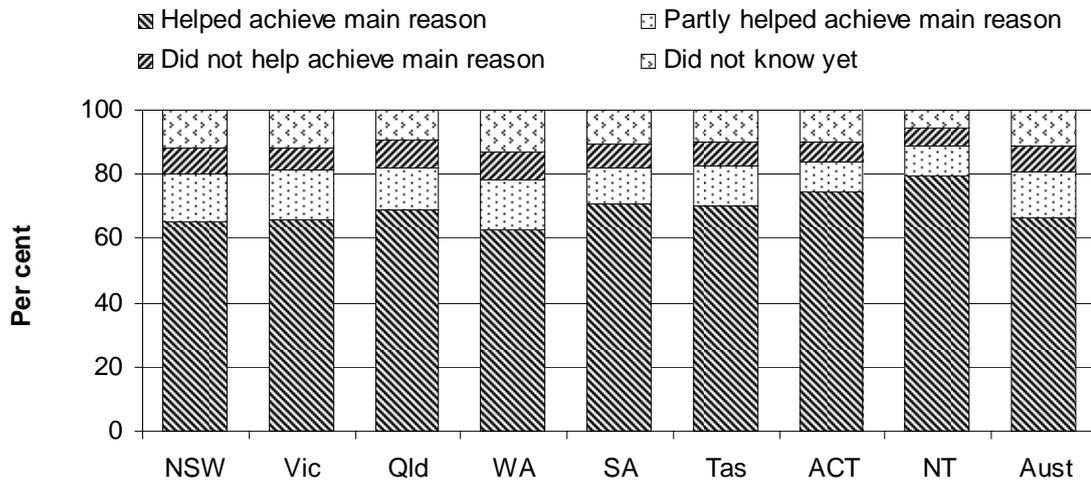
A higher percentage indicates that a higher proportion of students have achieved their training objectives or were satisfied with their training. The proportion of graduates who achieve their training objectives varies according to their objectives — employment-related, further study and/or developmental — so it is useful to distinguish amongst types of student objective.

Students who achieve their main reason for doing a VET course

In 2004, 81 per cent of TAFE graduates surveyed nationally indicated that their VET course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course — slightly higher than the 78 per cent reported in 2003. Of those graduates surveyed in 2004, 8 per cent indicated their VET course did not help them achieve the main reason they did the VET course, compared with 9 per cent in 2003 (figure 4.36).

Students from remote areas were the most likely to indicate that the course helped or partly helped them achieve their main reason for doing the course (89 per cent), while graduates reporting a disability were the least likely to do so (69 per cent) (figure 4.37).

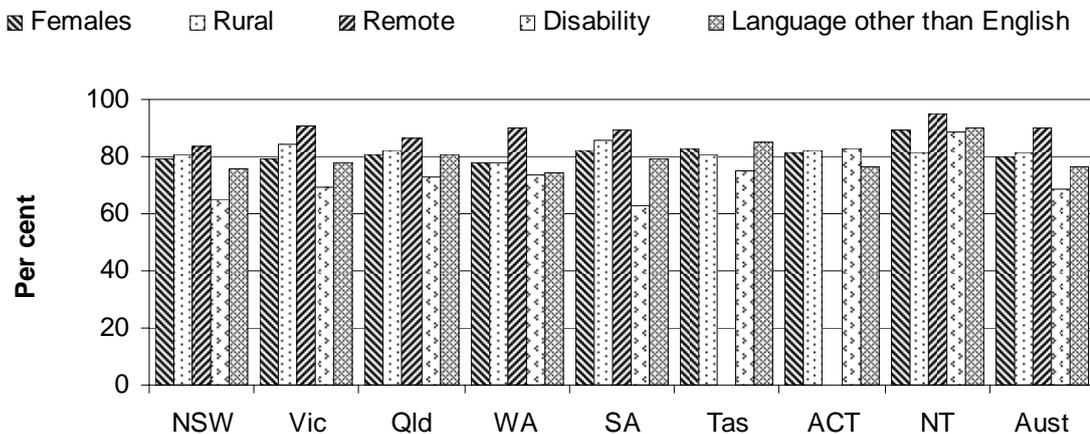
Figure 4.36 Proportion of graduates who achieved their main reason for doing the VET course, 2004^a



^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the estimate can be found at table 4A.33.

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

Figure 4.37 Proportion of graduates who achieved their main reason for doing the VET course, by target equity group 2004^{a, b, c, d, e}



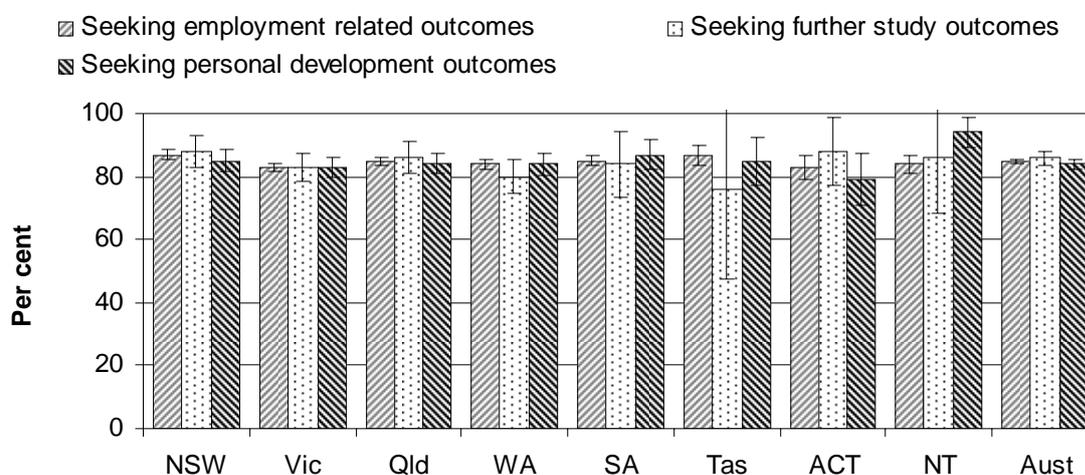
^a The standard errors corresponding to a 95 per cent confidence interval for the estimate can be found at tables 4A.34–38. ^b There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria are for students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in Victoria. The data for Tasmania and the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c Includes students who indicated their training helped or partly helped achieve their main reason for doing the VET course. ^d Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^e The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.34–38).

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.34–38.

Students who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET training

In 2004, 85 per cent of TAFE graduates surveyed nationally indicated that they were satisfied with the quality of their completed training (table 4A.39). The satisfaction level across students undertaking training with different objectives was roughly the same — students seeking employment related outcomes (85 per cent), seeking further study outcomes (86 per cent) and seeking personal development outcomes (84 per cent) (figure 4.38).

Figure 4.38 Proportion of graduates who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course, by purpose of study, 2004^{a, b, c}

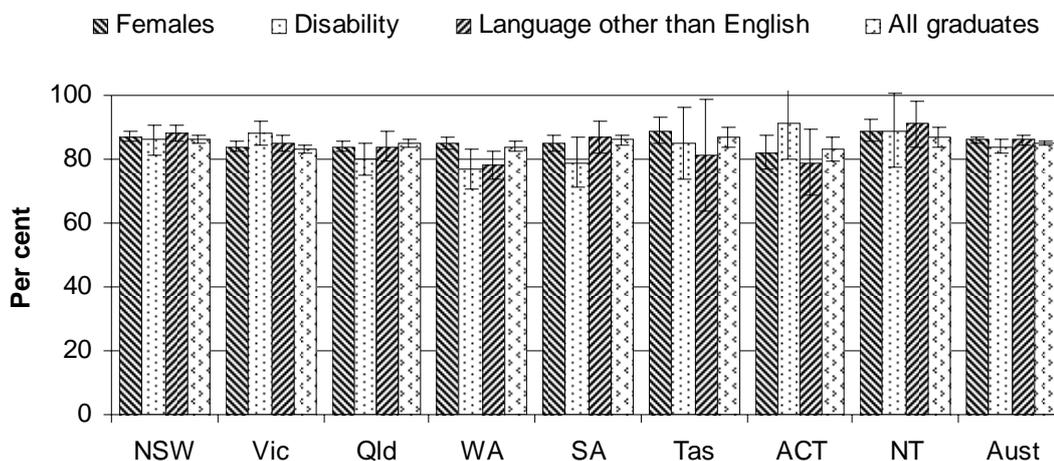


^a Satisfaction with overall quality of training was rated as 4 or 5 on a 5 point scale. ^b The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.39). ^c The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.39.

Graduates from remote areas were the most likely to indicate that they were satisfied with their training (90 per cent), while graduates reporting a disability were the least likely to do so (84 per cent) in 2004 (figures 4.39 and 4.40). A further breakdown of target groups by the purpose of study can be found in attachment tables 4A.39–44.

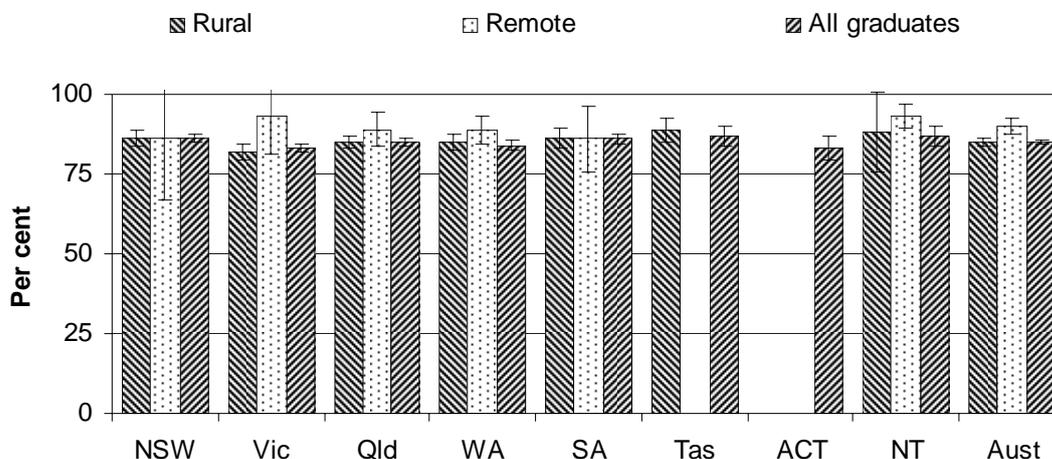
Figure 4.39 Proportion of graduates who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course, by target equity group, 2004^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Satisfaction with overall quality of training was rated as 4 or 5 on a 5 point scale. ^b Students with disabilities are defined as those who self-identify on enrolment forms that they have a disability, impairment or long-term condition. Disabilities include hearing/deaf, physical, intellectual, learning, mental illness, acquired brain impairment, vision, medical condition and other unspecified disabilities. ^c Care needs to be taken in comparing outcomes for students with a disability and students speaking a language other English at home because the non-identification rates for these groups are high. ^d The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.39-40 and 4A.43-44). ^e The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.39-40 and 4A.43-44.

Figure 4.40 Proportion of graduates who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course, by region, 2004^{a, b, c, d}



^a Satisfaction with overall quality of training was rated as 4 or 5 on a 5 point scale. ^b There are no remote areas in Victoria and the ACT. The remote data for Victoria and the ACT are for students from remote areas throughout Australia studying in these jurisdictions. The remote data for Tasmania and the rural and remote data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The estimates for VET outcomes have a standard error of greater than 15 per cent for some jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (tables 4A.41-42). ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.39 and 4A.41-42.

Skill profile

The Steering Committee has identified ‘skill profile’ as an indicator of the outcomes of VET services (box 4.16).

Box 4.16 Skill profile

Australia’s VET system aspires to create and maintain a national pool of skilled Australian workers that is sufficient to support internationally competitive commerce and industry. It measures the stock of VET skills held by Australians relative to the level of these skills required by Australian industry. While progress is underway to develop indicators for ‘skill profile’, the Steering Committee has decided to report ‘skill outputs from VET’ under this indicator.

(continued on next page)

Box 4.16 (continued)

The indicator 'skill outputs from VET' measures students' skill outputs from the VET system in a given year. It comprises qualifications completed, units of competency achieved and modules (outside training packages) completed. Higher numbers of completions does not necessarily imply a better result. It depends on enrolment levels in the given year.

'Qualifications completed' is defined as number of qualifications completed each year by students in VET, where a qualification is a certification awarded to a person on successful completion of a course in recognition of having achieved particular knowledge, skills or competencies. The number of qualifications completed are reported three years after they occur. That is, number of qualifications completed in 2003 are counted in 2005 and are included in the 2006 Report.

'Units of competency' is defined as the number of units of competency achieved each year by students in VET, where a unit of competency is defined as a component of a competency standard and/or a statement of a key function or role in a particular job or occupation.

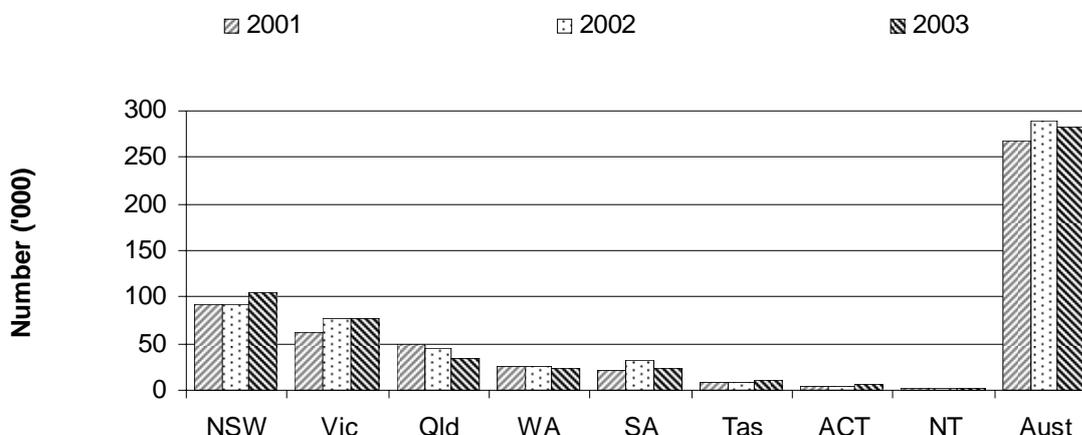
'Modules completed' is defined as the number of modules (outside training packages) completed each year by students in VET, where a module (also called a subject) is a unit of education or training which can be completed on its own or as part of a course. Modules may also result in the attainment of one or more units of competency.

Source: DEST (2005).

Skill outputs from VET — qualifications completed

In 2003, 282 152 VET qualifications were completed nationally — 2.7 per cent fewer than the number of qualifications completed in 2002 but 5.2 per cent more than in 2001 (figure 4.41). The number of qualifications completed includes both government and non-government funded VET students.

Figure 4.41 Number of VET qualifications completed, all graduates^{a, b, c, d}



^a Qualifications completed includes courses accredited or approved by a local State/Territory authority. ^b The number of qualifications completed includes both government funded and non-government funded VET students. ^c Represents students eligible to be awarded a qualification. ^d Excludes students participating in VET programs in schools.

Source: DEST (2005); table 4A.45.

Amongst the VET target equity groups the number of qualifications completed nationally increased for all target groups between 2001 and 2003 except for students from remote areas, which decreased by 16.0 per cent. For other target equity groups³, the number of qualifications increased by:

- 8.6 per cent for female students
- 1.4 per cent for students from rural areas
- 8.6 per cent for students speaking a language other than English (tables 4A.45–48).

Skill outputs from VET — units of competency

In 2004, students achieved 4.9 million of units of competency nationally — 2.5 per cent fewer than the number of units of competency completed in 2003 but 11.0 per cent more than in 2002 (figure 4.42). Amongst the VET target equity groups, between 2002 and 2004 the number of units of competency completed nationally increased by:

- 5.6 per cent for female students, while for males, it increased by 16.8 per cent

³ Data for students with a disability prior to 2002 are not strictly comparable to 2003 data due to a change in the definition of disability.

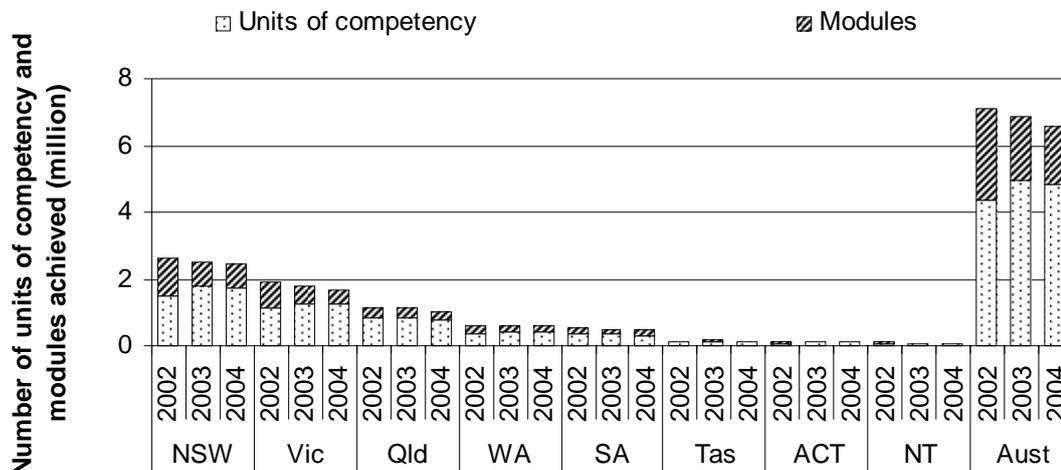
- 4.5 per cent for students speaking a language other than English
- 10.1 per cent for students from rural areas, while it declined by 9.2 per cent for students from remote areas (tables 4A.49–52).

Skill outputs from VET — modules achieved

In 2004, 1.7 million modules were achieved nationally — 10.3 per cent fewer than the number of modules achieved in 2003 and 38.6 per cent fewer than in 2002 (figure 4.42). Amongst the VET target equity groups the number of modules completed nationally between 2002 and 2004 decreased by:

- 38.2 per cent for female students
- 30.2 per cent for students speaking a language other than English
- 49.4 per cent for students from remote areas
- 38.2 per cent for students from rural areas (tables 4A.53–56).

Figure 4.42 Number of units of competency and modules achieved/passed, all students^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: DEST (2005); tables 4A.49 and 4A.53.

Indigenous outcomes

In the 2005 Report, VET outcomes for Indigenous people were reported under indicators reporting on VET target equity groups. This year, all Indigenous related

VET outcomes are reported under one indicator — ‘Indigenous outcomes’, consistent with the new National Strategy for VET 2004–10.

Box 4.17 Indigenous outcomes

‘Indigenous outcomes’ is an indicator of the extent to which Indigenous people engage with and achieve positive outcomes from VET. It reports on three elements — ‘Indigenous students’ achievement in VET’, ‘skill outputs of Indigenous students’ and ‘VET outcomes for Indigenous students’.

‘Indigenous students’ achievement in VET’ is an indicator of Indigenous students’ success in VET. It reports on load pass rates achieved by Indigenous students and the number of Indigenous students who commenced and completed expressed as a proportion of all course commencing enrolments by Indigenous students in that year. Reporting on this element is dependent on the capacity to track individual students over more than one calendar year and the data are not yet available.

‘Skill outputs of Indigenous students’ measures the level of skill outputs achieved in a given year by Indigenous students from the VET system in a given year. It reports on the number of qualifications completed by Indigenous students, the number of units of competency achieved by Indigenous students and the number of modules (outside training packages) completed by Indigenous students. Higher numbers of completions does not necessarily imply a better result. It depends on the enrolment level in the given year.

‘Qualifications completed by Indigenous students’ is defined as the number of qualifications completed by Indigenous students each year in VET, where a qualification is a certification awarded to a person on successful completion of a course in recognition of having achieved particular knowledge, skills or competencies. Qualifications completed are reported three years after they occur. That is, the number of qualifications completed in 2003 are counted in 2005.

‘Units of competency achieved by Indigenous students’ is defined as the number of units of competency achieved by Indigenous students each year in VET, where a unit of competency is defined as a component of a competency standard and/or a statement of a key function or role in a particular job or occupation.

‘Modules completed by Indigenous students’ is defined as the number of modules (outside training packages) completed each year by Indigenous students in VET, where a module (also called a subject) is a unit of education or training which can be completed on its own or as part of a course. Modules may also result in the attainment of one or more units of competency.

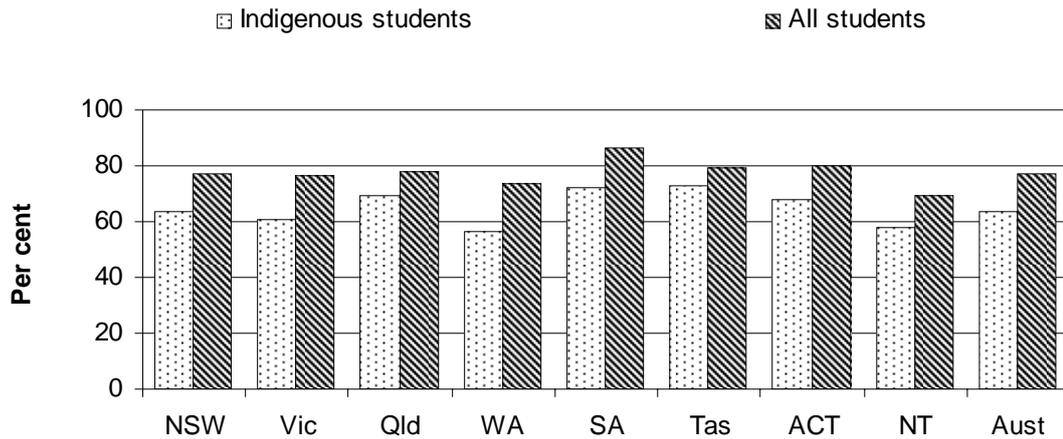
‘VET outcomes for Indigenous students’ is an indicator of the VET system’s ability to meet Indigenous students’ objectives. It reports on the benefits Indigenous students gained from the VET system and the proportion of Indigenous students who improved their employment or further study outcomes after completing a VET course.

Source: DEST (2005).

Indigenous students' achievement in VET

In 2004, the national 'load pass rate' for Indigenous students (63.7 per cent) was lower than the national load pass rate for all students (77.4 per cent) (figure 4.43).

Figure 4.43 Indigenous students' load pass rate, 2004^a

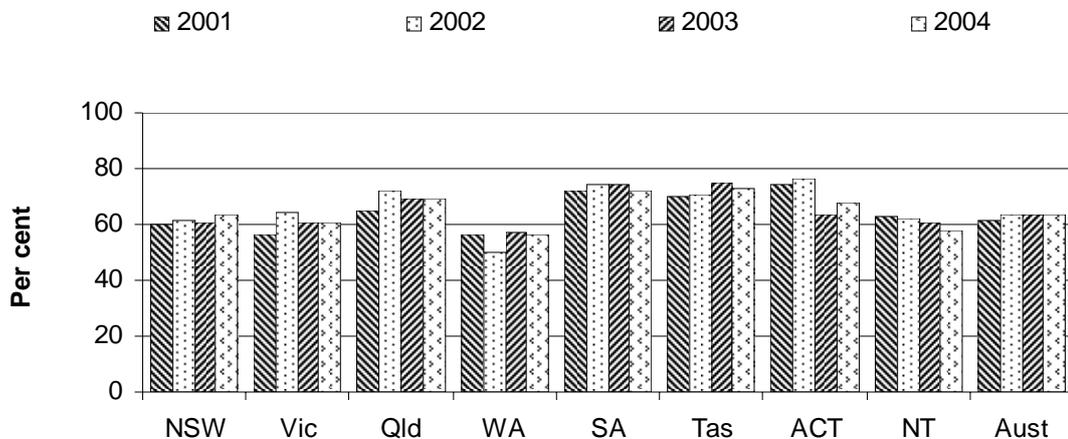


^a Government recurrent funded VET students excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.57.

The load pass rate for Indigenous students increased nationally from 62.4 per cent in 2001 to 63.7 per cent in 2004 (figure 4.44).

Figure 4.44 Indigenous students' load pass rate^a



^a Government recurrent funded VET students excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.57.

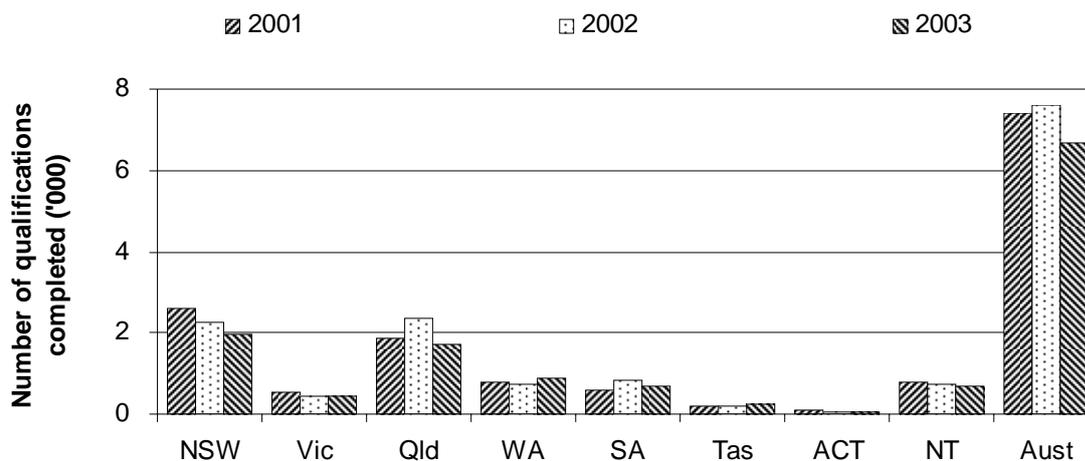
Indigenous students' skill outputs

The indicator 'skill outputs of Indigenous students' measures the skill outputs of Indigenous students from the VET system in a given year. It reports on the number and proportion of qualifications completed, units of competency achieved and modules (outside training packages) completed in a given year.

Qualifications completed — Indigenous students

In 2003, 6655 Indigenous students completed a VET qualification — 12.4 per cent fewer than the number of qualifications completed in 2002 (figure 4.45). Nationally, Indigenous students accounted for 2.4 per cent of all the qualifications completed in 2003 (table 4A.12).

Figure 4.45 **Number of qualifications completed, by Indigenous status, 2004a, b, c, d**



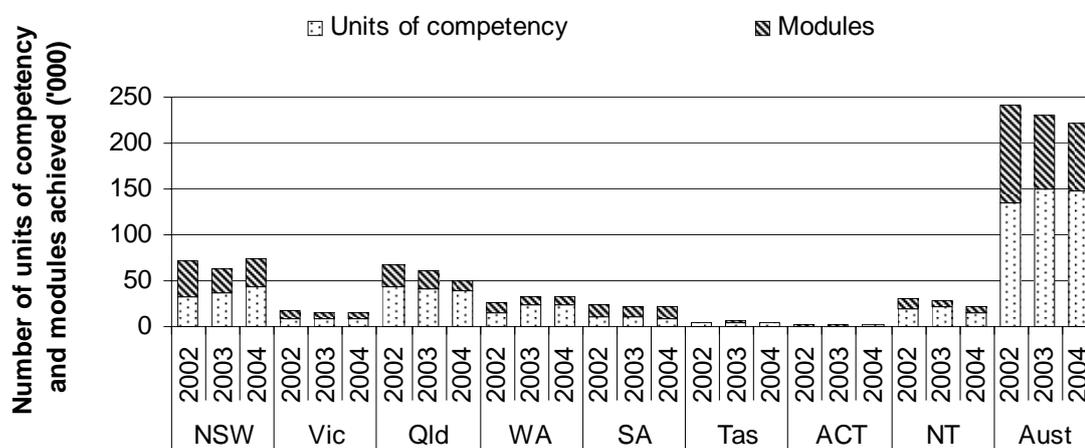
a Qualifications completed includes courses accredited or approved by a local State/Territory authority. **b** The number of qualifications completed includes both government funded and non-government funded VET students. **c** Represents students eligible to be awarded a qualification. **d** Excludes students participating in VET programs in schools.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); table 4A.58.

Units of competency and modules completed by Indigenous students

Indigenous students completed 147 000 units of competency and 73 700 modules nationally in 2004. While the number of units of competency completed increased by 1.8 per cent, the number of modules completed decreased by 8.2 per cent from 2003 (figure 4.46).

Figure 4.46 **Number of units of competency and modules achieved/passed, by Indigenous students^a**



^a Government recurrent funded VET students, excluding students participating in VET programs in schools. Not adjusted for recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and student enrolment no participation.

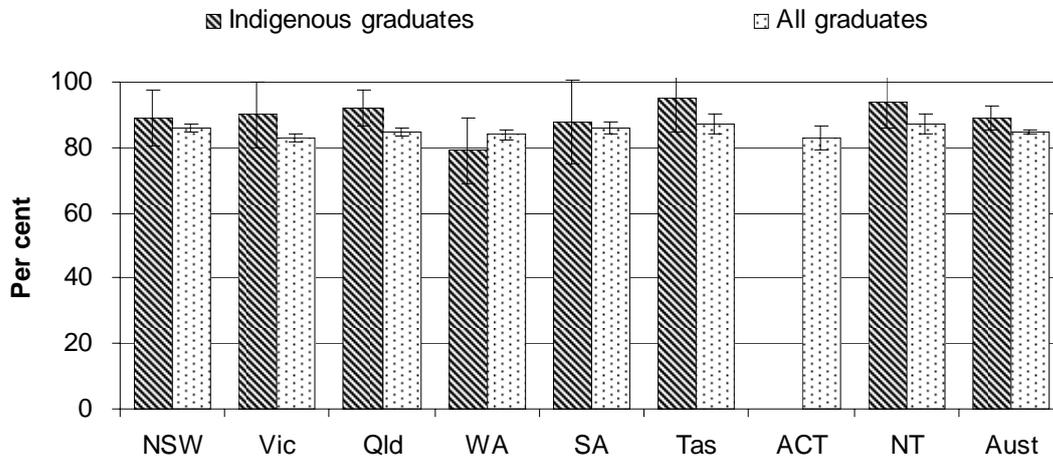
Source: DEST (2005); table 4A.59.

Indigenous students' satisfaction with VET

The indicator 'Indigenous students' satisfaction with VET' reports on the proportion of Indigenous students who indicated they were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course.

Nationally, 89 per cent of Indigenous students surveyed in 2004 indicated that they were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course, compared with 85 per cent for all students (figure 4.47).

Figure 4.47 Proportion of graduates who were satisfied with the quality of their completed VET course, by Indigenous status, 2004^{a, b, c}



^a Satisfaction with overall quality of training was rated as 4 or 5 on a 5 point scale. ^b Indigenous data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.39 and 4A.60.

Of those Indigenous students who completed VET courses in 2004, the proportion of those who indicated that they were satisfied with the courses was:

- 92 per cent of those seeking employment related outcomes
- 94 per cent of those seeking further study outcomes
- 88 per cent of those seeking personal development (figure 4.48).

Figure 4.48 **Proportion of Indigenous graduates who were satisfied with the quality of their VET course, by purpose of study, 2004^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Satisfaction with overall quality of training was rated as 4 or 5 on a 5 point scale. ^b Data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The estimates for VET outcomes for Indigenous students have a standard error greater than 25 per cent for most jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.60). ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVER (unpublished); table 4A.60.

Further information on Indigenous students' views of their VET courses can be drawn from a 2004 NCVER survey (box 4.18).

Box 4.18 Indigenous views of VET

In 2004, the NCVER undertook a national survey of 785 Indigenous people who took part in government funded VET in 2003 across geographic regions.

Nationally, of those surveyed:

- 43 per cent indicated that they undertook VET training to improve their knowledge, to get a job (42 per cent), to get extra skills for a job (28 per cent), to improve their confidence/self-esteem (24 per cent), and to help in their community (20 per cent)
- 90 per cent rated the most good aspect of their training as being with other Indigenous people, access to computers (82 per cent), course flexibility (81 per cent), and teacher and tutor (81 per cent)
- 91 per cent indicated that undertaking the VET course resulted in them improving their confidence/self-esteem, helped them communicate better (89 per cent), improved their workplace skills (87 per cent), helped them understand how work places are run (75 per cent) and helped them get more involved in their community (71 per cent)

(continued on next page)

Box 4.18 (continued)

- 45 per cent were working in a paid job, 32 per cent were looking for work, 25 per cent continued their 2003 training, and 22 per cent were studying a different course in 2004 from 2003
- 49 per cent were doing/completed certificate levels II and III, 13 per cent were training for certificate level IV or higher, and 16 per cent were training for certificate level I in 2003
- who did not complete their course in 2003, 45 per cent cited a personal reason, a training related reason (39 per cent), and a family/community-related reason (28 per cent).

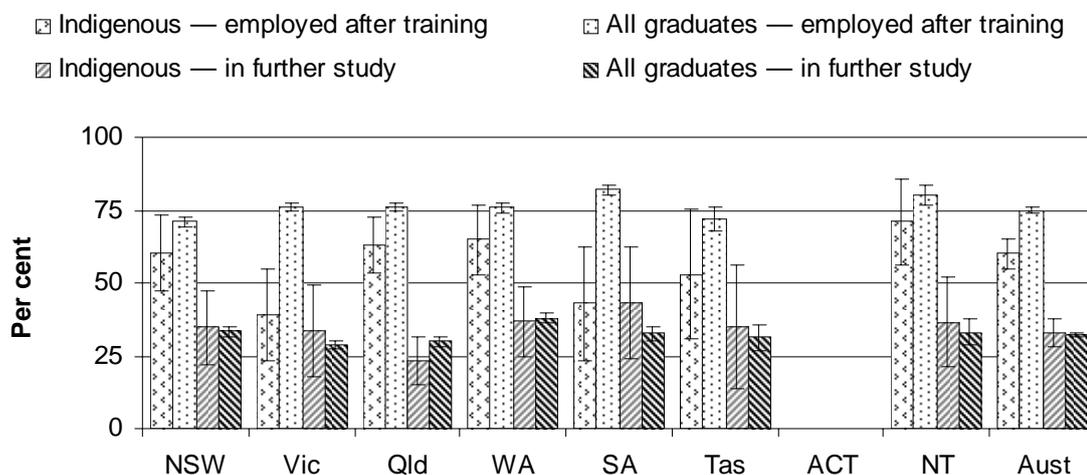
Source: NCVET (2005).

Indigenous students employment and further study outcomes

‘Indigenous students’ employment and further study outcomes’ measures the proportion of Indigenous VET students who improved their employment circumstances or continued on to further study after completing training.

In 2004, 60 per cent of Indigenous students surveyed nationally indicated that they were employed after completing a VET course, compared with 75 per cent of all students. Of the Indigenous students surveyed, 33 per cent continued on to further study, compared with 32 per cent of all students (figure 4.49).

Figure 4.49 Proportion of graduates who were in employment and/or continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by Indigenous status, 2004^{a, b, c, d}

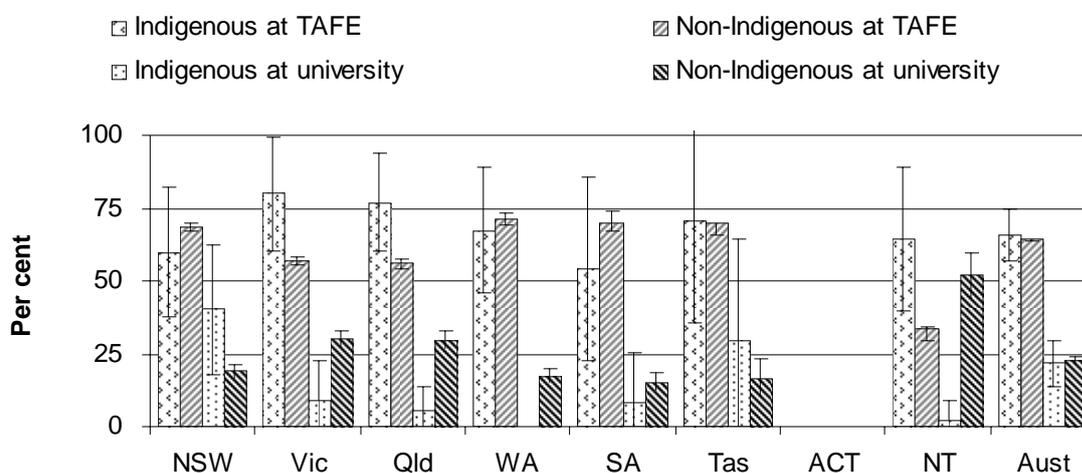


^a The findings on further study outcomes are not applicable to module completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^b Data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^c The estimates for VET outcomes for Indigenous students have a standard error greater than 25 per cent for most jurisdictions and are considered unreliable for general use (tables 4A.19 and 4A.61). ^d The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19 and 4A.61.

Of those Indigenous students who went on to further study, 66 per cent continued on to further study within the TAFE system (compared with 64 per cent for all students) and 22 per cent went to university (compared with 23 per cent for all students) (figure 4.50).

Figure 4.50 Proportion of Indigenous graduates who continued on to further study after completing a VET course, by institution, 2004^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a TAFE includes TAFE institutes and TAFE Divisions of universities. ^b The findings on further study outcomes are not applicable to module completers. A module completer, by definition, is someone who has left the system. ^c Data for the ACT are not published due to small sample size. ^d The estimates for VET outcomes for Indigenous students have a standard error greater than 25 per cent for most jurisdictions and are considered too unreliable for general use (table 4A.61). ^e The error bars in the figure represent the 95 per cent confidence interval associated with each point estimate.

Source: NCVET (unpublished); tables 4A.19 and 4A.61.

Employer outcomes

The Steering Committee has identified ‘employer awareness of VET’ as an indicator of outcomes of VET services (box 4.19).

Box 4.19 Employer awareness of VET

‘Employer awareness of VET’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that employers and individuals will be at the centre of VET.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of Australian employers who are aware of vocational education and training as a strategy to meet the skill needs of their workforce.

Data collections for employer awareness of VET are underway (see section 4.4 for details).

The Steering Committee has identified ‘employer engagement with VET’ as an indicator of outcomes of VET services (box 4.20).

Box 4.20 Employer engagement with VET

‘Employer engagement with VET’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that employers and individuals will be at the centre of VET.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of Australian employers who are engaged with VET in meeting the skill needs of their workforce.

Data collections for employer engagement with VET are underway (see section 4.4 for details).

The Steering Committee has identified ‘employer satisfaction with VET’ as an indicator of outcomes of VET services (box 4.21).

Box 4.21 Employer satisfaction with VET

‘Employer satisfaction with VET’ has been identified as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective that industry will have a highly skilled workforce to support strong performance in the global economy.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of Australian employers who are satisfied with VET in meeting the skill needs of their workforce.

Data collections for employer satisfaction with VET are underway (see section 4.4 for details).

4.4 Future directions in performance reporting

In November 2003, Australian, State, and Territory ministers responsible for VET agreed to a new national VET strategy for 2004–2010, to succeed the 1998–2003 strategy (box 4.3). The performance indicator framework in this chapter has been revised to reflect the new strategy and other indicator improvements. This process identified the need for further work on the skill profile and the three employer outcome indicators to enable related data to be included in future Reports.

Employer outcomes

The NCVER is currently re-developing the Survey of Employer Use and Views of the VET System. The survey aims to measure employers’ levels of awareness, engagement and satisfaction with VET in meeting the skill needs of their workforce (boxes 4.19–21). Interviews with 5000 employers are currently underway.

The new survey differs from the previous survey (last run in 2001) as it no longer asks about employers' views on the skills of graduates, and their views on course delivery. Instead, it asks about employers' awareness, engagement and satisfaction with the VET system.

This survey was undertaken during 2005 and data will be released in early 2006. Data on employer awareness of VET, employer engagement with VET and employer satisfaction with VET from the 2005 employer survey will be included in the 2007 Report.

4.5 Jurisdictions' comments

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

New South Wales Government comments

“

NSW is the largest supplier of workforce training in Australia. At a time of significant technological change and industrial reform, NSW is committed to ensuring that programs and services respond to the current and future needs of industry and the people of NSW. In 2004, 111.6 million hours of training were delivered throughout the State.

NSW is currently experiencing a significant shift in workforce skill needs. The NSW Vocational Education and Training system is responding to this demand by increasing the number of student places and adapting its delivery profile to more closely align with skill shortages and the emerging skill needs of NSW industries.

Between 2000 and 2004 NSW achieved real efficiency gains with VET unit costs decreasing by 10 per cent. The average cost of VET delivery in NSW was \$14.03 in 2004.

NSW, through its TAFE programs, is meeting the increased demand for apprentice and trainee places while also addressing skills shortages, providing a skilled workforce for NSW and assisting the State to maintain its competitive edge. Approximately \$2 million will be provided to establish TradeStart — a 12 month pilot scheme in which 450 apprentices will be able to do their first year of TAFE training in 16 weeks before they start work.

Increasing employment opportunities for Indigenous communities through skills development and bridging the digital divide for Indigenous communities in remote regions are high priorities for NSW. The NSW VET system is addressing these priorities through the implementation of the NSW Aboriginal Education Strategy in partnership with the NSW Aboriginal Education Consultative Group and Aboriginal communities.

NSW is committed to increasing the opportunities for young people to improve their employability by preparing them for the world of work and enhancing their capacity to make informed decisions about career choices. The ageing of the Australian workforce means up-skilling and retaining mature aged workers in the workforce has become an urgent economic and social policy issue.

Vocational education and training is now a well established part of the NSW Higher School Certificate. The provision of accredited VET in Schools courses to senior students continued to grow in 2004 with over 69 000 student enrolments in years 11 and 12, a growth of 43 per cent since 2000. Students undertook courses based on Training Packages in a wide range of industry areas and completed over 2 million hours of work placement. The 2005 NSW Strategic Evaluation of VET in Schools found that significant numbers of students would not have continued beyond Year 10 if VET subjects had not been made available. Sixty per cent of HSC VET graduates surveyed said that VET in Schools subjects influenced their decision to stay on to year 12.

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Victorian Government comments

“ In 2004, Victorian registered training organisations provided approximately 501 000 students with over 111 million student contact hours of vocational education and training. This was an decrease of 0.7 per cent on 2003 delivery.

Of this total delivery, government funded delivery accounted for over 80.4 million student contact hours, a decrease of 0.5 per cent on 2003. This can be attributed to better targeting of training needs and the diversion of resources to areas of innovation and specialisation. TAFE institutions delivered nearly 63.4 million government funded hours with the remaining 17.0 million government funded hours delivered by ACE and private registered training organisations. The upward trend in apprenticeships and traineeships in Victoria was reversed in the second half of 2004.

The number of apprentices or trainees in training decreased by 3 per cent to 145 000 at 31 December 2004.

All major initiatives contained in the VET and higher education Ministerial Statements have now been implemented. In 2004 this included:

- funding 15 Specialist Centres and working towards the establishment of four new Specialist Centres in biotechnology, heritage trades, textiles and e-business
- establishing the TAFE Development Centre to improve professional development of the TAFE workforce
- developing resources and training programs to strengthen the governance culture and practices of TAFE and university governing bodies
- the development of a new model to inform the distribution of government-funded training between industries
- the revision of the vocational education and training student fees and charges policy to increase student access and equity
- selecting and funding six organisations to act as Industry Liaison Agents-independent agents identifying and brokering a range of training solutions for Victorian small and medium-sized manufacturers
- continuing to pursue fairer arrangements including a greater share of higher education places in Victoria.

The Ministerial Statement Future Directions in Adult Community Education (ACE) in Victoria was launched in June 2004. It provides a three year policy framework and identifies strategies to:

- broaden the role of ACE
 - recognise the needs of specific learner groups
 - enhance the sustainability of ACE provision
 - invest in ACE.
- ”

Queensland Government comments



The Queensland Government remains committed to delivering vocational education and training (VET) that is responsive to industry, community and individual needs. In 2004, just over 180 000 people residing in Queensland participated in government-funded VET programs.

The Government, through its discussion paper released in 2005, *Skills for jobs and growth*, recognises the important part VET plays in contributing to increased productivity and general economic prosperity through investment in human capital.

The state of the labour market has only served to strengthen interest in this crucial relationship. Throughout 2004, labour markets around the country became progressively tighter as employment grew rapidly and unemployment fell to levels not seen since the seventies. Queensland was no exception. In fact Queensland recorded jobs growth in 2004 just over twice the national rate (5.3 per cent compared to 2.6 per cent), accounting for around 40 per cent of national jobs growth during the year. By December 2004, the unemployment rate in Queensland had fallen below the national average (4.7 per cent compared to 5.1 per cent).

These tight labour market conditions caused widespread skill shortages across a range of occupations, industries and regions. The discussion paper proposes numerous innovative (and, in some cases, radical) initiatives to address the following six key priorities:

- tackle urgent trade skill shortages
- strengthen Queensland's skills base for the future
- develop a more responsive and flexible training system
- engage industry more closely
- develop a skills response to the aging population
- increase labour force participation.

Initiatives proposed in the discussion paper include modernising the trade apprenticeship system through a range of recommendations such as shortening the 'nominal' contract periods for some apprenticeships and reorienting the system to be more in line with the true spirit of competency-based training; establishing a new adult trade apprenticeship system to make trade training more appealing to older people; shifting the training effort away from certificate I and II training toward training for the associate professional workforce; upgrading TAFE infrastructure including the establishment of a specialist trade and technician skills institute; the development of new skills formation strategies; and much more.

The paper builds on the success of the Queensland VET sector and defines a new role for the sector that supports the Queensland workforce to adapt to the ever-changing demands of a knowledge-based global economy.



Western Australian Government comments

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With the thriving national economy, skill shortages have developed in a number of industries and, as a result, attention has turned to the role of apprenticeships and traineeships in alleviating these shortages. This is particularly the case in Western Australia where consistently high levels of economic growth and low unemployment levels have resulted in skills shortages in a number of key trade areas.

The number of Western Australian apprentices and trainees in training continued to increase during 2004. As at 31 December 2004, the number of apprentices and trainees in training was 25 700, exceeding the State Government's 2006 target of 25 000. Some 52 per cent of all Western Australian apprentices and trainees in 2004 were in traditional apprenticeships, compared to 36 per cent nationally.

Notwithstanding these achievements, Western Australia is focused on further improving apprenticeships and traineeships and during 2004 launched a number of important new initiatives to support the apprenticeship and traineeship system including:

- the School Apprenticeship Link initiative, which aims to make the trades more attractive to school students and increase the number of young people entering into apprenticeships
- the Fast Track Apprenticeship Program provides mature aged and semi-skilled workers an express route through an apprenticeship, while addressing industry skill shortages in the process. Due to the success of this program, it is currently being expanded into a greater range of trade areas
- a major apprenticeship and traineeship promotional campaign, targeting the community, parents and young people. The campaign aimed to re-image apprenticeships and traineeships and make the trades more attractive.

The proportion of graduates continuing in further study was 37.9 per cent with 71 per cent of these graduates choosing to continue their studies at TAFE, compared to national averages of 32.4 per cent and 64.4 per cent respectively.

The VET participation rate of 15–19 year olds in 2004 was 23.3 per cent, compared with the national average of 21.2 per cent. The number of training hours delivered per student was 270.6, some 8 per cent higher than the national average of 250.5 hours. The State Student Satisfaction Survey, not covered in this Report, shows that 84 per cent of VET students in Western Australia were very satisfied or satisfied with their course.

Other key initiatives in the Western Australian VET system during 2004 included:

TAFEWA Plus was established across the college network, facilitating the placement of TAFEWA graduates into jobs and improving access to career advice for all students. This program assisted approximately 9 000 students in 2004, and has strengthened the relationship between TAFEWA and industry and community agencies.

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South Australian Government comments

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South Australia continues to provide excellent employment outcomes for vocational education and training students and high quality training. The achievements highlighted in the Report for 2004 include:

- reporting 82 per cent of recent TAFE graduates were employed after their training compared to 75 per cent nationally
- the best employment outcomes for recent TAFE graduates who were unemployed prior to the course and took the course for vocational reasons (58 per cent in SA compared to 47 per cent nationally)
- reporting that 86 per cent of recent TAFE graduates were satisfied with the quality of their completed training
- maintaining the highest load pass rate in the country (86 per cent in SA compared to 77 per cent nationally).

In 2005, a strategy for the development of South Australia's Workforce to 2010 — Better Skills, Better Work, Better State — was released. The strategy will assist in creating an efficient, highly skilled workforce that supports a globally competitive economy and a socially inclusive community through:

- the creation of A high skill economy
- access to Quality Employment
- shaping our future through Better Workforce Planning.

The South Australian Government is working with industry, community and educational institutions to realise this vision. It is committed to maintaining a quality training system that provides opportunities for all South Australian's to gain and upgrade their employment skills while also addressing industry's workforce needs. As part of this the government consolidated delivery of TAFE services into one regional and two city Institutes. This simplifies planning and management, provides a focus for TAFE services in non-metropolitan areas and emphasises the role of the local, community based campus.

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Tasmanian Government comments



This Report supports Tasmania's priorities for the VET system and what is being achieved in meeting industry, community and individual need for skills development. The priorities are:

- established links with other State, local and Australian government agencies and regional and industry bodies to ensure education and training solutions are part of co-ordinated whole-of-government, community and industry strategies
- increased proportion of the working age population with skills that are relevant to, and will support State economic and industry development
- improved opportunities for mature-age workers
- improved access to vocational education and training and improved outcomes for people who experience barriers to training and employment due to their particular needs
- improved opportunities and outcomes for young people (15–24) as they move from compulsory education to post-compulsory education, training and work.

Skill shortages continue to be a major focus and the demand from industry for skills is at the forefront of current initiatives to expand the reach of skill development into the community and carefully target through competitive tendering processes the skills that businesses urgently need.

The Tasmanian Government's Skills for Growth budget initiative is investing \$12.6 million over four years to directly address skill shortages and build workforce capacity in the trades and in growth industries.

Young people are being supported in their transition from compulsory education to further education, training and work through the introduction of pathway planning and transition support in secondary schools.

Numbers in school based new apprenticeships are increasing, numbers of people in the training system and hours of training delivered continue to increase and there has been strong growth in apprentices and trainees.

In the context of performance measurement it is worth noting that as the range of training is extended to new groups that may be detached from the workforce for a range of reasons, the costs rise and outcomes can be more variable.

While the unit cost of government funded training has continued to fall it is unlikely that this trend will continue. The benefits from efficiency measures in TAFE Tasmania and from the strong growth in numbers of people enrolling have been important in achieving lower unit costs, however the nature of the Tasmanian economy with a very broad grouping of industries dispersed widely across the state necessarily limits the extent of efficiencies available.



Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ The ACT Government remains committed to increasing participation in vocational education and training as a means of enhancing the social and economic opportunities for ACT residents. Several of the strategic policy directions set by the ACT Government through the Canberra Plan emphasise the importance of vocational education and training for individuals and the community. Additional funding of \$5.1 million was allocated for this purpose in 2004-05. Expenditure on competitively funded training increased from \$12.1 million in 2003 to \$14.7 million in 2004.

Training activity in New Apprenticeships continued at a high level, with commencements for the year at 4847, just below the record peak of 5158 in 2003. Numbers in training peaked at 6292 in September 2004, the highest on record.

During 2004 there were 350 commencements of School-based New Apprenticeships (SNAPs) by students in the ACT. The total number of SNAPs in training during 2004 was approximately 630.

While overall training activity for 2004 was down nationally, the ACT participation rate was 8.1 per cent of the working age population, down slightly from 8.2 per cent in 2003. This is a relative improvement, in that the national participation rate in 2003 was 8.5 per cent but in 2004 it had dropped to 7.9 per cent. The participation rate for Indigenous Australians in training rose from 5.8 per cent of the Indigenous population in 2003, to 12.7 per cent in 2004.

In 2004 the ACT Government launched two initiatives to complete a safety net of support programs for those disadvantaged in the vocational education and training market. One of the programs was the Young Adults and Risk Developing Skills. This program is to provide marginalised young people (often in transition from youth detention) with individual support for entering vocational or educational placements. The other program is the Training Pathway Guarantee, which provides training for school leavers who have missed other training opportunities. These initiatives add to the suite of programs that exist to support vocational education and training participants ranging from students at risk through to mature age workers.

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Northern Territory Government comments

“ Vocational education and training is one of the most critical pathways to achieving the NT’s fundamental and abiding commitment to improving economic and social outcomes for all Territorians, particularly Indigenous Territorians. In 2004, 18 219 people participated in VET programs in the NT, an increase of 4.01 per cent over 2003 (17 515).

The NT has a higher concentration of Indigenous people with 28.8 per cent of the NT population having an Indigenous background, compared to Australia at 2 per cent of the total population. Over 22 per cent of the Territory’s population live outside the six urban centres, and a major proportion of this population is Indigenous. Over 31 per cent of the NT population speaks a language other than English at home.

Limitations associated with delivery of VET training in remote communities present major challenges to the NT. The cost of training delivery in the NT is high at \$22.70, compared to the Australian average of \$14.09. A widely dispersed population with a population density of only 0.15 people per square kilometre, compared to the Australia’s population density of 2.55 (June 2002) presents difficulties in delivering VET. The NT recorded the highest participation rate in VET activities aged 15–64 years old, with 12.3 per cent, compared to the national rate of 7.9 per cent.

Training programs supporting a regionally located skilled workforce catering for Indigenous community needs include the Flexible Response and Community Response programs. These programs target training needs that involve up-skilling and re-skilling for community labour shortages; responsive, ongoing skills development that assists in building community capacity; and providing accredited and non-accredited training for Indigenous Territorians.

The Northern Territory collaborates with industry, employers, communities and local government to ensure timely, targeted and accredited vocational education and training is matched to employment opportunities. The Workforce NT Report provides government, industry and the community with information about skills shortages, labour demand, urban and regional labour markets, Indigenous and disadvantaged groups employment profiles, employment growth forecasts, workforce trends and macroeconomic data impacting on employment.

In 2004 the Northern Territory introduced employer incentives schemes, which will contribute to the growth and development of the Territory’s skill base, boost job and economic opportunities and encourage the uptake of additional apprentices/trainees, particularly in skill shortage and emerging industry areas.

This program was part of a commitment to create 10 000 new apprenticeships/traineeships in the Territory’s job market over the next three years. During 2004, 2331 Territorians had commenced an apprenticeship/traineeship an increase of 22.2 per cent over 2003.

The NT is continuing to ensure VET is targeted to meet the needs of its growing economy and leads to jobs for Territorians.

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4.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Adjusted annual curriculum hours	Annual curriculum hours that are adjusted to account for (1) module enrolments reported with an outcome of recognition of prior learning and (2) invalid module enrolments.
Annual curriculum hours	The anticipated hours of supervised learning or training deemed necessary to adequately present the education material. These hours are generally specified in the curriculum documentation and exclude hours associated with field work or work experience. Indicator changed in 1999 to nominal hours — supervised.
AVETMISS	Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard. This is a specification of information standards for recording and reporting VET inputs (resource module) and activity and outputs (business module). This standard was observed in the collection and preparation of data for this Report.
Community education providers	Community education training organisations that provide information to the NCVET data collection.
Completions	Fulfilment of all of the requirements of a course enrolment or module enrolment.
Contract of training	A contractual agreement between an employer and employee (apprentice or trainee), specifying the competencies to be developed over the period of the contract, and the rights and obligations of each party.
Cost per curriculum hour (average)	Total government recurrent expenditure per total adjusted annual curriculum hour.
Cost of capital per load pass	Total government recurrent expenditure divided by successfully completed VET modules or unit of competency.
Course	A structured sequence of vocational education and training that leads to the acquisition of identified competencies and includes assessment leading to a qualification or statement of attainment.
Enrolment	The registration of a student with a training provider for the purpose of doing a course or module. The enrolment is considered valid only if all fee obligations have been met and the student has attended at least one lesson or submitted at least one piece of work.
Fee-for-service activity	Activity that is funded by fees received from individuals and organisations (other than regulatory student fees), including specifically funded Australian and State government programs (such as labour market programs and Adult Migrant English Services).
Government cost of capital per adjusted annual curriculum hour	Cost to the government of using capital (physical noncurrent assets) to deliver VET services.

Government expenditure per load pass	Cost to the government of each successfully completed VET module or units of competency (that is, the cost per successfully achieved output).
Government funding to private and adult and community providers	Government recurrent expenditure to private and adult and community education (ACE) providers for the delivery of VET services. Expenditure includes payments to secondary schools, other government providers, enterprises, private registered training organisations, ACE providers, industry and local government providers.
Government recurrent VET expenditure per load pass	The total government recurrent expenditure divided by the number of hours completed from assessable modules or units of competency. The load pass is not adjusted for recognition of prior learning.
Government recurrent VET expenditure per person aged 15–64 years	Total Australian, State and Territory governments' recurrent expenditure, based on 'maintenance of effort' cash expenditure per person aged 15–64 years.
Graduate	A person who has completed a vocational program.
Hours delivered per campus	The ratio of unadjusted VET hours delivered to the number of campuses in each jurisdiction.
Language spoken at home	People speaking a language other than English at home are those who self-identify on their enrolment form that they speak a language other than English at home.
Load pass rate	The ratio of hours attributed to students who gained competencies/passed assessment in an assessable module or unit of competency to all students who were assessed and either passed, failed or withdrew. The calculation is based on the nominal hours supervised for each assessable module or unit of competency and includes competencies achieved/units passed through recognition of prior learning. Load pass rate is not adjusted for recognition of prior learning.
Module	A unit of training in which a student can enrol and be assessed.
Net assets of government VET providers per person aged 15–64 years	Net assets (total assets less liabilities) of government owned VET providers per person aged 15–64 years.
Nominal hours — supervised	The anticipated hours of learning or training deemed necessary to adequately present the educational material associated with the delivery of a training program in standard classroom delivery mode. These hours are generally specified in the curriculum documentation and exclude hours associated with work experience, industry placement or field placement. See ' <i>annual curriculum hours</i> '.
Non-response rate	Proportion of VET students who did not respond to the relevant question.
Non-vocational program of study	Recreation, leisure and personal enrichment courses directed towards the encouragement and development of creative, social and personal pursuits and skills that enable people to make more effective use of leisure time.
Number of campuses	The number of locations at which VET providers delivered VET programs or modules.

Overall employer satisfaction with VET providers	Employer satisfaction with VET training providers (including both TAFE and non-TAFE). It is rated on a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 being 'very dissatisfied' and 10 being 'very satisfied'.
Private provider	A commercial organisation that provides training to individuals and industry.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices. Adjustments are made using the non-farm GDP price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Recurrent funding	Funding provided by the Australian, State and Territory governments to cover operating costs, salaries and rent.
State VET plan	An annual publication by the State training authorities, which outlines the planned training in terms of annual hours, by occupational groupings, for the year ahead (with indicative estimates for the next two years). It also outlines initiatives to meet State and national strategies.
Students per campus	The ratio of the number of students who undertook vocational programs to the number of campuses in each jurisdiction.
Students studying in remote areas	The ratio of the number of students who studied in campuses located in remote areas to the total number of VET students.
Students studying in rural areas	The ratio of the number of students who studied in campuses located in rural areas to the total number of VET students.
TAFE	Technical and further education colleges and institutes, which are the primary providers of government funded VET.
TAFE institute graduates' main reason for undertaking a VET course	Either vocational reasons (to get a job, to try for a different career, to meet job requirements, to get extra job skills) or non-vocational reasons (to get into another course, for personal interest, for other reasons).
Training packages	The basic building blocks for VET programs under the National Training Framework. They are developed by industry and create national standards, programs, qualifications and learning resources.
VET cost per adjusted annual curriculum hour	Government recurrent expenditure per adjusted government funded annual curriculum hours.
VET participation by Indigenous people	The proportion of VET students reported as Indigenous compared to the proportion of Indigenous people in the Australian population.
VET participation by students speaking a language other than English	The proportion of VET students speaking a language other than English at home compared with the proportion of people in the Australian population speaking a language other than English at home.
VET participation rate for people aged 15–64 years	The ratio of the number of people who undertake a VET program or module to the number of people in Australia (or each jurisdiction) aged 15–64 years.
VET participation rate for people of all ages by region	The ratio of the number of people who undertake VET programs or modules in specified geographic areas (that is, capital cities, rural areas, remote areas and other metropolitan areas) to the total population of people in those geographic areas.
VET program	A course or module offered by a training organisation in which clients may enrol.

Vocational program of study

A program of study that is intended to develop competency in skills relevant to the workplace or entry to further education. Includes initial vocational courses and courses subsequent to initial vocational courses. These courses are typically associated with preparatory, operative, trades/skilled and para-professional education and training.

Whether the VET course helped graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course

Whether 'the course helped', 'the course partly helped', 'the course did not help' or the graduates 'cannot say'.

4.7 Supporting tables

The files containing the supporting tables are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach4A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach4A.pdf. The files containing the supporting tables can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without access to the CD-ROM or Internet can contact the Secretariat to obtain the supporting tables (see contact details on the inside front cover of the Report).

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Table 4A.3	Size and scope of government funded and/or delivered VET, 2004
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Table 4A.34	Whether VET course helped TAFE graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course, female graduates
Table 4A.35	Whether VET course helped TAFE graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course, graduates from rural areas
Table 4A.36	Whether VET course helped TAFE graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course, by graduates from remote areas
Table 4A.37	Whether VET course helped TAFE graduates achieve their main reason for doing the course, by graduates with a disability
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Table 4A.45	Number of VET qualifications completed by students, by sex ('000)
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PART C

JUSTICE

C Justice preface

Governments provide justice services to ensure a safe society by enhancing public order and security, and upholding the rule of law. This provision involves crime prevention, detection and investigation, judicial processes and dispute resolution, prisoner and offender management, and rehabilitation services. The focus of the following chapters is on the justice services provided by police (chapter 5), court administration (chapter 6) and adult corrective services (chapter 7). These chapters cover:

- the operations of the police agencies of each State and Territory government and the ACT community policing function performed by the Australian Federal Police (AFP)
- the court administration of the State and Territory supreme courts, district/county courts, magistrates (including electronic and children's) courts, coroners' courts and probate registries, as well as the court administration of the Federal Court of Australia, the Federal Magistrates Court, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA
- the operations of the corrective services agencies within each state and territory, including prisons (both public and private), periodic detention centres and a range of supervised community corrections orders for adult offenders.

Some government services that are not included, but which also contribute to civil and criminal justice outcomes, are:

- crime prevention, diversion and early intervention activities within policing (although chapter 5 contains some information relevant to these activities)
- legal aid services, which provide access to both criminal and civil aspects of the justice system
- alternative dispute resolution services, such as conciliation and mediation
- offices of fair trading or consumer affairs, which operate to minimise incidences of unlawful trade practices
- crimes compensation services and victim support services, which assist victims' recovery from crime
- prosecution services, which bring actions on behalf of the community in criminal actions

-
- various social services and community organisations that help prisoners released from prison to re-integrate into society, support families of prisoners during their incarceration, and assist people who have contact with the criminal justice system
 - the Australian Crime Commission and the federal functions of the AFP
 - the operations of tribunals and registries (except for probate and court registries) and judicial outcomes
 - the operations of the High Court of Australia and specialist courts (for example, drug courts)
 - juvenile justice agencies and services (except children's courts). (Some descriptive information on juvenile justice is included in the community services preface).

Profile of the justice system

Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources)

Recurrent expenditure relates to the annual service costs for the parts of the justice system covered in this Report, and excludes payroll tax. Real recurrent expenditure is derived by applying a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) Implicit Price Deflator (IPD) to the recurrent expenditure data (for the 2006 Report the GDP IPD has a base year of 2004-05). Details on the GDP IPD can be found in appendix A.

Differences between service area costs reported in recurrent expenditure may affect service area comparisons. In this preface:

- capital expenditure is reported for police services but not for court administration or corrective services
- user cost of capital is reported for police services, but not reported for court administration or corrective services.

For corrective services, the data on recurrent expenditure reported in this preface differs from the data reported in the corrective services chapter. Expenditure reported in the corrective services chapter includes depreciation and user cost of capital for the most recent year. The data reported in this preface excludes depreciation and user cost of capital to retain consistency with trend data. This anomaly is under review for future Reports.

Total real recurrent expenditure for those parts of the justice system covered in this Report was \$8.3 billion in 2004-05 (table C.1).

Table C.1 Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) on justice services by all Australian governments (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c}

	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	Annual average growth
	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	\$m	%
Police services ^d	4 955.8	5 094.0	5 409.7	5 588.9	5 686.4	3.5
Court admin. — criminal ^e	436.9	439.1	442.9	441.9	457.8	1.2
Court admin. — civil ^{e, f}	383.0	407.1	432.7	440.4	469.8	5.2
Corrective services ^g	1 397.3	1 504.4	1 600.1	1 641.5	1 730.5	5.5
Total justice system	7 173.1	7 444.6	7 885.4	8 112.7	8 344.5	3.9
Police services ^d	69.1	68.4	68.6	68.9	68.1	..
Court admin. — criminal ^e	6.1	5.9	5.6	5.4	5.5	..
Court admin. — civil ^{e, f}	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6	..
Corrective services ^g	19.5	20.2	20.3	20.2	20.7	..
Total justice system	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	..

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Excludes expenditure on justice services out of the scope of this Report (e.g., expenditure on specialist courts). ^d Recurrent expenditure on police services includes depreciation and user cost of capital. ^e Recurrent expenditure on court administration includes depreciation but excludes user cost of capital. ^f Civil expenditure excludes expenditure on probate matters. ^g Recurrent expenditure on corrective services excludes depreciation and the user cost of capital. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 5A.1–5A.8, 6A.12–13, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person

A number of factors contribute to the marked differences in expenditure across jurisdictions. These include factors beyond the control of jurisdictions (such as geographic dispersion, economies of scale and socioeconomic factors), as well as differences in justice policies and/or the scope of services that justice agencies deliver. For example:

- police agencies in some jurisdictions provide event management and emergency response services, while others do not
- electronic infringement and enforcement systems are within the scope of court administration only in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA.

Nationally, expenditure per person on justice in 2004-05 was \$412 (table C.2).

Table C.2 Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on justice services, 2004-05^{a, b, c, d}

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
Police services ^e	\$	280	261	266	330	266	271	285	714	281
Court admin.— criminal ^f	\$	25	15	21	28	25	25	26	76	23
Court admin.— civil ^{f, g, h}	\$	13	10	7	25	14	7	18	45	23
Corrective Services ⁱ	\$	96	58	81	120	78	70	82	261	85
Total justice system	\$	414	344	375	503	383	373	411	1097	412
Police services ^e	%	67.6	75.9	71.0	65.6	69.5	72.7	69.3	65.1	68.1
Court admin.— criminal ^f	%	6.0	4.5	5.7	5.5	6.4	6.6	6.3	6.9	5.5
Court admin.— civil ^{f, g, h}	%	3.1	2.9	1.9	5.0	3.7	1.8	4.4	4.1	5.6
Corrective Services ⁱ	%	23.3	16.7	21.4	23.9	20.4	18.9	20.0	23.8	20.7
Total justice system	%	100.0								

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Population is estimated by taking the average of the four quarters for the 2004-05 financial year. ^d Excludes expenditure on justice services out of the scope of this Report (for example, expenditure on specialist courts). ^e Recurrent expenditure on police services includes depreciation and user cost of capital. ^f Recurrent expenditure on court administration includes depreciation, but excludes user cost of capital. ^g The Australian total includes Australian Government expenditure on the Family Court of Australia, the Federal Court and the Federal Magistrates Court, which are not attributed to jurisdiction expenditure. ^h WA civil court administration data include the cost of the Family Court of WA, so are not directly comparable with other jurisdictions. ⁱ Recurrent expenditure on corrective services excludes depreciation and the user cost of capital.

Source: Australian, State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables A2, 5A.11, 6A.12–13, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

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 that the community has access to a fair system of justice that protects the rights of individuals and contributes to community safety (box C.1).

Box C.1 Objectives of the criminal justice system

The objectives of the criminal justice system are to provide protection for the rights and freedoms of all people through:

- the operation of police services that enhance community safety by preventing, detecting and investigating crime
- the administration of criminal justice that determines guilt and applies appropriate, consistent and fair sanctions to offenders
- the provision of a safe, secure and humane custodial environment and an effective community corrections environment that provide program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending.

These objectives are pursued in a manner that is accessible, equitable, timely and efficient.

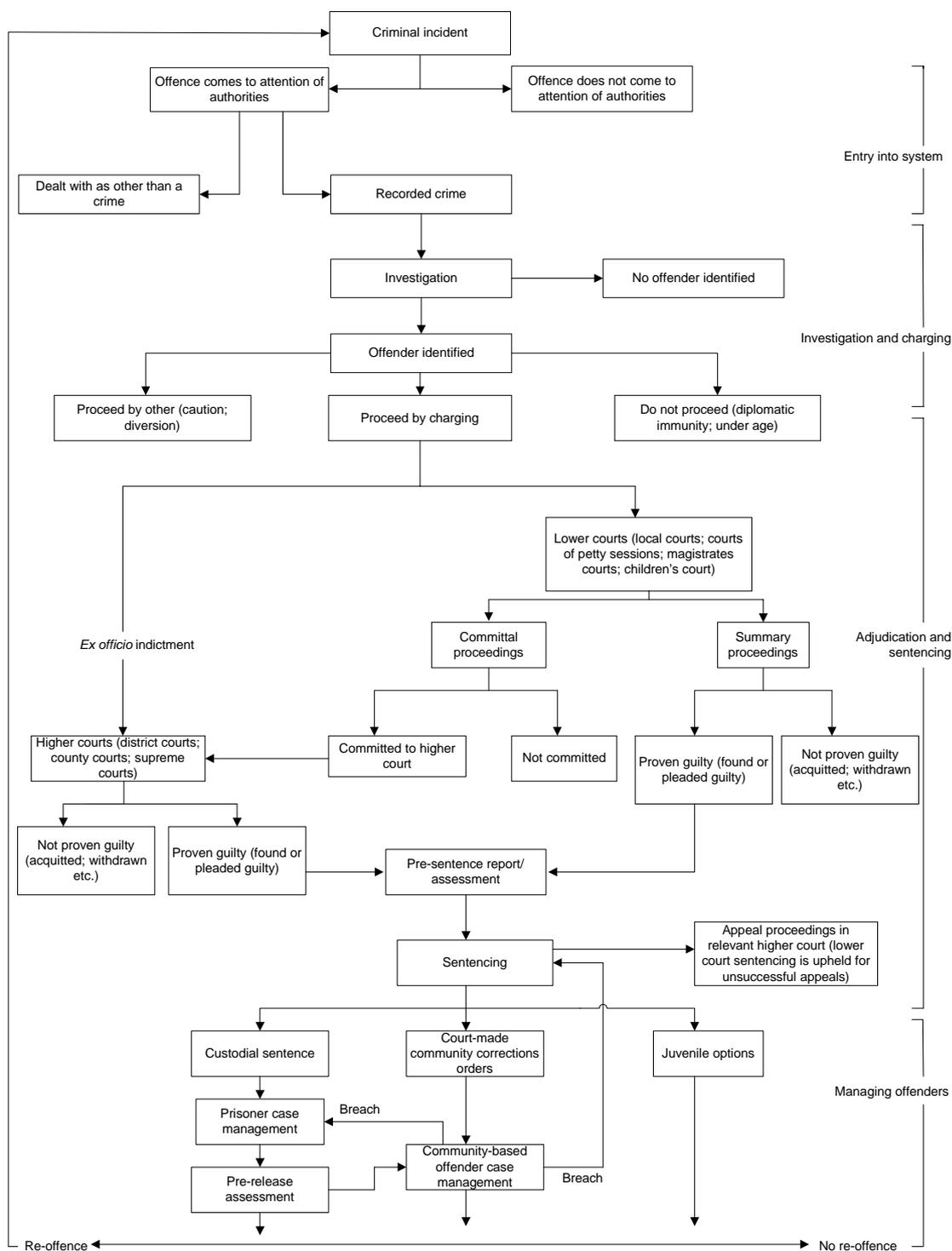
A model of the criminal justice system

The performance of the criminal justice system is measured in this Report against the objectives of effectiveness (how well agencies meet the outcomes of access and timeliness), equity (how well agencies treat special needs groups) and efficiency (how well inputs are used to deliver a range of outputs). Within the criminal justice system, the ability of one agency to meet these objectives depends on the effectiveness of the complex interactions between the police, courts and corrective services. Examples of this are:

- the police service's effect on the judicial system through policing strategies such as police cautions and other diversionary strategies
- the judicial system's effect on the police and correctional systems through sentencing practices
- the correctional system's effect on the judicial system through advisory services provided to courts
- the impact on the justice system of the degree of recidivism experienced.

The criminal justice system is a sequentially structured process whereby people entering the system tend to progress through the system from one agency to another until their matter is resolved. Figure C.1 illustrates the typical stages involved in the processing of cases as they move through the criminal justice system, showing some of the links among police, courts and corrective services. This depiction is broadly indicative and, for brevity and clarity, does not seek to capture all the complexities of the criminal justice system or variations across jurisdictions.

Figure C.1 Flows through the criminal justice system a, b, c



a Does not account for all variations across jurisdictions. **b** The flow diagram is indicative and does not seek to include all the complexities of the criminal justice system. **c** Juvenile justice is covered in the community services preface.

Source: Adapted from ABS (unpublished) Criminal Justice Statistics Framework.

The processes of the criminal justice system mean there is a strong interdependence between the agencies. Each agency's activities may affect and impact on the activities and priorities of the other areas of the system. The resource demands on police, corrective services and, to a lesser degree, courts, along with their responsiveness and capacity to provide services and programs to their client bases, need to be considered in this context. Although service areas are represented in separate chapters in this Report, performance results are to some extent interdependent.

Key indicators of the criminal justice system

The following discussion expands on the policy objectives of the criminal justice system, traces the process by which the criminal justice system operates and draws on several performance indicators used in the Report. Specific equity indicators are yet to be developed for criminal justice. The discussion also identifies areas that are not covered in the Report, but which may 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 that the public feel safe both personally and in regard to their property. Public perceptions of safety are reported in detail in chapter 5 and include measures of perceived safety in the home, in public places and on public transport.

The recorded rate of crime is an indicator of the success of crime prevention and law enforcement. Given that several factors can influence recorded rates of crime, including the general willingness of the public to report crimes to police, additional information is also provided. A survey of the community's experience with crime, such as the Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) Crime and Safety Survey, helps to clarify the relationship between reported and unreported crimes. Recorded rates of crime and information from crime victimisation surveys are reported in chapter 5.

Efficiency

The cost per person of the service delivery area ‘community safety and support’ is used for measuring the efficiency of police agencies in delivering these services. These data are contained in chapter 5.

Crime investigation

Effectiveness

Information on the outcomes of criminal investigations provides a measure of the success of the police in responding to criminal incidents. Chapter 5 reports on outcomes of investigations. The data include the total number of investigations for a range of crimes, the number of investigations finalised as a proportion of total investigations, and the number of investigations that resulted in proceedings against the offending person as a proportion of investigations that were finalised. Chapter 5 also identifies the proportion of investigations that resulted in the offending person being cautioned or diverted from the criminal justice system, as well as the proportion of investigations that were not resolved.

Efficiency

The efficiency measure for crime investigation is the cost per person of delivering the service to the community. These data are contained in chapter 5.

Presentation and pre-trial

Effectiveness

Measures relating to the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea indicate the effectiveness of work undertaken by police and prosecuting services. Chapter 5 provides data for police in this area.

Efficiency

The cost per person of the service delivery area ‘services to the judicial process’ is used to measure the efficiency of the delivery of police prosecution services and is reported in chapter 5. The cost per finalised case in lower criminal courts is used as

a measure of the efficiency of case management by court administrators and is reported in chapter 6.

Adjudication and sentencing

Effectiveness

Measures relating to the proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or guilty finding is an outcome indicator of government's objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing. These court outcome data are contained in chapter 5. Data on the timeliness of hearings provide further information on the ability of the criminal justice system to meet community demands for accused persons to be dealt with in a timely manner, and on the courts' ability to manage their caseload effectively. The timeliness of case processing in the higher criminal courts is reported in chapter 6.

Efficiency

The average net recurrent expenditure per finalisation in the higher criminal courts is a key indicator of efficiency in court administration and is included in chapter 6.

Custodial corrections

Effectiveness

Key effectiveness measures of custodial care — prisoner assault, death and escape rates — are reported in chapter 7. These measures are supported by descriptive indicators, such as imprisonment rates (disaggregated by gender and Indigenous status).

Efficiency

Recurrent and capital costs per prisoner per day are key indicators of efficiency and are reported in chapter 7. These data include the costs associated with offender programs, reparation and prisoner custody.

Community corrections

Effectiveness

In community corrections, a key effectiveness measure is the proportion of orders successfully completed. This measure is supported by descriptive indicators, such as offender rates (disaggregated by gender and Indigenous status). Chapter 7 contains these data.

Efficiency

The cost per offender per day is used to measure the efficiency of providing community corrections. These data are included in chapter 7.

Offender programs and reparation

Effectiveness

Information on the number of prisoners and offenders undertaking approved education, training and personal development courses provides a measure of the effectiveness of corrective services in providing programs that increase the chances of successful re-integration into the community. Data on participation in programs offered are reported in chapter 7.

Offenders serving community corrections orders can provide reparation by undertaking unpaid community work. Reparation may include prisoners undertaking work in the community. The level and distribution of this reparation are detailed in chapter 7.

Not covered in this Report, but under development, is the delivery of structured, targeted, offence-focused programs for prisoners and offenders, such as sex offence treatment programs and violent offence treatment programs.

Efficiency

The costs associated with offender programs and reparation are not separately identified. These data are incorporated into the cost per prisoner/offender results in chapter 7.

Overall performance

Effectiveness

Recidivism — the extent to which persons convicted by the criminal justice system re-offend — is a partial measure of the performance of the system in improving public safety by reducing the incidence of crime (box C.2).

This report only includes recidivism indicators for corrective services (for prisons and for community corrections). No recidivism indicators are currently available from police services or courts administration.

Box C.2 Recidivism reported by corrective services

Recidivism in this section refers to the rate of prisoner/offender return.

This measure does not include:

- arrests
- convictions for re-offending that lead to outcomes that are not administered by corrective services (for example, fines)
- a corrections sanction for a repeat offender who has previously been sentenced to only non-corrections sanctions (such as fines).

Further, it is not weighted in any way to account for the nature of the re-offence — for example, a return to prison for a traffic offence is counted in the same manner as a return for a more serious offence such as armed robbery.

The section is disaggregated to report on recidivism of:

- prisoners — defined as persons with court-issued authorities held in full time custody under the jurisdiction of an adult corrective service agency
- offenders — defined as adult persons under community correction orders which includes prisoners released to the community on parole/licence orders.

Recidivism — prisoners

Two indicators of recidivism are reported for prisoners (table C.3):

- the percentage of prisoners returning to prison within two years of release
- the percentage of prisoners returning to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections) within two years of release.

Both indicators are based on the outcomes for prisoners released from custody during the two years before the reporting year. The most recent data for this Report, therefore, relate to prisoners released during 2002-03. The ACT also did not report on either indicator, because the majority of full time prisoners sentenced in the ACT are held in NSW prisons.

Table C.3 Prisoners released during 2002-03 who returned to corrective services with a new correctional sanction within two years (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>
Prisoners returning to:									
– prison	43.5	38.2	30.6	40.6	31.7	37.8	..	42.1	38.4
– corrective services ^b	46.7	45.6	36.6	49.4	46.4	46.2	..	45.7	44.7

^a Refers to all prisoners released following a term of sentenced imprisonment including prisoners subject to correctional supervision following release, i.e. offenders released on parole or other community corrections order. ^b Includes a prison sentence or a community corrections order. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Table C.4 provides a time series on the proportion of prisoners released who returned to prison within two years. Nationally, 38.4 per cent of prisoners released in 2002-03 returned to prison within two years.

Table C.4 Prisoners released who returned to prison under sentence within two years (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>
2000-01	na	41.8	30.4	40.9	28.3	35.4	..	na	na
2001-02	na	42.5	29.5	41.2	29.2	37.7	..	na	na
2002-03	na	41.1	33.2	37.0	32.4	38.8	..	na	na
2003-04	na	40.1	34.1	38.2	30.8	39.3	..	na	na
2004-05	43.5	38.2	30.6	40.6	31.7	37.8	..	42.1	38.4

^a The counting rule for the total rate of prisoners returning to prison within two years of release was revised for this Report and is now based on all prisoners released following a term of sentenced imprisonment. In previous Reports, prisoners subject to correctional supervision following release were excluded from the recidivism rate calculation. As a result, the total prisoner return rates published in previous Reports cannot be compared to the total rate calculated under the new rules. Total prisoner return rates for the previous four years are re-calculated in this table in accordance with the revised rule. **na** Not available. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Recidivism — offenders

Recidivism among offenders (defined as persons under community correction orders including prisoners released to the community on parole/licence orders) is reported by two indicators (table C.5):

- the percentage of offenders returning to community corrections
- the percentage of offenders returning to corrective services (either prisons or community corrections).

Return to corrective services is the preferred indicator of these two but not all jurisdictions can report this measure. NSW, Victoria and the ACT did not report on either indicator in 2004-05 (table C.5).

Table C.5 Offenders discharged from community corrections orders during 2002-03 who returned with a new 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>
Offenders returning to:									
– community corrections	na	na	11.3	20.8	14.6	11.0	na	16.2	15.2
– corrective services ^a	na	na	19.2	37.6	19.3	25.0	na	26.0	25.1

^a Includes a prison sentence or a community corrections order. **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 those services. Unit cost indicators for individual justice services are presented in the related chapters, but some outcomes result from interactions among the individual services. One indicator of efficiency is annual government recurrent expenditure per person on the criminal justice system (table C.6). Comparisons of unit costs need to account for conflicting objectives and tradeoffs among cost, quality and timeliness, and need to be interpreted in the context of the effectiveness indicators in each chapter.

In 2004-05, expenditure on the criminal justice system was \$391 per person nationally. Given improvements in the counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period, comparisons over time and the annual growth rate of expenditure should be viewed with caution (table C.6).

Table C.6 Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on the criminal justice system (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}

	<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>
2000-01	\$	370	295	337	437	346	313	376	896	354
2001-02	\$	364	309	361	439	357	335	359	957	362
2002-03	\$	393	324	370	449	378	337	388	920	380
2003-04	\$	402	332	373	457	352	354	402	985	385
2004-05	\$	401	339	371	481	373	366	393	1051	391
Real annual growth rate	%	2.0	3.5	2.4	2.4	1.9	4.0	1.1	4.1	2.6

^a Improvements in counting rules and collection scope for each service area over this period mean that the annual growth rate of expenditure needs to be viewed with caution. ^b Excludes payroll tax. ^c Population is estimated by taking the average of the four quarters of the relevant financial year. ^d Excludes costs of civil court administration, probate hearings and electronic infringement and enforcement systems.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables A2, 5A.11, 6A.12, 7A.7 and 7A.10.

Future directions in performance reporting

Each chapter (police services, court administration and corrective services) contains its own service-specific section on future directions. The aim of this section is to provide an insight into directions in performance reporting for the whole justice sector.

Juvenile justice

The community services preface contains information on juvenile justice. It contains descriptive data on the number and detention rates of juveniles (including Indigenous juveniles) in correctional facilities. In future years, it is anticipated that the Report will expand to include performance reporting on juvenile justice.

Criminal Justice statistical framework

The National Criminal Justice Statistical Framework (ABS National Centre for Crime and Justice statistics, unpublished) is an evolving document. It was developed to provide a structure for organising, collecting and reporting data on crime and the criminal justice system. (For more information, see SCRGSP 2004, p. C.17.) The primary purpose of the framework is to identify the key counting units and data variables in the criminal justice system that would allow stakeholders to characterise the main aspects of that system. The framework intends to facilitate the compatibility and integration of aggregated data on populations across the criminal justice system and across geographic areas.

National Information Development Plan

The National Information Development Plan (NIDP) identifies national needs for data in crime and justice, current key data sources (both ABS and other agencies) and information gaps with reference to national data requirements (ABS 2005). It is a strategic document that has been developed in consultation with the Australian Government, State and Territory justice services, their associated research bodies, and a range of other portfolio agencies and non-government bodies that use this statistical information.

The NIDP lists 12 priority areas for improving the quality, coverage and use of crime and justice information across Australia and provides a map of the work planned over the next three years. The priority areas relevant to this Report include:

- improve data comparability across administrative collections
- improve quality and integration of national crime and safety data
- develop measures of recidivism
- develop statistics on juvenile contact with the crime and justice system.

Indigenous issues

In April 2002, the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) asked the Steering Committee to prepare a regular report on key indicators of Indigenous disadvantage as part of the COAG reconciliation commitment. In November 2003 the Steering Committee released the first edition of this report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2003*. The second and most recent edition of this report, *Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage: Key Indicators 2005* was released in July 2005.

The Report on Government Services focuses on the delivery of government services, whereas the report on Indigenous disadvantage concentrates on high level outcomes and strategic areas for action (which includes criminal justice indicators). The two reports are thus different yet complementary.

The available information on the interaction of Indigenous people with specific parts of the criminal justice system is of varying quality. The most important reason for the poor quality of Indigenous data is that some justice agencies do not ask explicitly for a person's Indigenous status. The standard Indigenous question is the ABS's preferred method of identifying Indigenous clients and aims to facilitate self-identification of Indigenous status.

A number of agencies, however, have improved recording of Indigenous status. Police and corrective services collecting Indigenous status data based on the ABS standard Indigenous questions include NSW, Queensland, WA, and the NT. Corrective services in SA collect data on Indigenous people and are working towards collecting these data using the ABS standard Indigenous question in 2005-06.

Work is being undertaken to enable Victoria's magistrates and children's courts to receive Indigenous identification data electronically from Victoria Police, whose police members will record responses to the ABS standard question. It is planned that these data will then flow to other Victorian court levels as part of the committal and appeal process.

Data on the deaths of Indigenous people in police custody and custody-related operations (for example, most sieges and most cases in which officers were attempting to detain a person, such as pursuits) (chapter 5), the representation of Indigenous people in prisons and community corrections (chapter 7), and Indigenous deaths in prison custody (chapter 7) are of a high quality and are published in this Report.

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SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2004, *Report on Government Services 2004*, Productivity Commission, Canberra.

5 Police services

This chapter reports on the performance of police services. These services comprise the operations of the police agencies of each State and Territory government and the ACT community policing function performed by the Australian Federal Police (AFP) under the *Arrangement between the Minister for Justice and Customs of the Commonwealth and the Australian Capital Territory for the provision of police services to the Australian Capital Territory*. The national policing function of the AFP and other national non-police law enforcement bodies (such as the Australian Crime Commission) are not included in the Report.

A profile of the police sector appears in section 5.1. The general approach to performance measurement for police services is outlined in section 5.2. The overarching indicators of police performance are contained in section 5.3, and the specific performance measurement frameworks and data for each service delivery area are discussed in sections 5.4–5.8. Section 5.9 contains information on capital costs in police services and section 5.10 covers future directions in performance reporting. The chapter concludes with jurisdictions' comments (section 5.11), information on sample data (section 5.12) and lists of definitions (section 5.13), supporting tables (section 5.14) and references (section 5.15).

A new performance indicator framework was implemented for the 2005 Report and is continued in the 2006 Report. The new framework emphasises the Review's focus on government service 'outcomes', consistent with the demand by governments for outcome orientated performance information.

It should be noted that the use of the term 'offender' in this chapter refers to a person who is alleged to have committed an offence and is not the same as the definition used in chapter 7 ('Corrective services'), where the term 'offender' refers to a person who is undertaking a community corrections sentence.

5.1 Profile of police services

Service overview

Police services are the principal means through which State and Territory governments pursue the achievement of a safe and secure environment for the community, through response to incidents, the investigation of offences, the provision of services to the judicial process and the provision of road safety and traffic management. Police are involved in a diverse range of activities aimed at reducing the incidence and effects of criminal activity. They also respond to more general needs in the community — for example, assisting emergency services, mediating family and neighbourhood disputes, delivering messages regarding death or serious illness, and advising on general policing and crime issues (CJC 1996).

Roles and responsibilities

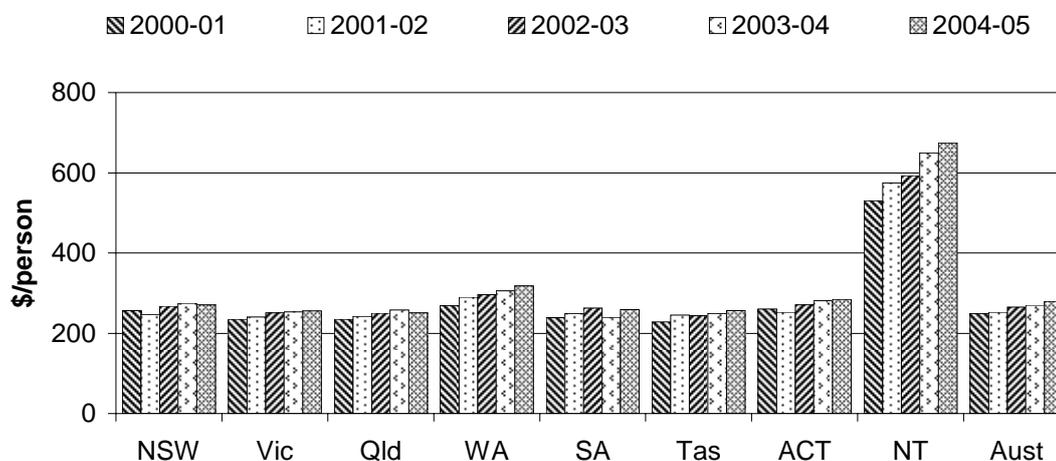
Policing services are predominantly the responsibility of State and Territory government agencies. The AFP provides a community policing service in the ACT through a strategic partnership with the ACT Government, underpinned by a detailed purchaser/provider agreement. The Australian Government is responsible for the AFP.

While each jurisdiction's police service is autonomous, there is significant cooperation across jurisdictions under the auspices of the Australasian Police Ministers' Council. There are also bilateral arrangements and common national police services, such as the National Institute of Forensic Sciences and the Australasian Centre for Policing Research (ACPR).

Expenditure

Funding for police services comes almost exclusively from State and Territory government budgets, with some limited specific purpose Australian Government grants. Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services across Australia was approximately \$5.5 billion (or \$280 per person) in 2004-05 (table 5A.11). Most jurisdictions, except NSW, Qld and the ACT increased their real expenditure over the past 12 months (figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 Real recurrent expenditure per person (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c}



^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 Real expenditure based on the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.11.

Variations in policies, socioeconomic factors and geographic/demographic characteristics have an impact on expenditure per person for police services in each jurisdiction. The scope of activities undertaken by police services also varies across jurisdictions. Care must be used in interpreting such data (box 5.10).

Expenditure breakdown, by key service delivery area

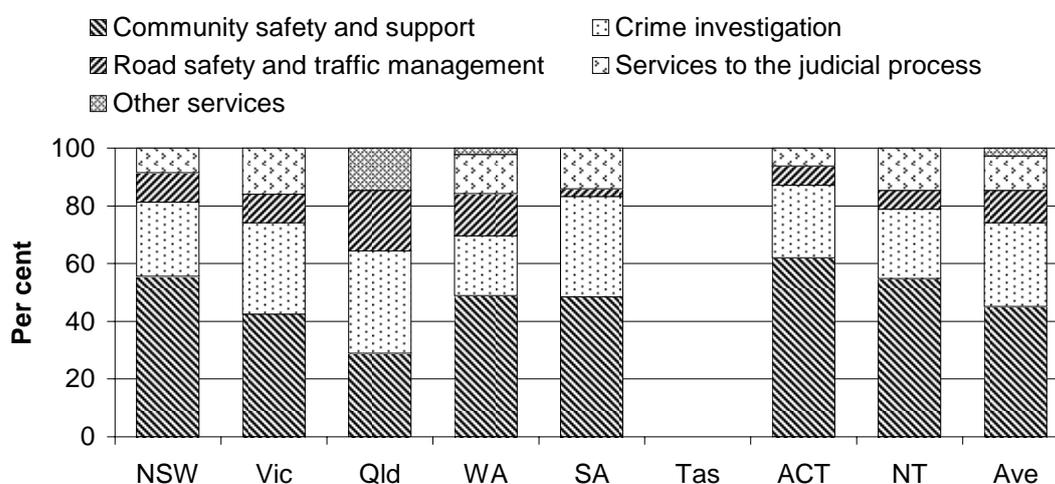
In this chapter, police outputs/programs are disaggregated into four service delivery areas (SDAs). These include ‘community safety and support’, ‘crime investigation’, ‘road safety and traffic management’ and ‘services to the judicial process’. A fifth area (‘other services’) has been identified to account for expenditure on unique functions that are not included in the SDAs. For this Report, all jurisdictions except Tasmania were able to provide expenditure by SDA.

Care needs to be taken when comparing results across jurisdictions, because expenditure data on each SDA are not fully comparable. (Further information is included in section 5.2, and the outputs/programs undertaken within each SDA are listed in table 5A.10 by jurisdiction). Differences in counting rules exist across jurisdictions, as well as a different mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. As well, the activity survey data that provide the relative breakdown of expenditure rely on snapshot data for most jurisdictions, and may not accurately reflect the peaks and troughs in expenditure throughout the year.

Community safety and support accounted for the largest component (44.9 per cent) of expenditure on police services in 2004-05, for those jurisdictions that provided data. Expenditure on crime investigation accounted for the second largest component (28.9 per cent) of expenditure in 2004-05 (figure 5.2).

More detail on expenditure by SDA is provided in tables 5A.12–5A.15.

Figure 5.2 Recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services, by service delivery area, 2004-05^{a, b, c, d}



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subject to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as well as a different mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b Overheads (for example, infrastructure costs such as rent on buildings and vehicle and equipment costs) have been apportioned to these SDAs on a pro rata basis. ^c For Queensland, expenditure data for services to the judicial process are unavailable. ^d Expenditure data for Tasmania could not be disaggregated by SDA.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.15.

Size and scope of sector

Client groups

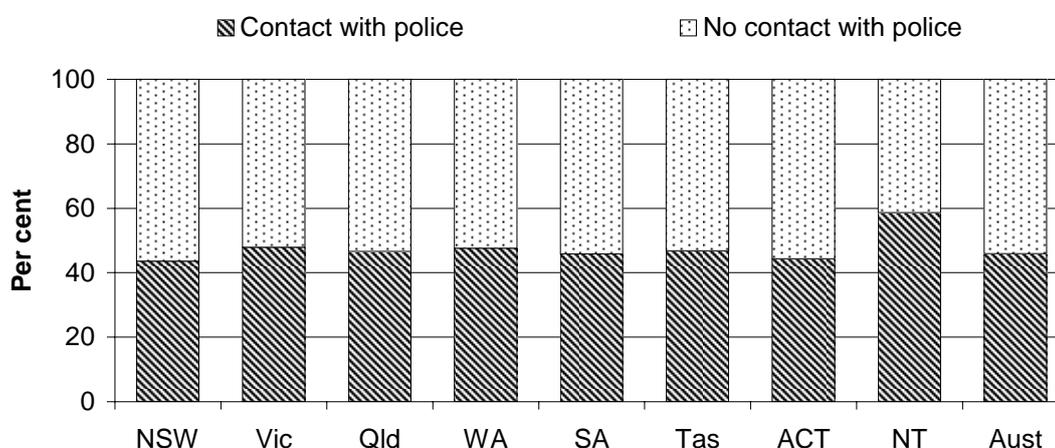
Broadly, the whole community is a ‘client’ of the police. Police services aim to provide individuals with protection, help and reassurance, and everyone is required to comply with the law. Some members of the community have more direct dealings with the police and can be considered a specific client group, for example:

- victims of crime
- those suspected of committing offences
- those reporting criminal incidents

- those involved in traffic-related incidents
- third parties (such as witnesses to crime and people reporting accidents)
- those requiring police services for non-crime-related matters.

The ACPR *National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing* (NSCSP) indicated that 46 per cent of respondents nationally in 2004-05 had experienced some form of contact with police in the previous 12 months (Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3 Police contact in the past 12 months, 2004-05



Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.20.

Victims of crime in Australia

Information on the level of selected crimes against the person and crimes against property is sourced from the Crime and Safety Survey, last conducted in 2002, and the ABS Recorded Crime Victims series, last published in 2004.

Crime and Safety Survey

The Crime and Safety Survey is a regular national survey that was run in 1983, 1993, 1998, 2002 and is expected to be conducted every three years in the future. Information is collected from individuals and households, and focuses on those categories of more serious crime that affect the largest number of people. The ABS is reviewing the current range of Australian crime and safety surveys with a view to better meeting the requirements of data users. Alternative models to the current surveys will be proposed.

The survey provides information on the levels of both reported and unreported victimisation in the Australian community for personal and household crimes:

- Personal crime includes robbery.
- Household crimes include break-in, attempted break-in and motor vehicle theft.

Recorded Crime in Australia

The Recorded Crime Victims collection provides details of selected crimes reported to, or detected by, police, whose details are subsequently recorded on police administrative systems. Data are reported on recorded crimes against people and property:

- Crimes against people include murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, kidnapping/abduction, robbery and blackmail/extortion.
- Crimes against property include unlawful entry with intent, motor vehicle theft and other theft.

Crime and Safety Survey data are considered to be more comparable across jurisdictions than the Recorded Crime collection, given differences in the way in which recorded crime data are compiled (box 5.1). However, both victimisation survey data and police recorded crime data contribute to informing users about the nature and extent of crime victimisation. While neither administrative statistics nor victimisation surveys alone can provide comprehensive information about crime, each is useful for addressing specific issues (which are discussed in more detail in ABS (2005)).

This chapter reports the *level of crime* using the more comparable Crime and Safety Survey data, and the *annual trends* using the more timely Recorded Crime Victims data.

Box 5.1 ABS crime victimisation statistics

The ABS maintains national collections on crime victimisation sourced from two different areas: administrative records obtained from State and Territory police agencies; and victimisation data obtained through surveys of individuals in the Australian community. In some instances, the results may provide different pictures of crime in the community, with administrative data indicating a trend in one direction and personal experience indicating the opposite.

Continued on next page

Box 5.1 (Continued)

The full extent of crime is unlikely ever to be captured — Recorded Crime Victims data understate the true level of crime in Australia as a result of the behaviour of victims and the limitations of the data. Data relate to recorded crimes, but not all offences are reported to, or become known by, police. The victim's confidence in the judicial process, the nature of the offence, and the relationship between the victim and perpetrator are among the key factors that influence the propensity to report an offence. Similarly, with survey data, it may be difficult to obtain information about some crimes such as sexual assault and assaults that have been committed by members of the same household.

Comparing recorded crime statistics across jurisdictions

Recorded crime statistics are based on national standards and classifications, but care needs to be taken when comparing these statistics across states and territories, given the different practices of agencies supplying the data. Information recorded by police agencies may vary across states and territories as a result of legislation, recording systems and recording practices. In June 2005, the National Crime Statistics Unit (NCSU) from the ABS completed the *Differences in Recorded Crime Statistics* (DiRCS) project to investigate the differences in recorded crime statistics across State and Territory police agencies.

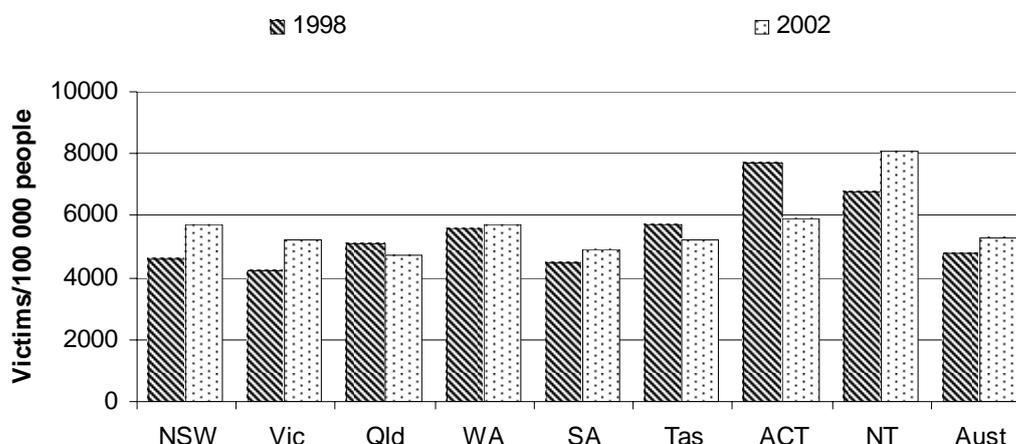
Comparing recorded crime statistics with jurisdiction-specific data

Care needs to be taken if attempting to compare ABS Recorded Crime Statistics with data reported by some jurisdictions. The former are *victim based* (that is, based on the number of victims per selected offence category), whereas some 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 Recorded Crime Statistics, but the information systems in each jurisdiction may count separately each offence committed against the same victim.

Rate of crime victimisation in Australia

Expressed as a rate, there were 5300 victims of personal crime per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002, up from 4800 in 1998 (when the last survey was undertaken). The rate in 2002 varied across jurisdictions. When compared with the results in the previous survey, the rate increased in most jurisdictions (figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4 Estimated victims of personal crime^{a, b}

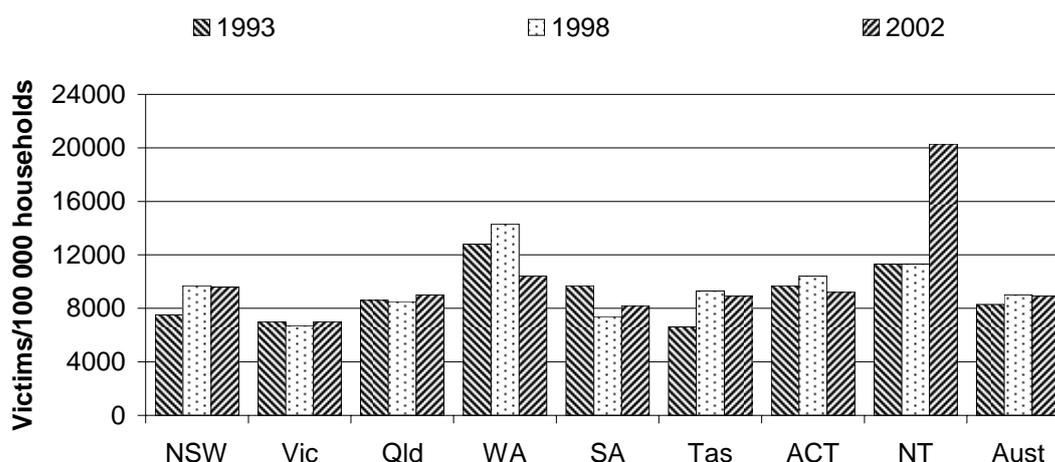


^a Data report only the prevalence of crime, not the incidence. A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one of the offences surveyed. Victims were counted once only for each type of offence, regardless of the number of incidents of that type. ^b Includes robbery, assault and sexual assault.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.44.

There were 8900 household victims of crime per 100 000 households in Australia in 2002, little changed from 9000 in 1998 (the difference is not statistically significant), when the previous survey was held (table 5A.45). There was no consistent trend across jurisdictions over the three surveys (in 1993, 1998 and 2002) (figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5 Estimated household victims of crime^{a, b}



^a Data report only the prevalence of crime, not the incidence. A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one of the offences surveyed. Victims were counted once only for each type of offence, regardless of the number of incidents of that type. ^b Includes break-in, attempted break-in and motor vehicle theft.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.45.

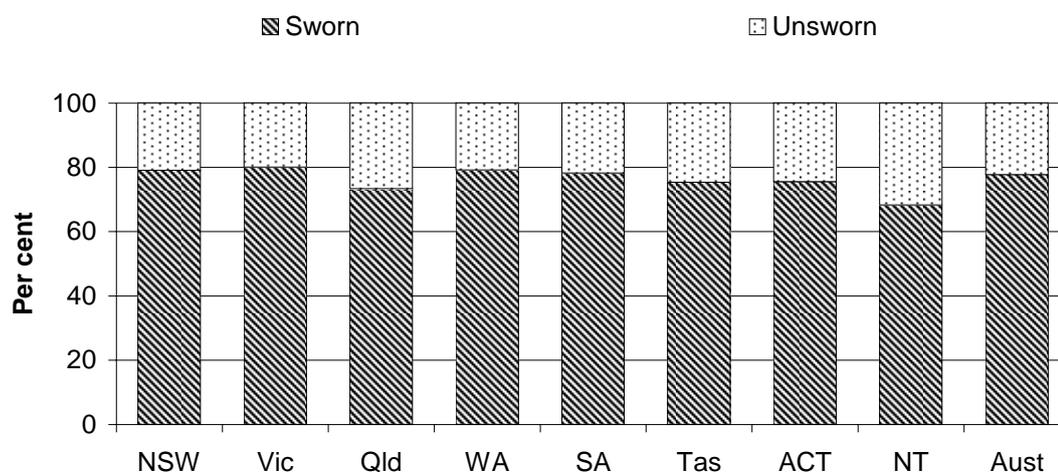
Staffing

Most people directly involved in delivering police services are sworn police officers. These officers exercise police powers, including the power to arrest, summons, caution, detain, fingerprint and search. A trend has developed in recent years to increase the participation of unsworn officers (or contracted external providers) in some activities. ‘Civilianisation’ of police services has three key objectives:

- to reduce costs
- to manage more effectively the increasing need for specialist skills
- to reduce the involvement of sworn staff in duties that do not require police powers (for example, administrative work, investigation support and intelligence analysis).

Total police staffing in Australia was 58 167 (or 289 staff per 100 000 people) in 2004-05 (table 5A.16). Nationally, staffing comprised 224 sworn police officers and 64 unsworn employees per 100 000 people in 2004-05. Between 2000-01 and 2004-05, the number of police staff increased overall in all jurisdictions. Over the five year period, the national level of sworn police staff rose by 8 staff members per 100 000 people, and the number of unsworn staff rose by 6 staff members per 100 000 people, taking into account that Queensland data are unavailable for 2000-01 (table 5A.16). In 2004-05, the proportion of total sworn staff was 77.7 per cent nationally (figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6 Police staff, by sworn/unsworn status, 2004-05^{a, b, c}

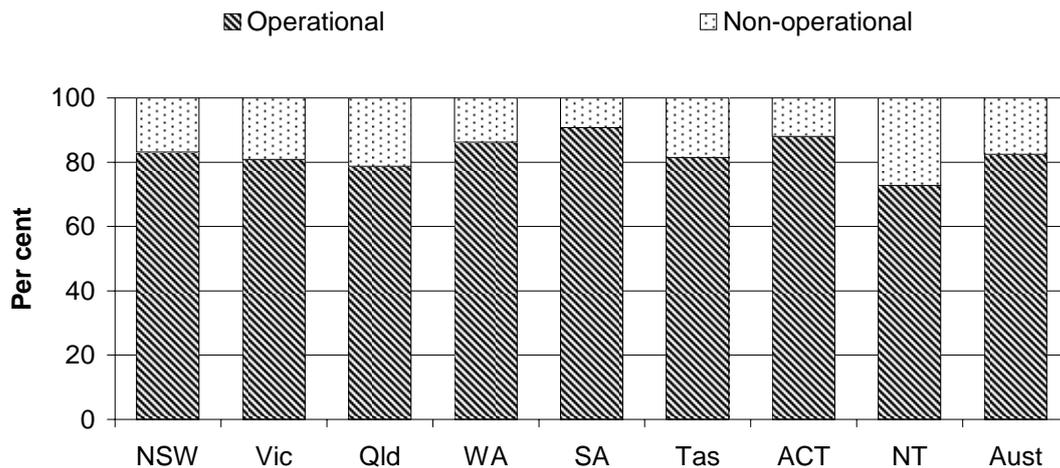


^a Comprises all full time equivalent (FTE) staff. ^b NSW data for 2004-05 are based on a head count at 30 June 2005 and are not FTE data. ^c For the NT, sworn police officers include police auxiliaries and Aboriginal community police officers.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.16.

A non-operational staff member is any person who does not satisfy the operational staff criteria, including functional support staff such as finance staff and personnel services staff. Approximately 82.5 per cent of staff were operational in Australia in 2004-05 (figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 **Police staff, by operational status, 2004-05^{a, b, c}**



^a Comprises FTE staff. ^b NSW data for 2004-05 are based on a head count at 30 June 2005 and are not FTE data. ^c For the NT, sworn police officers include police auxiliaries and Aboriginal community police officers. Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.17.

5.2 General approach to performance measurement for police services

Performance can be defined in terms of how well a service meets its objectives, given its operating environment. Performance indicators focus on outcomes and/or outputs aimed at meeting common, agreed objectives. The Steering Committee identified four objectives (and associated SDAs) for the purposes of this Report (box 5.2). The individual outputs/programs that are linked to the SDAs are contained in table 5A.10. For some jurisdictions, one output/program may be relevant for more than one SDA, so those jurisdictions may choose to disaggregate that output/program according to the data relevant to each SDA.

Box 5.2 Objectives for police services

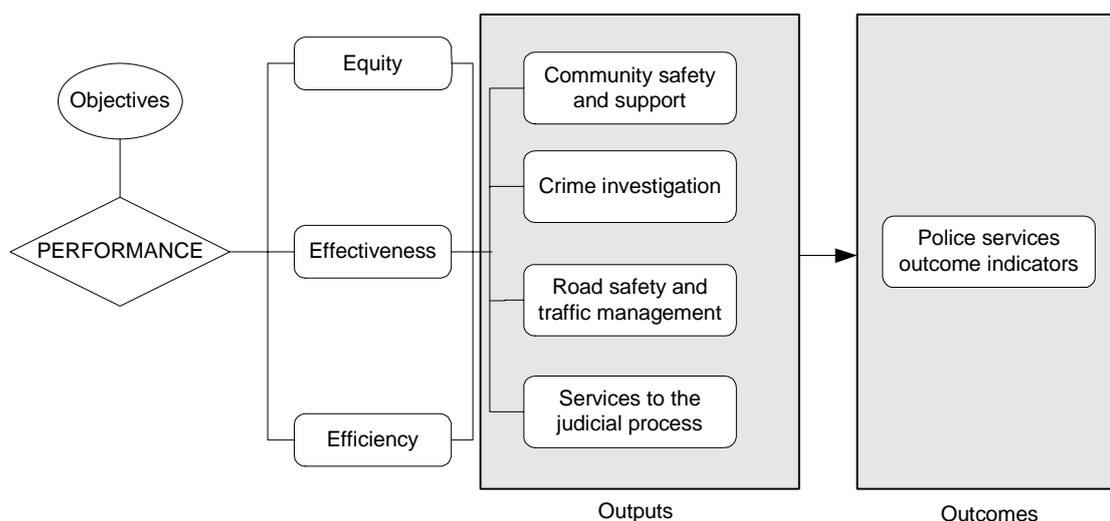
The key objectives for police services (and associated SDAs) are:

- to allow people to undertake their lawful pursuits confidently and safely (through activities associated with *community safety and support*)
- to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence (through activities associated with *crime investigation*)
- to promote safer behaviour on roads (through activities associated with *road safety and traffic management*)
- to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management and judicial processing, while providing safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensuring fair and equitable treatment of both victims and alleged offenders (through activities associated with *services to the judicial process*).

These objectives are to be met through the provision of services in an equitable and efficient manner.

A new framework (figure 5.8) was implemented in the 2005 Report consistent with the new general Report framework (chapter 1). The reported results need to be considered in conjunction with the data on demographic and geographic differences (see appendix A) and with other available information on jurisdiction-specific characteristics.

Figure 5.8 General performance framework for the police services sector



National Survey of Community Satisfaction with Policing

The 2006 Report uses data from the NSCSP, which collects information on community perceptions of police in terms of services provided and personal experiences of contact with the police. It also elicits public perceptions of personal safety and problems in the community and local area.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting any survey data. Minor changes in the survey questionnaire occurred in 2004-05. The statistical reliability of survey data is highly dependent on key elements of the survey method, including the survey instrument, the collection method and the sample size and design. In addition, attitudinal data may be influenced in the short term by rare, but significantly adverse or highly publicised events (such as a mass murder or a police corruption incident). Point-in-time responses may thus vary from people's true underlying (or longer term) satisfaction with police and perceptions of safety and crime levels.

5.3 Indicators relevant to all service delivery areas

The four SDAs in the performance indicator framework identify the core areas of police work. Within this context, certain indicators of police performance are not specific to any one particular SDA, but are relevant for all. These indicators include 'satisfaction with police services', 'perceptions of police integrity', 'complaints', 'Indigenous staffing' and 'police staff by gender' and access and equity considerations. This section provides information from the NSCSP and the State and Territory governments on these overarching indicators of police performance.

Satisfaction with police services

Client satisfaction is a widely accepted measure of service quality (box 5.3).

Box 5.3 Satisfaction with police services

'Satisfaction with police services' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective for police to perform their duties in a professional manner.

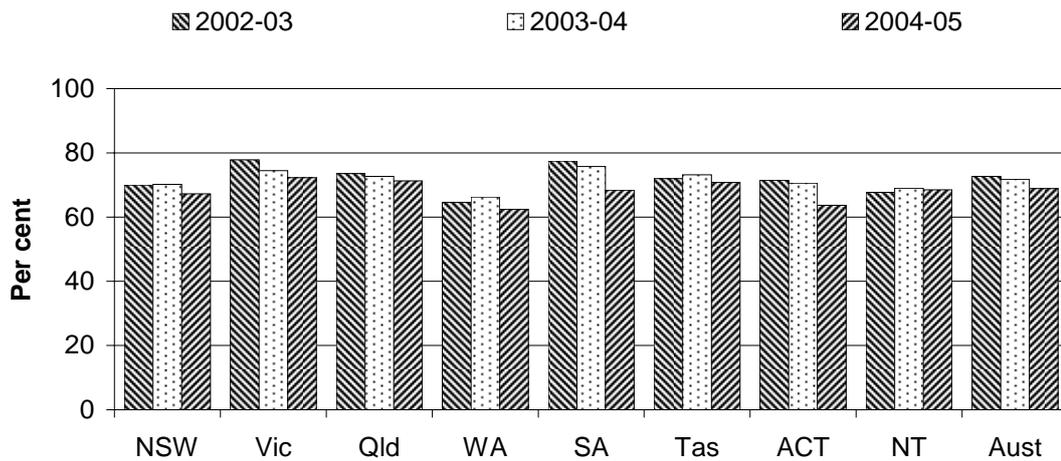
The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with police services.

A higher proportion of people who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' is more desirable.

Public perceptions may not reflect actual levels of police performance, however, because many factors — including individual experiences, hearsay and media reporting — may influence people's satisfaction with police services.

Nationally, the majority of people surveyed (68.9 per cent) were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with the services provided by police in 2004-05 (down from 71.8 per cent in 2003-04 and 72.7 per cent in 2002-03). At the national level, this is a statistically significant movement (figure 5.9).

Figure 5.9 People who were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with police services



Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.18.

The Likert Summation Index (LSI) — which provides a statistical measure of centrality for assessing the general (or ‘average’) level of community perceptions — is also useful for comparative purposes. The method and limitations of the LSI are discussed in box 5.4. An LSI of 5.00 would indicate that all respondents were ‘very satisfied’, while an LSI of 1.00 would indicate that all respondents were ‘very dissatisfied’. An LSI of 3.86 indicates that respondents were ‘satisfied’ on average.

Across Australia, the LSI for the responses to the question ‘how satisfied are you in general with the services provided by the police?’ was 3.82 in 2004-05 (down from 3.86 in 2003-04 and 3.90 in 2002-03) on a scale of 1.00 to 5.00 (table 5A.18). (figure 5.10).

Box 5.4 Likert Summation Index

The LSI is a method for aggregating responses to obtain one measure of the general (or 'average') perceptions of respondents to Likert-type survey questions.

Example — General satisfaction with police services

On the following scale, how satisfied are you with services provided by the police?

Very satisfied = 5; Satisfied = 4; Neither = 3; Dissatisfied = 2; Very dissatisfied = 1

The responses are summarised below:

Category	Responses		
	Weight (A)	Actual (B)	Weighted (A×B)
Very Satisfied	5	950	4 750
Satisfied	4	2 500	10 000
Neither	3	1 250	3 750
Dissatisfied	2	400	800
Very Dissatisfied	1	250	250
Total		5 350	19 550

Each response category is allocated a weight between 1 and 5 (A). The actual responses (B) are multiplied by this weight to provide weighted responses (A×B). For example, five times 950 equals 4750. The sum of the weighted responses is divided by the sum of the actual responses:

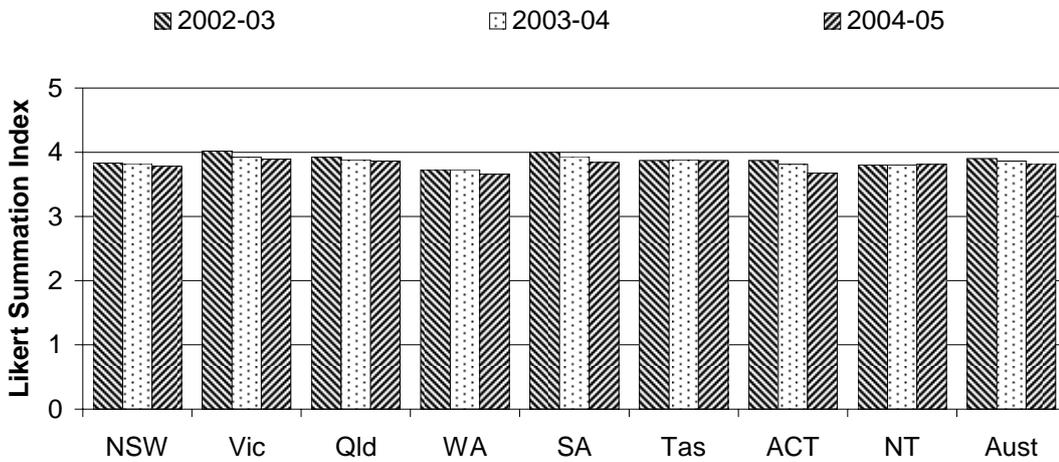
$$L = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i R_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n R_i} = \frac{(5 \times 950) + (4 \times 2500) + (3 \times 1250) + (2 \times 400) + (1 \times 250)}{950 + 2500 + 1250 + 400 + 250} = \frac{19\,550}{5\,350} = 3.65$$

where: L = Likert Summation Index
 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 above example provide ordinal data. The LSI method assumes that the underlying data are inherently 'interval' in nature. This assumption — which is not universally accepted in the literature — is closely linked to the design and implementation of the survey instrument.

Further, the LSI is a measure of centrality and does not explicitly highlight outliers — for example, those very dissatisfied with police services — who may be an important focus of police policy. For these reasons, the LSI should be interpreted in conjunction with related frequency data.

Figure 5.10 **General satisfaction with police services^a**

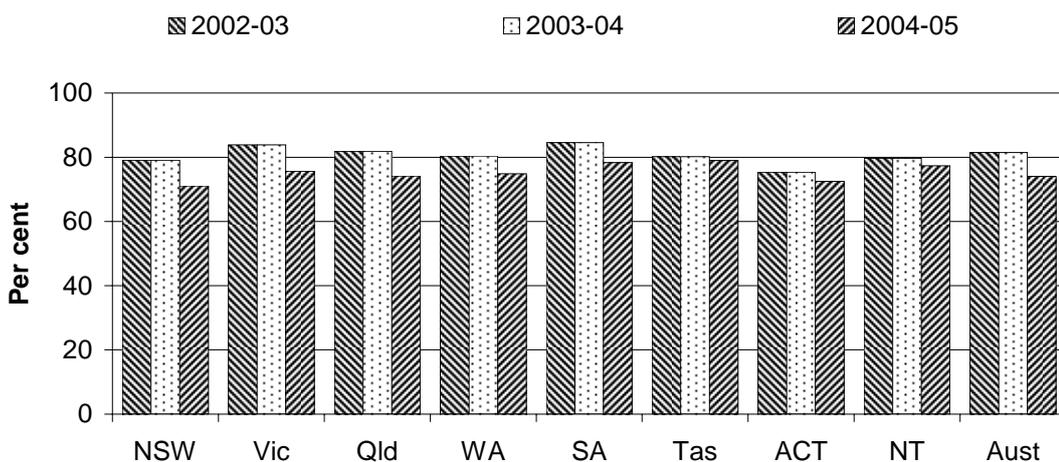


^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.18.

Nationally, of those respondents who had contact with police in 2004-05, 74.1 per cent were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with the service they received during their most recent contact (down from 80.4 per cent in 2003-04). At the national level, this is a statistically significant movement. Results across jurisdictions and over time are presented in figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11 **People who were ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with police in their most recent contact^a**

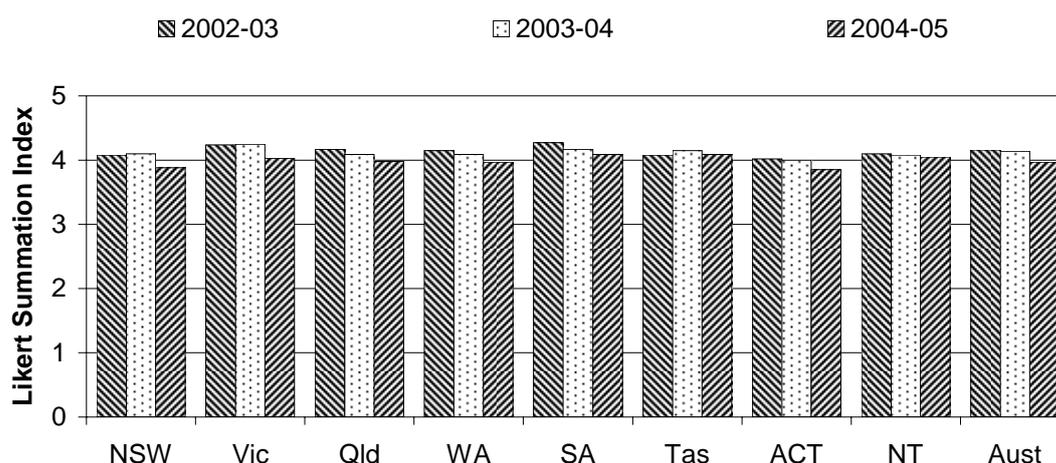


^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.21.

The national LSI in 2004-05 for the responses to the question ‘how satisfied were you with the service you received during your most recent contact with police?’ was 3.97 on a scale of 1.00 to 5.00 (down from 4.14 in 2003-04) (table 5A.21). An LSI of 3.97 indicates that respondents were ‘satisfied’ on average. Results across jurisdictions and over time are presented in figure 5.12.

Figure 5.12 **General satisfaction with police in most recent contact^a**



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.21.

Perceptions of police integrity

Public ‘perceptions of police integrity’ provide a measure of police professionalism (box 5.5).

Nationally in 2004-05, 63.3 per cent of people ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police treat people ‘fairly and equally’ (down from 65.5 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.13).

Box 5.5 Perceptions of police integrity

‘Perceptions of police integrity’ is an outcome indicator of governments’ objective for police to perform their duties with integrity and professionalism.

Three measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police treat people fairly and equally

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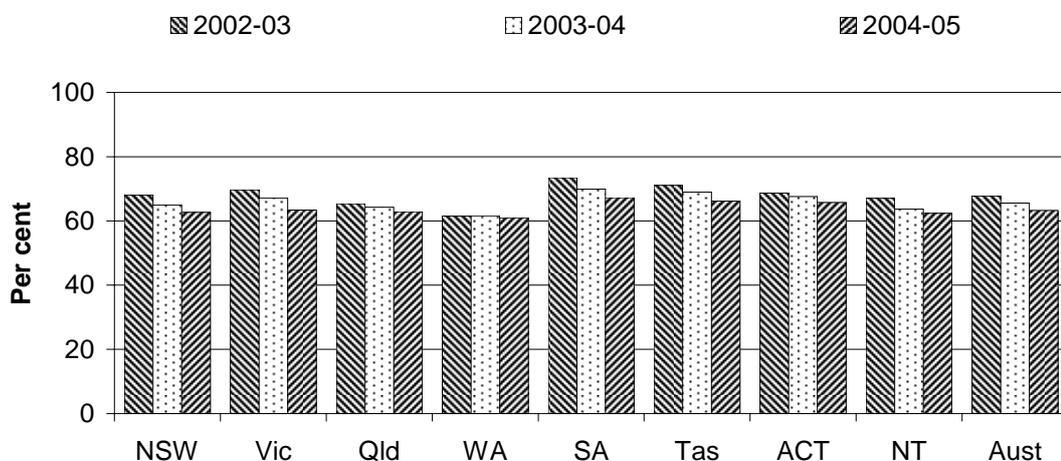
Box 5.5 (Continued)

- the proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police perform the job professionally
- the proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that most police are honest.

A higher proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police treat people fairly and equally is more desirable. Similarly, a higher proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police perform the job professionally, and a higher proportion of people who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that most police are honest, is more desirable.

Public perceptions may not reflect actual levels of police integrity, however, because many factors — including individual experiences, hearsay and media reporting — may influence people’s perceptions of police integrity.

Figure 5.13 People who ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that police treat people fairly and equally^a

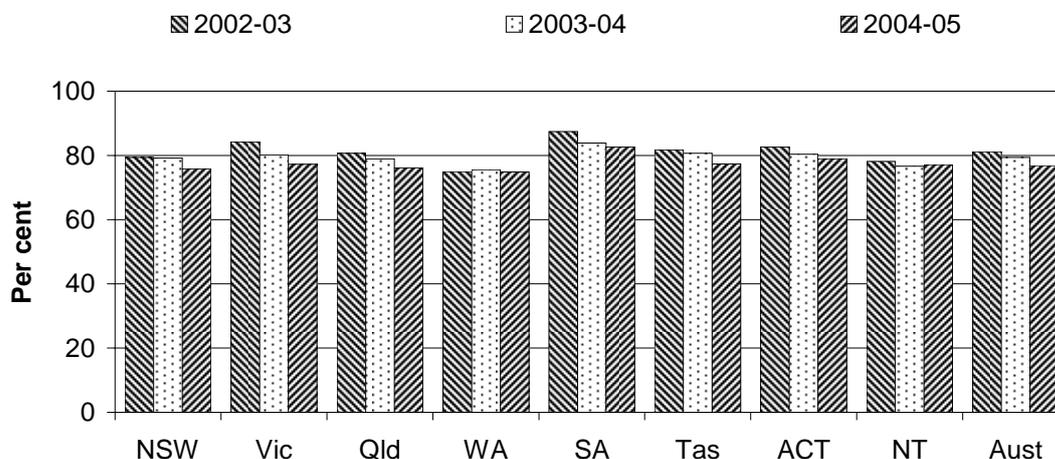


^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.24.

Nationally, 76.8 per cent of people ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ in 2004-05 that police perform the job ‘professionally’ (down from 79.4 per cent in 2003-04 and 81.2 per cent in 2002-03). Compared with both 2003-04 and 2002-03, the proportion fell in most jurisdictions (figure 5.14).

Figure 5.14 People who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that police perform the job professionally^a

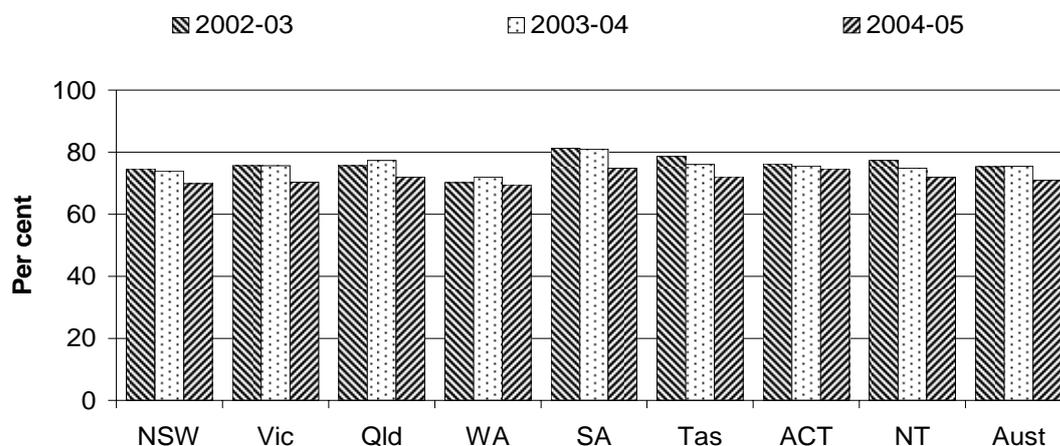


^a Data for later years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.23.

Police integrity is another important element of police services' performance. This can be judged to some extent by the public perception of police honesty. Nationally, 70.9 per cent of people 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' in 2004-05 that most police are 'honest' (down from 75.4 in 2003-04). Compared with 2003-04, the proportion fell in all jurisdictions. At the national level, this is a statistically significant movement (figure 5.15).

Figure 5.15 People who 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that most police are honest^a



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.25.

Complaints

Police services across Australia encourage and foster a code of customer service that provides for openness and accountability. Complaints made against police increasingly reflect a range of issues relating to service delivery (box 5.6). Complaints of a more serious nature are overseen by relevant external review bodies, such as the ombudsman, the director of public prosecutions or integrity boards in each jurisdiction.

Box 5.6 Complaints

'Complaints' is an output indicator of governments' objective for police to perform their duties in a professional manner.

This indicator is defined as the number of complaints per 100 000 people.

Definitions of what constitutes a 'complaint against police' differ greatly between jurisdictions. Some jurisdictions include only complaints made by members of the public against members of the police force, whilst others include both internal organisational complaints against police employees and those made by members of the public. The rate of reported complaints is therefore not comparable across jurisdictions. Rates of complaints against police will be influenced by factors such as familiarity with, effectiveness of and confidence in complaint handling procedures, as well as the definition of 'complaint' applicable to that jurisdiction.

It is desirable to monitor changes in the reported rate of complaints against police to identify reasons for such changes and utilise this information to improve the manner in which police services are delivered.

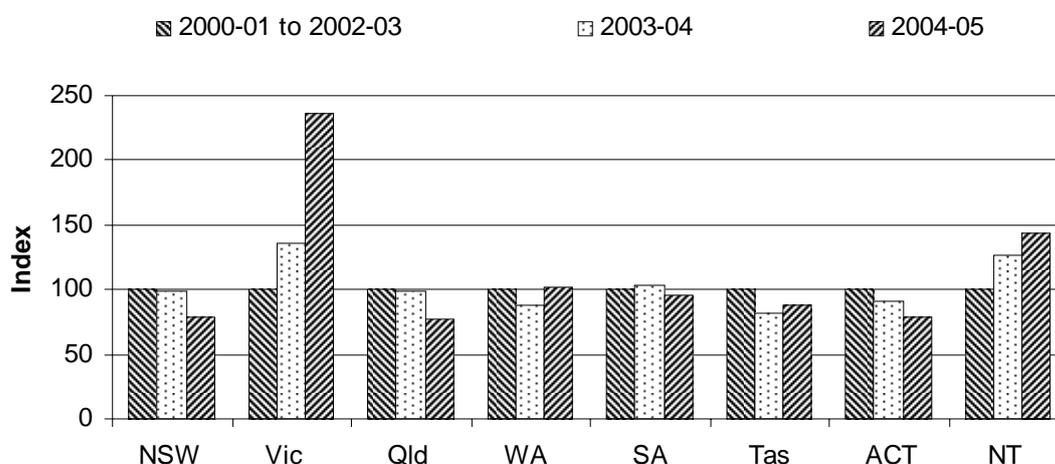
The trend is presented using a base value of 100 and displaying the variation up or down thereafter.

An increase in complaints does not necessarily indicate a lack of confidence in police. Rather, it may indicate greater confidence in complaints resolution.

Complaints data are not comparable across jurisdictions, as a result of different counting rules. For example, Victorian, ACT and NT data include verbal complaints, which are not counted in other jurisdictions. Complaints data are presented in figure 5.16 and provide a picture of trends over time for each jurisdiction.

Although there were fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, the number of complaints against the police per 100 000 people was on a general downward trend in NSW, Queensland, Tasmania and the ACT over the period 2000-01 to 2004-05. Victoria and the NT experienced a rise in complaints per 100 000 people over the five years (figure 5.16).

Figure 5.16 Complaints per 100 000 people^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. Data can be used only to view trends over time within jurisdictions. ^b Data include verbal complaints in the NT, the ACT and Queensland. ^c For NSW, a new complaints management system (c@ts.i) was implemented in 2001-02; figures for 2001-02 include only matters entered into the former Complaints Information System so are incomplete. ^d For WA, data for 2000-01 to 2003-04 have been revised. The number of complaints recorded can vary due to the back-capture of previously unreported complaints of a minor nature that are resolved at the local level. ^e Queensland 2003-04 figures include 386 complaint matters where the on-duty status of the subject member is unknown. ^f Base three-year average: 2000-01 to 2002-03 = 100.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.27.

Access and equity — Indigenous staffing

This section focuses on the performance of mainstream police services in relation to Indigenous Australians. One indicator of access and equity is ‘Indigenous staffing’ — that is, the proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds relative to the proportion of the general population who are from Indigenous backgrounds (box 5.7).

Box 5.7 Indigenous staffing

'Indigenous staffing' is an output indicator of governments' objective to provide police services in an equitable manner. Indigenous people may feel more comfortable in 'accessing' police services when they are able to deal with Indigenous police staff.

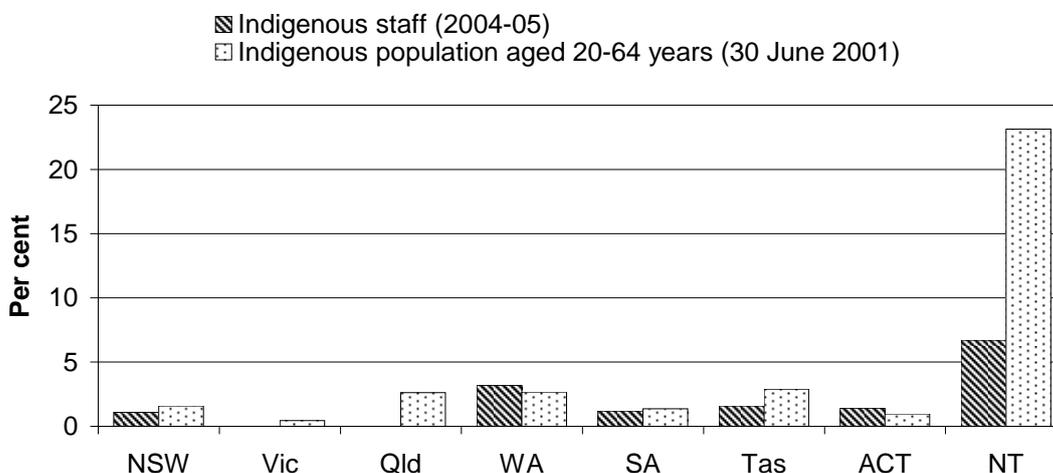
The indicator is defined as the proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds compared to the proportion of the general population aged 20–64 years who are from Indigenous backgrounds. These data are used because a significantly larger proportion of the Indigenous population falls within the younger non-working age groupings compared with the non-Indigenous population. Readily available ABS population estimates for people aged 20–64 years in 30 June 2001 provide a proxy for the estimated working population.

A proportion of police staff from Indigenous backgrounds closer to the proportion of the general population aged 20–64 years who are from Indigenous backgrounds represents a more desirable equity outcome.

In some jurisdictions, the process of identifying Indigenous staff members relies on self-identification. Where Indigenous people are required to identify themselves, then the accuracy of the data will partly depend on how they perceive the advantages (or disadvantages) of identification and whether these perceptions change over time. More generally, many factors will influence the willingness of the Indigenous population to access police services, including familiarity with procedures for dealing with police, and confidence in the effectiveness of police services. For the purposes of this chapter, an Indigenous person is one who self-identifies as being Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander.

In most but not all jurisdictions, the proportion of Indigenous police staff was broadly in line with the representation of Indigenous people in the population aged 20–64 years (figure 5.17).

Figure 5.17 Proportion of Indigenous staff in 2004-05 (sworn and unsworn) and Indigenous population aged 20–64 years^{a, b, c}



^a Indigenous staff numbers relate to those staff who self-identify as being of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander descent. ^b Information on Indigenous status is collected only at the time of recruitment. ^c Queensland and Victoria was unable to separate Indigenous and non-Indigenous staff.

Source: ABS, Population by Age and Sex, Cat. no. 3201.0, (unpublished); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.28.

Access and equity — staffing by gender

Another measure of access and equity is the level of (sworn and unsworn) ‘police staff by gender’ (box 5.8). Nationally, 29.9 per cent of police staff were female in 2004-05 (figure 5.18). Nationally, the proportion of female police staff increased from 2000-01 to 2004-05 (from 27.5 per cent to 29.9 per cent of staff).

The proportion of female police staff in all jurisdictions increased over this period (figure 5.18).

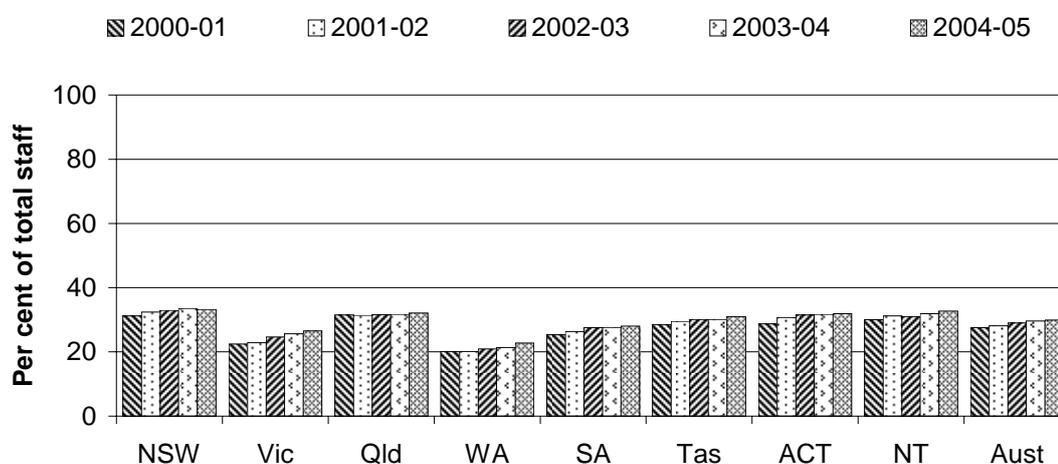
Box 5.8 Access — staffing by gender

‘Police staffing by gender’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to provide police services in an equitable manner. Women may feel more comfortable in ‘accessing’ police services in certain situations when they are able to deal with female police staff.

The indicator is defined as the number of female police staff (sworn and unsworn) divided by the total number of police staff.

A proportion of female police staff commensurate with the proportion of females in the general population is generally more desirable.

Figure 5.18 Female police staff (sworn and unsworn)^{a, b, c}



^a Comprises FTE staff. ^b For NSW, data from 2000-01 are based on a head count at 30 June. ^c For WA, data exclude recruits in training.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.29.

5.4 Community safety and support

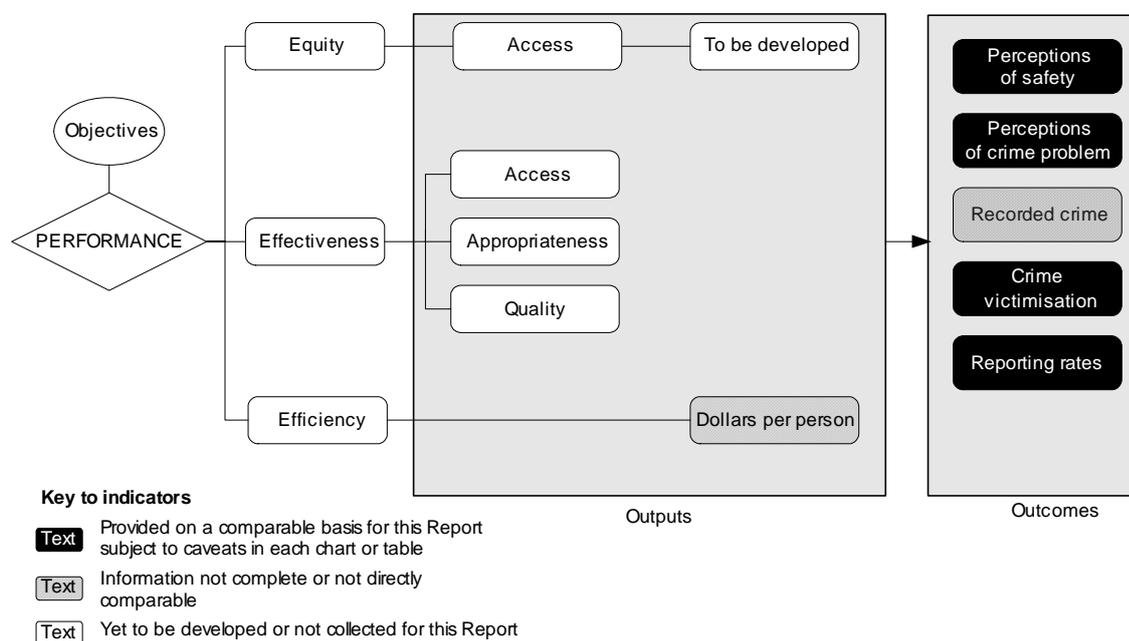
This SDA captures the role of police in preserving public order and promoting a safer community through a range of activities, including:

- responding to calls for assistance
- responding to, managing and coordinating major incidents and emergencies
- undertaking crime prevention activities and community support programs.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that incorporates information on recorded crime levels and community perceptions data. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable across jurisdictions in the 2006 Report (figure 5.19). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.19 Performance indicators for community safety and support



Key community safety and support performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified access to community safety and support as a key area for development in future reports (box 5.9).

Box 5.9 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for community safety and support services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering community safety and support services (box 5.10).

Box 5.10 Dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with community safety and support in an efficient and effective manner.

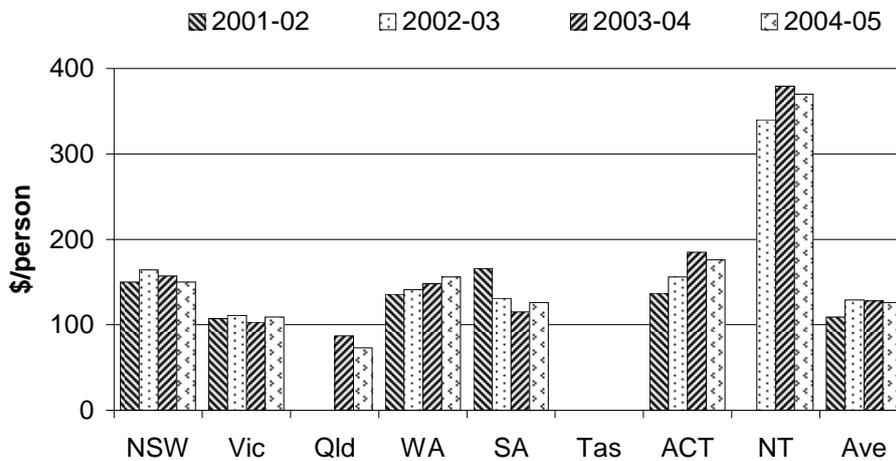
The indicator is defined as police services' expenditure (adjusted for inflation) on community safety and support per person.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting these data. While high expenditure per person may reflect less desirable efficiency outcomes, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as more effective policing or more challenging crime and safety situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect more desirable efficiency outcomes or worse quality (less effective policing) or less challenging crime and safety situations. Efficiency indicators thus need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Tasmania did not provide expenditure data by SDA for 2004-05. Nationally, on average for the jurisdictions that did provide data, expenditure on community safety and support was \$126 per person (figure 5.20). Expenditure on community safety and support made up about half of all police expenditure nationally (44.9 per cent) (table 5A.15).

Nationally, real expenditure on community safety and support fell by \$2 per person over the past year (from \$128 to \$126) (table 5A.46).

Figure 5.20 **Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on community safety and support (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c}**



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b For SA, the decrease in 2003-04 mainly reflects the outcomes of activity surveys conducted in 2004, which resulted in a shift in resources from community safety and support to crime investigation. In 2004-05, total recurrent expenditure has increased mainly as a result of Enterprise Bargaining for Sworn Staff and asset revaluation decrements. ^c For Queensland, a review of the output structure for 2004-05 has resulted in a change in the distribution of funds across outputs and may have contributed to the redistribution of funds in 2004-05 from this SDA.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.46.

Outcomes

Perceptions of safety

An important objective of police services is to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe in public and private (box 5.11).

Box 5.11 Perceptions of safety

'Perceptions of safety' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe (within themselves and regarding their property) in public and private.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who felt 'safe or very safe' at home
- the proportion of people who felt 'safe or very safe' in public places.

A higher proportion of people who felt 'safe' or 'very safe' for either indicator is a more desirable outcome.

Perceptions of safety may not reflect reported crime, however, for a number of reasons: reported crime may understate actual crime, under-reporting may vary across jurisdictions, and many factors (including media reporting and hearsay) may affect public perceptions of crime levels and safety.

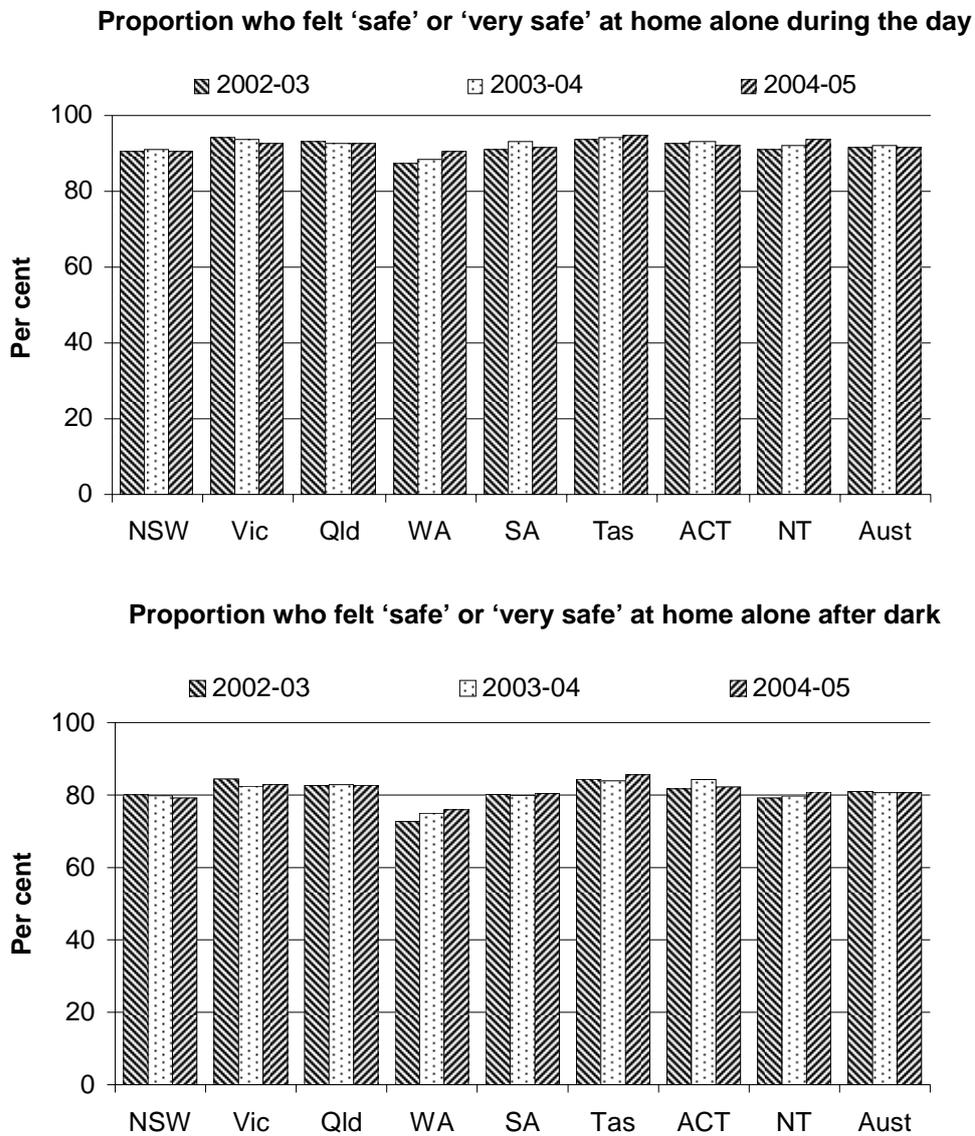
Nationally, 91.7 per cent of people surveyed felt 'safe' or 'very safe' at home alone during the day in 2004-05. Nationally, 80.7 per cent of people felt 'safe' or 'very safe' at home alone after dark in 2004-05 (figure 5.21).

Nationally, 44.5 per cent of people felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally after dark in 2004-05 (up from 40.4 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.22).

In Australia, 87.6 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when walking or jogging locally during the day in 2004-05, and 59.7 per cent of respondents felt 'safe' or 'very safe' on public transport during the day (down from 66.1 per cent in 2003-04).

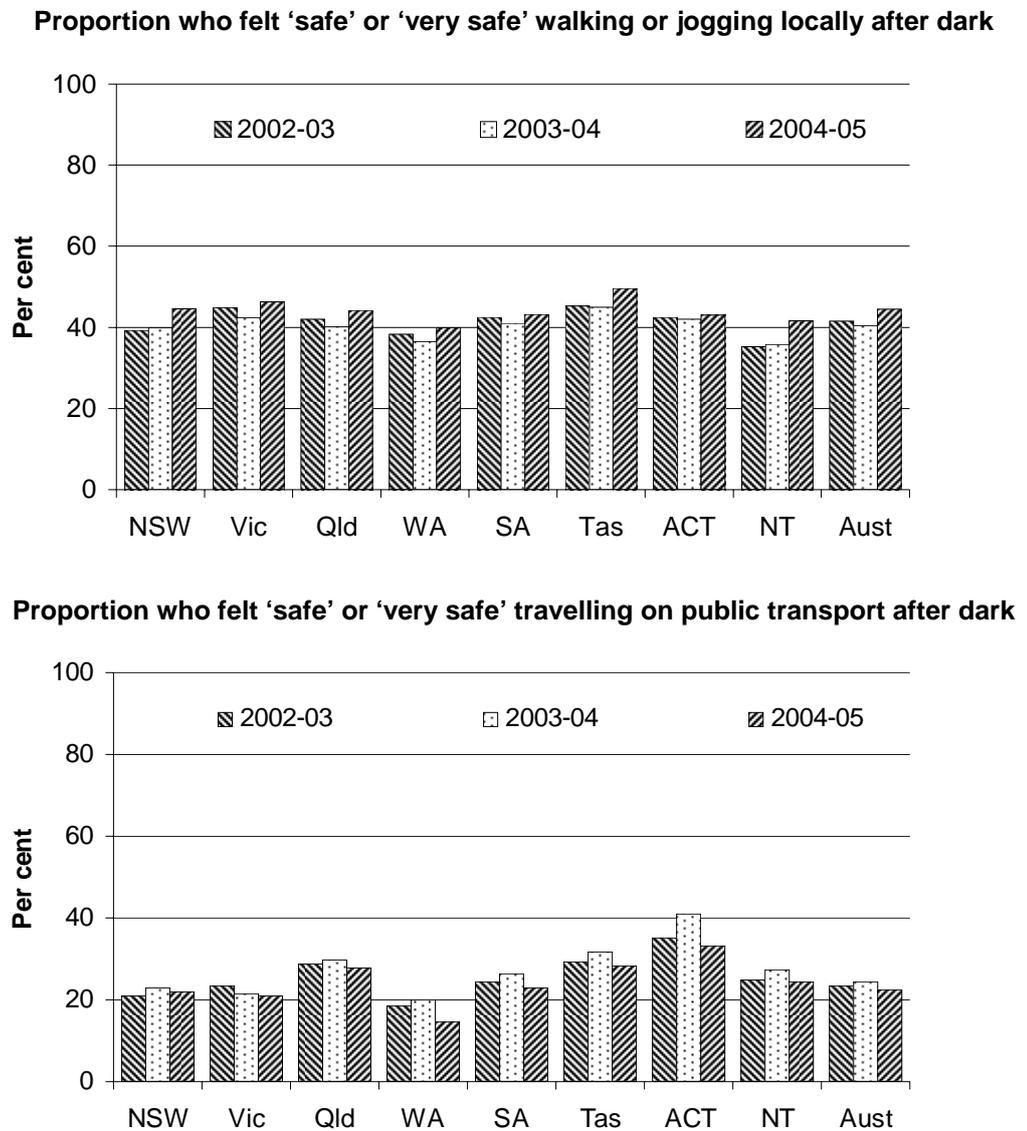
Nationally, 22.5 per cent of people surveyed felt 'safe' or 'very safe' when travelling on public transport after dark in 2004-05 (down from 24.3 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.22). The results are influenced by the mix (that is, trains, buses, ferries and trams) of public transport in each jurisdiction. The ACT and the NT do not operate a suburban train network. A jurisdiction breakdown of these results is presented in tables 5A.30, 5A.31 and 5A.32.

Figure 5.21 Perceptions of safety at home



Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.30.

Figure 5.22 Perceptions of safety in public places ^{a, b, c}



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over. ^b For this survey question, the response 'not applicable' was very large and varied significantly across jurisdictions in line with the availability of public transport. ^c Unlike other jurisdictions, the ACT and the NT do not operate a suburban train network and rely on buses as the primary means of public transportation.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); tables 5A.31 and 5A.32.

Perceptions of crime problem

'Perceptions of crime problem' is another indicator of how safe the members of the community feel in public and private (box 5.12).

Box 5.12 Perceptions of crime problem

'Perceptions of crime problem' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe (within themselves and regarding their property) in public and private.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of people who considered that various types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their State or Territory
- the proportion of people who considered that various types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood.

For both indicators, a lower proportion of people who felt the selected types of crime were a 'major problem' or 'somewhat a problem' is a more desirable outcome.

Care needs to be taken in interpreting data on perceptions of crime, however, because reducing people's concerns about crime and reducing the actual level of crime are two separate, but related challenges for police. Comparisons between perceptions of crime problems and the level of crime raise questions about the factors that affect perceptions. More generally, such comparisons highlight the importance of considering the full suite of performance indicators rather than assessing performance on the basis of specific measures in isolation.

Nationally, when people were asked in 2004-05 about crime problems in their State or Territory, the proportion of people who perceived a particular crime as a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' was: 92.1 per cent for housebreaking; 91.6 per cent for illegal drugs; 89.3 per cent for vehicle theft; 86.4 per cent for physical assault; 85.2 per cent for poor driver behaviour (speeding cars, dangerous or noisy driving); 85.2 per cent for graffiti and other vandalism; 85.1 per cent for louts and gangs; 86.4 per cent for sexual assault; 83.8 per cent for drunken and disorderly behaviour and 81.9 per cent for family violence (tables 5A.36–5A.38).

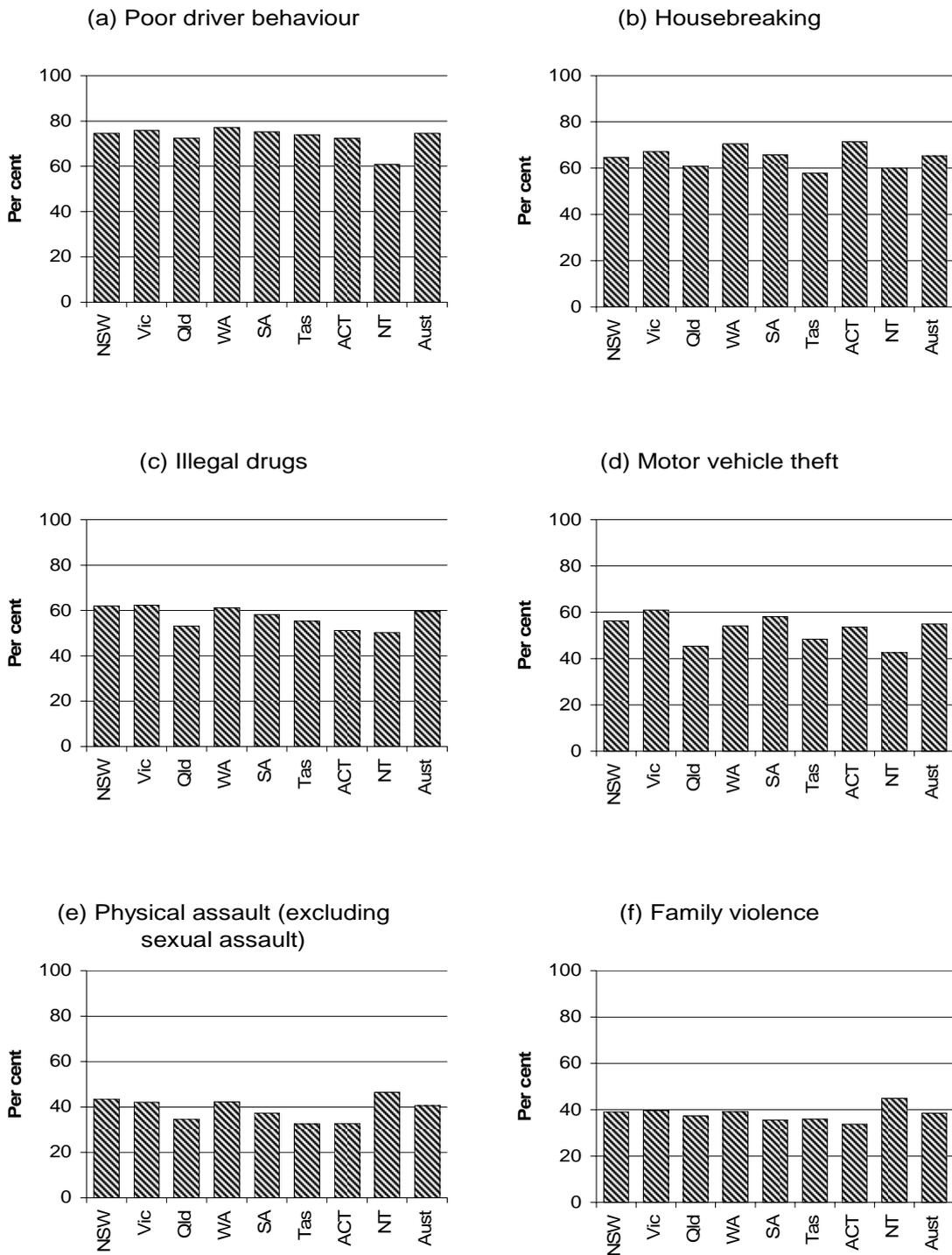
The following major areas of concern were identified by people in relation to crime problems in their neighbourhood:

- *Poor driver behaviour* — nationally, 74.5 per cent of people believed poor driver behaviour to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat a problem' in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 75.3 in 2003-04) (figure 5.23a).
- *Housebreaking* — nationally, 65.2 per cent of people believed housebreaking to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat a problem' in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 74.0 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.23b).
- *Illegal drugs* — nationally, 59.6 per cent of people believed illegal drugs to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat a problem' in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 73.1 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.23c).

-
- *Motor vehicle theft* — nationally, 55.0 per cent of people believed motor vehicle theft to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 65.9 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.23d).
 - *Physical assault (excluding sexual assault)* — nationally, 40.5 per cent of people believed physical assault to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 56.5 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.23e).
 - *Family violence* — nationally, 38.5 per cent of people believed family violence to be a ‘major problem’ or ‘somewhat a problem’ in their neighbourhood in 2004-05 (down from 49.2 per cent in 2003-04) (figure 5.23f). (Tables 5A.33–5A.35).

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 preceding NSCSP results indicate that perceptions of crime fall as the respondent focuses on their local neighbourhood rather than the State or Territory in which they live.

Figure 5.23 Proportion of people who consider the identified issues to be either a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood, 2004-05



Source: ACPR (unpublished); tables 5A.33–5A.35.

Crime victimisation

As noted in section 5.1, two ABS collections are used as the source of the majority of crime victimisation data in this Report: the Crime and Safety Survey and the Recorded Crime collection.

The Crime and Safety Survey is used as the source of data on the level of crime victimisation in this Report (that is, the number of victims), because it is considered to provide data that are more comparable across jurisdictions than the Recorded Crime collection. The Recorded Crime collection, however, provides more timely data than the Survey, and thus is used as the source of data on trends in crime victimisation over time. Data on homicides are provided by the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC 2005).

Crime victimisation — crimes against the person

The prevalence and trends in personal crime in the community are important measures of the effectiveness of police services (box 5.13).

Nationally, there were 1.5 recorded victims of homicide per 100 000 people in 2003-04 (down from 1.6 in 2002-03) (figure 5.24).

Box 5.13 Crime victimisation — crimes against the person

'Crime victimisation' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to enforce the law and improve community safety.

Three measures are reported on the level of crime against the person:

- victims of homicide per 100 000 people
- estimated victims of assault per 100 000 people
- estimated victims of robbery per 100 000 people.

For each measure, a lower rate of crime victimisation is a more desirable outcome.

Data on trends in crime victimisation, based on the number of crimes reported to police, are presented in index form. Differences in the way in which crimes are recorded on jurisdictions' police administrative systems (due to legislation, recording systems and recording practices) mean that comparing the level of recorded crime across jurisdictions is problematic.

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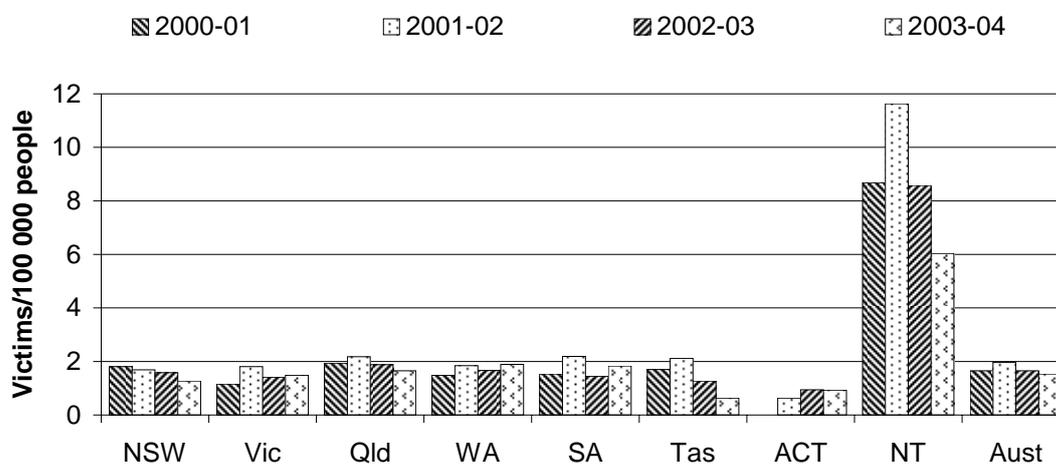
Box 5.13 (Continued)

One measure is reported on trends in crime against the person:

- victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people (index base 3-year average 2000 to 2002 = 100).

For this measure, a fall in the index number is a more desirable outcome. The recorded number of victims may vary from the actual incidence of crimes against people for a number of reasons, however, including confidence in the judicial system as a whole.

Figure 5.24 Recorded victims of homicide^a

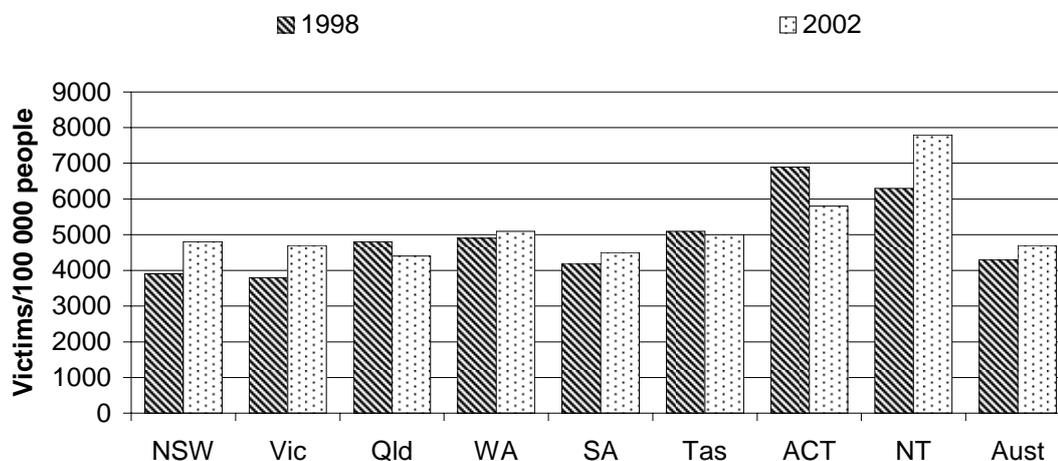


^a Homicide is defined by the criminal law of each State and Territory. The specific wording of the definition varies between states and territories in terms of degree and culpability.

Source: AIC (2005); table 5A.40.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 4700 victims of assault per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002 (up from 4300 per 100 000 people in 1998) (figure 5.25).

Figure 5.25 Estimated victims of assault^a



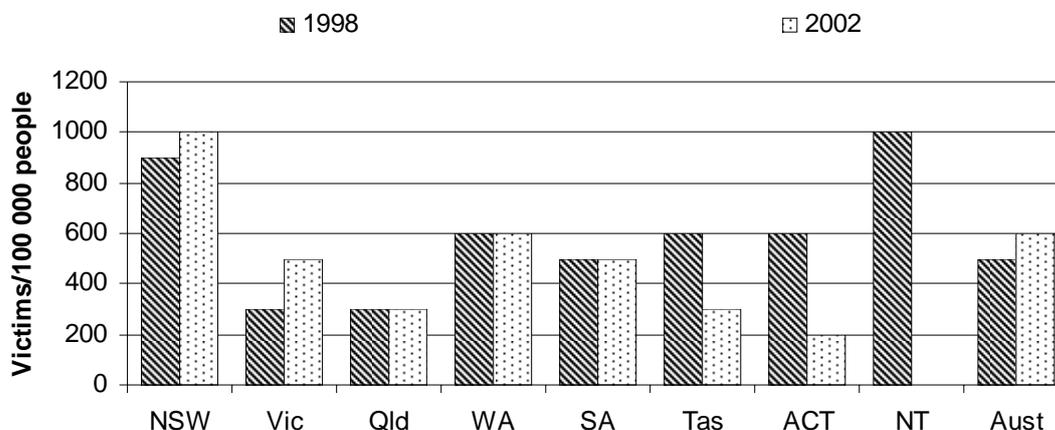
^a A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one assault. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of assault. Assault is defined as an incident, other than a robbery where the respondent was threatened with force or violence or physically attacked.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.44.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 600 victims of robbery per 100 000 people in Australia in 2002 (up from 500 victims per 100 000 people in 1998). Available data for all jurisdictions are presented in figure 5.26.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the rate of victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people fell by 10.7 per cent in Australia between 2003 and 2004. Although there were fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, there has been a general downward trend in the rate of victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people in most jurisdictions since the base period of 2000–02 (figure 5.27).

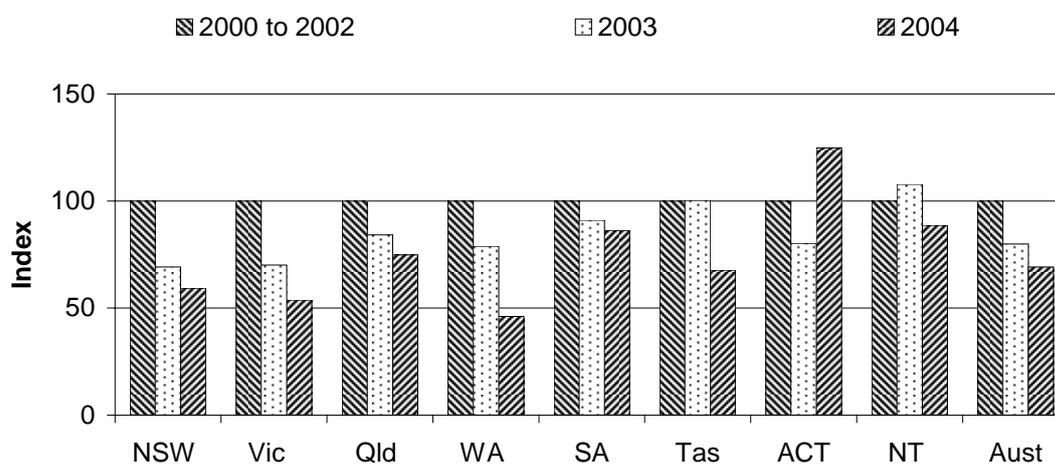
Figure 5.26 Estimated victims of robbery^a



^a A victim is defined as a person reporting at least one robbery. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of robbery. Robbery is defined as an incident, where someone has stolen (or tried to steal) property from a respondent by physically attacking them or threatening them with violence.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.44.

Figure 5.27 Trends in recorded crime — victims of armed robbery per 100 000 people converted to index^{a, b, c}



^a Index base three-year average 2000 to 2002 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variations in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions are influenced by different legislation, reporting systems and practices and reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.41.

Crime victimisation — crimes against property

The prevalence and trends in crimes against property in the community are important measures of the effectiveness of police services (box 5.14).

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, there were 7400 break-ins or attempted break-ins per 100 000 households in Australia in 2002 (down from 7600 victims per 100 000 households in 1998). Jurisdictions rates are shown in figure 5.28.

Box 5.14 Crime victimisation — crimes against property

'Crime victimisation' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to enforce the law and improve community safety.

Two measures are reported on the level of crime against property:

- estimated household victims of break-in/attempted break-in per 100 000 households
- estimated household victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 households.

For each of the indicators, a lower rate of crime victimisation is a more desirable outcome.

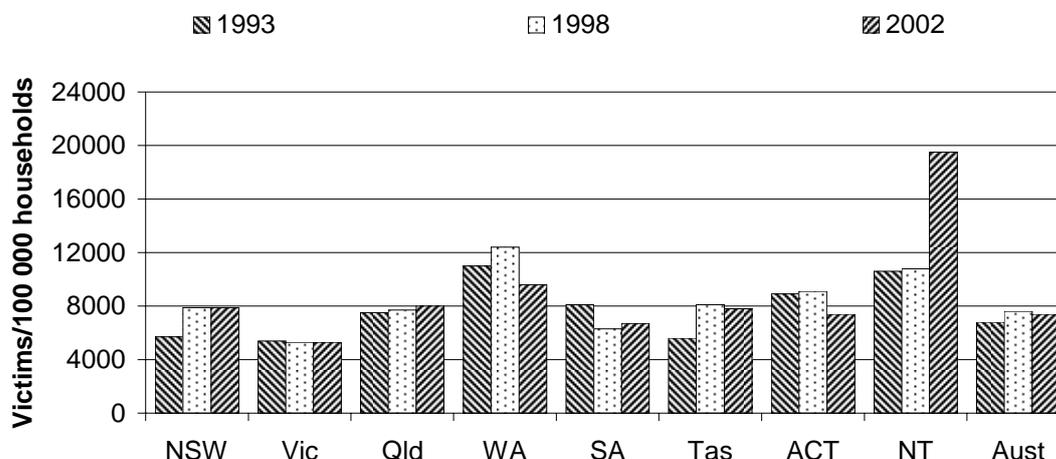
Data on trends in crime victimisation, based on the number of crimes reported to police, are presented in index form. Differences in the way in which crimes are recorded on jurisdictions' police administrative systems (due to legislation, recording systems and recording practices) mean that comparing the level of recorded crime across jurisdictions is problematic.

Two measures are reported on trends in property crime in the community:

- victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people (index 2000 to 2002 = 100)
- victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 people (index 2000 to 2002 = 100).

For both measures, a fall in the index number is a more desirable outcome. The recorded number of victims may vary from the actual incidence of crimes against property for a number of reasons, however, including confidence in the judicial system as a whole.

Figure 5.28 Estimated victims of break-in/attempted break-in^a

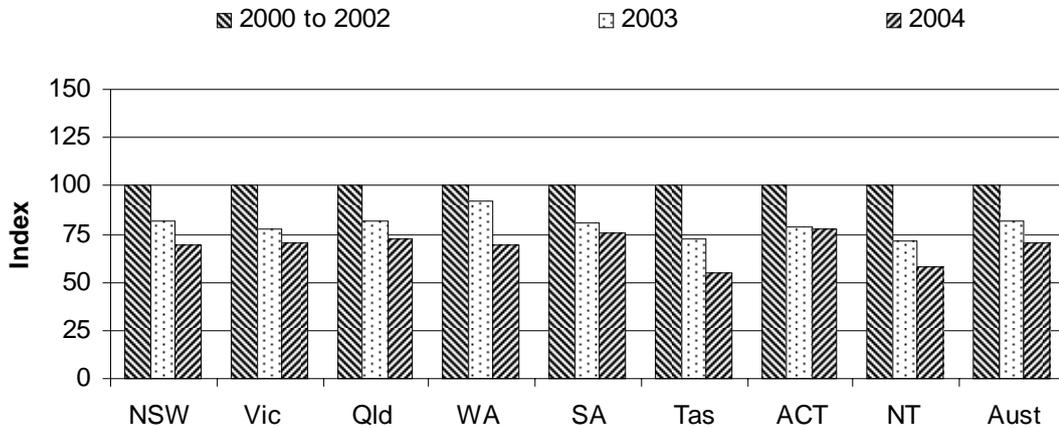


^a A victim is defined as a household reporting at least one break-in/attempted break-in. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of break-in/attempted break-in. Break-in is defined as an incident where the respondent's home had been broken into. Break-in offences relating to respondents' cars or gardens are excluded.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.45.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the number of victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people fell by 11.4 per cent in Australia between 2003 and 2004. Although the victimisation rate fluctuated across the years in some jurisdictions, there has been a general downward trend in the rate in all jurisdictions since the base period of 2000–02. At the national level, this is a statistically significant movement (figure 5.29).

Figure 5.29 Trends in recorded crime — victims of unlawful entry with intent per 100 000 people converted to index^{a, b, c}

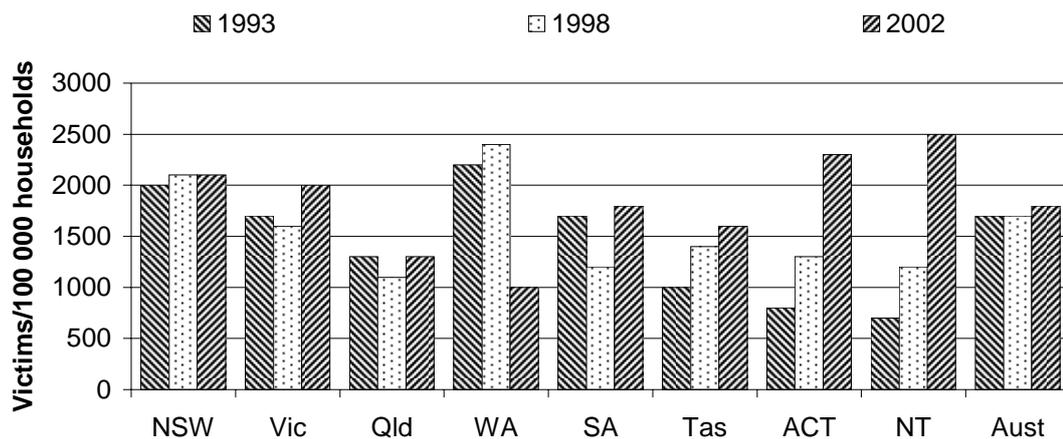


^a Index base three-year average 2000 to 2002 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variations in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions are influenced by different legislation, reporting systems and practices and reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; See also table 5A.42 for numbers per 100 000 persons.

Based on ABS Crime and Safety Survey data, 1800 motor vehicles were stolen per 100 000 households in 2002 in Australia (up from 1700 per 100 000 households in 1998). Rates for all jurisdictions are presented in figure 5.30.

Figure 5.30 Estimated victims of motor vehicle theft^{a, b}

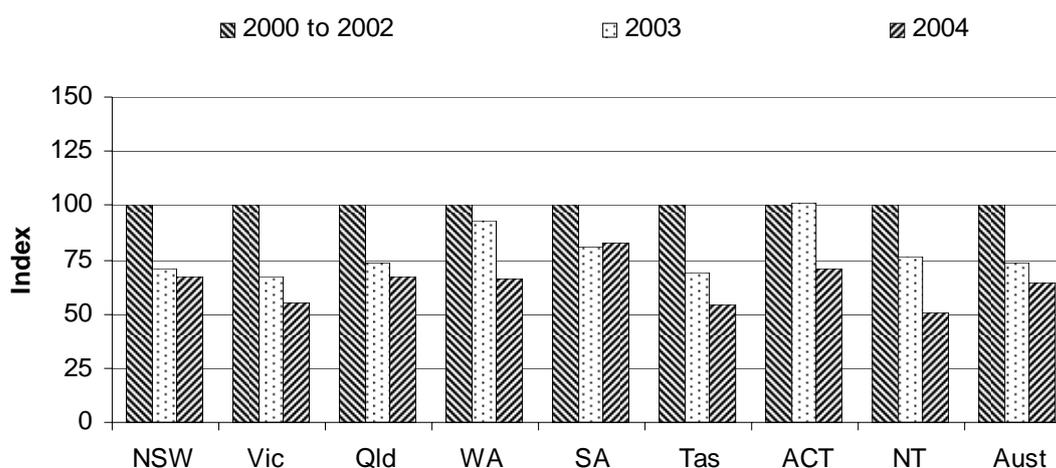


^a A victim is defined as a household reporting at least one motor vehicle theft. Victims were counted once only, regardless of the number of incidents of motor vehicle theft. Motor vehicle theft is defined as an incident where a motor vehicle was stolen from any member of the respondent's household. It includes privately owned vehicles, as well as business/company vehicles used exclusively by members of the household. ^b The estimate for the NT has a relative standard error greater than 50 per cent and is considered too unreliable for general use.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.45.

Based on the ABS Recorded Crime collection, the number of victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 people fell by 11.6 per cent in Australia between 2003 and 2004. Although there were rate fluctuations across the years in some jurisdictions, there has been a general downward trend in the rate in all jurisdictions since 2000 (figure 5.31).

Figure 5.31 Trends in recorded crime — victims of motor vehicle theft per 100 000 people converted to index^{a, b, c}



^a Index base three-year average 2000 to 2002 = 100. ^b Data are based on crimes recorded by police. ^c Data are reported in index form because the variations in the rate of recorded victims across jurisdictions are influenced by different legislation, reporting systems and practices and reporting rates in jurisdictions.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; See also table 5A.42 for numbers per 100 000 persons.

Reporting rates

The ABS defines a reporting rate as the total number of the most recent incidents of an offence that were reported to police, expressed as a percentage of the total victims of that offence (box 5.15). Reporting rates vary across different crime types (table 5A.43).

Box 5.15 Reporting rates

'Reporting rates' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to enforce the law and improve community safety by engendering public confidence in the police and judicial system.

The indicator is defined as the total number of the most recent incidents of a particular offence (break and enter, attempted break and enter, motor vehicle theft, robbery, assault, sexual assault and total victims of crimes against the person and property) that were reported to police, as a percentage of the total victims of that offence. A higher proportion is more desirable.

This indicator does not, however, provide information on why some people choose not to report particular offences to the police.

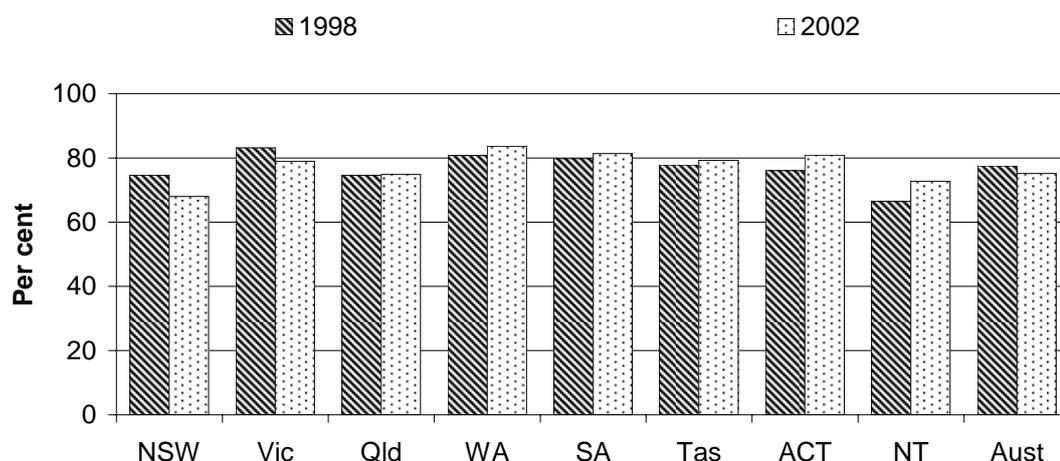
Reporting rate — break and enter

Nationally, the reporting rate for break and enter offences was 75.1 per cent in 2002 (compared with 77.5 per cent in 1998) (figure 5.32).

Reporting rate — attempted break and enter

Nationally, the reporting rate for attempted break and enter offences was 31.1 per cent in 2002 (similar to that in 1998). Reporting rates are presented in table 5A.43.

Figure 5.32 Reporting rate for break and enter^a



^a Break and enter estimates for 2002 for the ACT and the NT have a relative standard error between 25 and 50 per cent and need to be used with caution.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4509.0; table 5A.43.

Reporting rate — motor vehicle theft

Nationally, the reporting rate for motor vehicle theft was 95.0 per cent in 2002 (similar to the 1998 rate of 95.1 per cent). Reporting rates for each jurisdiction are presented in table 5A.43.

Reporting rate — robbery

Nationally, the reporting rate for robbery was up slightly to 50.2 per cent in 2002 (compared with 49.8 per cent in 1998). Reporting rates for each jurisdiction are presented in table 5A.43.

5.5 Crime investigation

This SDA captures the role of police in investigating crime and identifying and apprehending suspects. Activities include:

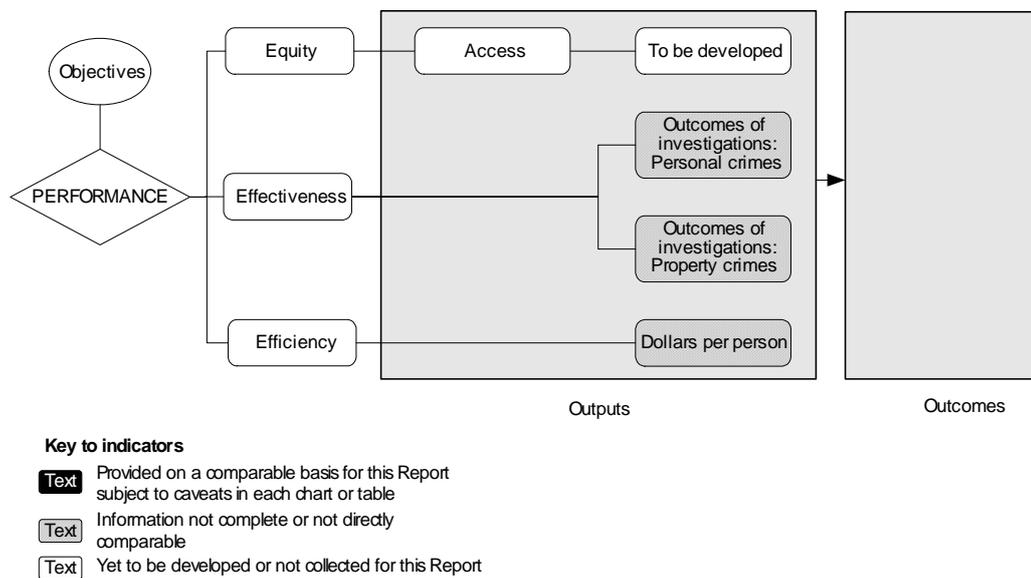
- gathering intelligence on suspects and locations to assist with investigations
- collecting and securing evidence in relation to both the offence and the suspect.

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.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that includes outcomes of investigations. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable across jurisdictions in the 2006 Report (figure 5.33). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.33 Performance indicators for crime investigation



Key performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for crime investigation as an area for development in future reports (box 5.16).

Box 5.16 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for crime investigation services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person

'Dollars per person' is included as an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering crime investigation services (box 5.17).

Box 5.17 Dollars per person

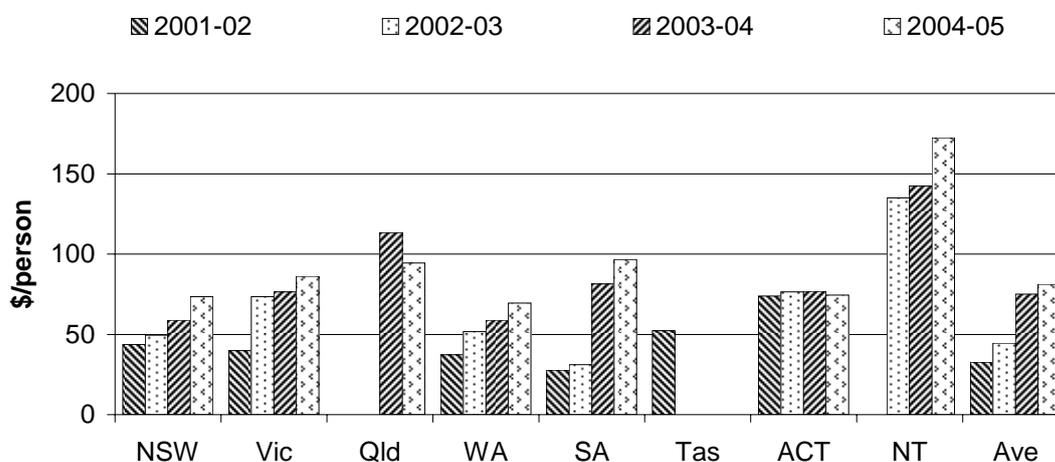
'Dollars per person' is an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with crime investigation in an efficient manner.

The indicator is defined as expenditure on crime investigation per person.

Care needs to be exercised in interpreting these data. While high expenditure per person may reflect worse efficiency outcomes, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as greater effectiveness or more challenging crime and safety situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect more desirable efficiency outcomes or worse quality (less effective policing) or less challenging crime and safety situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally, of the jurisdictions that could provide data for 2004-05, expenditure on crime investigations was \$81 per person (figure 5.34).

Figure 5.34 Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on crime investigation (2004-05 dollars)^a



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.49.

Expenditure on crime investigations as a proportion of total police expenditure was 28.3 per cent nationally in 2004-05. This varied across jurisdictions (table 5A.15).

Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing crimes (box 5.18).

Box 5.18 Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police
- the proportion of finalised investigations which decided to proceed against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

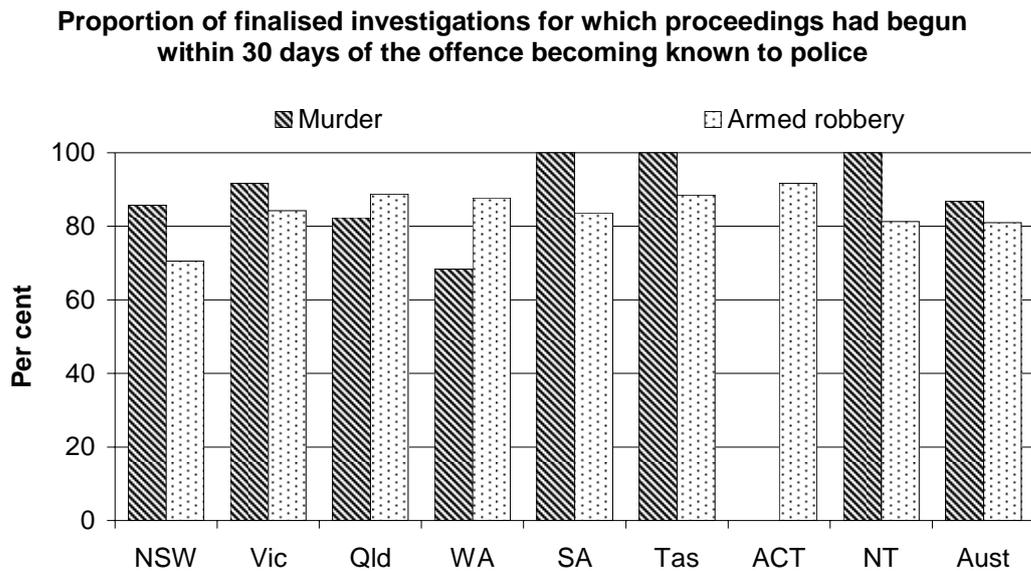
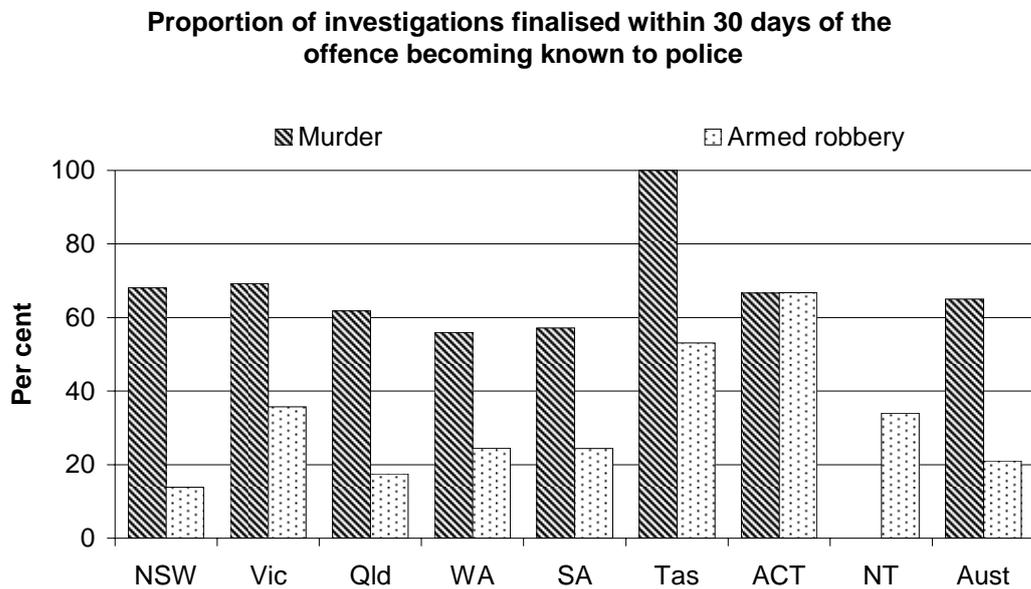
Outcomes of investigations indicators are reported for a range of offences against the person including murder, assault, armed robbery, and sexual assault. A higher proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police is a more desirable outcome. Similarly, a higher proportion of finalised investigations where proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, is a more desirable outcome.

‘Outcomes of investigations — personal crimes’ are not directly comparable because of differences in the way data are compiled by jurisdictions. Data for assault and sexual assault were not available for 2004.

Figure 5.35 presents for each jurisdiction in 2004, the proportion of recorded murder investigations and armed robbery investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

For these finalised investigations, it also presents the proportion of proceedings that had commenced against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

Figure 5.35 Victims of crimes against the person: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2004

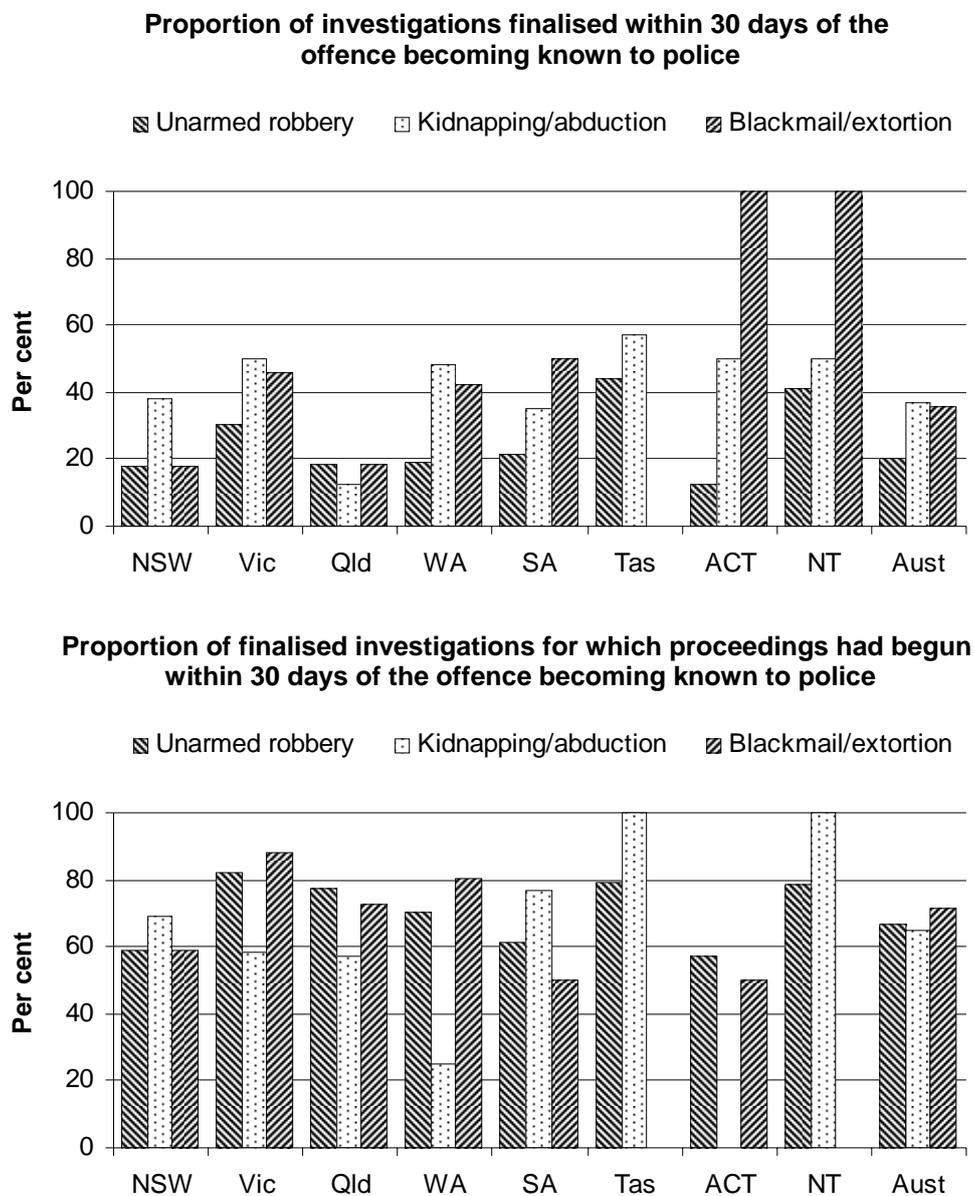


Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.47.

Figure 5.36 reports for each jurisdiction in 2004 the proportion of recorded unarmed robbery investigations, kidnapping/abduction investigations and blackmail/extortion investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

For these finalised investigations, it also presents the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

Figure 5.36 Victims of crimes against the person: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2004



Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.47.

Outcomes of investigations — property crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing crimes (box 5.19).

Box 5.19 Outcomes of investigations — property crimes

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to bring to justice those people responsible for committing an offence.

Two measures are reported:

- the proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police
- the proportion of finalised investigations for which proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

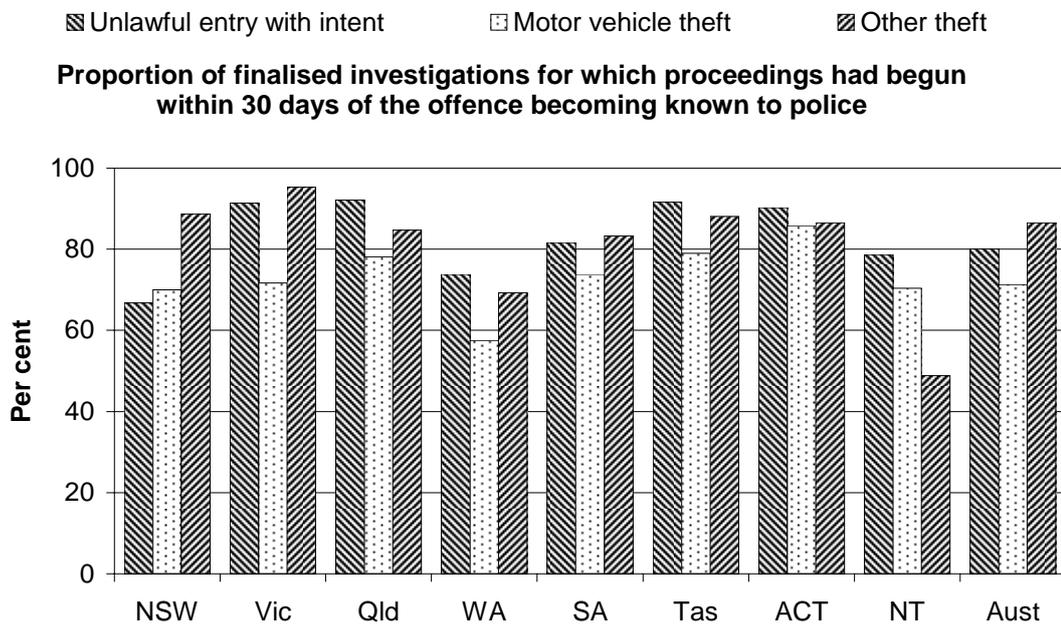
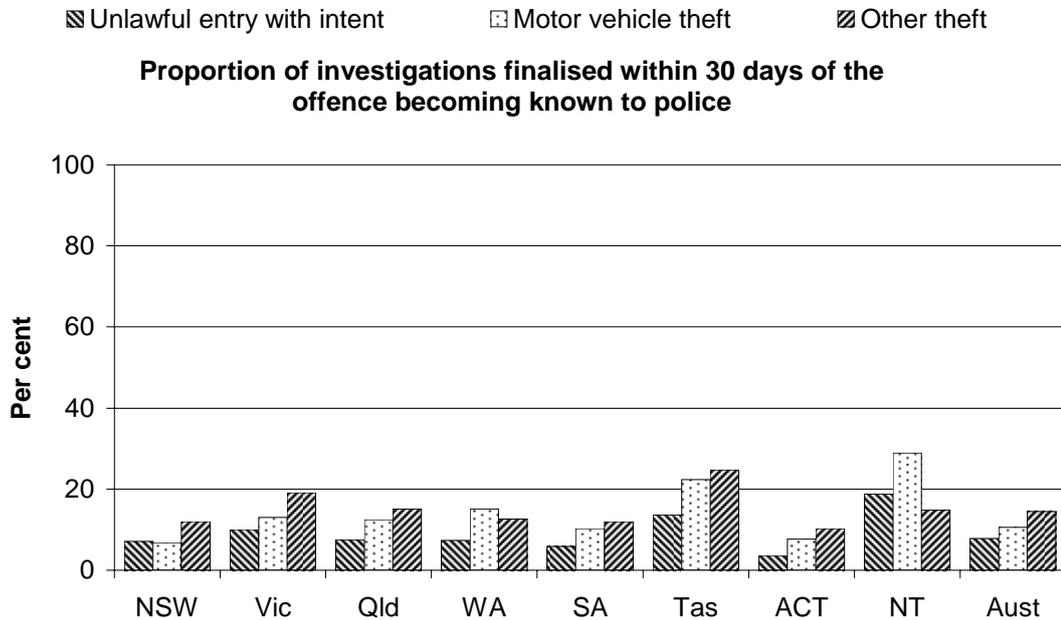
Outcomes of investigations indicators are reported for three property offences: unlawful entry with intent, motor vehicle theft and other theft. A higher proportion of investigations finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police is a more desirable outcome. Similarly, a higher proportion of finalised investigations where proceedings had started against the alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police, is a more desirable outcome.

‘Outcomes of investigations — property crimes’ are not directly comparable because of differences in the way data are compiled by jurisdictions.

Figure 5.37 reports for each jurisdiction in 2004 the proportion of recorded unlawful entry with intent investigations, motor vehicle theft investigations and other theft investigations that were finalised within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

For these finalised investigations, it also presents the proportion of proceedings that had started against an alleged offender within 30 days of the offence becoming known to police.

Figure 5.37 Victims of property crime: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 2004



Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4510.0; table 5A.48.

Outcomes

Outcome indicators for crime investigation services are yet to be developed. The effectiveness with which police undertake criminal investigation services, however, will be somewhat reflected in the general performance indicators for police services, such as the indicator ‘satisfaction with police services’ reported in section 5.3.

5.6 Road safety and traffic management

This SDA captures the role of police in maximising road safety through targeted operations to reduce the incidence of traffic offences and through attendance at, and investigation of, road traffic accidents and incidents.

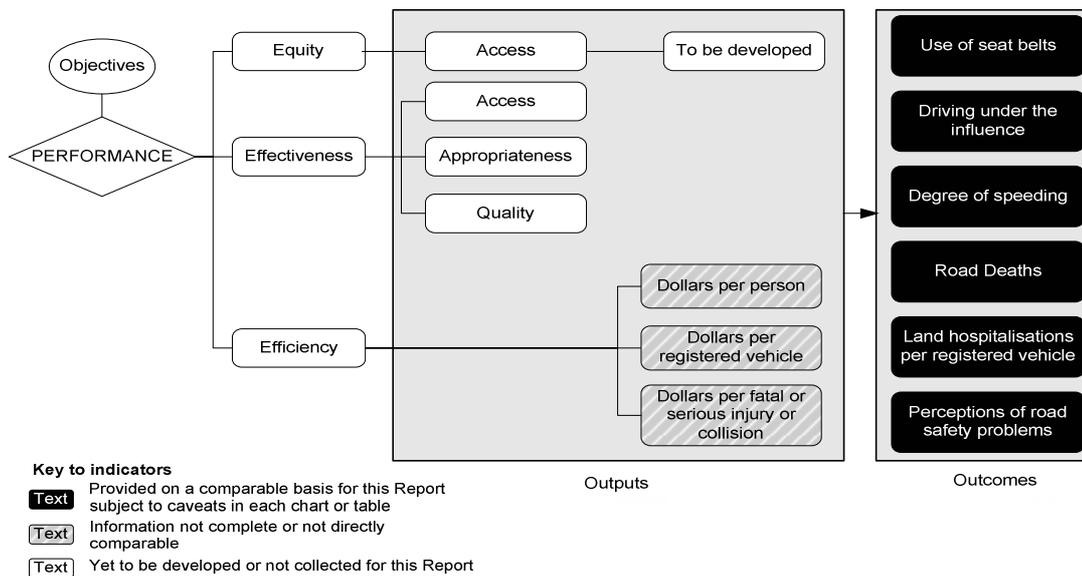
Activities typically include:

- monitoring road user behaviour, including speed- and alcohol-related traffic operations
- undertaking general traffic management functions
- attending and investigating road traffic accidents and incidents
- improving public education and awareness of traffic and road safety issues.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking road safety and traffic management activities is measured using a suite of indicators that includes people’s behaviour on the roads and the number of land transport hospitalisations and road fatalities. The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report (figure 5.38). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.38 Performance indicators for road safety and traffic management



Key performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for road safety and traffic management as an area for development in future reports (box 5.20).

Box 5.20 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for road safety and traffic management services has yet to be developed.

Efficiency — dollars per person and dollars per registered vehicle

'Dollars per person' and 'dollars per registered vehicle' are included as indicators of the efficiency of governments in delivering road safety and traffic management services (box 5.21).

Box 5.21 Dollars per person and dollars per registered vehicle

'Dollars per person', and 'dollars per registered vehicle', are output indicators of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with road safety and traffic management in an efficient manner.

The indicator 'dollars per person' is defined as expenditure on road safety and traffic management per person.

The indicator 'dollars per registered vehicle' is defined as expenditure on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle.

Lower expenditure on road safety and traffic management per person is more desirable. Similarly, lower expenditure on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle is more desirable.

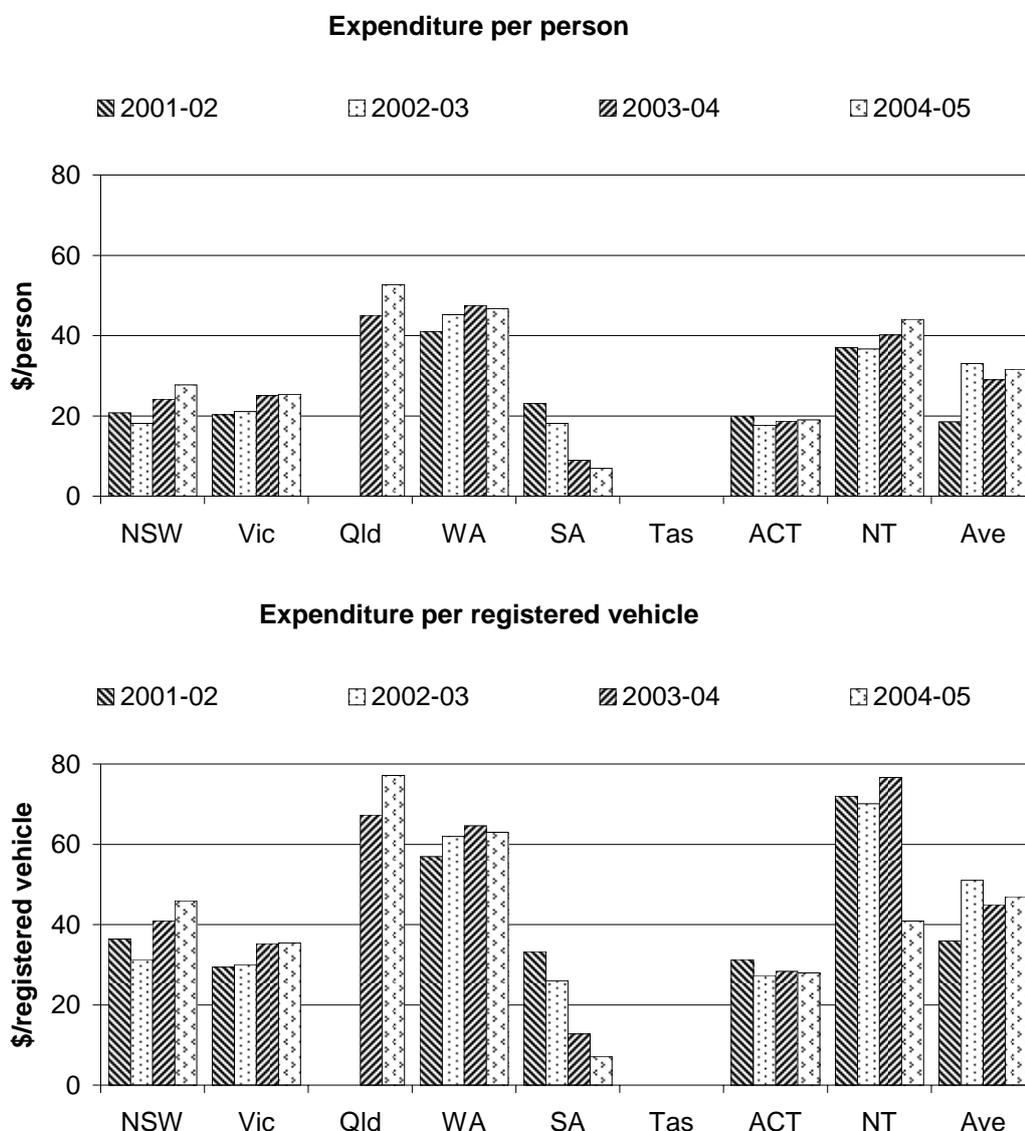
Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high expenditure values for either indicator may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or the characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging road safety and traffic management situations). Similarly, low expenditure values for either indicator may reflect efficient police services. Alternatively, it may reflect lower quality (less effective policing) or less challenging road safety and traffic management situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

For jurisdictions that could provide data in 2004-05, expenditure on road safety and traffic management was \$32 per person nationally. Expenditure on road safety and traffic management per registered vehicle was \$47 nationally. Both rates varied across jurisdictions in 2004-05 (figure 5.39).

Nationally in 2004-05, expenditure on road safety and traffic management as a proportion of total police expenditure per person was 11.6 per cent. This proportion varied across jurisdictions (table 5A.15).

Nationally, real expenditure on road safety and traffic management rose by \$3 per person (from \$29 to \$32) over the past year (table 5A.56).

Figure 5.39 Real expenditure (less payroll tax) on road safety and traffic management (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b}



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b For SA, total recurrent expenditure on road safety and traffic management increased slightly in 2003-04. However, net recurrent expenditure has reduced as a result of \$14.9 million, that was previously part of appropriation, now reflected as additional revenue from own sources (Community Road Safety Fund). This represents a change in funding arrangements. Total recurrent expenditure on road safety and traffic management also increased in 2004-05. However, net recurrent expenditure reduced as a result of additional revenue from own sources (\$4.6 million) Community Road Safety Fund).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.56.

Efficiency — dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision

Another indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering road safety and traffic management services is ‘dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision’ (box 5.22).

Box 5.22 Dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision

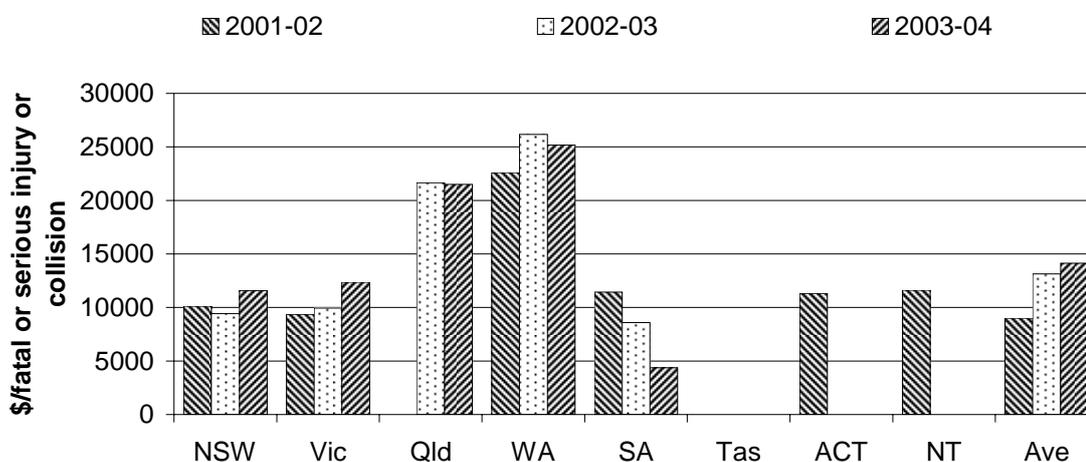
‘Dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to undertake activities associated with road safety and traffic management in an efficient manner.

The indicator is defined as the cost of road safety and traffic management per fatal or serious injury or collision. The number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions is defined as the number of road deaths plus the number of land transport hospitalisations.

Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high costs per fatal or serious injury or collision may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or the characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging road safety and traffic management situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect efficient police services; alternatively, it may reflect lower quality (less effective policing) or less challenging road safety and traffic management situations. Efficiency data thus needs to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally in 2003-04, the cost of road safety and traffic management per fatal or serious injury or collision was \$14 147. (figure 5.40).

Figure 5.40 **Cost of SDA/number of fatal or serious injuries or collisions (2003-04 dollars) ^a**



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a For SA, total recurrent expenditure on Road Safety and Traffic Management increased slightly in 2003-04. However, between 2002-03 and 2003-04 net recurrent expenditure declined as a result of \$14.9 million in additional revenue from own sources (previously part of appropriation) thereby causing a reduction in 'dollars per fatal or serious injury or collision'. Source: AIHW (unpublished); ATSB (2004); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.55.

Outcomes

An aim of police road safety programs is to influence road user behaviour so as to reduce the incidence of road crashes and the severity of road trauma. These programs target the non-wearing of seat belts, excessive speed and drink driving.

This section reports data from the NSCSP about respondents' road use habits.

For contextual purposes, 87.4 per cent of NSCSP respondents in 2004-05 stated that they had driven a motor vehicle in the past 12 months, compared with 88.4 per cent in 2003-04 (table 5A.50).

Use of seat belts

'Use of seatbelts' is one indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road user behaviour (box 5.23).

Box 5.23 Use of seatbelts

'Use of seatbelts' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

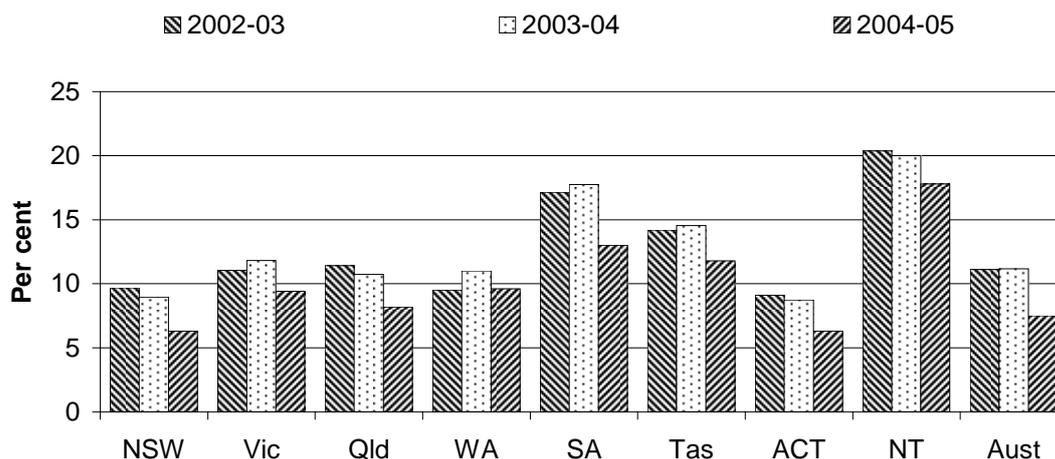
The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who had driven in the past 12 months and 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') travelled in a car without wearing a seatbelt.

A lower proportion of people who had 'sometimes', or more often, travelled in the car without wearing a seatbelt, is more desirable.

The use of seatbelts in the population is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as driver education and advertising campaigns.

Nationally in 2004-05, 8.6 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months said they 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') travelled in a car without wearing a seat belt (down from 11.2 per cent in 2003-04). Compared with 2003-04, the use of seatbelts was higher in all jurisdictions (figure 5.41).

Figure 5.41 **People who had driven in the previous 12 months and 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') travelled in a car without wearing a seat belt^a**



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.51.

Degree of speeding

'Degree of speeding' is another indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road-user behaviour (box 5.24).

Box 5.24 Degree of speeding

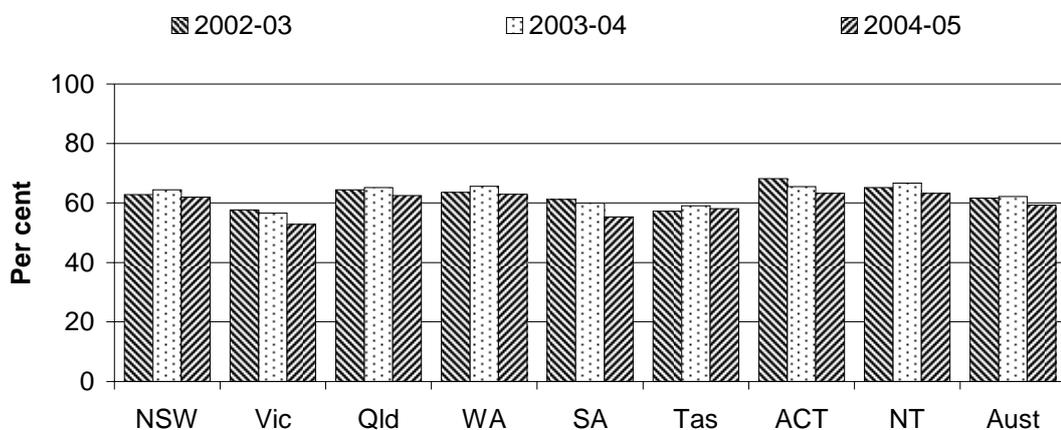
Degree of speeding is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

This indicator is defined as the proportion of people who drive and who indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') driven more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit in the previous 12 months.

A lower proportion of people indicating that they had 'sometimes' or more often driven more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit in the past 12 months, is more desirable.

Nationally in 2004-05, 59.3 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months reported travelling more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always'). This compares with 62.1 per cent in 2003-04. All jurisdictions experienced decreases in the proportion of people who indicated that they were speeding from the 2003-04 to 2004-05 period (figure 5.42).

Figure 5.42 **People who indicated that they had driven in the previous 12 months more than 10 kilometres per hour above the speed limit 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always')^a**



^a Data years are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.52.

Driving under the influence

'Driving under the influence' is another indicator of the effectiveness of police programs that aim to influence road user behaviour (box 5.25).

Box 5.25 Driving under the influence

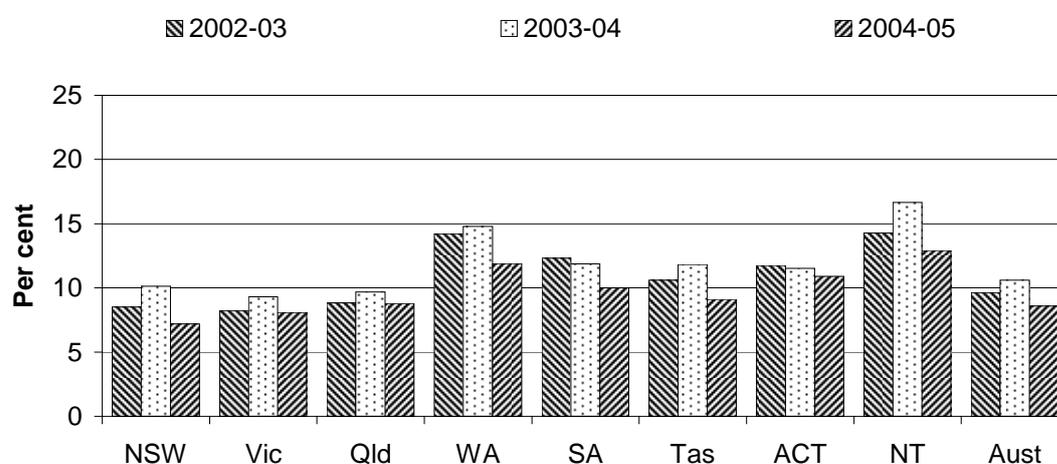
'Driving under the influence' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who drive and who indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') driven when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit in the previous 12 months.

A lower proportion of people who indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often driven when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit in the past 12 months, is more desirable. The prevalence of driving under the influence in the population is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as driver education and advertising campaigns.

Nationally in 2004-05, 8.7 per cent of people surveyed who had driven in the previous 12 months indicated that they had 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always') driven when possibly over the 0.05 blood alcohol limit (compared with 10.6 per cent in 2003-04). Compared with 2003-04, all jurisdictions recorded a decrease in the proportion of respondents who self-reported drink driving. (figure 5.43).

Figure 5.43 **People who indicated they had driven in the previous 12 months when possibly over the 0.05 alcohol limit 'sometimes' or more often ('half the time', 'most of the time' or 'always')^a**



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.53.

Road deaths

'Road deaths' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road (box 5.26).

Nationally, there were 1588 road deaths in 2004-05. Road fatalities, for all jurisdictions from 2000-01 to 2004-05 are reported in table 5A.54.

Box 5.26 Road deaths

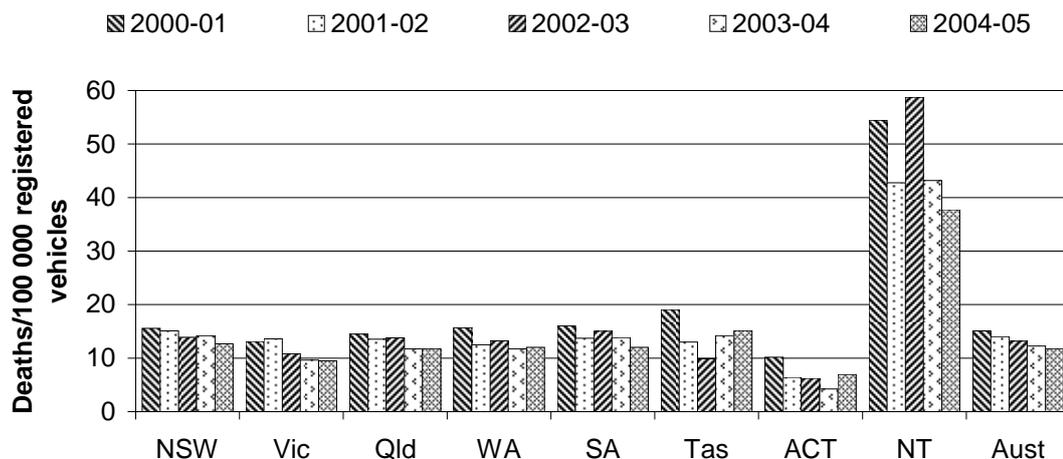
'Road deaths' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road. One aim of policing is to contribute to a reduction in road crashes and related road deaths and hospitalisations.

The indicator is defined as the number of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles.

A lower rate of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles is a more desirable outcome. The rate of road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as the condition of roads, driver education and advertising campaigns.

There were 12 road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles in Australia in 2004-05, which is unchanged from 2003-04. From 2000-01 to 2004-05, the number of deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles fell in most jurisdictions. Data from the ACT should be interpreted with caution, especially for 2004-05 (figure 5.44).

Figure 5.44 Road deaths per 100 000 registered vehicles



Source: ATSB, *Fatal Road Crash Database*; ABS (various years), Cat. no. 9309.0 (unpublished); table 5A.54.

Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle

'Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle' is another outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road (box 5.27).

Box 5.27 Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle

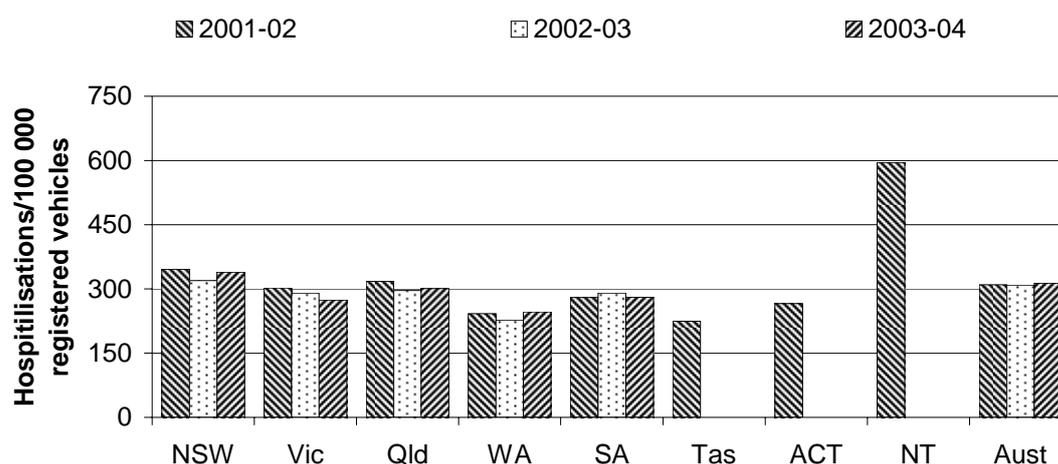
'Land transport hospitalisations per registered vehicle' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the number of hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles.

A lower number of hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles is a more desirable outcome. Hospitalisations from traffic accidents per 100 000 registered vehicles is affected by a number of factors in addition to activities undertaken by police services, such as the condition of roads, driver education and advertising campaigns.

There were 314 land transport hospitalisations per 100 000 registered vehicles in 2003-04 in jurisdictions where data were available (figure 5.45). There was no clear trend across jurisdictions between 2001-02 and 2003-04.

Figure 5.45 Land transport hospitalisations per 100 000 registered vehicles



Source: ABS (unpublished), Cat. no. 9309.0; AIHW (unpublished); table 5A.55.

Perceptions of road safety problems

An objective of police services is to reassure the public by ensuring the community feels safe in driving and using the roads (box 5.28).

Box 5.28 Perceptions of road safety problems

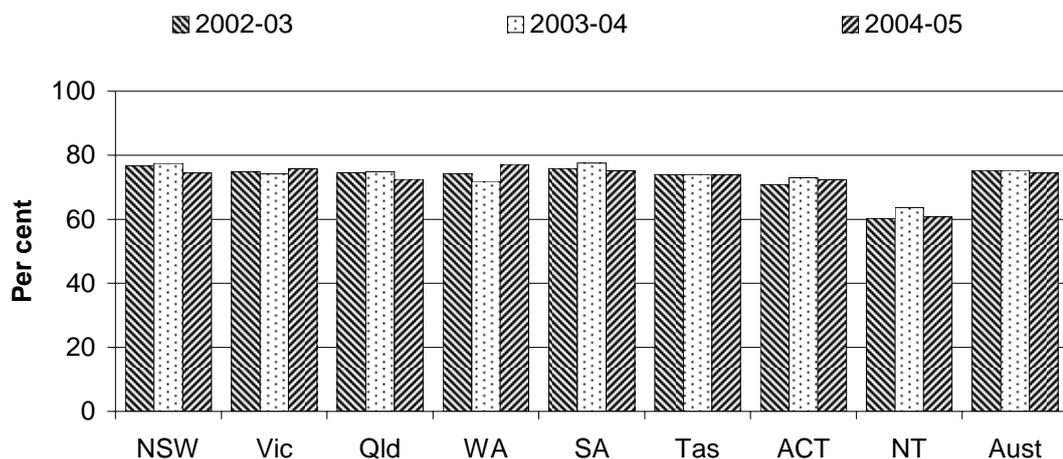
'Perceptions of road safety problems' is an outcome indicator of police services' objective to promote safer behaviour on the road.

The indicator is defined as the proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area.

A smaller proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their local area, is a more desirable outcome. Perceptions of road safety may not reflect actual levels of road safety, however, many factors (including individual experiences and media reporting) may influence people's perceptions of road safety.

Nationally in 2004-05, 74.5 per cent of people surveyed believed speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving to be a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood (similar to 75.3 per cent in 2003-04 and 2002-03) (figure 5.46).

Figure 5.46 Proportion of people who felt that speeding cars or dangerous, noisy driving was a 'major problem' or 'somewhat of a problem' in their neighbourhood^a



^a Data are based on responses from people aged 15 years or over.

Source: ACPR (unpublished); table 5A.35.

5.7 Services to the judicial process

This SDA captures the role of police in providing effective and efficient support to the judicial process, including the provision of safe custody for alleged offenders and fair and equitable treatment of both victims and alleged offenders.

Activities typically include:

- preparing briefs
- presenting evidence at court
- conducting court and prisoner security.

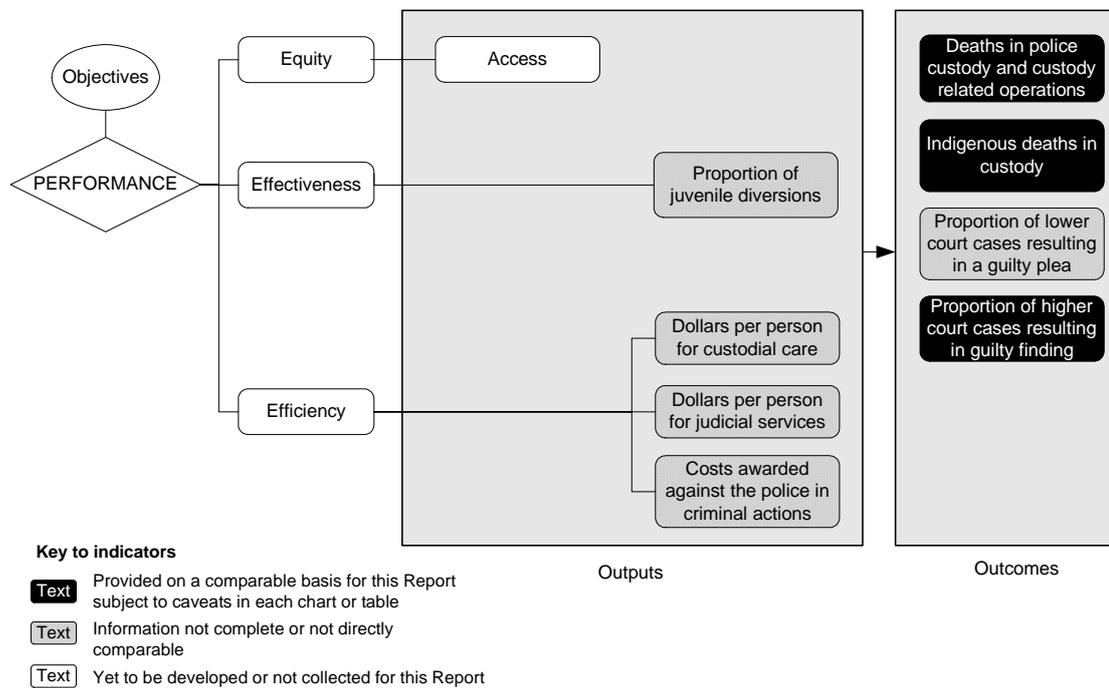
The role of police services in conducting court and prisoner security differs across jurisdictions.

Framework of performance indicators

Police performance in undertaking these activities is measured using a suite of indicators that include the proportion of court cases resulting in guilty pleas or guilty findings, and the effectiveness of police in diverting offenders from the criminal justice system.

The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report (figure 5.47). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Figure 5.47 Performance indicators for services to the judicial process



Key performance indicator results

Outputs

Equity — access

The Steering Committee has identified equity and access for services to the judicial process as an area for development in future reports (box 5.29).

Box 5.29 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of governments' objective to facilitate equitable access for people with special needs for services to the judicial process has yet to be developed.

Effectiveness — proportion of juvenile diversions

'Proportion of juvenile diversions' is an output indicator of governments' objective to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing (box 5.30).

Box 5.30 Proportion of juvenile diversions

'Proportion of juvenile diversions' is an output indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management.

The indicator is defined as the number of juveniles who would otherwise be proceeded against (that is, taken to court) but who are diverted by police, as a proportion of all juvenile offenders formally dealt with by police. A higher proportion of juvenile diversions represents a more desirable outcome.

When police apprehend offenders, they have a variety of options available. They can charge the offender, in which case criminal proceedings occur through the traditional court processes, or they can use their discretion to divert the offender away from this potentially costly, time consuming and stressful situation (for both the offender and victim). Diversionary mechanisms include cautions and attendances at community and family conferences. These options can be beneficial because they allow the offender to be admonished, without the necessity of traditional court processes. They are particularly useful mechanisms for dealing with juvenile offenders.

The term 'diverted' includes diversions of offenders away from the courts by way of community conference, diversionary conference, formal cautioning by police, family conferences, and other diversionary programs (for example, drug assessment/treatment). Excluded are offenders who would not normally be sent to court for the offence detected and who are treated by police in a less formal manner (for example, those issued with warnings or infringement notices).

This indicator does not provide information on the relative success or failure of these diversionary mechanisms.

Table 5.1 **Juvenile diversions as a proportion of juvenile offenders (per cent)^a**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic^b</i>	<i>Qld^c</i>	<i>WA^d</i>	<i>SA^e</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT^f</i>
2000-01	51	na	44	45	53	59	45	80
2001-02	57	30	44	44	49	68	48	57
2002-03	56	31	45	44	54	57	44	49
2003-04	54	30	45	39	55	56	42	na
2004-05	53	41	44	36	55	66	41	47

^a 'Juvenile diversion' is defined in box 5.30. ^b For Victoria, results in 2004-05 reflect improved data capture. Results reflect only those instances where a juvenile is taken into police custody and subsequently issued with a formal caution. Instances where a juvenile is released into non-police care or involving a safe-custody application are not included. ^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. A charge is counted as a separate 'arrest' even though the actual event of arrest may have involved more than one charge being laid. Hence, the number of 'arrests' will over estimate the number of actual events of arrest. The proportion of juvenile diversions, therefore, may be understated. ^e For SA, 2002-03 data include figures from the first full year of operation of the SA Drug Diversion Initiative. Diversions include diversion by way of formal cautioning by police, and family conferences. ^f For the NT, data also include verbal warnings. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.59.

The proportion of juvenile offenders undergoing diversionary programs varied across jurisdictions (table 5A.59). Across all jurisdictions, the proportion of juvenile diversions in 2004-05 was similar to that in 2003-04 (see table 5.1 above).

Efficiency — dollars per person for judicial services

'Dollars per person for judicial services' is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering services to the judicial process (box 5.31).

Box 5.31 Dollars per person for judicial services

'Dollars per person for judicial services' is an output indicator of governments' objective to undertake activities associated with police services to the judicial process in an efficient and effective manner.

The indicator is defined as expenditure per person on police services to the judicial process.

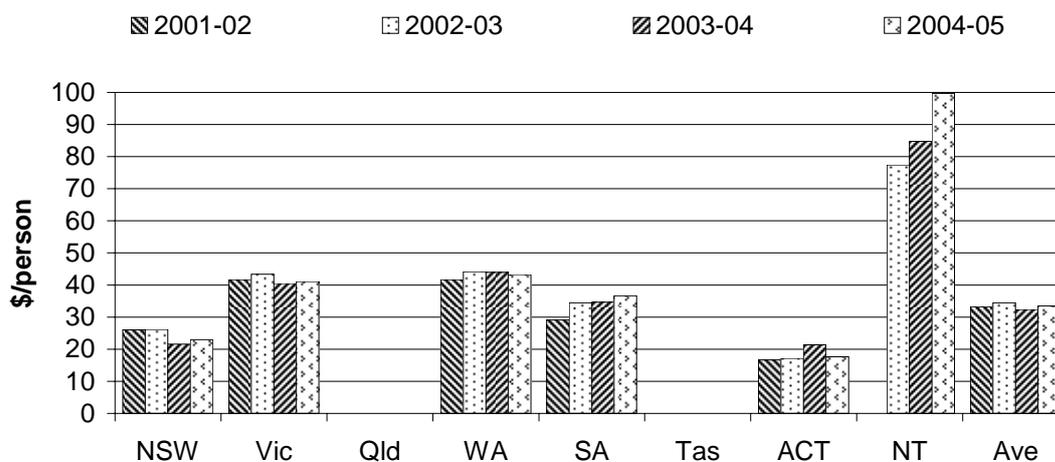
Lower expenditure per person for police judicial services is generally more desirable.

Efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high expenditure per person may reflect poor efficiency, it may also reflect aspects of the service or characteristics of the policing environment (such as highly effective services or challenging judicial situations). Similarly, low expenditure per person may reflect efficient police services, alternatively it may reflect lower quality or less challenging judicial situations. Efficiency data thus need to be interpreted within the context of the effectiveness and equity indicators, to derive an holistic view of performance.

Nationally, of the jurisdictions able to provide data in 2004-05, estimated expenditure on services to the judicial process was \$33 per person (figure 5.48). Nationally, expenditure on judicial processes as a proportion of total police expenditure per person was 12 per cent (table 5A.15).

Nationally, real expenditure on services to the judicial process increased by \$1 per person, between 2003-04 and 2004-05 (from \$32 to \$33) (table 5A.60).

Figure 5.48 Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on services to the judicial process (2004-05 dollars)^a



Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^aData have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.60.

Efficiency — costs awarded against police in criminal actions

Another indicator of the efficiency with which police undertake activities associated with the judicial process is ‘costs awarded against police in criminal actions’ (box 5.32.)

Box 5.32 Costs awarded against police in criminal actions

‘Costs awarded against police in criminal actions’ is an output indicator of governments’ objective to undertake activities associated with police services to the judicial process in an efficient manner.

This indicator is defined as the costs awarded against police in criminal actions, reported both as total dollars and per person in the jurisdiction

Lower costs awarded against police in criminal actions are more desirable. Court costs are generally awarded when a criminal action against an offender has failed; in this respect, it represents at least some of the resources expended when a prosecution fails.

Real costs awarded against police, for those jurisdictions providing data in 2004-05 are presented in table 5.2. Data are presented for total dollar amounts and costs per person in the relevant jurisdiction.

Table 5.2 Real costs awarded against the police in criminal actions (2004-05 dollars)^a

	Unit	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA(b)	SA	Tas	ACT	NT
Total costs									
2000-01	\$'000	542	na	170	1 075	328	4	106	na
2001-02	\$'000	573	1 326	227	1 079	553	10	126	na
2002-03	\$'000	715	1 064	180	1 362	494	na	184	na
2003-04	\$'000	613	1 693	109	1 098	497	na	223	na
2004-05	\$'000	487	1 958	98	1 405	689	na	224	na
Total costs per person									
2000-01	\$	0.08	na	0.05	0.57	0.22	0.01	0.33	na
2001-02	\$	0.09	0.28	0.06	0.57	0.37	0.02	0.39	na
2002-03	\$	0.11	0.22	0.05	0.71	0.32	na	0.57	na
2003-04	\$	0.09	0.34	0.03	0.56	0.33	na	0.69	na
2004-05	\$	0.07	0.39	0.03	0.71	0.45	na	0.69	na

^a Total costs awarded against the police resulting from summary offences and indictable offences tried summarily before a court of law. ^b For WA, the data for 2000-01 to 2003-04 have been revised significantly due to a change in the source and to reflect costs awarded against the police in Children’s Courts and Magistrates’ Courts throughout WA. **na** Not available.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.61.

Outcomes

Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations, and Indigenous deaths in custody-related operations

‘Deaths in custody and custody-related operations’, and ‘Indigenous deaths in custody’ are outcome indicators of governments’ objective to provide safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensure fair and equitable treatment for both victims and alleged offenders (box 5.33).

Box 5.33 Deaths in custody and custody-related operations, and Indigenous deaths in custody

‘Deaths in custody and custody-related operations, and ‘Indigenous deaths in custody’, are outcome indicators of governments’ objective to provide safe custody for alleged offenders, and ensure fair and equitable treatment for both victims and alleged offenders.

The indicators are defined as the number of non-Indigenous and Indigenous deaths in police custody and custody-related operations, reported both as numbers and as a rate per 100 000 of the relevant population.

For both indicators, a lower number of deaths in custody and custody-related operations is a better outcome.

Nationally, there were 27 deaths in police custody and custody-related operations in 2004 (down from 32 in 2003). This total comprised 21 non-Indigenous deaths and six Indigenous deaths. Across jurisdictions, there is a wide variation in the number of deaths, and caution needs to be taken when comparing jurisdictions’ rates due to small absolute numbers. Nationally, the death rate per 100 000 people over the period 2000–2004 was 0.79 (table 5.3).

Table 5.3 **Deaths in police custody and custody-related operations^a**

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust ^b
Non-Indigenous deaths									
2000	12	2	2	1	4	–	–	–	21
2001	15	8	4	1	3	–	–	–	31
2002	12	7	4	2	–	1	–	–	26
2003	8	4	7	3	2	–	1	–	25
2004	7	4	5	2	2	–	1	–	21
Indigenous deaths									
2000	2	–	1	1	1	–	–	–	5
2001	–	–	–	2	2	–	–	–	4
2002	4	–	–	1	–	–	–	5	10
2003	1	–	1	4	–	–	–	1	7
2004	1	–	2	1	–	–	–	2	6
Total deaths									
2000	14	2	3	2	5	–	–	–	26
2001	15	8	4	3	5	–	–	–	35
2002	16	7	4	3	–	1	–	5	36
2003	9	4	8	7	2	–	1	1	32
2004	8	4	7	3	2	–	1	2	27
Total 2000–2004	62	25	26	18	14	1	2	8	156
Rate per 100 000 people (2000–2004) ^b	0.93	0.51	0.69	0.92	0.92	0.21	0.62	4.02	0.79

^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 Rate calculated by using the average population during 2000–2004. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: AIC (various years), *Deaths in Custody, Australia*; table 5A.57.

Outcomes of court cases

The police assist the judicial process in a variety of ways, including collecting evidence and providing testimony in court. Police work in this area can be measured to some extent by the success of the police in achieving a guilty plea or conviction.

Two sources are used to provide data on the outcomes of court cases for the 2006 Report:

- *ABS Criminal Courts collection* — higher court data for all jurisdictions.
- *Jurisdiction data* — lower court cases data based on Magistrates' criminal court data provided by each jurisdiction.

It is anticipated that future reports will include comparable ABS data for both higher and lower courts.

Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea

The 'proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea' is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process (box 5.34).

Box 5.34 Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea

'Proportion of lower court cases' resulting in a guilty plea is an outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing.

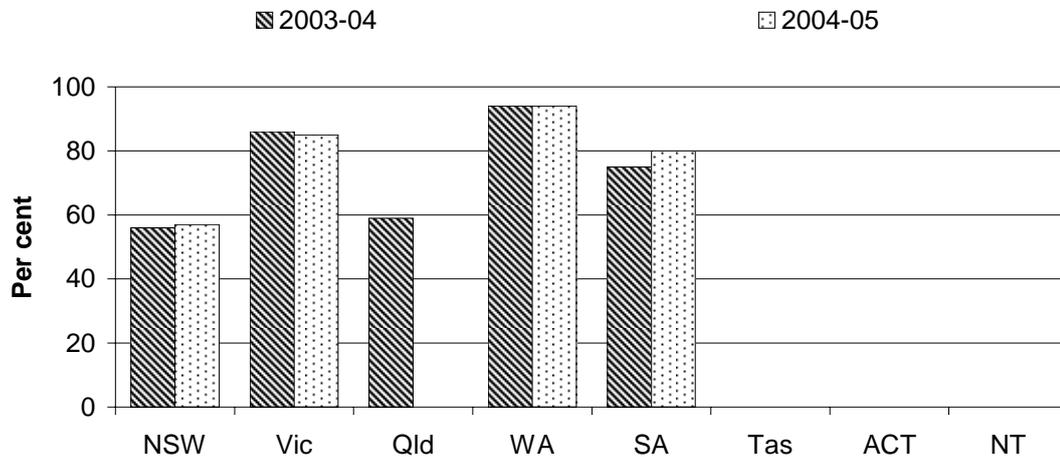
The indicator is defined as the number of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea, as a proportion of the total number of lower court cases.

A higher proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea is a more desirable outcome.

This indicator does not provide information on the number of cases where police have identified a likely offender but choose not to bring the case to trial due to a number of factors. It also does not provide information on the number of minor offences where defendants opt for a guilty plea due to a variety of factors.

Four jurisdictions provided data on the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea in 2004-05 (figure 5.49). Data should be treated with caution, however, as data are not directly comparable across jurisdictions.

Figure 5.49 Proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a Data are not comparable across jurisdictions. ^b Lower court cases data are based on magistrates' criminal court data provided by each jurisdiction. ^c Data for NSW relate to calendar years. Exclude cases heard ex-parte, ie where defendant is not present and therefore has not made a formal statement admitting culpability. ^d For Queensland, the Queensland Wide Interlinked Courts database is unable to provide information consistent with the data dictionary — for example, 'no plea' includes ex-parte cases that are not recorded as a finding of guilty in this Report. ^e For WA, the proportion of lower court cases resulting in a guilty plea is based on the number of guilty pleas expressed as a percentage of the sum of guilty pleas and matters listed for trial. Data include cases that have been placed before the Children's Court and Magistrates' Courts throughout the State by the police and may also include a small number of cases placed before the Christmas Island Court by the Australian Federal Police. Criminal cases placed before the District and Supreme courts are not included. ^f For SA, data for 2003-04 refer to prosecutions finalised. The figure relates to a percentage of the total number of defendants appearing before a court. The court jurisdiction includes the Magistrates and the Youth Court. The percentage figure is a combination of both a guilty plea and a result of a guilty verdict, that is, the defendant was convicted, a charge was found proved without conviction or a charge was found proved with some other penalty/outcome. ^g Lower court data were not available for Tasmania, the ACT or the NT.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.58.

Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding

The 'proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding' is another outcome indicator of governments' objective to support the judicial process (box 5.35).

Box 5.35 Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding

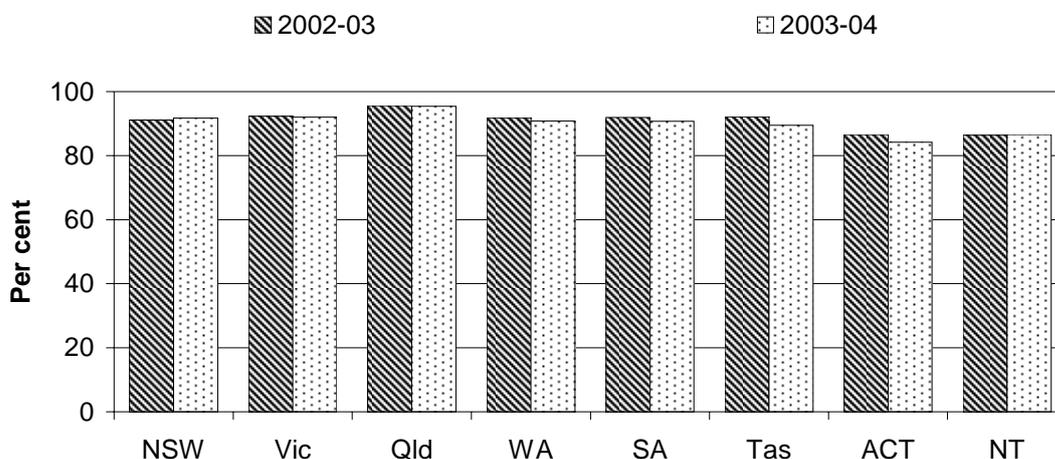
‘Proportion of higher court cases resulting in a guilty plea or finding’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to support the judicial process to achieve efficient and effective court case management for judicial processing.

The indicator is defined as the number of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty, as a proportion of the total number of higher courts finalised defendants.

A higher proportion of higher courts finalised defendants submitting a guilty plea or being the subject of a guilty finding represents a better outcome. This indicator does not provide information on the number of cases where police have identified a likely offender, but choose not bring the case to trial due to a variety of factors.

In 2003-04, the proportion of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty varied slightly across jurisdictions (figure 5.50).

Figure 5.50 Proportion of higher courts finalised defendants who either submitted a guilty plea or were found guilty^{a, b}



^a All jurisdictions’ data include guilty findings and guilty pleas. ^b A defendant can be either a person or organisation against whom one or more criminal charges have been laid.

Source: ABS (various years), Cat. no. 4513.0; table 5A.58.

5.8 Other services provided by police

Where possible, all jurisdictions have provided data on police activities within the four SDAs identified within the chapter (community safety and support; crime investigation; road safety and traffic management; and services to the judicial process). In some instances, jurisdictions cannot allocate particular activities or costs to the four SDAs already reported in this chapter, so a fifth SDA has been developed, called ‘other services.’ This SDA can include (but is not limited to) such things as information and licensing services, regulatory services and ministerial support services (see table 5A.10).

For this Report, only Queensland and WA have included expenditure under this SDA (table 5.4). As a proportion of each jurisdiction’s total police expenditure in 2004-05, ‘other services’ represented 14.6 per cent of Queensland expenditure and 2.2 per cent of expenditure in WA (table 5A.15).

Table 5.4 **Real expenditure per person (less payroll tax) on ‘other services’ (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b}**

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Ave
2001-02	–	–	na	5.96	–	na	2.32	na	0.78
2002-03	–	–	na	7.13	–	na	2.50	–	2.52
2003-04	–	4.56	7.01	7.70	–	na	–	–	3.31
2004-05	–	–	36.77	6.94	–	na	–	–	7.98

Ave = the weighted average of those jurisdictions that provided data. ^a Data have not been subjected to extensive tests to determine comparability. Further, some differences in counting rules may exist across jurisdictions as a result of the differing mix of activities undertaken within each of the common SDAs. ^b The Queensland Police Services (QPS) output activities for 2004-05 changed from six outputs in 2003-04 to four in 2004-05. Hence ‘Other services’ information is now aligned to new QPS output ‘Professional Standards and Ethical Practice’ which includes significant training expenditure which was previously distributed across other Outputs. The 2004-05 training component includes net direct training costs of \$51.307 million as well as indirect training costs. **na** Not available. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 5A.62.

5.9 Capital costs in the costing of police services

Capital costs (including depreciation and the user cost of capital) for each jurisdiction are contained in tables 5A.1–5A.8. Costs associated with non-current physical assets (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) are potentially important components of the total costs of many services delivered by government agencies. Differences in the techniques for measuring non-current physical assets (such as valuation methods) may thus reduce the comparability of cost estimates across jurisdictions. In response to concerns regarding data comparability, the Steering Committee initiated a study, *Asset Measurement in the Costing of*

Government Services (SCRCSSP 2001). The aim of the study was to examine the extent to which differences in asset measurement techniques applied by participating agencies affect the comparability of reported unit costs.

In police services, the results reported in the study indicate that different methods of asset measurement could lead to quite large variations in reported capital costs. Considered in the context of total unit costs, however, the differences created by these asset measurement effects are relatively small, because capital costs represent a relatively small proportion of total cost. A key message from the study is that the adoption of nationally uniform accounting standards across all service areas would be a desirable outcome from the perspective of the Review. (The study results are discussed in more detail in chapter 2.)

5.10 Future directions in performance reporting

While the Report provides information on the costs of services for each SDA, it has proved difficult to develop efficiency indicators for each SDA and for policing in general. At present, the only efficiency indicators shown are the total cost of service per person for each SDA. These are considered to be only partial efficiency measures, given the absence of agreed output measures.

Policing services are often delivered contemporaneously, covering a single SDA or even extending over several SDAs. Police response to a call for service, for example, will not only deal with the incident at hand, but may also increase police visibility and, therefore, provide public reassurance. Likewise, police road safety operations and crime investigations may also have crime prevention components.

The Review is therefore examining alternative methods for developing efficiency indicators. The approach is to identify issues of prime importance and the activities required to address them. Measures can then be made of the time and cost of activities, and of the actions resulting from those activities. Efficiency indicators would be defined in terms of the cost per unit of output, where output is defined as the sum of actions taken, weighted to reflect the importance of redressing the problem.

5.11 Jurisdictions' comments

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

New South Wales Government comments

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The mission of NSW Police is ‘police and community working together to establish a safer environment by reducing violence, crime and fear.’ The primary focus is on reducing crime and the community’s fear of crime-related problems. The development of local solutions to local problems, to ensure all people can freely enjoy their lawful pursuits, is undertaken in partnership with the community and government and non-government agencies.

Local Area Commands (LACs) are at the heart of service delivery. Performance at the State level is an accumulation of LACs and reflects the actions taken locally. However, the achievement of results, including reducing crime and improved community satisfaction, is influenced by many other factors other than NSW Police activity.

LACs are encouraged to engage in internal benchmarking, against past trends and in comparison to other LACs. At the State level, however, comparison with other States/Territories is considered less useful, as the information is neither timely nor sufficiently consistent to be used operationally.

This Report comprises, in the main, outcome or result indicators. In the pursuit of broadly common goals, each State/Territory may adopt a different approach and operational focus to achieve results. It is therefore difficult to derive meaningful and comparable output indicators, and efficiency measures are indeterminate. The different focuses may also confound the interpretation of some outcome indicators. For example, ‘Investigations finalised within 30 days’ is used as measure for Criminal Investigation. Some States, however, may have decided to focus attention on more-prolific offenders and to identify opportunities to restrict their criminality; in effect pursuing joint outcomes from investigations and crime prevention. The simple measure of finalised investigations is unable to reflect that offenders are detected for other matters and incapacitated as a result.

The challenge then is to provide a context for consideration of the results. In NSW, it is believed that intelligence-led policing, concentrating on identified hot-spots and more prolific offenders, is contributing to the reduction in reported crime (and hopefully the true level of crime incidence) and also to the lessening in concern for local problems.

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Victorian Government comments



Victoria Police achievements in 2004-05 have been significant. In delivering policing services to the community, Victoria Police has continued to focus on those things known to be of most importance to Victorians — preventing and reducing the overall incidence of crime, making the roads safer for all users and ensuring that people can feel safe in their homes and going about their normal daily activities.

The State's overall crime rate, measured per 100 000 population, has continued to fall. A 7.3 per cent reduction achieved in 2004-05 marks the fourth consecutive year in which the crime rate has been reduced and reflects a 21.5 per cent reduction since 2000-01. Over the same four-year period, theft of motor vehicles has been reduced by more than 50 per cent and residential burglaries have been reduced by a total 36.8 per cent. Robbery offences have also fallen dramatically, down some 50 per cent over the last four years.

Victoria Police has now completed the development of a new major crime management model. The new model establishes a dynamic and flexible investigative capacity and will enable it to deal more effectively with major and organised crime. The model builds on existing strengths and other new approaches to organised crime and intelligence management and will be progressively implemented across 2005-06.

The 2003-04 year saw the lowest ever incidence of death and serious injury on Victoria's roads. Unfortunately, there was a small increase in the number of road fatalities this year, with 338 people being killed on Victorian roads across 2004-05, compared with 333 at the same time last year. Victoria Police is committed to reducing the impact of road trauma on the community and to reducing the number of avoidable deaths on the State's roads. Our road policing operations will continue to target the identified causes of those deaths — particularly excessive speed and alcohol and drug — impaired driving.

Victoria Police will always aim to improve on the ways in which it delivers policing services to the community. It is anticipated that the review and re-development of the police Service Delivery Model, which is presently underway, will contribute to ensuring that Victoria Police delivers the best possible policing services to all Victorians.



Queensland Government comments

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In 2004, the Queensland Government published its Charter of Social and Fiscal Responsibility 2004. This document outlines the Government's commitment to delivering improved outcomes to the people of Queensland.

The Queensland Police Service contributes to the Government priorities: Protecting our children and enhancing community safety and Delivering responsive government. In support of these Government outcomes, the Queensland Police Service introduced its new Strategic Plan 2004–2008.

The Strategic Plan 2004–2008 established four primary 'Outputs', being Community Safety and Engagement; Crime Management; Traffic Management; and Professional Standards and Ethical Practice. Corporate Resource Management is included as an additional component of the Plan and covers areas undertaken to support the other four 'Outputs'.

Engaging the community through constructive partnerships with key groups and individuals has provided the foundation for Our Commitment to Service Delivery throughout 2004-05. The positive results achieved throughout the year, and the effectiveness of policing strategies applied to address areas of community concern, have been monitored, assessed and guided through the use of an effective performance management framework. This demonstrates and supports our commitment to providing high quality policing services to all members of the community.

In March 2005, the Service hosted the Conference of Commissioners of Police of Australasia and the South East Pacific Region. Police Commissioners or their delegates attended from all Australian jurisdictions, New Zealand and many of our neighbours in the Asia-Pacific region. The conference theme of "Performance Management" reinforced and supported the Service's strong commitment in this area.

During 2004-05, the Service has continued to progress the implementation of key government policy directions, including a strong focus on increasing police numbers and addressing key infrastructure requirements and the application of emerging technology to assist operational police in the optimum use of resources and to ensure continuous improvement in service delivery.

The Service's partnership-based approach to child protection has been a priority initiative in 2004-05. Through the Juvenile Aid Bureau, dedicated investigative resources are applied to manage juvenile justice and child protection issues throughout the State. The introduction of a new Suspected Child Abuse and Neglect model has been a key outcome of the implementation of the Government's Child Protection Blueprint.

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Western Australian Government comments

“ Since the findings of the Kennedy Royal Commission, the Western Australia Police (WAPOL) has committed to a wide ranging Reform program. With the service delivery philosophy *Frontline First* underscoring the changes, the WAPOL has focused on back-to-basics policing: reducing volume crime, antisocial behaviour and improving road-user behaviour. Through renewed enforcement efforts, this has resulted in the formation of dedicated highly-mobile units such as the Regional Operations Group and the Traffic Enforcement Group. Now fully operational, these groups provide a rapid response to public disorder incidents, and a strong police presence on freeways, highways and major arterial roads. In response to global trends, the agency’s deterrent and response capacity has also been enhanced by the creation of a Counter Terrorism and State Security Portfolio, headed by an Assistant Commissioner.

The State Government has committed to an additional 350 police officers over the next four years and to the funding of an additional 160 civilianised positions. This civilianisation is part of a range of initiatives that have been undertaken to move police officers to frontline positions. Other strategies include reviewing the management of sick leave, the operational / non-operational status of police officer positions, deployment practises, revising transfer and tenure policies and reducing the imbalance in experience levels between Regional and Metropolitan WA. Of major significance has been the development of the \$20 million Police Assistance Centre (PAC). Operating 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, the PAC provides the capacity to answer 38 000 non-emergency calls per month, improving call taking capacity and further freeing up officers for frontline duties.

The *Frontline First* philosophy also captures the agency’s focus on corruption resistance and the move towards a stronger performance and accountability-based management culture. The scope of change on WAPOL is evident from sixty of the seventy most senior positions within the organisation being filled by new appointments, since the introduction of the new Executive Team a year ago.

The changes brought about under *Frontline First* and the dedicated work of WA Police employees has resulted in a significant reduction in crime in Western Australia in 2004-05 compared with 2003-04. Burglary offences decreased by 21 per cent; steal motor vehicle offences decreased by 19.5 per cent; robbery decreased by nearly 14 per cent; and theft decreased by 10.5 per cent. Clearance rates for most offence categories also improved.

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South Australian Government comments

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In 2004-05, South Australia Police (SAPOL) continued to contribute to the achievement of the crime reduction and road safety targets in South Australia's Strategic Plan – Creating Opportunity. The Plan recognises that successful economies are based on strong, inclusive communities within a safe and secure environment.

SAPOL continued to place great significance on working with the community to achieve improved community safety outcomes during 2004-05. A 6.6 per cent continued reduction in total crime reported by victims, contributed to a central component of the Plan ('Safe and Secure Communities') of a safer South Australia as the foundation for all community wellbeing and prosperity.

State security is now a community priority in light of terrorist threats. Response to State security issues is a key SAPOL issue, incorporating an ongoing participation in joint national initiatives and exercises. The Police Security Services Branch is also being restructured to enhance physical security to key community assets in the State.

SAPOL was also actively involved in several serious bushfires in 2004-05, as part of our core function of assisting the public in emergency situations and managing response to emergencies. Specialist personnel were also deployed to the South East Asia tsunami, as part of an international response to that emergency situation.

Change is a constant feature of policing. SAPOL has had a dynamic period of organisational reform since 1997, culminating in the second *Future Directions Strategy* 2003–2006, incorporating the South Australia Policing Model.

An important feature of the South Australia Policing Model is the localised problem solving response to community safety issues through fourteen Local Service Areas, supported by a range of centralised specialist services. By working with the community in this way, as in previous years, reaction to the delivery of policing services was very positive. During 2004-05, SAPOL achieved an 81.9 per cent rating for community confidence in their police.

While being guided by the organisational framework of the *Future Directions Strategy* 2003–2006, SAPOL has again recognised the need for continuous improvement through ongoing reform of policing service delivery, in order to remain responsive to community needs and expectations in a changing world. Through the launch of Project Compass in 2004-05, SAPOL will examine new and innovative methods of performance management, to support an enhanced achievement culture throughout the organisation.

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Tasmanian Government comments



During 2004-05, delivery of effective and efficient policing and emergency services to meet the needs of Tasmanians was underpinned by the Department of Police and Public Safety's Strategic Directions Framework and Business Plan. With service delivery orientated around a commitment to reassurance, readiness, responsiveness, and accountability, substantial progress was made towards achieving the longer-term benchmarks set out in Tasmania Together and implementing key government policy directions, particularly Safe at Home to reduce family violence.

The Department's efforts to constantly strive to develop and enhance an already strong performance management culture were assisted by robust accountability processes to review performance against agreed objectives that also provide for flexibility in responding to emerging trends.

The results have been generally pleasing with national crime statistics showing that Tasmania was below the national rate in all major offence categories. Total recorded offences decreased by 4 per cent which further consolidated the 15 per cent decrease achieved in 2003-04. Offences against the property decreased by a further 9 per cent, following a decrease of 17 per cent the previous year. The clearance rate also improved by a further 1.6 per cent to 31.3 per cent.

Although offences against the person increased, the increased willingness by partners and ex-partners to report family violence incidents to police, following successful introduction of the Tasmanian Government's Safe at Home initiative, contributed to this rise. Significantly, the clearance rate for offences against the person improved by a further two percentage points over the 2004-05 period to reach 93 per cent.

Even though Tasmania is one of the safest places in the world, in response to global trends and to further enhance our deterrent and response capacity, the Government has established a State Security Unit within Tasmania Police. This year a number of structural changes and equipment purchases were made to improve security arrangements, operational capabilities and to review critical infrastructure.

Importantly, the community continued to indicate it has a high regard for the police officers serving Tasmanians. Independent surveying by AC Nielsen showed that compared to the national average, more Tasmanians were satisfied with the services provided by police; felt that police treated people fairly and equally, that police were honest and that police performed their job professionally.



Australian Capital Territory Government comments

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ACT Policing has been a key stakeholder in the multi-agency ACT Crime Prevention Working Group, established by the ACT Government to identify crime priorities for the ACT. The Working Group identified burglary and motor vehicle theft as a first priority, culminating in the development of the ACT Property Crime Reduction Strategy 2004–07 “Building a Safer Community”.

The Strategy, launched by the ACT Chief Minister in August 2004, sets a reduction target of 10 per cent for burglaries and 25 per cent for motor vehicle theft by 31 December 2007. Actions have been developed under five key objectives, namely: Prevention Programs for High Risk Potential and Known Offenders; Law Enforcement; Designing Out Crime; Affordable Safety and Security; and Schools as Property Crime Victims.

Building a Safer Community recognises that ACT Policing has made major inroads into the management of property crime in the ACT but equally recognises that crime management is not just a matter for police. It encourages a whole-of-government approach — working together with police to sustain recent benchmarks by the combined weight of other government agencies, elements of the business community and other community groups to force crime to lower levels than the community has experienced for several years.

2004-05 also saw the expansion of restorative justice in the ACT capturing not only police diversion but diversion along the entire criminal justice continuum including post court and parole options. ACT Policing supports the program by providing dedicated resources including the secondment of personnel to the Restorative Justice Unit to deal with all police referrals to the unit. Phase 1 commenced on 31 January 2005 and applies to offences committed by young offenders. Phase 2, applying to all ages, will commence in January 2006.

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Northern Territory Government comments



During 2004-05, the Northern Territory Police continued to grow and develop following major restructures in the previous reporting period.

For the third consecutive year, reported crime has reduced significantly in the NT. This is as a result of the implementation of a Crime Reduction Strategy which concentrated on intelligence and forensic led policing in conjunction with crime reduction strategies focused on active repeat offenders, crime hot spots, crime scenes, and preventive patrolling.

Other crime reduction initiatives included the Violent Crime Reduction Strategy which was launched in November 2004, and which strengthens police response to incidents of personal and domestic violence. The Remote Community Drug Strategy was also implemented and has been successful in tackling the flow of illicit drugs into remote communities.

In line with emerging national priorities, the Counter Terrorism Security Unit further developed its capability to respond to terrorist activity. In April 2005, Northern Territory Police coordinated the largest ever counter terrorism exercise in the Northern Territory involving 800 people from a range of government and non-government agencies. There was also further training, exercising, planning and equipment procurement across the twelve recognised specialist counter terrorism areas.

Operational Performance Reviews (OPRs) were introduced in October 2004 with the aim 'to effectively measure, evaluate and continually improve operational performance'. The development of the OPR process, which has been carefully integrated with the Business Performance Framework, is part of an accelerated evolution of changes leading to a performance management and continuous improvement culture across the Agency. It also leads to better resource management and increased customer value.

These strategies and initiatives align with the strong commitment of Northern Territory Police towards enhancing community safety and protection through the continued provision of excellent policing services.



5.12 Information on sample data

Some of the results reported are estimates obtained by conducting surveys with samples of the group or population in question. Results, therefore, are subject to sampling error. The data obtained from a sample may be different from the 'value' that would have been obtained from the entire group or population. Consequently, care needs to be taken when using survey results (see appendix A).

The standard error is a measure of sampling error. It indicates the extent to which the estimate may differ from the 'true value' because only a sample was taken. If the survey is performed repeatedly, then the difference between the sample estimate and the true value will be less than one standard error approximately 68 per cent of the time. The difference will be less than two standard errors 95 per cent of the time. It will be less than three standard errors 99 per cent of the time. Another way of expressing this is to say that in 68 (95, 99) of every 100 samples, the estimate obtained from a single survey will be within one (two, three) standard errors of the 'true' value.

The chance that an estimate falls within a certain range of the true value is known as 'the confidence interval of the estimate'. For any particular survey, there is a tradeoff between the confidence interval of the estimate (68 per cent, 95 per cent or 99 per cent) and the size of the survey. The appropriate level of confidence chosen depends on the purpose of obtaining the estimate.

The relative standard error is the standard error, expressed as a percentage of the estimate. It indicates the margin of error that should be attached to the estimate. The smaller the estimate, the higher is the relative standard error.

Table 5.5 indicates the confidence interval for sample estimates reported in this chapter. For example a point estimate of 50 per cent for NSW has a 95 per cent confidence interval of 48.5 per cent to 51.5 per cent. When comparing jurisdictions, estimates are statistically different only when confidence intervals do not overlap. A similar situation applies when comparing estimates between years.

Table 5.5 95% Confidence bound to be applied to estimates from National Community Satisfaction with Policing Survey^a

<i>Estimate %</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i>
1 to 3	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.1
4 to 5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 0.5
6 to 8	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 0.5
9 to 14	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.0	± 0.5
15 to 25	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.5	± 0.5
26 to 30	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 0.5
31 to 46	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 0.5
47 to 53	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.5	± 2.5	± 2.5	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 1.0
54 to 69	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 0.5
70 to 74	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 0.5
75 to 85	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.0	± 2.5	± 0.5
86 to 91	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.0	± 0.5
92 to 94	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 0.5
95 to 96	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.0	± 1.5	± 0.5
97 to 99	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.5	± 0.1
Comparing years	<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>
	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 1.5	± 2.5	± 2.5	± 2.5	± 2.0	± 3.0	± 1.0

^a The ABS considers that only estimates with relative standard errors of 25 per cent or less are sufficiently reliable for most purposes. Estimates greater than 25 per cent are subject to sampling variability too high for most practical purposes and need to be treated with caution and viewed as merely indicative of the magnitude involved.

Source: ACPR (unpublished).

5.13 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Armed robbery	<p>Robbery conducted with the use (actual or implied) of a weapon, where a weapon can include, but is not restricted to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• firearms — pistol, revolver, rifle, automatic/semi-automatic rifle, shotgun, military firearm, airgun, nail gun, cannon, imitation firearm and implied firearm• other weapons — knife, sharp instrument, blunt instrument, hammer, axe, club, iron bar, piece of wood, syringe/hypodermic needle, bow and arrow, crossbow, spear gun, blowgun, rope, wire, chemical, acid, explosive, vehicle, other dangerous article and imitation weapons.
Assault	<p>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.</p>
Available full time equivalent staff	<p>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.</p>
Average non-police staff salaries	<p>Salaries and payments in the nature of salary paid to civilian and other employees, divided by the total number of such employees.</p>
Average police salaries	<p>Salaries and payments in the nature of salary paid to sworn police officers, divided by the number of sworn officers.</p>
Blackmail and extortion	<p>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.</p>
Cautioning	<p>A formal method of dealing with young offenders without taking court proceedings. Police officers may caution young offenders instead of charging them if the offence or the circumstance of the offence is not serious.</p>
Civilian staff	<p>Unsworn staff, including specialists (civilian training and teaching medical and other specialists) and civilian administrative and management staff.</p>
Complaints	<p>Number of statements of complaint by members of the public regarding police conduct.</p>
Crimes against the person	<p>Total recorded crimes against person, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• murder• attempted murder• manslaughter• assault• kidnapping/abduction• armed robbery• unarmed robbery• sexual assault• blackmail/extortion.

Death in police custody and custody-related incident	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; or death of a person who was fatally injured when escaping or attempting to escape from police custody.
Depreciation	Where possible, based on current asset valuation.
Driving causing death	The unlawful killing of another person, without intent to kill, as a result of culpable, dangerous, reckless or negligent driving.
Executive full time equivalent staff	Number of executive full time equivalent staff, including civilian senior executive service and sworn (chief superintendent to assistant commissioner) staff.
Full time equivalent (FTE)	The equivalent number of full time staff required to provide the same hours of work as performed by staff actually employed. A full time staff member is equivalent to a full time equivalent of one, while a part time staff member is greater than zero but less than one.
Indigenous full time equivalent staff	Number of full time equivalent staff who are identified as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent.
Land transport hospitalisations	Hospitalisations due to traffic accidents that are likely to have required police attendance; these may include accidents involving trains, bicycles and so on.
Management full time equivalent staff	Number of management full time equivalent staff, including civilian (managers) and sworn (inspector to superintendent) staff.
Motor vehicle theft	The taking of another person's motor vehicle illegally and without permission.
Murder	The wilful killing of a person either intentionally or with reckless indifference to life.
Non-Indigenous full time equivalent staff	Number of full time equivalent staff who do not satisfy the Indigenous staff criteria.
Non-operational full time equivalent staff	Any person who does not satisfy the operational staff criteria, including functional support staff only. Functional support full time equivalent staff include any person (sworn or unsworn) not satisfying the operational or operational support staff criteria (for example, finance, policy, research, personnel services, building and property services, transport services, and management above the level of station and shift supervisors).
Other recurrent expenditure	Maintenance and working expenses; expenditure incurred by other departments on behalf of police; expenditure on contracted police services; and other recurrent costs not elsewhere classified. Expenditure is disaggregated by service delivery area.
Other staff	All unsworn, non-civilian staff, including all auxiliary police personnel who are neither sworn officers nor strictly civilians because they are authorised to exercise statutory powers normally restricted to sworn officers. This category includes police cadets, police aides and special constables.
Other theft	The taking of another person's property with the intention of depriving the owner of the property illegally and without permission, but without force, threat of force, use of coercive measures, deceit or having gained unlawful entry to any structure, even if the intent was to commit theft.

Outcome of investigations	The stage reached by a police investigation after a period of 30 days has elapsed since the recording of the incident.
Practitioner full time equivalent staff	Number of practitioner full time equivalent staff, including civilian (administration) and sworn (constable to senior constable) staff.
Property crimes	Total recorded crimes against property, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unlawful entry with intent • motor vehicle theft • other theft.
Proportion of higher court cases resulting in guilty finding	Total number of higher courts finalised defendants resulting in a guilty plea or finding, as a proportion of the total number of higher courts finalised defendants. A defendant can be either a person or organisation against whom one or more criminal charges have been laid. <p>A higher court is either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an intermediate court (known either as the district court or county court) that has legal powers between those of a court of summary jurisdiction (lower level courts) and a supreme court, and that deals with the majority of cases involving serious criminal charges • a supreme court (a higher court level which deals with the most serious criminal charges and has the greatest legal powers of all the State and Territory court levels) (ABS 2003c). <p>Guilty finding is an outcome of a trial in which a court determines that the criminal charge against a defendant has been proven (ABS 2003c).</p>
Proportion of juvenile diversions	Total number of juvenile offenders who are diverted by police (for example, through the use of cautions, official warnings or other diversionary programs) away from the criminal justice system, as a proportion of the total number of juvenile offenders either diverted from or dealt with by the criminal justice system (that is, those who are either diverted or prosecuted).
Proportion of lower court cases resulting in guilty plea	Total number of cases (excluding committal hearings) heard before lower courts of law only, for which there was a plea of guilty, as a proportion of the total number of cases (excluding committal hearings) heard before lower courts of law only. <p>A lower court is a court of summary jurisdiction (commonly referred to as magistrates' court, local court or court of petty sessions) that deals with relatively less serious charges and has the most limited legal powers of all State and Territory court levels. Such courts are presided over by a magistrate and have jurisdiction to hear trial and sentence matters relating to summary offences. Under some circumstances, this court level may also deal with the less serious indictable offences known as 'minor indictable' or 'triable either way' offences (ABS 2003c).</p> <p>A guilty plea is the formal statement by a defendant admitting culpability in relation to a criminal charge. A not guilty plea is the formal statement by a defendant denying culpability in relation to a charge (ABS 2003c). For this data collection, a plea of 'not guilty' should also include 'no plea', 'plea reserved' and 'other defended plea'.</p> <p>Further, these definitions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • exclude preliminary (committal) hearings for indictable offences dealt

	<p>with by a lower court</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • count cases that involve multiple charges as a 'lower court case resulting in a plea of guilty ' if a plea of guilty has resulted for at least one of those charges.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices, using the GDP(E) price deflator, and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Recorded crime	Crimes reported to (or detected) and recorded by police.
Registered vehicles	Total registered motor vehicles, including motorcycles.
Reporting rate	The proportion of crime victims who told police about the last crime incident of which they were the victim, as measured a crime victimisation survey.
Revenue from own sources	Revenue from activities undertaken by police, including revenue from the sale of stores, plant and vehicles; donations and industry contributions; user charges; and other revenue (excluding fine revenue and revenue from the issuing of firearm licenses). Revenue is disaggregated by service delivery area.
Road deaths	Fatal road injury accidents as defined by the Australian Transport Safety Bureau.
Robbery	The unlawful taking of property from the immediate possession, control, custody or care of a person, with the intent to permanently deprive the owner of the property accompanied by the use, and/or threatened use of immediate force or violence.
Salaries and payments in the nature of salary	<p>Includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • base salary package • motor vehicle expenses that are part of employer fringe benefits • superannuation, early retirement schemes and payments to pension schemes (employer contributions) • workers compensation (full cost) including premiums, levies, bills, legal fees • higher duty allowances (actual amounts paid) • overtime (actual amounts paid) • actual termination and long service leave • actual annual leave • actual sick leave • actual maternity/paternity leave • fringe benefits tax paid • fringe benefits provided (for example, school fee salary sacrifice at cost to the government, car parking, duress alarms, telephone account reimbursements, 'gold passes', other salary sacrifice benefits • fringe benefits provided (for example, school fee salary sacrifice at cost to the government, car parking, duress alarms, telephone account reimbursements, 'gold passes', other salary sacrifice benefits, frequent flier benefits, overtime meals provided, and any other components that are not part of a salary package) • payroll tax. <p>These are disaggregated by service delivery area.</p>
Senior executive full time equivalent staff	Number of senior executive full time equivalent staff, including civilian (top senior executive service) and sworn (commissioner, deputy commissioner and equivalent civilian executives) staff.

Service delivery areas	<p>The core areas of police work. Four service delivery areas are identified for the purposes of this Report:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • community safety and support • crime investigation • road safety and traffic management • services to the judicial process. <p>A fifth service delivery area ('other' or 'other services') was identified to account for those unique functions of jurisdictions that were not directly associated with the aforementioned areas.</p> <p>While this is an attempt to identify common areas of core service delivery, their exact formats do not neatly fit with any jurisdiction or with how the jurisdictions measure or plan for performance.</p>
Sexual assault	<p>Physical contact of a sexual nature directed towards another person where that person does not give consent, that person gives consent as a result of intimidation or fraud, or consent is proscribed (that is, the person is legally deemed incapable of giving consent as a result of youth, temporary/permanent (mental) incapacity or a familial relationship). Includes rape, attempted rape, indecent assault and assault with intent to commit sexual assault. Excludes sexual harassment not leading to assault.</p>
Supervisory full time equivalent staff	<p>Number of supervisory full time equivalent staff, including civilian (team leaders) and sworn (sergeant to senior sergeant) staff.</p>
Sworn staff	<p>Sworn police staff recognised under each jurisdiction's Police Act.</p>
Total capital expenditure	<p>Total expenditure on the purchase of new or second hand capital assets, and expenditure on significant repairs or additions to assets that add to the assets' service potential or service life.</p>
Total expenditure	<p>Total capital expenditure plus total recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources).</p>
Total FTE staff	<p>Operational staff and non-operational staff, including full time equivalent staff on paid leave or absence from duty (including secondment and training), as measured using absolute numbers for the whole reporting period.</p>
Total number of staff	<p>Full time equivalent staff directly employed on an annual basis (excluding labour contracted out).</p>
Total recurrent expenditure	<p>Includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • salaries and payments in the nature of salary • other recurrent expenditure • depreciation • less revenue from own sources.
Unarmed robbery	<p>Robbery conducted without the use (actual or implied) of a weapon.</p>
Unavailable full time equivalent staff	<p>Any full time equivalent category where the individual is on paid leave or absent from duty (including secondment and training), as measured using the average staffing level for the whole reporting period.</p>
Unlawful entry with intent — involving the taking of property	<p>The unlawful entry of a structure (whether forced or unforced) with intent to commit an offence, resulting in the taking of property from the structure. Includes burglary and break and enter offences. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.</p>
Unlawful entry with intent — other	<p>The unlawful entry of a structure (whether forced or unforced) with intent to commit an offence, but which does not result in the taking of</p>

Value of physical assets — buildings and fittings

property from the structure. Excludes trespass or lawful entry with intent.

The value of buildings and fittings under the direct control of police.

Value of physical assets — land

The value of land under the direct control of police.

Value of physical assets — other

The value of motor vehicles, computer equipment, and general plant and equipment under the direct control of police.

5.14 Supporting tables

Supporting tables for chapter 5 are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach5A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach5A.pdf.

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 5A.3 is table 3 in the electronic files). These files can be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

Descriptors

Table 5A.1	Police service expenditure, staff and asset descriptors, NSW
Table 5A.2	Police service expenditure, staff and asset descriptors, Victoria
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Table 5A.4	Police service expenditure, staff and asset descriptors, WA
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Table 5A.10	Concordance of individual police agency outputs with nationally agreed service delivery areas
Table 5A.11	Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) on police services per person (2004-05 dollars)
Table 5A.12	Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources) per person on police services, by service delivery area, 2001-02 (2004-05 dollars)
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Table 5A.20	Contact with police in the past 12 months
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Table 5A.23	Opinions on statement 'police perform job professionally'
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Performance Indicators for Community Safety and Support

Table 5A.30	Feelings of safety at home alone
Table 5A.31	Feelings of safety walking or jogging locally
Table 5A.32	Feelings of safety on public transport
Table 5A.33	Opinion on whether family violence, sexual assault and other physical assault are problems in the neighbourhood
Table 5A.34	Opinion on whether illegal drugs, housebreaking and motor vehicle theft are problems in the neighbourhood
Table 5A.35	Opinions on whether speeding cars, dangerous or noisy driving, graffiti or other vandalism, louts or gangs and drunken or disorderly behaviour are problems in the neighbourhood
Table 5A.36	Opinion on whether family violence, sexual assault and other physical assault are problems in your State or Territory
Table 5A.37	Opinion on whether illegal drugs, housebreaking and motor vehicle theft are problems in your State or Territory
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Table 5A.39	Whether worried about being a victim by type of crime
Table 5A.40	Victims of homicide — crimes against the person (per 100 000 people)
Table 5A.41	Victims of recorded crimes — crimes against people (per 100 000 persons)

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- Table 5A.42** Victims of recorded crime — property crime (per 100 000 persons)
- Table 5A.43** Reporting rates for selected major offences (per cent)
- Table 5A.44** Estimated total victims of crime (unreported and reported) — crimes against the person (per 100 000 people)
- Table 5A.45** Estimated total household victims of crime, reported and unreported — crimes against property (per 100 000 households)
- Table 5A.46** Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) per person on community safety and support (2004-05 dollars)

Performance Indicators for Criminal Investigation

- Table 5A.47** Outcomes of investigations of crimes against the person: 30 day status, 1 January to 31 December 2004
- Table 5A.48** Victims of property crime: outcomes of investigations, 30 day status, 1 January to 31 December 2004
- Table 5A.49** Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) per person on crime investigation (2004-05 dollars)

Performance Indicators for Road Safety and Traffic Management

- Table 5A.50** People who have driven a motor vehicle in the past 12 months
- Table 5A.51** People who drive and who have travelled in a car not wearing a seat belt
- Table 5A.52** People who drive and have driven 10 kilometres per hour or more over speed limit
- Table 5A.53** People who drive and have driven while over alcohol limit
- Table 5A.54** Road fatalities
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- Table 5A.56** Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) per person on road safety and traffic management (2004-05 dollars)

Performance Indicators for Services to the Judicial Process

- Table 5A.57** Number of deaths in police custody and custody-related operations, 2000 to 2004
- Table 5A.58** Outcomes of court cases
- Table 5A.59** Juvenile diversions as a proportion of offenders (per cent)
- Table 5A.60** Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) per person on services to the judicial process (2004-05 dollars)
- Table 5A.61** Real costs awarded against the police through criminal actions (2004-05 dollars)

Performance Indicators for Other Services

- Table 5A.62** Real recurrent expenditure (less revenue from own sources and payroll tax) per person on other services (2004-05 dollars)

5.15 References

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6 Court administration

This chapter covers the performance of court administration for State and Territory supreme, district/county and magistrates (including children's) courts, electronic infringement and enforcement systems, coroners courts and probate registries. It also covers the performance of court administration for the Federal Court of Australia, the Federal Magistrates Court, the Family Court of Australia and the Family Court of WA. This chapter does not include information on specialist courts (for example, drug courts) or the High Court of Australia. The focus of this Report is on the administration of the courts, not the outcomes of legal processes.

A profile of court administration is presented in section 6.1. The framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 6.2 and data are discussed in section 6.3. Future directions for performance reporting are discussed in section 6.4. Jurisdictions' comments are provided in section 6.5, followed by definitions in section 6.6. A list of the supporting tables for this chapter is provided in section 6.7. Supporting tables are identified in references throughout the chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 6A.3 is table 3 in this attachment). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-Rom enclosed with the Report. The chapter references are contained in section 6.8.

6.1 Profile of court administration services

Service overview

Court administration agencies throughout Australia provide a range of services integral to the effective performance of the judicial system. The primary functions of court administration agencies are to:

- manage court facilities and staff, including buildings, security and ancillary services such as registries, libraries and transcription services
- provide case management services, including client information, scheduling and case flow management
- enforce court orders through the sheriff's department or a similar mechanism.

Roles and responsibilities

State and Territory court levels

There is a hierarchy of courts within each State and Territory. The supreme court hears disputes of greater seriousness than those heard in the other courts. It also develops the law and operates as a court of judicial review or appeal. For the majority of jurisdictions, the hierarchy of courts are as outlined below (although Tasmania and the territories do not have a district/county court):

- the supreme court
- the district/county court
- the magistrates court.

Within certain court levels, a number of specialist courts (such as drug courts and children's courts) aim to improve the responsiveness of courts to the special needs of particular clients. Tribunals can also improve responsiveness and assist in alleviating the workload of courts — for example, small claims tribunals may assist in shifting work away from a magistrates court.

Differences in court jurisdictions, along with the use of specialist courts and tribunals, can mean that the allocation of cases to courts varies across states and territories (boxes 6.1–6.3). As a result, the seriousness and complexity of cases heard in each jurisdiction's equivalent court often vary. Any performance comparison needs to account for these factors.

Box 6.1 Magistrates court jurisdiction across states and territories

Criminal: All magistrates courts deal with criminal matters.

NSW: Deals summarily with matters with a maximum penalty of up to two years imprisonment for a single offence, and up to five years imprisonment for multiple offences, including some indictable offences.

Victoria: Deals with summary offences and determines some indictable offences summarily.

Queensland: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to three years imprisonment, including some indictable offences dealt with summarily.

WA: Deals with summary offences and determines some indictable offences 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 for a single offence and up to five years imprisonment for multiple offences. Also deals with some indictable offences summarily.

ACT: Deals with matters with a maximum penalty of up to 14 years imprisonment if the offence relates to money or property, and up to 10 years imprisonment in other cases.

NT: Deals with some drug and fraud charges and matters with a maximum penalty of up to 10 years imprisonment (or 10–14 years imprisonment if the accused consents).

Civil

NSW: Deals with small claims up to \$10 000 and general division claims up to \$60 000, as well as family law matters.

Victoria: deals with up to \$100 000 for monetary damages, as well as applications for equitable relief and applications under the *Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987*.

Queensland: Deals with small claims (including residential tenancy disputes) up to \$7500, minor debt claims up to \$7500 and other claims up to \$50 000.

WA: Deals with claims for debt recovery and damages (not personal injury) up to \$50 000, minor cases up to \$7500, residential tenancy disputes and restraining orders.

SA: Deals with small claims up to \$6000, commercial cases up to \$40 000 and personal injury claims up to \$80 000.

Tasmania: Deals with claims up to \$20 000 (or more if both parties consent) for monetary damages and debt recovery, minor civil claims up to \$5000, residential tenancy disputes, restraint orders and family violence orders.

ACT: Deals with small claims up to \$10 000, other claims up to \$50 000, residential tenancy disputes over \$10 000 and matters under the *Domestic Relations Act 1994*.

NT: deals with claims 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 and territories

The district/county court does not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT.

Criminal

All State district/county courts have jurisdiction over indictable criminal matters (such as rape and armed robbery) except murder and treason, but differences exist across jurisdictions. The following are examples of the jurisdiction of the criminal district/county courts:

NSW: District Court deals with most of the serious criminal cases that come before the courts in NSW. It has responsibility for indictable criminal offences that are normally heard by a judge and jury, but on occasions by a judge alone. It does not deal with treason or murder.

Victoria: County Court deals with all indictable offences, except the following (which must be heard in the Supreme Court): murder; attempted murder; child destruction; certain conspiracy charges; treason; and concealing an offence of treason. Examples of criminal offences heard in the County Court include: drug trafficking; serious assaults; serious theft; rape; and obtaining financial advantage by deception.

Queensland: District Court deals with more serious criminal offences than heard by the Magistrates Court — for example, rape, armed robbery and fraud.

WA: District Court deals with any indictable offence except those that carry a penalty of life imprisonment.

SA: District Court has jurisdiction to try a charge of any offence except treason or murder. Almost all matters have been referred following a committal process in the Magistrates Court.

Appeals from magistrates courts are heard in the district/county courts in NSW, Victoria and Queensland, but not in WA and SA.

Civil

All district/county civil courts hear appeals.

NSW: Deals with claims up to \$750 000, and unlimited claims in motor accident cases.

Victoria: Deals with damages for non-personal injuries claims up to \$200 000, appeals under the *Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987*, unlimited claims for compensation resulting from injury or death, adoption matters and change-of-name applications.

Queensland: Deals with claims between \$50 000 and \$250 000.

WA: Deals with claims up to \$500 000 and unlimited claims for personal injuries.

SA: Deals with 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 and territories

Criminal

All State and Territory supreme courts have jurisdiction over serious criminal matters such as murder, treason and certain serious drug offences, but significant differences exist across jurisdictions:

- Given that district/county courts do not operate in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT, the supreme courts in these jurisdictions generally exercise a jurisdiction equal to that of both the supreme and district/county courts in other States.
- The Queensland Supreme Court deals with a significant amount of minor drug matters, which supreme courts in other states and territories do not hear.
- In the NSW Supreme Court, almost all indictments are for offences of murder and manslaughter, whereas the range of indictments routinely presented in other states and territories is broader.

All State and Territory supreme courts hear appeals, but the amount and type of appeals vary because only NSW, Victoria and Queensland hear appeals in their district/county court.

Civil

All supreme courts deal with appeals and probate applications.

NSW: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims, but usually deals with complex cases, all claims over \$750 000 (except those related to motor vehicle accidents or worker's compensation claims) and various other civil matters.

Victoria: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims.

Queensland: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims, but usually deals with claims over \$250 000 and administrative law matters.

WA: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims, but usually deals with claims over \$500 000.

SA: Deals with unlimited claims for general and personal injury matters.

Tasmania: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims, but usually deals with claims over \$20 000.

ACT: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims.

NT: Has an unlimited jurisdiction on claims, and also deals with mental health, family law and *Coroners Act 1993* 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 data sets from the following areas are reported separately from their court level:

- probate registries (separate from the supreme court level)
- children's courts (separate from the magistrates court level)
- electronic infringement and enforcement systems (separate from the magistrates court level)
- coroners courts (separate from the magistrates court level).

The following section outlines the role of these areas and their coverage within each State/Territory.

Probate

In all jurisdictions, probate issues are heard in supreme courts and encompass applications for the appointment of an executor or administrator to the estate of a deceased person. The two most common types of application are:

- where the executor nominated by a will applies to have the will proved
- where the deceased died intestate (without a will) and a person entitled to administer the estate applies for letters of administration.

Children's courts

In all jurisdictions, the children's court deals with all complaints of offences alleged to have been committed by young people (with the minimum age varying across jurisdictions). The children's court also hears matters if a child has been seriously abused or neglected; in these instances, the court has jurisdiction to determine matters relating to the child's care and protection.

Electronic infringement and enforcement systems

Electronic infringement and enforcement systems operate to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences. They have the status of courts (despite minimal judicial involvement), because they have the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants. The orders impose penalties such as fines

(which may be enforced by warrants or licence cancellation), asset seizure, garnishment, arrest, community correction orders and incarceration.

Electronic infringement and enforcement systems included in the scope of this data collection operate in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. In these jurisdictions, the electronic infringement and enforcement system comes under the ambit of the magistrates court, but the workload and expenditure of the electronic infringement and enforcement system have been separately identified to allow for a more comparable interpretation of magistrates court data. In other jurisdictions, the magistrates court may enforce infringements and on-the-spot fines, or state debt recovery offices and/or fines enforcement units may operate outside the auspices of a court.

Coroners courts

In all states and territories, coroners courts (which generally operate under the auspices of State and Territory magistrates courts) inquire into the cause of sudden and unexpected reported deaths. The definition of a reported death differs across states and territories, but generally includes deaths for which the cause is violent, suspicious or unknown. In some states and territories, the coroner has the power to commit for hearing, while the coroner in other jurisdictions is prohibited from making any finding of criminal or civil liability (that is, the matter may be referred to the Director of Public Prosecutions). Suspicious fires are generally in the jurisdiction of the coroners court (except in WA, SA and the NT, and Queensland from December 2003). The coroners court is distinct from other courts not only because it has a role in inquiring into the cause of sudden and unexpected deaths (and suspicious fires), but also because it has other functions, including reporting inadequacies in regulatory systems.

Australian court levels — specific elements

The following hierarchy of courts exists within the Australian courts jurisdiction:

- the High Court of Australia
- the Federal Court of Australia and the Family Court of Australia
- the Federal Magistrates Court.

Data on the High Court are not reported in this chapter. The following sections highlight the relationship between the other three Australian courts.

Federal Court of Australia

This court is a superior court of record and a court of law and equity. It sits in all capital cities and elsewhere in Australia from time to time.

The Court has jurisdiction to hear and determine any civil matter arising under laws made by the Federal Parliament, as well as any matter arising under the Constitution or involving its interpretation. The Court also has original jurisdiction in respect of specific subject matter conferred by over 150 statutes of the Federal Parliament.

The Court has a substantial and diverse appellate jurisdiction. It hears appeals from decisions of single judges of the Court, decisions of the Federal Magistrates Court in non-family law matters, decisions of the Supreme Court of Norfolk Island and certain decisions of State and Territory supreme courts exercising federal jurisdiction.

Family Court of Australia

The Family Court of Australia has jurisdiction in all states and territories except WA (which has its own Family Court). It has jurisdiction to deal with matrimonial cases and associated responsibilities, including divorce proceedings, financial issues and children's matters such as residence, contact and special issues orders. It can also deal with ex-nuptial cases involving children's matters. Additionally, a practice direction was issued by the Family Court with agreement from the Federal Magistrates Court, that from November 2003 all divorce applications are to be lodged in the Federal Magistrates Court. A small number of divorce applications, however, are still lodged and processed in the Family Court. This practice direction does not affect the Family Court of WA.

Federal Magistrates Court

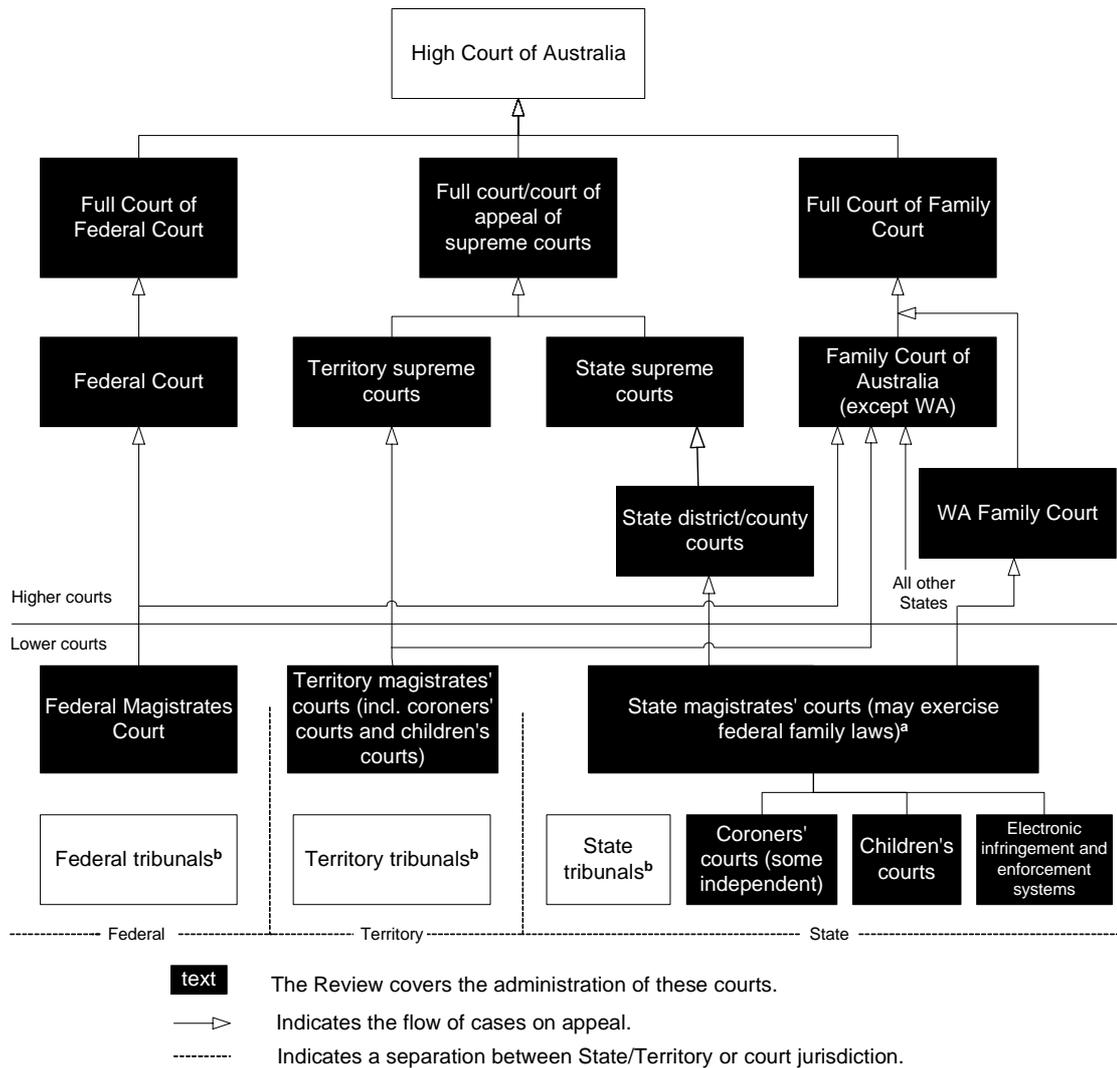
The first sittings of the Federal Magistrates Court were on 3 July 2000. The court was established to provide a simpler and more accessible service for litigants, and to ease the workload of both the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. Its jurisdiction includes family law and child support, administrative law, bankruptcy, consumer protection, human rights, privacy law and copyright matters. State courts also continue to do some work in these areas (FMC 2004).

The Federal Magistrates Court shares its jurisdiction with the Family Court of Australia and the Federal Court of Australia. The intention is for the latter two courts to focus on more complex legal matters. In family law matters, the Federal Magistrates Court's jurisdiction is similar to that of the Family Court, except that

only the Family Court can consider adoption, property disputes worth over \$700 000 (although the parties can consent to the Federal Magistrates Court dealing with disputes over this amount), and applications concerning the nullity and validity of marriage (FMC 2004).

The major relationships between, and hierarchy of, courts in Australia are summarised in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Major relationships of courts in Australia



a In some jurisdictions, appeals from lower courts or district/county courts may go directly to the court of appeal in the supreme court. **b** Appeals from Federal, State and Territory tribunals may go to any higher court in their jurisdiction.

Administrative structures

Most courts use the same court infrastructure (such as court buildings and facilities) for civil and criminal case types. Given that separate information systems and case flow management practices have been established for civil and criminal case types, the Steering Committee has sought to report the two case types separately where possible. In addition, the allocation of responsibilities between court administration and other elements of the system (including the judiciary) varies across the Australian, State and Territory legal systems.

Recurrent expenditure less income

A number of factors affect a jurisdiction's court-related 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 (and income) between their criminal and civil courts.

Recurrent expenditure provides an estimate of annual service costs. Recurrent expenditure on courts administration includes judiciary and in-court expenditure, court and probate registries, sheriff and bailiff's offices, court accommodation and other overheads. The components of the expenditure include salary and non-salary expenditure, court administration agency and umbrella department expenditure, and contract expenditure. Total recurrent expenditure by Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court and specialist courts) was \$1.2 billion in 2004-05 (table 6.1).

Court administration 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). Total income (excluding fines) for Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court and specialist courts) was \$277 million in 2004-05 (table 6.1).

The civil jurisdiction of the courts reported the largest income, followed by the electronic infringement and enforcement systems (part of the criminal jurisdiction). Income from electronic infringement and enforcement systems is not reported for NSW, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT. This will have an impact on the income reported for these states and territories.

Table 6.1 Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines), 2004-05 (\$ million)^{a, b}

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure</i>										
Civil courts ^{c, d}	152.5	81.2	44.7	46.8	29.5	4.8	8.3	9.8	80.1	457.7
Criminal courts ^e	169.4	97.1	89.9	60.5	42.2	12.0	7.9	14.4	..	493.3
Electronic systems	..	2.3	9.3	3.7	3.7	18.9
Family courts ^d	16.8	116.1	132.9
Federal Magistrates ^f	42.2	42.2
Coroners courts	7.1	5.1	7.6	4.6	4.0	0.5	1.1	1.0	..	31.1
Probate — supreme ^g	1.3	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.1	—	—	..	2.6
Total	330.3	186.1	151.5	132.6	80.0	17.4	17.3	25.2	238.4	1 178.8
<i>Court administration income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^c	64.3	31.5	16.3	11.1	7.9	1.5	2.4	0.6	8.2	143.8
Criminal courts ^e	8.3	—	1.2	3.7	1.4	0.6	0.6	0.1	..	15.8
Electronic systems	..	26.9	21.9	9.9	10.7	69.4
Family courts	1.7	5.1	6.8
Federal Magistrates	12.5	12.5
Coroners courts	0.2	—	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	—	..	0.4
Probate — supreme	15.8	3.6	2.6	2.3	2.7	0.6	0.3	—	..	27.9
Total	88.4	62.1	42.0	28.7	22.7	2.7	3.3	0.8	25.8	276.5
<i>Court administration recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines)</i>										
Civil courts ^{c, d}	88.3	49.7	28.4	35.7	21.7	3.3	5.9	9.1	71.9	313.9
Criminal courts ^e	161.1	97.1	88.7	56.9	40.8	11.5	7.3	14.3	..	477.6
Electronic systems	..	- 24.7	- 12.6	- 6.3	- 7.0	- 50.5
Family courts ^d	15.1	111.0	126.1
Federal Magistrates ^f	29.7	29.7
Coroners courts	7.0	5.1	7.5	4.5	4.0	0.5	1.1	1.0	..	30.7
Probate — supreme ^g	- 14.5	- 3.2	- 2.5	- 2.0	- 2.2	- 0.5	- 0.3	—	..	- 25.3
Total	241.8	124.1	109.5	103.9	57.3	14.7	14.0	24.4	212.6	902.3

^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Payroll tax is excluded from expenditure. ^c Includes data for the supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (including children's courts), and the Federal Court of Australia. Excludes data for the probate, family courts and the Federal Magistrates Court. ^d Data for the Family Court of Australia and Federal Court of Australia both include the cost of resources provided free of charge to the Federal Magistrates Court. ^e Includes data for supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (including children's courts). Excludes data for the electronic infringement and enforcement systems and coroners courts. ^f The Federal Magistrates Court expenditure data includes the resources received free of charge from the Federal Court. ^g The true net revenue may not be identified because rent or depreciation attributable to probate matters may be included under general supreme court figures. .. Not applicable. — Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.9–13.

Total recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) by Australian, State and Territory court authorities (excluding the High Court) was \$902 million in 2004-05. Expenditure exceeds income in all court jurisdictions except for electronic

infringement and enforcement systems, and probate registries in the supreme courts. As reported in table 6.1, expenditure is relatively low on probate matters, as these are limited to uncontested matters that do not require a judicial officer to make a determination. Where a probate matter is contested it is reported as part of the supreme court figures in the civil jurisdiction. Likewise, electronic infringement and enforcement system matters are dealt with by registry staff unless contested, in which case the matter will generally be dealt with in the magistrates court.

Real recurrent expenditure less income (excluding fines) on court administration from 2001-02 to 2004-05 for each Australian, State and Territory court level is contained in tables 6A.12 and 6A.13.

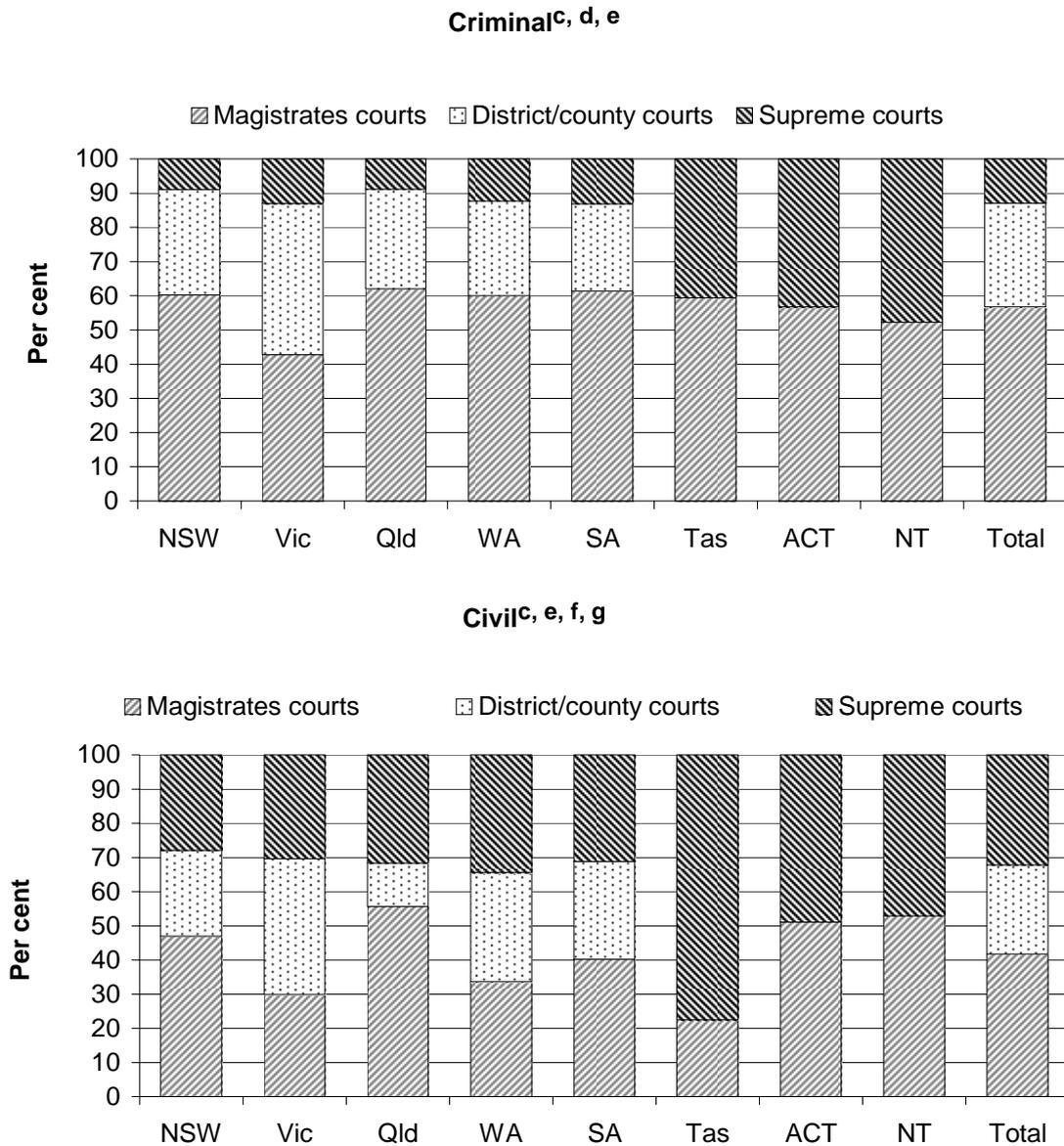
Distribution of criminal and civil court administration expenditure

The distribution of court administration expenditure (less income) on the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts varied across states and territories in 2004-05. A greater proportion of funds were expended by the supreme courts of Tasmania, the ACT and the NT (under the two-tier court system), for example, than to the supreme courts of other jurisdictions (under the three-tier court system) (figure 6.2).

In 2004-05, magistrates courts (excluding electronic infringement and enforcement systems) in the criminal jurisdiction accounted for the largest proportion nationally of recurrent expenditure (less income) across State and Territory criminal courts (56.2 per cent). Whilst in the civil jurisdiction, magistrates courts accounted for a smaller proportion of recurrent expenditure (less income) nationally (43.5 per cent). The key difference between the civil and criminal jurisdictions comes from the proportionally greater recurrent expenditure (less income) in the supreme courts in the civil jurisdiction relative to the criminal jurisdiction (detail is contained in tables 6A.12 and 6A.13).

Comparison of court expenditure across states and territories should bear in mind the difficulty in allocating income and expenditure between civil and criminal jurisdictions within court levels. Allocations are determined within individual states and territories and different approaches to apportionment are used.

Figure 6.2 **Distribution of court administration recurrent expenditure (less income), by court level, 2004-05^{a, b}**



^a Totals may not sum as a result of rounding. ^b Payroll tax is excluded from expenditure. ^c Magistrates courts includes expenditure on children's courts. ^d Magistrates courts excludes expenditure on coroners courts (all states and territories) and electronic infringement and enforcement systems (applicable to Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA). ^e There are no district/county courts in Tasmania, the ACT or the NT. ^f Supreme courts include probate. ^g Excludes federal courts.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.12-13.

Size and scope of court activity

Lodgments

Lodgments are matters initiated in the court system. Box 6.4 explains how lodgment data are collected for this chapter. Table 6.2 (criminal) and table 6.3 (civil) outline the number of lodgments in 2004-05, by court level, for the Australian courts and for each State and Territory.

Box 6.4 Explanation of lodgment data used in this chapter

Lodgments reflect community demand for court services, such as dispute resolution and criminal justice. The different ways of counting a court's workload reflect the variety of work undertaken within the court system. The units of measurement of workload (or counting units) used within this chapter are:

- *criminal courts* — the number of defendants
- *civil courts* — the number of cases
- *family courts* — the number of forms (that is, the number of applications made to the court)
- *electronic infringement and enforcement systems* — the number of unpaid infringement notices
- *coroners courts* — the number of reported deaths (and, if relevant, reported fires).

The following types of lodgment are excluded from the criminal and/or civil lodgment data reported in this chapter:

- any lodgment that does not have a defendant element (such as applications for telephone taps etc.)
- extraordinary driver's licence applications
- bail procedures (including applications and review)
- directions
- bench warrants
- cross-claims
- secondary processes — for example, interlocutory matters, breaches of penalties (that is, bail, suspended sentences, probation)
- applications for default judgments (because the application is a secondary process).

Source: SCRCSSP (2003), p.6.17.

Nationally, in the criminal jurisdiction in 2004-05, there were 774 900 lodgments registered in the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts; approximately

1.4 million unpaid infringement notices in electronic courts; and 21 200 reported deaths and fires in the coroners courts (table 6.2).

Reporting rates for deaths reported to a coroner varied as a result of different reporting requirements. Deaths in institutions (such as nursing homes) of persons suffering intellectual impairment of any kind, for example, must be reported in SA but not in other jurisdictions. Reporting requirements also vary for fires. Fires may be reported and investigated at the discretion of the coroner in Victoria, but were excluded from the coroner's jurisdiction in 2004-05 in Queensland, WA, SA and the NT. A disaggregation of coroners court data by reported deaths and fires is in table 6A.1.

Table 6.2 Court lodgments — criminal, by court level, 2004-05 ('000)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates (total) ^b	193.1	142.3	177.0	78.6	74.7	60.4	5.4	11.9	743.6
<i>Magistrates (only)</i>	181.8	134.0	166.2	71.1	67.9	58.8	5.0	10.9	695.7
<i>Children's</i>	11.3	8.3	10.8	7.5	6.8	1.6	0.5	1.0	47.9
District/county ^b	10.4	4.9	7.1	2.5	1.3	26.3
Supreme	0.6	0.7	1.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	5.0
All criminal courts	204.1	147.9	185.8	81.6	76.5	61.0	5.7	12.3	774.9
Elec. infringement and enforcement systems ^c	..	698.0	422.4	194.5	126.1	1 441.1
Coroners courts	5.8	4.6	3.0	1.4	4.0	0.6	1.4	0.3	21.2

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b In Queensland, some children's court matters are heard in the district court. As a result, the inclusion of all children's court matters in the magistrates court will lead to a slight overestimation of the magistrates court total and an underestimation of the district court total. ^c Only Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA have electronic infringement and enforcement systems. 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). Excludes unpaid court fines. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.1.

Nationally, in the civil jurisdiction in 2004-05, there were 657 400 cases lodged in the State and Territory supreme, district/county and magistrates courts (excluding federal courts), with an additional 55 400 probate lodgments in the supreme court (table 6.3). Also in 2004-05, there were 4500 cases lodged in the Federal Court and 80 400 cases lodged in the Federal Magistrates Court. Around 53 300 forms were filed in the family courts.

Table 6.3 Court lodgments — civil, by court level, 2004-05 ('000)^a

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^b	213.7	185.5	90.0	52.1	32.3	11.9	7.2	6.2	..	598.7
<i>Magistrates (only)</i> ^b	207.6	182.9	85.4	51.4	31.4	11.7	6.9	6.1	..	583.3
<i>Children's</i>	6.1	2.6	4.6	0.7	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.1	..	15.4
District/county	7.2	5.5	7.4	3.5	3.0	26.6
Supreme (excl probate) ^c	12.9	6.5	5.4	3.0	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.3	4.5	36.6
All civil courts	233.8	197.4	102.9	58.5	36.7	13.2	8.3	6.5	4.5	661.9
Federal Magistrates	80.4	80.4
Family courts	15.5	37.8	53.3
Probate — supreme courts	22.0	15.4	5.8	4.9	4.6	2.1	0.6	0.1	..	55.4

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b The Victorian data include 72 055 applications lodged in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal, whilst applications for an intervention order made in the children's court have been reported under the magistrates court lodgments. ^c The supreme court data in Queensland have been extrapolated. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.2.

The number of lodgments per 100 000 people can be used to assist in understanding the comparative workload of a court (in relation to the size of the State or Territory population). Tables 6A.3 and 6A.4 provide data on criminal and civil lodgments (per 100 000 people) respectively for each state and territory.

Distribution of court lodgments

The majority of criminal matters in Australia in 2004-05 were lodged in the magistrates courts, and this was also the case for civil matters (table 6.4). Whilst a greater proportion of criminal matters were lodged in the district court compared to the supreme court, the opposite was true for civil matters.

Table 6.4 **Distribution of court lodgments, by court level, 2004–05^a**

	<i>Unit</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Criminal courts</i>										
Magistrates (total) ^b	%	94.6	96.2	95.3	96.3	97.7	99.1	95.4	97.0	96.0
District/county ^b	%	5.1	3.3	3.8	3.1	1.8	3.4
Supreme	%	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.9	4.6	3.0	0.7
All courts^c	'000	204.1	147.9	185.8	81.6	76.5	61.0	5.7	12.3	774.9
<i>Civil courts</i>										
Magistrates (total)	%	91.4	93.9	87.5	88.9	87.9	89.8	86.6	94.9	90.5
District/county	%	3.1	2.8	7.2	6.0	8.1	4.0
Supreme ^d	%	5.5	3.3	5.3	5.0	4.0	10.2	13.4	5.1	4.9
All courts^e	'000	233.8	197.4	102.9	58.5	36.7	13.2	8.3	6.5	657.4

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b In Queensland, some children's court matters are heard in the district court. As a result, the inclusion of all children's court matters in the magistrates court will lead to a slight overestimation of the magistrates court total and an underestimation of the district court total. ^c Excludes electronic infringement and enforcement systems and coroners courts to provide a more meaningful comparison across jurisdictions. ^d Excludes probate matters. ^e Excludes data for the family courts, the Federal Magistrates Court and the Federal Court. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.1–2.

Finalisations

Finalisations represent the completion of matters in the court system. Each lodgment can be finalised only once. Matters may be finalised by adjudication, transfer or another non-adjudicated method (such as withdrawal of a matter by the prosecution, or settlement by the court or an external mediator).

Tables 6.5 (criminal) and 6.6 (civil) outline the number of finalisations in 2004-05, by court level, for the Australian Government and each State and Territory. Lodgments need not equal finalisations in any given year because not all matters lodged in one year will be finalised in the same year.

In 2004-05, there were: 745 000 criminal finalisations in the magistrates, district/county and supreme courts; approximately 1.6 million electronic court unpaid infringement notice finalisations; and 18 800 finalisations (involving reported deaths and fires) in the coroners court (table 6.5).

In 2004-05, 581 400 civil cases were finalised in the State and Territory magistrates, district/county and supreme courts (excluding federal courts). The Federal Court finalised 4 300 cases, the Federal Magistrates Court finalised 77 300 matters (mainly family law forms plus some federal law cases) and the family courts finalised 56 000 forms (table 6.6). The WA Family Court processes a mixture of work that includes elements of the work dealt with by the different federal courts.

Table 6.5 Court finalisations — criminal, 2004-05 ('000)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates (total) ^b	189.5	138.7	168.5	86.3	63.1	51.1	6.0	12.5	715.7
<i>Magistrates (only)</i>	178.1	130.7	158.0	78.1	57.3	49.8	5.5	11.3	668.8
<i>Children's^c</i>	11.5	8.0	10.5	8.2	5.8	1.3	0.5	1.2	46.9
District/county ^{b, c}	9.9	4.6	6.0	2.7	1.3	24.5
Supreme ^c	0.7	0.6	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.4	4.8
All criminal courts	200.2	143.9	176.0	89.5	64.8	51.6	6.2	12.9	745.0
Elec. infringement and enforcement systems ^d	..	1027.8	366.4	95.5	92.8	1582.5
Coroners courts	4.7	4.3	3.0	1.1	3.4	0.6	1.4	0.3	18.8

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b In Queensland, some children's court matters are heard in the district court. As a result, the inclusion of all children's court matters in the magistrates court will lead to a slight overestimation of the magistrates court total and an underestimation of the district court total. ^c Queensland finalisations data are extrapolated. ^d Only Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA have electronic infringement and enforcement systems. 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). Excludes unpaid court fines. .. Not applicable.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.5.

Table 6.6 Court finalisations — civil, 2004-05 ('000)^a

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic^e</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT^e</i>	<i>Aust crts^e</i>	<i>Total</i>
Magistrates (total) ^{b, c}	189.3	156.1	91.1	33.9	25.7	11.9	7.3	4.2	..	519.7
<i>Magistrates (only)^{b, c}</i>	183.5	153.7	86.6	33.2	24.8	11.7	7.1	4.1	..	504.7
<i>Children's</i>	5.8	2.4	4.6	0.7	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.1	..	15.0
District/county ^c	8.3	8.4	7.7	3.9	3.0	31.4
Supreme/Federal ^{c, d}	12.4	6.2	4.8	2.5	0.9	1.8	1.4	0.4	4.3	34.7
All civil courts	210.0	170.7	103.7	40.3	29.7	13.7	8.7	4.6	4.3	585.7
Federal Magistrates	77.3	77.3
Family	12.6	43.4	56.0

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b The Victorian data include 72 381 applications finalised in the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^c Queensland finalisations data are extrapolated. ^d The supreme court data excludes finalisations of probate cases. ^e In the Victorian magistrates court, the NT courts and the Australian courts the 12 month deeming rule for inactive cases has not been used. This may result in an underestimate of the finalised cases according to the Report's counting rules for these courts. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities/departments (unpublished); table 6A.6.

The number of finalisations per 100 000 people is available in tables 6A.7 and 6A.8.

6.2 Framework of performance indicators

The framework of performance indicators is based on common objectives for court administration services across Australia (box 6.5). The emphasis placed on each objective varies across jurisdictions.

Box 6.5 Objectives for court administration

Objectives for court administration are:

- to be open and accessible
- to process matters in an expeditious and timely manner
- to provide due process and equal protection before the law
- to be independent yet publicly accountable for performance.

In addition, all governments aim to provide court administration services in an efficient manner.

The performance indicator framework

The performance indicator framework is shown in figure 6.3. For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (section 1.6).

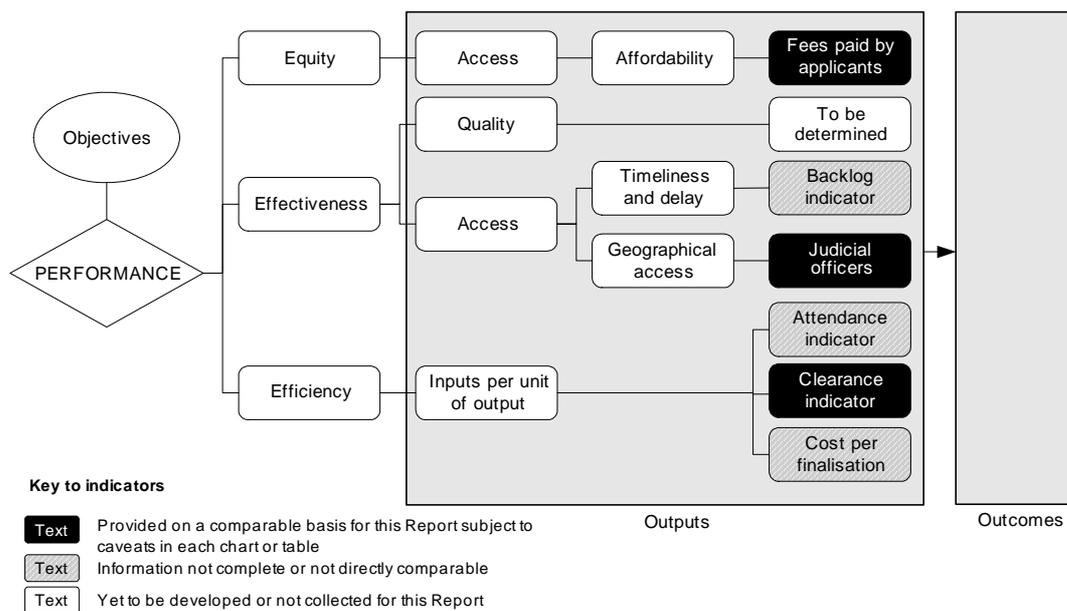
Each indicator in the performance indicator framework is briefly described below:

- *fees paid by applicants* — an indicator of access that measures the average fees paid per lodgment
- *backlog indicator* — a measure of timeliness that relates the age of each court's pending caseload to timeliness standards
- *judicial officers* — the number of judicial officers is a measure of resources (that is, the number of officers who can make enforceable orders of the court). It also indicates access to the judicial system
- *attendance indicator* — a measure of efficiency that records the number of attendances by the parties or their representatives, for each finalised matter
- *clearance rate* — a measure of whether the court is keeping up with its workload. It is the number of finalisations divided by the number of lodgments (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage)
- *cost per finalisation* — a measure of efficiency that shows the average net recurrent expenditure per finalisation.

A full description of each indicator is provided when the corresponding data are reported in the key performance indicator results (section 6.3).

As shown in figure 6.3, there are no outcome indicators for court administration. The activities of court administrators lead to broader justice-wide outcomes that are not readily picked up in this service-specific chapter. There is ongoing work to develop outcome measures for court administration.

Figure 6.3 Performance indicator framework for court administration



6.3 Key performance indicator results

Different delivery locations, case loads, case types and government policies may affect the equity, effectiveness and efficiency of court administration services. The allocation of cases to different courts also differs across jurisdictions. Performance comparison across states and territories and Australian courts for specific indicators needs to account for these factors. Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

This data collection is based on national counting rules, so data presented in this chapter may differ from data published by individual jurisdictions in their annual reports. There also may be differences from the data reported in the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) *Criminal Courts* publication (ABS 2005).

The Steering Committee focuses on providing the best available data in a timely fashion. Jurisdictions, when signing off the data, acknowledge that the data have been supplied according to the nationally agreed counting rules. Where a jurisdiction advises that it has diverged from these counting rules, this divergence is appropriately footnoted in the table and surrounding text.

The Steering Committee recognises, however, that this collection (unlike some other data collections) does not have an intermediary data collector or validator akin to the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare or the ABS. The reporting process in this chapter is one of continual improvement and refinement, with the long term aim of ensuring a national data collection that covers court activities across the Australian, State and Territory jurisdictions in a timely and comparable way.

Outputs

Equity — fees paid by applicants

A description of this indicator is contained in box 6.6.

Box 6.6 Fees paid by applicants

This indicator of access shows the average fees paid per lodgment.

Court fees are only part of the costs faced by applicants (with legal fees being more significant). Court filing fees largely relate to civil cases.

In 2004-05, average court fees collected per lodgment were generally greater in supreme courts than in district/county and magistrate courts (table 6.7).

Differences in average fees arise between states, territories and federal jurisdictions for many reasons and caution should be used in making direct comparisons. For example, in all NSW civil jurisdictions corporations are charged twice the applicable fee payable by private individuals. Therefore, the ‘average’ fees for NSW in table 6.7 are substantially higher than the actual fees paid by private individuals. Similarly, the Family Court of WA does elements of work of both the Federal Magistrates Court and the Family Court of Australia, so direct comparisons with either are not possible.

Table 6.7 Average civil court fees collected per lodgment, 2004-05 (dollars)

	NSW ^a	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^b	127	78	96	59	93	54	58	58	..	96
<i>Magistrates (only)</i>	131	79	101	59	96	55	60	59	..	99
<i>Children's courts</i>	1	..	–	10	5	–	..	1
District/county	1 385	1 060	446	659	446	856
Supreme/Federal	1 452	1 196	446	1 060	928	365	804	485	1 108	1 093
Probate — supreme	717	235	445	461	599	283	586	300	..	504
Federal Magistrates	152	152
Family courts ^c	101	61	72

^a In NSW, corporations are charged twice the amount individuals are charged, therefore the average fees do not represent the charge to individuals. ^b The Victorian magistrates court fees include civil and criminal court fees (though the criminal component is relatively small), and fees paid through the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^c Many of the Family Court of Australia's applications do not attract a fee. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.16.

The level of cost recovery from the collection of court fees varied across court levels and across jurisdictions in 2004-05 (table 6.8). Nationally for the states and territories, the proportion of costs recovered via court fees was greatest in the magistrates courts, followed by the district/county courts and then the supreme courts.

Table 6.8 Civil court fees collected as a proportion of civil recurrent expenditure (cost recovery), 2004-05 (per cent)^a

	NSW ^b	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts	Total
Magistrates (total) ^c	42.2	45.6	35.9	18.8	25.2	43.6	9.7	6.8	..	36.3
<i>Magistrates (only)</i> ^c	45.3	52.2	38.9	19.5	26.5	43.6	10.5	7.0	..	39.2
<i>Children's courts</i>	0.1	..	–	1.2	0.7	0.1
District/county	32.0	23.9	45.6	17.1	17.9	27.2
Supreme/Federal ^d	32.8	30.7	18.2	18.3	13.4	14.9	22.6	3.5	6.2	18.6
Federal Magistrates	28.9	28.9
Family ^e	9.3	2.0	2.9

^a Recurrent expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b In NSW, corporations are charged twice the amount individuals are charged, therefore the average fees do not represent the charge to individuals. ^c The Victorian magistrates court fees include civil and criminal court fees (though the criminal component is relatively small), and fees paid through the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^d Excludes probate costs. ^e Many of the Family Court of Australia's applications do not attract a fee. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.15.

Effectiveness — quality

The Steering Committee has identified quality as an important measure of court administration performance (box 6.7).

Box 6.7 Indicators of quality

Indicators of quality for court administration have not yet been identified. The perceptions of court users about the quality of the services delivered by courts may be strongly influenced by the outcomes of judicial decisions (which are not the subject of this chapter). Isolating perceptions of the quality of court administration may be difficult.

Effectiveness — Backlog indicator

There is one indicator of timeliness and delay: ‘backlog’. This indicator is a measure of case processing timeliness (box 6.8). Timeliness is the time taken between the lodgment of a matter with the court and its finalisation.

Timeliness results can be affected by the complexity and distribution of cases, which may vary across jurisdictions (boxes 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3). Additionally, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT have a two-tier court system (that is, they do not have a district/county court), whereas the other jurisdictions have a three-tier court system. This difference needs to be taken into account when comparing timeliness performance.

Timeliness can also be affected by delays caused by factors other than those related to the workload of the court (for example, a witness not being available).

Box 6.8 Backlog indicator

The 'backlog indicator' measures a court's pending caseload against time standards.

The indicator recognises that case processing must take some time and that such time does not necessarily equal delay. Timeliness can be affected by delays caused by factors other than those related to the workload of the court (for example, a witness not being available).

The following national standards have been set:

Magistrates, children's and coroners courts and the Federal Magistrates Court:

- no more than 10 per cent of lodgments pending completion are to be more than 6 months old.
- No lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old.

District, supreme and family courts, the Federal Court and all appeals:

- no more than 10 per cent of lodgments pending completion are to be more than 12 months old.
- no lodgments pending completion are to be more than 24 months old.

Data on the backlog indicator for criminal matters is contained in table 6.9. In the criminal jurisdiction, those defendants who failed to appear when required and had bench warrants issued have been excluded from the pending caseload count.

In the criminal courts the greatest difficulty in meeting the national time standards is experienced in the coroners courts (table 6.9). Key factors that contribute to backlog in the coroners courts are:

- delays in other agencies beyond the control of the Coroner
- an increase in workload
- referrals for expert input
- increased complexity of cases.

Table 6.9 **Backlog indicator — all criminal matters, 2004-05**

	<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>
Higher^a — appeal									
Pending caseload	no.	1 345	1 078	412	171	97	8	31	19
Cases > 12 mths	%	4.6	13.6	20.4	11.1	4.1	—	6.5	—
Cases > 24 mths	%	1.1	3.6	6.1	3.5	—	—	—	—
Higher^a — non-appeal									
Pending caseload	no.	2 533	1 919	2 706	2 194	1 127	235	150	122
Cases > 12 mths	%	16.0	14.1	18.5	29.4	25.2	11.9	12.7	27.9
Cases > 24 mths	%	2.8	3.1	5.9	7.7	8.0	1.3	1.3	13.1
Supreme — appeal									
Pending caseload	no.	205	325	104	171	97	8	31	19
Cases > 12 mths	%	11.2	28.0	1.0	11.1	4.1	—	6.5	—
Cases > 24 mths	%	5.4	4.6	—	3.5	—	—	—	—
Supreme — non-appeal^b									
Pending caseload	no.	113	110	364	178	97	235	150	122
Cases > 12 mths	%	23.0	13.6	13.7	28.1	24.7	11.9	12.7	27.9
Cases > 24 mths	%	9.7	8.2	4.9	14.6	9.3	1.3	1.3	13.1
District/county — appeal^c									
Pending caseload	no.	1140	753	308
Cases > 12 mths	%	3.4	7.4	26.9
Cases > 24 mths	%	0.4	3.2	8.1
District/county — non-appeal									
Pending caseload	no.	2 420	1 809	2 342	2 016	1 030
Cases > 12 mths	%	15.7	14.1	19.2	29.5	25.2
Cases > 24 mths	%	2.4	2.8	6.1	7.1	7.9
Magistrates^d									
Pending caseload	no.	17 994	26 471	31 356	9 348	26 891	18 292	1 594	na
Cases > 6 mths	%	10.3	17.6	26.5	31.2	27.8	16.7	18.3	na
Cases >12 mths	%	2.5	4.7	11.5	11.7	15.2	6.5	6.1	na
Children's									
Pending caseload	no.	1 540	1 562	2 322	1 144	1 483	632	148	na
Cases > 6 mths	%	10.8	8.2	26.6	22.8	23.3	24.5	16.2	na
Cases >12 mths	%	1.6	1.5	10.7	7.5	12.9	6.6	6.1	na
Coroners									
Pending caseload	no.	4 248	2 931	2 043	864	803	246	195	229
Cases > 6 mths	%	57.3	51.2	44.7	55.0	50.4	36.6	42.1	37.6
Cases >12 mths	%	39.5	30.7	25.3	28.7	28.8	17.5	30.3	17.9

^a Higher refers to supreme and district/county courts combined. ^b In NSW, the criminal casemix of the Supreme Court is principally murder and manslaughter cases and therefore not directly comparable with supreme courts in other states and territories. ^c There is no criminal appellate jurisdiction in the district courts in WA or SA. All criminal appeals from the magistrates courts go directly to the supreme courts in these states. ^d The criminal pending caseload figures for the NSW Magistrates Court and NSW Children's Court are extrapolated. na Not available. .. Not applicable. — Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.17.

Timeliness in civil cases can be affected by several factors (box 6.9).

Box 6.9 Civil timeliness factors

The following factors may affect the timeliness of cases in the civil courts:

- where civil cases are contested, a single case may involve several related applications or issues that require judgments and decisions by the court
- the parties to a case can significantly affect the conduct and timeliness of a case — that is, matters often may be adjourned at the instigation of, and by the consent of, the parties. Such consent arrangements are outside the control of the court
- the court may employ case management or other dispute resolution processes (for example, mediation) that are alternatives to formal adjudication
- an inactive case is regarded as finalised (or closed) one year after the last action on the case (as per the Report's rules for this data collection)

Timeliness in criminal cases (and for some civil cases) can also be affected by orders or programs that are initiated following a court lodgment, but prior to a court finalisation. These programs or orders are commonly referred to as diversion programs and are outlined in more detail in box 6.10.

Different case completion times in the civil jurisdiction of the states and territories generally reflect different case flow management practices, the individual needs of cases, and the priority given to criminal matters.

Data on the backlog indicator for civil matters is contained in table 6.10. In the civil jurisdiction, those lodgments that have not been acted upon in the past 12 months are counted as finalised for the purpose of this Report, the aim being to focus on those matters that are part of an 'active pending' population (see section 6.6 for definitions). For this Report, the Victorian magistrates courts and the NT have not applied this deeming rule, which may result in an increased pending caseload with longer duration. Some courts (for example, the federal courts) proactively manage their civil cases. Consequently, cases that, by their nature, cannot be finalised for a lengthy period are not deemed finalised, but continue to be monitored from time to time by these courts.

Box 6.10 **Diversion programs and the impact on timeliness**

Courts offer diversion programs to improve the quality of outcomes within the justice system and for the community generally. Diversion programs can involve processes that are outside the control of court administration. The period between lodgment and finalisation can be affected by those processes.

Within the criminal justice system, diversion programs are usually focussed on rehabilitation for the defendant and/or restoration for the victim. They are most often (but not exclusively) used in the Magistrates court, and usually are voluntary. Examples include:

- referral of defendants to drug programs (from counselling through to treatment programs) is available in all states and territories except Tasmania
- referral of defendants to a mental health court (Queensland, WA and SA) or for various mental health assessments (NSW and the ACT)
- referral of defendants to a family violence court (WA, SA and Tasmania) for participation in targeted programs
- referral of defendants to a Koori court (Victoria and SA), a Murri court (Queensland) or circle sentencing (NSW and the ACT).

The processes listed above can range in completion times between one week and seven years. With some diversion programs, success will delay finalisation significantly. For example, some drug court programs can require compliance for up to 12 months before the defendant is considered as having completed the program.

Within the civil justice system, diversion programs can be a quicker and cheaper form of dispute resolution. Mediation and arbitration are the usual diversion programs available:

- mediation referrals can be made at any time during the proceedings. A court may require parties to complete a mediation program within a specified time, or can consider the timeframe to be 'open-ended' (for example, referrals from the Federal Court to the Native Title Tribunal). Completion time can also be affected by the complexity of the dispute and the number of parties involved and can therefore vary significantly from case to case. Usually all parties consent to use mediation, but in some states parties can be ordered to mediate their dispute.
- arbitration referrals are usually made early in the proceedings and the court supervises the process. The hearing is shorter than a court hearing. Participation can be voluntary or by order.

Success at mediation (settlement of the case) or at arbitration (acceptance of the arbitrator's award) generally finalises cases earlier than if finalised by judgment. Where the mediation or arbitration is unsuccessful, the delaying effect on finalisation is highly variable.

Table 6.10 Backlog indicator — all civil matters, 2004-05

	<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 crts</i>
Higher^a — appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	783	366	1014	460	16	123	40	59	662
<i>cases > 12 mths</i>	%	11.2	29.5	29.2	28.9	—	9.8	12.5	16.9	13.6
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	2.0	3.8	12.0	3.7	—	—	5.0	8.5	3.2
Higher^a — non-appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	15 081	11 862	12 139	6 103	3 741	1 889	1 193	262	3 354
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	29.1	41.1	40.6	36.1	29.8	48.4	47.8	60.3	54.9
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	13.1	12.9	22.9	18.3	12.2	27.7	21.7	30.9	32.8
Supreme/Federal — appeal^b										
Pending caseload	no.	739	319	90	333	9	123	40	59	662
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	10.4	33.9	1.1	27.9	—	9.8	12.5	16.9	13.6
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	1.8	4.4	—	3.9	—	—	5.0	8.5	3.2
Supreme/Federal — non-appeal^b										
Pending caseload	no.	7 086	4 432	5 239	2 627	1 014	1 889	1 193	262	3 354
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	28.6	28.7	41.5	38.4	26.8	48.4	47.8	60.3	54.9
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	15.6	9.0	23.0	20.1	9.8	27.7	21.7	30.9	32.8
District — appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	44	47	924	127	7
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	25.0	—	31.9	31.5	—
<i>cases >24 mths</i>	%	6.8	—	13.2	3.1	—
District — non-appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	7 995	7 430	6 900	3 476	2 727
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	29.4	48.4	39.9	34.4	30.9
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	10.9	15.2	22.9	17.0	13.1
Family — appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	70	256
<i>cases >12 mths</i>	%	—	23.8
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	—	11.7
Family — non-appeal										
Pending caseload	no.	10 904	18 967
<i>cases > 12 mths</i>	%	72.4	40.5
<i>cases > 24 mths</i>	%	19.9	20.3
Magistrates^c										
Pending caseload	no.	na	13 668	39 522	956	19 235	5 529	2 992	na	..
<i>cases > 6 mths</i>	%	na	21.0	41.4	44.4	42.5	36.2	47.3	na	..
<i>cases > 12 mths</i>	%	na	10.5	9.0	26.2	17.5	4.4	14.4	na	..
Federal Magistrates										
Pending caseload	no.	28 356
<i>cases > 6 mths</i>	%	18.4
<i>cases > 12 mths</i>	%	12.2

^a Higher includes state and territory supreme courts, the Federal Court and district/county courts. ^b The NSW Supreme Court has done extensive work specifically for this year's Report to confine the reported backlogs to those cases that qualify for inclusion under the Report's counting rules. ^c Excludes children's courts. na Not available. .. Not applicable. — Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.18.

Effectiveness — judicial officers

This indicator relates access to the number of judicial officers available to deal with cases (box 6.11).

Box 6.11 Judicial officers

The 'judicial officers' indicator is a simple way of representing resources (that is, the number of officers who can make enforceable orders of the court). For the purposes of this chapter, the definition of a judicial officer includes:

- judges
- magistrates
- masters
- coroners
- judicial registrars
- all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court.

Numbers are expressed in full time equivalent terms and based on the proportion of time spent on judicial functions. They are also presented in comparison to the population of each jurisdiction.

A higher proportion of judicial officers in the population indicates potentially greater access to the judicial system.

The number of full time equivalent judicial officers for each court level is outlined in table 6.11. In all State and Territory jurisdictions with a three-tier system, there were more judicial officers in the magistrates courts than in the district/county courts, and more officers in the district/county courts than in the supreme courts. Table 6.12 shows the number of judicial officers per 100 000 people.

Table 6.11 Judicial officers, full time equivalent, 2004-05^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 crts</i>	<i>Total</i>
Supreme/Federal	61.9	39.0	22.3	28.7	15.7	6.8	5.6	7.9	53.0	240.9
District/county	77.0	54.9	29.4	31.1	18.7	211.2
Magistrates	114.0	117.0	65.2	42.7	33.6	11.7	6.4	11.8	..	402.5
Children's	12.0	8.0	7.2	4.5	4.0	0.6	1.1	1.2	..	38.6
Coroners	5.0	5.0	5.6	2.0	1.0	0.2	0.4	1.5	..	20.7
Family	13.2	54.9	68.1
Federal Magistrates	32.0	32.0
Total^b	269.9	223.9	129.7	122.2	73.0	19.3	13.5	22.4	139.9	1 013.9

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b Excludes electronic infringement and enforcement systems as they do not have open court sittings and therefore do not require judicial officers. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration departments (unpublished); table 6A.20.

Table 6.12 Judicial officers, full time equivalent, per 100 000 people, 2004-05^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 crts</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Population ('000)^b</i>	6 770	5 008	3 924	1 999	1 538	482	326	201	..	20 252
<i>Judicial officers per 100 000 people</i>										
Supreme/Federal	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.7	3.9	0.3	1.2
District/county	1.1	1.1	0.8	1.6	1.2	1.0
Magistrates	1.7	2.3	1.7	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.0	5.9	..	2.0
Children's	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.6	..	0.2
Coroners	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.7	..	0.1
Family	0.7	0.3	0.3
Federal Magistrates	0.2	0.2
Total^c	4.0	4.5	3.3	6.1	4.7	4.0	4.2	11.1	0.7	5.0

^a Totals may not add as a result of rounding. ^b Population data is the average of the four quarters over the 2004–05 financial year. ^c Excludes electronic infringement and enforcement systems as they do not have open court sittings and therefore do not require judicial officers. .. Not applicable. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration departments (unpublished); table 6A.20.

Efficiency — Attendance indicator

The Steering Committee has identified the number of court attendances required as an efficiency measure (box 6.12).

Box 6.12 Attendance indicator

The attendance indicator is a measure of efficiency.

The number of attendances is the number of times that parties or their representatives are required to be present in court to be heard by a judicial officer or mediator/arbitrator (including appointments that are adjourned or rescheduled).

This year's chapter presents the total number of finalisations during the year for each court and the number of attendances associated with these matters (no matter when the attendance occurred). This approach simply represents an average number of attendances per finalisation.

Attendance data can be difficult to collect. Due to system limitations, some jurisdictions supply data on listed hearings rather than actual attendances in court.

Attendance data are reported in table 6.13 and table 6.14.

Table 6.13 Attendance indicator — criminal, 2004-05^a

	<i>NSW^b</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld^c</i>	<i>WA^d</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT^d</i>	<i>NT</i>
<i>Average attendances per finalisation</i>								
Supreme	na	2.3	3.7	4.1	4.8	6.2	5.0	7.6
District/county	na	5.0	5.7	4.8	5.5
Magistrates	na	3.3	1.9	2.2	2.9	2.0	4.1	3.2
Children's	na	3.4	2.4	2.8	3.3	4.5	5.0	5.1
Coroners	na	0.1	na	0.1	—	—	0.1	0.1

^a Excludes data for the electronic infringement and enforcement systems. ^b NSW data are not available. ^c Queensland data are extrapolated. ^d Total number of attendances based on total number of listings. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable. **—** Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.19.

In the context of the attendance indicator, it is important to note that Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) can resolve certain matters out of court and thereby reduce the need for judicial hearings. Accordingly, differences between and within jurisdictions in the availability and use of ADR can affect the comparability of the attendance indicator.

Table 6.14 Attendance indicator — civil, 2004-05

	NSW ^a	Vic	Qld ^b	WA ^c	SA	Tas	ACT ^c	NT	Aust courts
<i>Average attendances per finalisation</i>									
Supreme ^d	na	1.4	1.4	4.0	4.5	na	4.2	3.5	3.5
District/county	na	1.6	0.8	3.4	4.8
Magistrates	na	1.1	0.8	0.5	1.2	na	1.4	2.1	..
Children's	na	1.0	2.0	5.2	1.9	na	5.4	2.6	..
Federal Magistrates ^e	1.7
Family	1.7	2.9

^a NSW data are not available. ^b Queensland data are extrapolated. ^c Total number of attendances based on total number of listings. ^d Excludes probate matters. ^e Federal Magistrates excludes responses to applications. **na** Not available. **..** Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.19.

Efficiency — clearance rate

This indicator is a measure of efficiency in processing the inflow of cases through the court (box 6.13).

Box 6.13 Clearance rate

The 'clearance rate' measures whether a court is keeping up with its workload.

The indicator is the number of finalisations in the reporting period, divided by the number of lodgments in the same period (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).

The following can assist in interpretation of this indicator:

- a figure of 100 per cent indicates that the court, during the reporting period, finalised as many cases as were lodged
- a figure greater than 100 per cent means the pending caseload of the court is decreasing
- a figure less than 100 per cent means the pending caseload of the court is increasing.

The clearance rate can be affected by external factors (such as changes in legislation), as well as by changes in a court's case management practices.

All matters

Table 6.15 contains information on the clearance rates for all court matters (both criminal and civil) in 2004-05.

Table 6.15 Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), all matters, 2004-05 (per cent)

	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust courts
Supreme									
Criminal	113.3	94.1	87.7	88.4	98.6	98.0	76.2	108.7	..
Civil ^a	96.4	95.0	88.7	84.6	63.3	131.7	125.3	115.4	95.0
<i>Total</i>	97.2	94.9	88.5	85.2	71.2	121.8	115.9	111.8	95.0
District/county									
Criminal	95.4	92.6	85.2	107.6	95.9
Civil ^b	115.2	152.4	105.1	111.1	102.3
<i>Total</i>	103.5	124.1	95.3	109.6	100.3
Magistrates									
Criminal	97.9	97.5	95.1	109.9	84.4	84.7	110.4	103.9	..
Civil	88.4	84.0	101.4	64.7	78.9	100.7	102.5	67.5	..
<i>Total</i>	92.8	89.7	97.2	90.9	82.7	87.3	105.8	90.9	..
Children's									
Criminal	101.4	96.2	96.8	109.2	85.2	81.4	103.0	115.4	..
Civil	95.9	95.6	98.6	97.5	104.2	90.6	88.2	131.4	..
<i>Total</i>	99.5	96.1	97.4	108.2	87.3	82.5	97.1	116.9	..
Electronic ^c	..	147.2	86.7	49.1	73.6
Coroners	81.6	93.5	97.6	72.7	84.5	99.7	99.6	105.0	..
Family	81.7	114.6
Federal Magistrates	96.2

^a Excludes probate matters. ^b In Victoria, there has been a decrease in the number of cases lodged in 2004-05 compared to 2003-04. This decrease was due to the influx of writs filed before the cut off date of 30 September 2003, as a result of changes to the Wrongs Act (Wrongs and Limitations of Actions Acts (Insurance Reform) Act 2003). ^c The clearance rate relates to unpaid infringement notices. Excludes unpaid court fines. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.1-2, 6A.5-6, and 6A.21-22.

Appeal and non-appeal matters

Where relevant, the clearance rate data have been disaggregated between appeal and non-appeal matters. Table 6.16 provides clearance rates for non-appeal matters in 2004-05. Table 6.17 contains the clearance rates for appeal matters (both criminal and civil) in 2004-05.

Table 6.16 **Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), non-appeal matters, 2004-05 (per cent)**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust courts</i>
Supreme									
Criminal	115.3	77.9	81.5	83.7	80.0	98.1	74.9	109.4	..
Civil ^a	96.6	95.2	88.1	86.8	62.0	146.6	126.9	117.0	98.7
<i>Total</i>	<i>96.8</i>	<i>94.6</i>	<i>86.9</i>	<i>86.5</i>	<i>63.3</i>	<i>131.5</i>	<i>118.3</i>	<i>112.0</i>	<i>98.7</i>
District/county									
Criminal	90.1	90.4	86.7	107.6	95.9
Civil ^b	115.6	154.4	107.6	110.3	102.1
<i>Total</i>	<i>106.8</i>	<i>133.5</i>	<i>97.0</i>	<i>109.2</i>	<i>100.1</i>
Family	81.9	114.9

^a Excludes probate matters. ^b In Victoria, there has been a decrease in the number of cases lodged in 2004-05 compared to 2003-04. This decrease was due to the influx of writs filed before the cut off date of 30 September 2003, as a result of changes to the Wrongs Act (Wrongs and Limitations Of Actions Acts (Insurance Reform) Act 2003). .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.21–22.

Table 6.17 **Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), appeal matters, 2004-05 (per cent)**

	<i>NSW</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust courts</i>
Supreme									
Criminal	112.9	101.8	104.8	93.5	105.0	96.0	80.6	100.0	..
Civil	94.5	91.3	99.3	69.8	81.9	20.8	106.9	113.5	86.2
<i>Total</i>	<i>100.3</i>	<i>97.2</i>	<i>102.6</i>	<i>79.2</i>	<i>99.8</i>	<i>31.0</i>	<i>96.0</i>	<i>111.3</i>	<i>86.2</i>
District/county									
Criminal ^a	98.5	95.0	57.7
Civil	72.6	96.3	85.1	133.0	112.3
<i>Total</i>	<i>98.2</i>	<i>95.1</i>	<i>76.8</i>	<i>133.0</i>	<i>112.3</i>
Family	50.0	88.5

^a Appeals are not heard in the district/county courts in WA or SA, instead they are referred to the supreme courts in these states. .. Not applicable.

Source: Australian, State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.21–22.

Efficiency — cost per finalisation

This indicator is a measure of efficiency (box 6.14). Cost is measured as net recurrent expenditure excluding payroll tax. Net expenditure refers to expenditure minus income (where income is derived from court fees and other revenue but excludes fines).

Box 6.14 Cost per finalisation

The cost per finalisation is calculated by dividing the total net recurrent expenditure within each court for the financial year, by the total number of finalisations for the same period.

It is an imperfect measure of an individual jurisdiction's efficiency. The following points need to be considered in interpreting the cost per finalisation efficiency results:

- some finalisations take only a short time and require few resources, whereas other finalisations may be resource intensive and involve complicated trials
- the finalisation of a case may not provide a true indication of the resources expended by the court, because any one case may involve several related applications or issues that require judgments and decisions by the court
- lodgments in the civil jurisdiction that have not been acted upon in the last 12 months are counted (deemed) as finalised (with the exception of the federal courts, the Victorian magistrates courts and the NT in 2004-05)
- the expenditure provided may include arbitrary financial splits between criminal and civil jurisdictions
- the income deducted from court expenditure includes court fees, which in some jurisdictions are set by government and not by the court administrators
- a number of factors are beyond the control of jurisdictions, such as geographic dispersion, economies of scale and socioeconomic factors
- the efficiency results need to be viewed in light of the performance indicator framework as a whole, because there can be trade-offs between equity, effectiveness and efficiency.

Net expenditure per finalisation for total magistrates courts (including children's courts)

Nationally, net expenditure per criminal finalisation was greater than the net expenditure per civil finalisation for the magistrates courts. This was the case across each of the states and territories with the exception of the NT. However, the NT has not been able to apply the deeming rule to its civil cases and this may have resulted in an under-estimation of finalisations in the civil jurisdiction, which would have the effect of increasing the derived expenditure per finalisation in the civil jurisdiction.

The analysis of the magistrates court efficiency in figure 6.4 excludes electronic infringement and enforcement system expenditure and finalisations. Box 6.15 shows the impact of including electronic infringement and enforcement systems within the efficiency results of the magistrates courts.

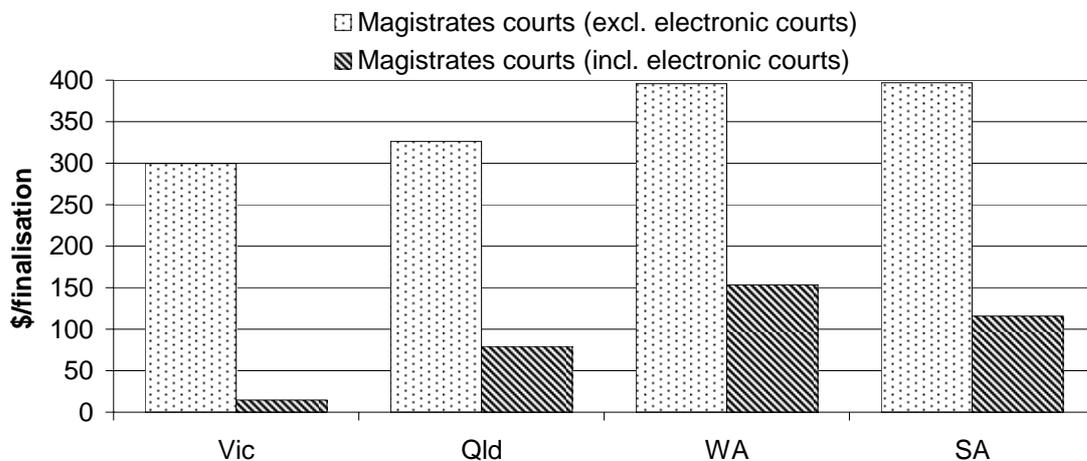
Box 6.15 The impact of the electronic infringement and enforcement systems on the magistrates courts

All State, Territory and Australian jurisdictions operate tribunals and specialist courts, partly to reduce the workload on courts such as the magistrates courts.

Electronic infringement and enforcement systems — 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.

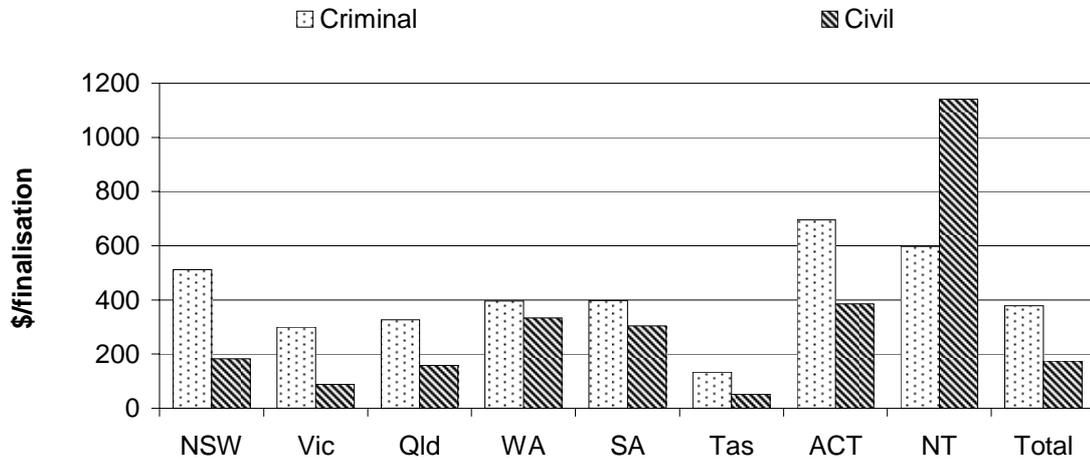
Electronic infringement and enforcement systems, as defined above, currently operate only in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. The figure in this box shows the impact that including electronic infringement and enforcement systems data for these jurisdictions would have on the magistrates court efficiency results reported in figure 6.4.

The impact is to reduce net recurrent expenditure per criminal finalisation for the magistrates courts in all four jurisdictions (assuming all of the matters dealt with by the electronic infringement and enforcement systems would otherwise have been dealt with by the magistrates courts). The magnitude of the reductions under this assumption is shown in the figure below and table 6A.23.



While NSW, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT do not operate electronic courts that fall under the jurisdiction of the magistrates courts, they have bodies (such as the NSW State Debt Recovery Office, the Motor Vehicle Registry in the ACT and the Fines Recovery Unit in the NT) that deal with unpaid infringement notices and that may have a similar impact in reducing the workload of the magistrates courts. In Tasmania, because unpaid minor traffic infringements are dealt with by way of complaint and summons in the magistrates court, this has the effect of reducing net expenditure per finalisation.

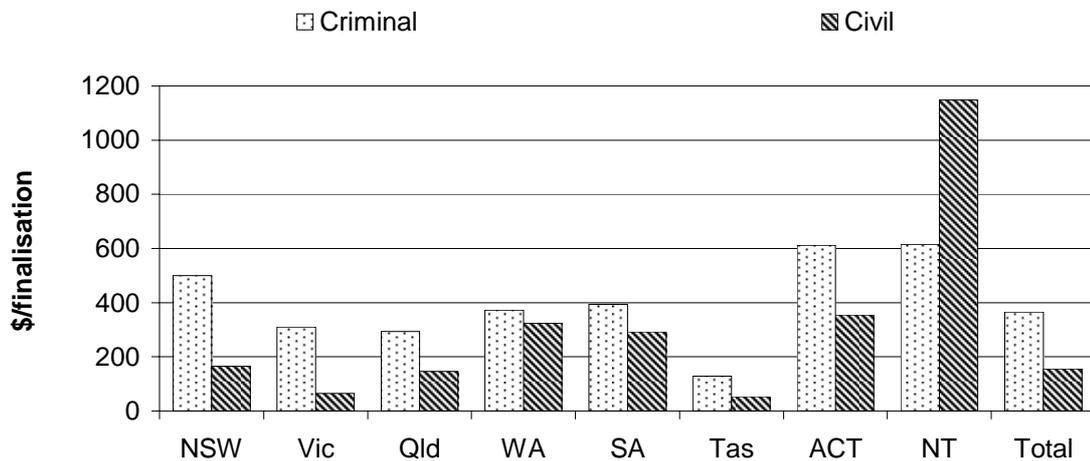
Figure 6.4 **Net expenditure per finalisation, total magistrates courts (including magistrates and children's courts), 2004-05^{a, b, c}**



^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b In Victoria data is included on 72 381 finalisations (and associated expenditure) from the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^c In Tasmania, unpaid minor traffic infringements are dealt with in the magistrates court.

Source: State and Territory court administration departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23–24.

Figure 6.5 **Net expenditure per finalisation, magistrates courts only (excluding children's courts), 2004-05^{a, b, c}**



^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b In Victoria data is included on 72 381 finalisations (and associated expenditure) from the Victorian Civil Administrative Tribunal. ^c In Tasmania, unpaid minor traffic infringements are dealt with in the magistrates court.

Source: State and Territory court administration departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23–24.

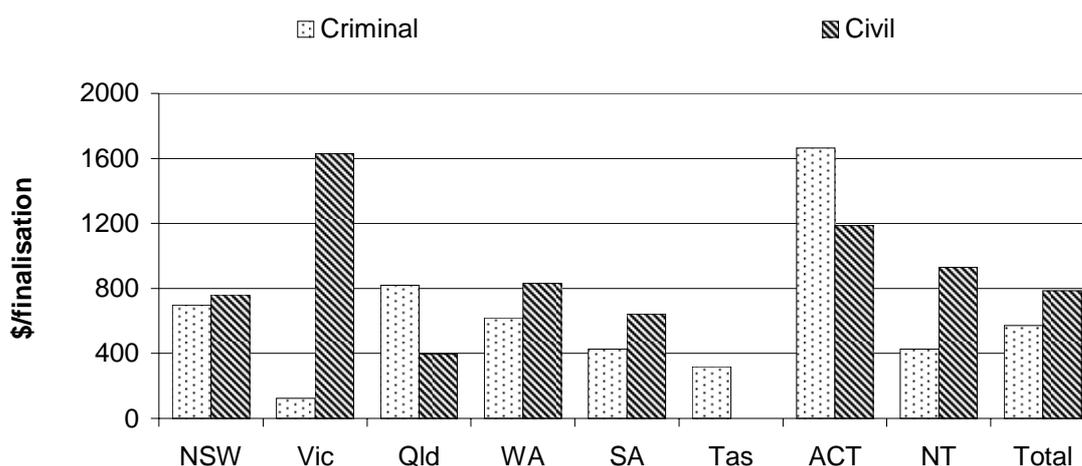
Net expenditure per finalisation for magistrates courts only

Net expenditure per criminal and civil finalisation for magistrates courts only (excluding electronic and children's courts) is presented in figure 6.5.

Net expenditure per finalisation for children's courts

Net expenditure per finalisation in the children's courts varies across states and territories, particularly for civil matters. The bulk of matters dealt with in the civil jurisdiction of the children's courts are generally care and protection orders, however some jurisdictions will also hear matters such as applications for intervention orders.

Figure 6.6 Net expenditure per finalisation, children's courts, 2004-05^{a, b, c}



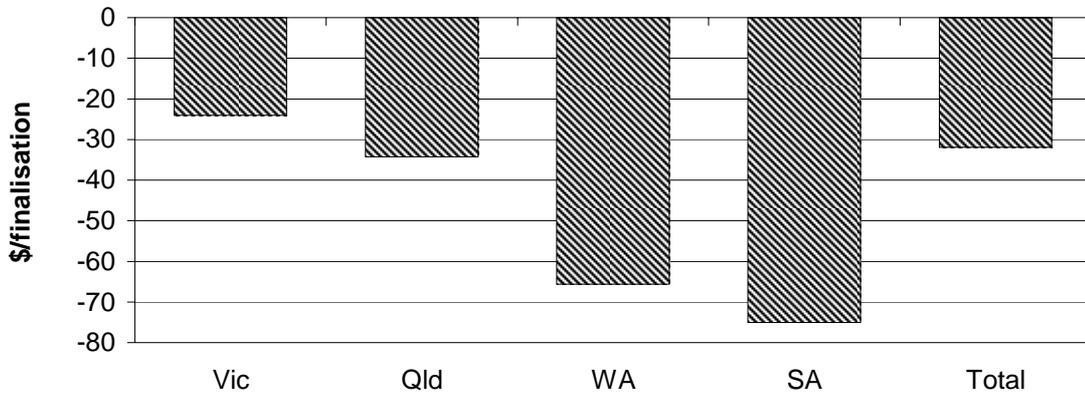
^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b In Tasmania the expenditure children's court expenditure cannot be disaggregated by criminal and civil, and is therefore combined under criminal. ^c In Queensland some children's court criminal matters are heard in the district court. ^d In Victoria, children's criminal matters not heard in the Melbourne Children's Court are heard in the magistrates' court in regional areas. It is not possible to apportion the expenditure on these matters to the children's court, and this expenditure is included in the figures for the magistrates' court. However, the children's matters heard are separately recorded and identifiable for the children's court

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23–24.

Net expenditure per finalisation for electronic infringement and enforcement systems

All electronic infringement and enforcement systems in 2004-05 had income that outweighed any associated expenditure (figure 6.7 and table 6A.23).

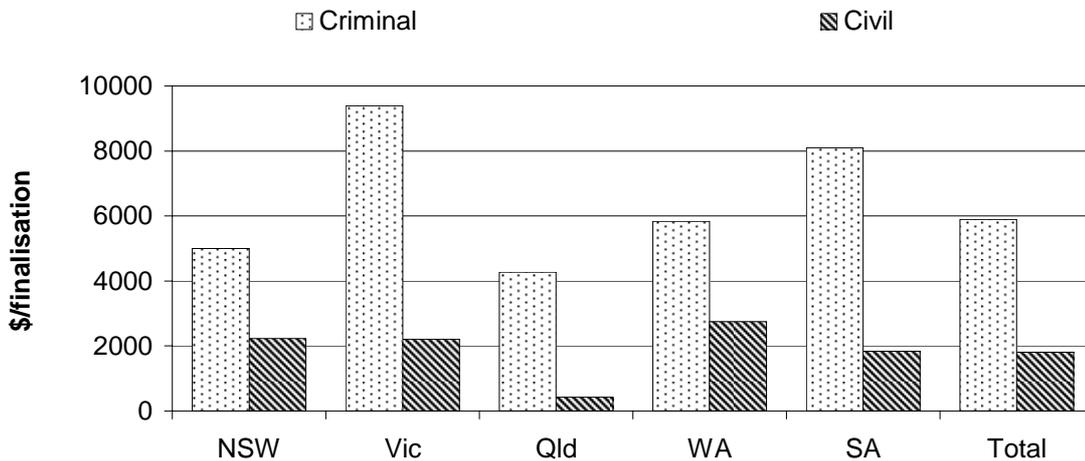
Figure 6.7 **Net expenditure per finalisation, electronic infringement and enforcement systems, 2004-05^{a, b}**



^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b Electronic infringement and enforcement systems (infringement and expiated offence processing systems that have the status of a court) operate only in Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA. Other jurisdictions may operate similar bodies that do not operate under the auspices of a court.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.23.

Figure 6.8 **Net expenditure per finalisation, district/county courts, 2004-05^{a, b}**



^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b In the criminal court jurisdiction in Queensland, some children's court expenditure and finalisations are heard in the district court.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23-24.

Net expenditure per finalisation for district/county courts

In 2004-05, the net expenditure per finalisation in the criminal jurisdiction of the district/county courts was more than twice that in the civil jurisdiction (figure 6.8). This trend was similar across all states and territories, and is fairly consistent over time (tables 6A.23 and 6A.24).

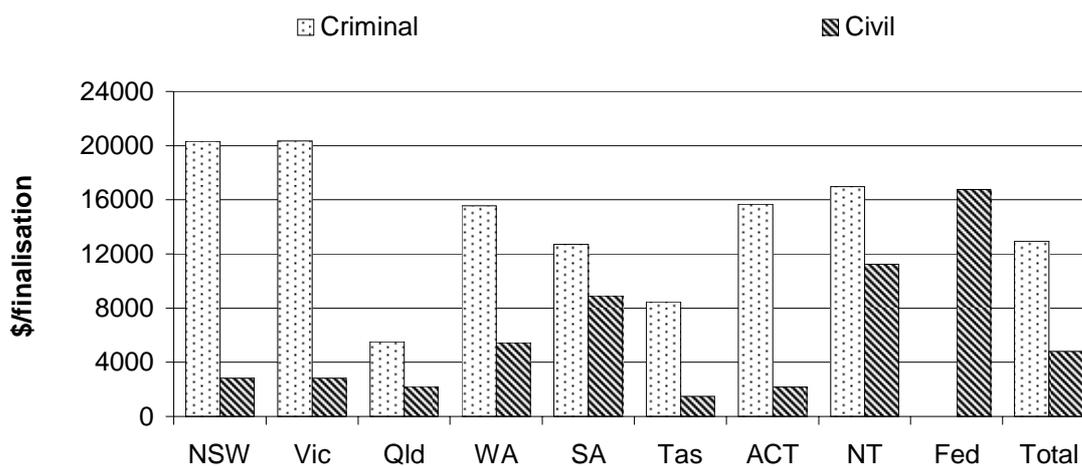
Tasmania, the ACT, the NT and the Australian Government do not operate district/county courts.

Net expenditure per finalisation for the supreme courts and the Federal Court

In 2004-05, the net expenditure per finalisation in the criminal jurisdiction of the supreme courts was around three times greater than the net expenditure per finalisation in the civil jurisdiction (the Federal Court has no criminal jurisdiction) (figure 6.9).

Tasmania, the ACT, and the NT have a broader range of matters that are heard in their supreme courts, as none of these jurisdictions have a district/county court. The difference in scope of supreme court work (box 6.3) should be considered when making comparisons between the different states and territories.

Figure 6.9 Net expenditure per finalisation, supreme courts and the Federal Court, 2004-05^{a, b}



^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b The Federal Court does not operate in the criminal jurisdiction.

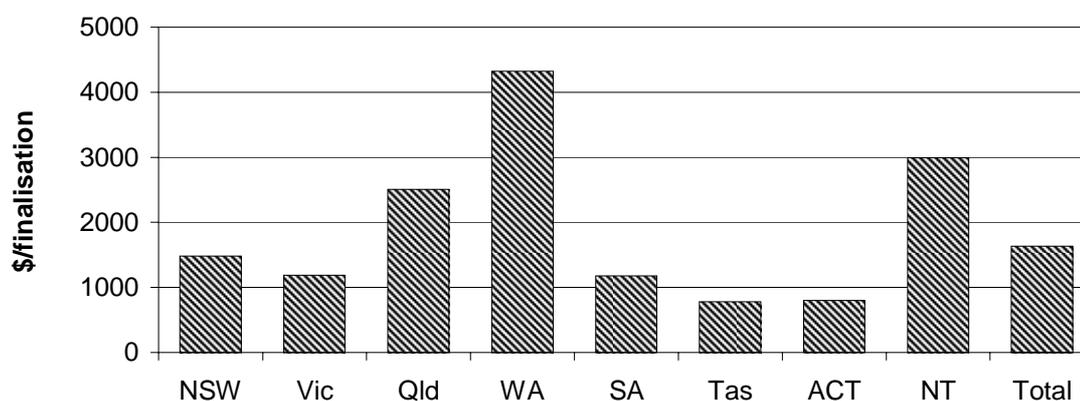
Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); tables 6A.23–24.

Net expenditure per reported death and fire for coroners courts

Nationally, expenditure per reported death and fire in the coroners courts was approximately \$1661 in 2004-05 (figure 6.10). Some jurisdictions include autopsy and chemical analysis costs in their expenditure data, but others exclude these costs because they are outside the court's immediate control.

Data for NSW, Victoria and the ACT in 2004-05 include fires reported to the coroner; all other jurisdictions (except Tasmania) do not, as fires are not reported to the coroner in these jurisdictions, so care needs to be taken when making comparisons.

Figure 6.10 Net expenditure per finalisation, coroners courts, 2004-05^{a, b}



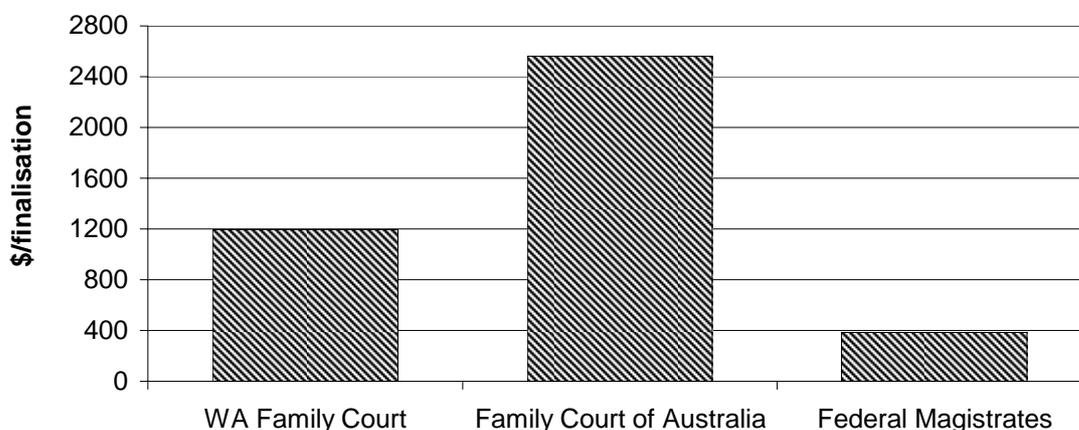
^a Expenditure excludes payroll tax. ^b Data for NSW, Victoria and the ACT include reported fires.

Source: State and Territory court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.23.

Net expenditure per finalisation for family courts and the Federal Magistrates Court

The establishment of the Federal Magistrates Court has implications for the number of finalisations and expenditure associated with the Family Court of Australia (figure 6.11). The intention is for the Federal Magistrates Court to take on some of the workload previously managed by the Family Court of Australia (and the Federal Court). For example, prior to the establishment of the Federal Magistrates Court all divorces (with the exception of WA which has its own family court) were lodged in the Family Court of Australia. From November 2003, divorces are lodged solely in the Federal Magistrates Court, with the exception of WA where divorces are lodged in the Family Court of WA.

Figure 6.11 **Net expenditure per finalisation, family courts and the Federal Magistrates Court, 2004-05**



Source: Australian court administration authorities and departments (unpublished); table 6A.24.

Outcomes

No outcome indicators for court administration are currently reported. It is noted, however, that the activities of court administrators lead to broader justice-wide outcomes that are not readily picked up in this service-specific chapter. Ongoing work is being conducted to develop outcome indicators.

6.4 Future directions in performance reporting

Improving data quality

Differences across states and territories in the jurisdiction of courts, and in the allocation of cases between courts, affect the comparability of equity, efficiency and effectiveness data. The different methods undertaken to collect the data can also have an impact on data consistency and quality.

The Review, through the Court Administration Working Group and the Courts Practitioner Group, is taking steps to improve data quality, including:

- assessing and implementing recommendations associated with the *ABS Courts Administration Data Collection National Report* on lodgments and finalisations

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- clearly defining issues pertaining to the scope of the data collection and reporting within the chapter
 - assessing the most appropriate way in which to collect and publish data
 - amending data definitions
 - improving data verification and data quality.

Work has begun in 2004-05 on the investigation of the presentation of data based on case type (rather than the current approach of presentation by court level). A pilot study is underway, and is expected to be completed in late 2006.

6.5 Jurisdictions' comments

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

Australian Government Comments

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The Family Court of Australia has had its Case management system, Casetrack, in production since 2002. The Court continues to make improvements to this system to match its changing environment as well as improving the collection of information required for effective case management. This system is also used by the Federal Magistrates Court (FMC), the Family Court of Western Australia (FCWA) and the Federal Court of Australia (FCA). The Family Court continues to support these courts with system changes to meet their specific requirements. The leadership of the Family Court of Australia in initially developing, and subsequently enhancing, Casetrack has resulted in significant benefits and savings to those participating courts and provided opportunities for cooperative development of mutual benefit.

2004-05 represents the first full year reflecting significant changes to Family Court of Australia procedures, following the Review of Family Court Rules, which came into effect on 29 March 2004. The new rules resulted in a shift in the manner the Family Court approached some initiating cases (i.e. causes of actions) by reducing the number of forms and simplifying the rules.

In November 2003, a practice direction was issued, with agreement from the FMC, that all divorces are to be lodged in the FMC. As a result, the Family Court no longer deals with the high volume but low cost divorce matters. This has meant the “cost per finalisation” figures reported in this report have increased for this Court and reduced for the FMC. It should be noted that this Court still continues to provide a significant amount of administrative services and support resources to the FMC free of charge, especially administration services at the ‘front end’ of the FMC (such as creating files and allocating first court hearings etc). This masks the true costs per finalisations in these two Courts.

The Family Court continues to implement programs to improve efficiency and client experience. A significant development is the national rollout of the Children Cases Program (CCP). CCP is a new, less adversarial approach to hearing children’s cases. The aim of the CCP approach is to achieve better outcomes for children, and also to manage cases in a timely and less costly manner. The CCP approach retains a clear focus on the best interests of the child in a less formal environment whereby the parties are able to speak directly with the judge in the courtroom in a less constrained manner. The judge is more proactive in narrowing the issues in dispute, and is assisted in the courtroom during the first day of the hearing by a court mediator. The hearing may proceed through a series of events, and the issues in dispute may be determined or resolved at any stage during the hearing. The approach was piloted in Sydney and Parramatta, and was subsequently implemented in Melbourne. The Court is presently planning to implement the approach nationally by 30 June 2006.

The implementation of the Family Relationship Centres may change the types of applications coming to the Family Court (and the Family Law system), with the less intractable matters expected to be dealt with prior to entering the court system. The effects of this policy will not be felt for some time yet.

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New South Wales Government Comments

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The NSW courts operate efficient and cost-effective justice services. With just over one third of the Australian population, NSW spends about a quarter of the national net recurrent expenditure on court administration. NSW has approximately three times as many courthouses as other jurisdictions, in order to provide access to services and only spends close to the national average for each case finalised.

In 2004-05, NSW demonstrated a high-level of court efficiency. Over 85 per cent of matters in NSW's criminal courts are under 6 months old and NSW maintained an overall clearance rate of 98 per cent for criminal matters. The Local Court continues to have the best results for timeliness of criminal matters in the country.

NSW has also improved the timeliness of civil matters, ranking first for the timeliness of civil non-appeal cases in the District court, and second in the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has also reduced the number of civil non-appeal cases older than 24 months by 288 cases since 2003-04.

The introduction of the *Civil Procedure Act 2005* and *Uniform Civil Procedure Rules* has meant that for the first time in NSW, one set of rules will be applied to civil proceedings in the Supreme, District and Local Courts. This will allow for efficiencies for the courts, the legal profession and the public.

The development of CourtLink continued with the introduction of e-filing in the Supreme Court criminal jurisdiction. At its completion, CourtLink will deliver an integrated court administration system supporting justice services.

Continuing expansion of the Magistrate Early Referral into Treatment (MERIT) drug program and Justice Health initiatives now provide coverage to over 75 per cent of the Local Court population.

The NSW Aboriginal Justice Plan was launched in May 2005 to address the over-representation of Aboriginal people in the criminal justice system. This plan has been developed in partnership with the Aboriginal community, including more than 700 people from 15 communities across the State. The Plan includes extending the successful Circle-Sentencing, Community Patrols and Aboriginal Youth Crime Prevention programs.

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Victorian Government Comments

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In 2004-05 the County Court of Victoria established the section 134AB Workcover List to expedite the progress of cases in this new list through careful management. It also continued to promote and expand the use of e-Filing, allowing court users across Victoria to electronically lodge documents relating to civil cases. Indications are that the service is steadily becoming an attractive option within the legal community.

Technology developments in the County Court included an upgraded regional network infrastructure to improve responsiveness, and the finalisation of the first stage of the Court Listing Management System Criminal Orders Module, with the pilot to commence in October 2005.

The Family Violence Court Division of the Magistrates' Court of Victoria was established, and commenced sitting at Ballarat and Heidelberg on 14 June 2005, with the objectives of simplifying access to justice and increasing safety of people who have experienced family violence, and increasing accountability and encouraging behaviour change in people who use family violence. The Division will operate as a pilot until 30 June 2007.

Key features of the Division include: specialist support services being provided at the court premises for people who have experienced and used family violence; family violence training for magistrates, registrars, police prosecutors, support workers and lawyers; assigning of magistrates to the Division by the Chief Magistrate based on their knowledge and experience in dealing with family violence matters; directions by magistrates to men, who have intervention orders against them for using violence against their female partners and former partners, to attend a counselling program aimed at changing their violent behaviour; and proceedings are listed in an allocated courtroom and evidence can be presented in a number of ways including by use of video conferencing, using screens in the court to remove the defendant from view of the witness and permitting support persons to be beside the witness while they give evidence.

The Criminal Justice Diversion Program operating in the Magistrates' Court has also proved quite successful. The Diversion Program is fully managed and co-ordinated by the Magistrates' Court. During the 2004-05 financial year 7832 referrals were received, a 12.3 per cent increase on the previous financial year's 6971, with 5938 offenders entering into Diversion Plans. Of that amount 94.3 per cent of offenders successfully completed their Diversion Plan. In this time offenders undertook to pay a total of \$851 548 in donations to charities and local community run projects, as well as \$681 477.61 in restitution to victims. A further 10 586 hours of voluntary work for not-for-profit organisations was undertaken.

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Queensland Government Comments

“ Queensland Courts strive to set high standards of efficiency and effectiveness. During 2004-05 a range of initiatives were implemented to ensure we deliver a fair, open and accessible justice system for all Queenslanders.

The Higher Courts expanded the computerised Queensland Jury System to 31 regional court centres, introduced a Juror Support Program which offers counselling for jurors adversely affected by the experience and increased jurors' allowances.

New courthouses were officially opened in the Brisbane CBD and at Thursday Island, Western Districts and Caloundra. At the Hervey Bay courthouse, a new District Court extension was opened. Work continues on the upgrade of the Bowen and Murgon courthouses. Upgrades are also planned at Ipswich, Northern Districts, Sarina and Sandgate.

Security will be enhanced through additional security officers for courts and electronic security equipment provided in ten additional courthouses in 2005-06 — Beenleigh, Cairns, Townsville (Magistrates and Higher Courts), Ipswich, Southport, Maroochydore, Rockhampton, Mackay and Richlands.

The Homeless Persons Court Diversion Program will be implemented in the Brisbane Magistrates Court as part of a government initiative to address homelessness issues.

A Sentencing Database and Decision Support System is being developed which will provide a single coordinated uniform resource for the criminal justice stakeholders assisting judicial officers in the range and effectiveness of sentencing options available to them.

Wireless Internet access technologies were installed in the Higher Courts complex in Brisbane and will be extended to 32 courtrooms across the Brisbane Magistrates Court and courthouses in Southport, Beenleigh, Ipswich, Maroochydore, Rockhampton, Townsville and Cairns.

The Illicit Drug Court Program for minor drug offenders has received additional funding to extend this diversion program to all Magistrates and Children's Courts

There was continued expansion of video conferencing with Closed Circuit TV and Vulnerable Witness facilities in the Brisbane Higher Courts and 20 Magistrates Courtrooms.

There was continued development of the Integrated Justice Information System (IJIS), a whole of government initiative, to facilitate the electronic transfer of information across the justice agencies particularly the Justice, Police and Corrective Services.

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Western Australian Government Comments

“ Whilst Western Australian courts continued to improve the delivery of services the year has been highlighted by the implementation of significant legislative reforms.

The most extensive reform of Western Australia's lower court system in 100 years saw the amalgamation of several courts to form the new Magistrates Court. The new Court began operation in May 2005, amalgamating the former Court of Petty Sessions, Local Court and Small Claims Tribunal into a single court with multiple registries around the State. The lower court reforms addressed more than 200 recommendations of the Western Australian Law Reform Commission. The Court has increased jurisdictional limits and the power to make its own rules.

The Court of Appeal Division of the Supreme Court was established on 1 February 2005. It deals with all matters that were previously heard by the Full Court of the Supreme Court and the Court of Criminal Appeal.

The State Administrative Tribunal (SAT) began operations in January 2005, amalgamating the functions of more than 50 boards and tribunals and assuming responsibility for hundreds of administrative appeals from courts.

Other developments included:

- initiation of work on a new District Court building, the near completion of the Albany Justice Complex and completion of the refurbishment of the Derby courthouse
- implementation of the Integrated Courts Management System (ICMS) for civil processes in the Magistrates Court and SAT. Planning is now underway for the development of the ICMS application for criminal court processes
- reduction of the civil backlog in the Supreme, District and Magistrates Courts
- establishment of the Court Security directorate to better manage court security
- a revised fines enforcement strategy to tackle the growing number of fine defaulters being imprisoned
- introduction by the WA Family Court of conferences where separating couples try to resolve matters with the assistance of a counsellor
- introduction of a number of initiatives to assist self-represented people in court
- further development of a legislative framework and the inter-jurisdictional operational elements of the cross border justice project
- development of an Aboriginal Strategic Services Plan.

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South Australian Government Comments

“ The Courts Administration Authority maintained its commitment to providing the best possible service to the community. In the year under review, a number of initiatives have been undertaken by the Authority, including:

- prepared for e-filing in civil matters heard in Supreme and District Courts
- conducted a preliminary review of aspects of procedures, systems and resources relevant to the listings and disposals of criminal trials in the Supreme and District Courts. As a result, a more thorough review of these issues is being undertaken
- changed Rules of the Magistrates Court to enable improved debt collection from debtors in civil cases
- developed the Adult Restorative Justice Conference Pilot program allowing for victims and offenders to meet face-to-face after a guilty plea and prior to sentencing, to discuss the harm caused by the offence and possible restorative alternatives
- established a Court assessment and referral drugs scheme (CARDS) for adults and in the Youth Court which aims to direct drug offenders into treatment as part of their bail or bond conditions and therefore reduce the chance of future drug related offending — this is in addition to the Drug Court
- introduced video conferencing between the Youth Court and Youth Training Centres. Also introduced child vulnerable witness facilities in higher courts
- prepared for the introduction of a new *Coroner's Act 2003* from 1 July 2005, which expands the range of the types of deaths that will be reportable to the Coroner
- introduced the Courts online fines website to provide users with a secure online facility to view and make payments towards outstanding penalties
- established a consultative Community Reference Group, to provide suggestions to the Authority's Community Relations Committee in informing the community about the work of the Courts
- established a Courts Aboriginal Reference Group, to inform the State Courts Administration Council about matters concerning Aboriginal people who have contact with the Courts
- continued development for a new courts complex at Port Augusta, which will improve the facilities available to those who have business before the courts at Port Augusta
- participated in a Public Private Partnership project involving delivery of new co-located police and court premises at Port Lincoln, Berri, and Victor Harbor, and a new courthouse at Pt Pirie.

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Tasmanian Government Comments

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In 2004-05 the major performance issue for Tasmanian Courts has been managing all courts' pending caseloads to an acceptable level.

With the exception of the Supreme Court Civil Jurisdiction all courts have achieved a reduction in the proportion of pending cases that exceed national time standards. The most significant reduction has been for the Supreme Court Criminal Jurisdiction where the proportion of pending cases aged over 12 months has reduced from 21 per cent to 12 per cent. This reduction has been achieved through the allocation of additional resources to the Director of Public Prosecutions and the direction of additional judicial resources to the criminal division.

In the Magistrates Court the introduction of the criminal registry and listing system (CRIMES) in all registries has enabled closer monitoring of the courts pending caseload.

The age of pending cases in the Supreme Court Civil Jurisdiction may be a result of the Supreme Court's case management processes focussing on ensuring that cases are ready for trial rather than ensuring compliance with national time standards. When cases are ready for trial there is no delay in listing them before a judge.

The Supreme and Magistrates Courts have commenced a joint project to acquire and implement a civil case management system to replace their existing systems. This system will provide a foundation for the more effective monitoring and management of civil cases by the courts.

Tasmanian courts have consistently reported a low cost per finalisation when compared with other states and territories in all jurisdictions. Whilst there are significant concerns regarding the national comparability of cost per case finalised there are a number of factors that may explain Tasmania low cost.

Tasmania is the only jurisdiction where unpaid infringement notices are dealt with in the Magistrates Court. These account for up to 60 per cent of cases finalised in this jurisdiction. The majority of these cases are finalised ex-parte in front of a Justice of the Peace at very low cost. The introduction of new monetary penalties legislation in 2006 will remove these matters from the court and lead to a consequent increase in the average cost per finalisation.

The Tasmanian Supreme Court's jurisdiction deals with cases that are heard in district and county courts in larger states and as a result its costs are more comparable with these jurisdictions. In the civil jurisdiction of the Supreme and magistrates Courts effective court annexed mediation reduces the number of cases that go to trial and consequently reduces costs.

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Australian Capital Territory Government Comments

“ The ACT continues to support the improvements made to the collection in 2004-05, and particularly the presentation of aggregated “Higher Courts” data for some indicators. This approach begins to address the difficulties in meaningfully comparing the smaller jurisdictions, such as the ACT, that do not have intermediate courts like the larger states. It is an approach that might usefully be adopted across other areas of the court administration chapter.

The data in this year’s Report indicate that the ACT’s courts are generally performing at or above national benchmarks for criminal cases in terms of both backlog and clearance indicators. For civil cases, while clearance rates are generally holding, most backlog indicators remain outside the benchmark, although they are within the range of the other jurisdictions.

Results this year on the unit/cost indicator continue to show the ACT at the higher end of the range, except for the Supreme Court (table 6A.25). While scale efficiency no doubt influences these results in a small jurisdiction, closer examination of the data indicate that the primary driver of those results are lower annual finalisations on a comparatively static cost base.

In turn, lower finalisations reflect a general local trend of declining demand. There have been increased lodgments in some parts of the collection, most notably in the Supreme Court criminal (53 per cent since 2002-03) and Childrens Court civil (95 per cent since 2002-03) areas, both of which are resource-intensive. However, total lodgments of all ACT matters within the scope of the collection have decreased over the past two years.

The proposed review in 2005-06 of the definitions and methodology underpinning the Attendance Indicator data is strongly supported by the ACT. Improvements in data quality, consistency and comparability between the reporting jurisdictions would be welcome on this important and developing indicator.

Other noteworthy developments in the reporting year include:

- the permanent establishment of Circle Sentencing within the Magistrates Court to provide greater community involvement through the Elders Panel in the sentencing process and post-sentence supervision of adult Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander offenders
- the continuing performance audit of courts administration by the Auditor General, which is examining current caseload management arrangements and other aspects of court administration
- a fundamental review by the Chief Magistrate of listing strategies and governance arrangements in the Magistrates Court.

All of these developments have the potential to improve the ACT results in this Report over the medium term.

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Northern Territory Government Comments



Highlights of Court Support Services' activities for the year 2005 included the following points.

The jury database at the Supreme Court in Darwin was upgraded to automate payments of fees and fares for jurors based on postcode.

The Supreme Court established a full time Registry in Alice Springs to assist in the efficient running of the increased number of Supreme Court sittings.

Magistrates and staff from Darwin commenced quarterly sittings at Pirlangimpi and Milikapiti. Darwin Magistrates now service twelve circuit courts. The Magistrate based in Katherine travels to Borroloola, Ngukurr, Timber Creek and Barunga with the latter being recently re-introduced as a regular court sitting.

Courts travelled from Alice Springs to Kintore and Ti Tree for the first time to hold court sittings. This brings the total of circuit courts from Alice Springs to ten which includes Tennant Creek.

Preparation of proposed cross border procedures commenced between South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory. Once formalised this will enable lower court cases from all of the three jurisdictions (SA, WA and the NT) to be dealt with wherever it is most convenient within an agreed area around the junction of those jurisdictions.

The twelve month pilot for the Darwin Community Court was launched in April 2005. Respected elders provide advice to the Magistrate on the sentencing of offenders before the Court.

The use of video conferencing facilities continued to be encouraged as an option for remote appearances and witnesses. Vulnerable witness facilities continued to be utilised in both the Supreme Court and the Magistrates Court. Legislation now provides for children who are victims of Sexual Assaults to pre-record their evidence prior to trial thereby reducing delays for these victims.

In the year ending June 2005 approximately 320 deaths were reported to the Coroner. Detailed statistical information in relation to the causes of death and other matters relevant to public health and safety is entered by Coroner's Office staff and maintained on the *National Coronial Information System* database.

In 2005, 20 inquests were completed. Formal recommendations made by the Coroner covered such subjects as a statutory licensing scheme for tour guides; the availability and maintenance of resuscitation equipment at remote medical clinics; and conditions for fisherman detained in immigration detention in NT waters. Inquests are public hearings and inquest findings are published on the Coroner's Office website.



6.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

Active pending population	A lodgment that is yet to be finalised but is part of the case management of court administrators.
Average expenditure per civil case	The total cost of the administrative services provided to civil matters, divided by the total number of civil files handled. Includes salaries, sheriff expenses, juror costs, accommodation costs, library services, information technology, departmental overheads and court operating expenses.
Attendance Indicator	The average number of attendances for each finalisation in the reporting period. An attendance is defined as the number of times that parties or their representatives are required to be present in court (including any appointment which is adjourned or rescheduled) for all finalised matters during the year. The actual attendance is one that is heard by a judicial officer or mediator/arbitrator.’
Backlog Indicator	A measure of case processing timeliness. It is the number of pending cases older than the applicable reporting standards, divided by the total pending caseload (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).
Bench warrant	A warrant issued by a court for the arrest of a person who has been indicted.
Case	The measurement of workload in the civil jurisdiction. It is the issues, grievances or complaints that constitute a single and related series of disputes brought by an entity (or group of entities) against another entity (or group).
Clearance rate	A measure of whether a court is keeping up with its workload. It is the number of finalisations in the reporting period, divided by the number of lodgments in the same period (multiplied by 100 to convert to a percentage).
Cost recovery	The level of court fees divided by the level of court expenditure.
Court fees collected	Total court income from fees charged in the civil jurisdiction. Includes filing, sitting hearing and deposition fees, and excludes transcript fees.
Electronic infringement and enforcement system	A court with the capacity to produce enforceable orders against defendants (such as fines, licence cancellation and incarceration) and to process infringements, on-the-spot fines and summary offences.
Excluded courts and tribunals	Guardianship boards, environment resources and development courts, and administrative appeals tribunals.
Finalisation	The completion of a matter so it ceases to be an item of work to be dealt with by the court. Finalisations are derived from timeliness data that may not reflect the total matters disposed by the courts in the reporting period.
Forms	The counting unit used in the family courts and family law matters pertaining to the Federal Magistrates Court. Forms are applications or notices lodged with the court.
Income	Income derived from court fees, library revenue, court reporting revenue, sheriff and bailiff revenue, probate revenue, mediation revenue, rental income and any other sources of revenue (excluding fines).
Information technology expenditure	Non-salary and salary expenditure on information technology. Excludes capital expenditure on information technology infrastructure and includes licensing costs, computer leasing costs, the cost of

	consumables (such as data lines, paper and disks), training fees, access fees (for example, catalogue search and Internet access) and maintenance charges for software and hardware.
Inquests and inquiries held	Court hearings to determine the cause and circumstances of deaths reported to the coroner. Includes all coronial inquests and inquiries in full court hearings.
Judicial officer	Judges, magistrates, masters, coroners, judicial registrars and all other officers who, following argument and giving of evidence, make enforceable orders of the court. The data are provided on the basis of the proportion of time spent on the judicial activity.
Judicial and judicial support salaries	<p>All salary expenditure and payments in the nature of salary that are paid to employees of court administration. Includes base salaries, the employer contributed component of superannuation, workers compensation (full cost, inclusive of any levies, bills and legal fees), higher duty allowances, overtime, actual and accruing terminal and long service leave, fringe benefits tax and untaxed fringe benefits.</p> <p>(Judicial officers include judges, magistrates, masters, judicial registrars and other judicial officers who fulfil a primarily judicial function. Judicial support staff include judicial secretaries, tipstaff and associates).</p>
Library expenditure	<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>
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 can extend to the manner of the death of a person who was killed; was found drowned; died a sudden death of which the cause is unknown; died under suspicious or unusual circumstances; died during or following the administration of an operation of a medical, surgical, dental, diagnostic or like nature; died in a prison remand centre or lockup; or died under circumstances that (in the opinion of the Attorney-General) require that the cause of death be more clearly ascertained.</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 or 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</p>

	<p>judgments); interlocutory matters; investigation/examination summonses; firearms appeals; escort agents' licensing appeals; pastoral lands appeals; local government tribunals; police promotions appeals; applications appealing the decisions of workers compensation review officers.</p> <p><i>Probate:</i> Matters such as applications for the appointment of an executor or administrator to the estate of a deceased person.</p>
Method of finalisation	The process that leads to the completion of a criminal charge within a higher court so it ceases to be an item of work in that court.
Method of initiation	How a criminal charge is introduced to a court level.
Non-adjudicated finalisation	A judgment or decision by the court as to whether the defendant is guilty of the charge laid against him or her — for example, whether the defendant pleaded guilty or was found guilty by the court, or was acquitted.
Probate registry expenditure	Salary expenditure of the probate registrar and probate clerks, along with non-salary expenditure directly attributable to probate registries.
Real expenditure	Actual expenditure adjusted for changes in prices using the GDP(E) price deflator and expressed in terms of final year prices.
Sheriff and bailiff expenditure	Expenditure on court orderlies, court security, jury management and witness payment administration. For the civil jurisdiction, it includes expenditure (by or on behalf of the court) on bailiffs to enforce court orders. In the coronial jurisdiction, it includes expenditure on police officers permanently attached to the coroner for the purpose of assisting in coronial investigations. Excludes witness payments, fines enforcement (criminal jurisdiction) and prisoner security.
Withdrawn	The formal withdrawal of charges by the prosecution (that is, by police, the Director of Public Prosecutions or the Attorney-General).

6.7 Supporting tables

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 6A.3 is table 3 in the attachment). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files containing the supporting tables are provided in Excel format as Attach_stat_app.xls and in Adobe PDF format as Attach_stat_app.pdf. The files containing the supporting tables can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain these tables (details on the inside front cover of the Report).

Preamble	Court administration — Attachments
Table 6A.1	Lodgments, criminal
Table 6A.2	Lodgments, civil
Table 6A.3	Lodgments, per 100 000 population, criminal
Table 6A.4	Lodgments, per 100 000 population, civil
Table 6A.5	Finalisations, criminal
Table 6A.6	Finalisations, civil
Table 6A.7	Finalisations, per 100 000 population, criminal
Table 6A.8	Finalisations, per 100 000 population, civil
Table 6A.9	Real recurrent expenditure, criminal (\$'000)
Table 6A.10	Real recurrent expenditure, civil (\$'000)
Table 6A.11	Real income (excluding fines), criminal and civil (\$'000)
Table 6A.12	Real net recurrent expenditure, criminal (\$'000)
Table 6A.13	Real net recurrent expenditure, civil (\$'000)
Table 6A.14	Real net recurrent expenditure, criminal and civil (\$'000)
Table 6A.15	Cost recovery – civil court fees collected as a proportion of civil expenditure (per cent), 2004-05
Table 6A.16	Average civil court fees collected per lodgment
Table 6A.17	Backlog indicator, criminal, 2004-05
Table 6A.18	Backlog indicator, civil 2004-05
Table 6A.19	Attendance indicator (average number of attendances per finalisation), 2004-05
Table 6A.20	Judicial officers, 2004-05
Table 6A.21	Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), criminal, 2004-05
Table 6A.22	Clearance rate (finalisations/lodgments), civil, 2004-05
Table 6A.23	Real net recurrent expenditure per finalisation, criminal (2004-05 dollars)
Table 6A.24	Real net recurrent expenditure per finalisation, civil (2004-05 dollars)
Table 6A.25	Real net recurrent expenditure per finalisation, criminal & civil (2004-05 dollars)
Table 6A.26	Treatment of assets by court administration agencies

6.8 References

ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2005, *Criminal Courts 2003-04, Australia*, Cat. no. 4513.0, Canberra (and various years).

FMC (Federal Magistrates Court) 2004, www.fmc.gov.au (accessed 14 October 2004).

SCRCSSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision) 2003, *Report on Government Services 2003*, AusInfo, Canberra.

7 Corrective services

Corrective services aim to provide a safe, secure and humane custodial environment and an effective community corrections environment in which prisoners and offenders are effectively managed, commensurate with their needs and the risks they pose to the community. Additionally, corrective services aim to reduce the risk of re-offending by providing services and program interventions that address the causes of offending, maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community and encourage offenders to adopt a law-abiding way of life.

The term ‘prisoners’ is used in this chapter to refer to people held in full time custody under the jurisdiction of an adult corrective service agency. This includes sentenced prisoners serving a term of imprisonment and unsentenced prisoners held on remand. ‘Periodic detainees’ refers to persons subject to a periodic detention order, which requires them to be held for two consecutive days within a one-week period in a proclaimed prison or detention centre under the responsibility of corrective services. The term ‘offenders’ is used to refer to people serving community corrections orders.

In this Report, corrective services include prison custody (including periodic detention) and a range of community corrections orders and programs for adult offenders (for example, parole and community work orders). Both public and privately operated correctional facilities are included; however, the scope of this chapter generally does not extend to:

- juvenile justice¹ (which is covered in the community services preface)
- prisoners or alleged offenders held in forensic mental health facilities to receive psychiatric care (who are generally the responsibility of health departments)
- prisoners held in police custody (who are covered in the police services chapter)
- people held in facilities such as immigration or military detention centres.

¹ As of 2004-05, corrective services in NSW manages one 40-bed facility that houses males aged 16 to 18. These young offenders are included in the daily average number of prisoners and are therefore included in the calculation of indicators. As they represent only a very small proportion of NSW prisoners (less than one-half of a percent), they will have a negligible effect on these indicators and this footnote has therefore not been added to each table and figure.

A profile of the corrective services sector is provided in section 7.1. The framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 7.2, and the data collected are discussed in section 7.3. Future developments in performance reporting are broadly discussed in section 7.4. Jurisdictions' comments are covered in section 7.5. Section 7.6 provides definitions and section 7.7 lists the supporting tables. Supporting tables are identified in references throughout the chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 7A.3 is table 3 in chapter 7 of the supporting tables). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-Rom enclosed with the Report. Section 7.8 gives the references used in this chapter.

7.1 Profile of corrective services

Service overview

As discussed in the justice preface, the operation of corrective services is significantly influenced by, and in turn influences, the other two components of the criminal justice system: police and courts. The management of prisoners and offenders serving community corrections orders is the core business of all corrective services agencies, however, the scope of the responsibilities of these agencies varies widely. Functions administered by corrective services in one jurisdiction may be administered by a different justice sector agency in another — for example, the management of prisoners held in court cells or police cells, the supervision of juvenile offenders on community corrections orders, juvenile detention, and responsibility for the prosecution of breaches of community corrections orders vary across jurisdictions.

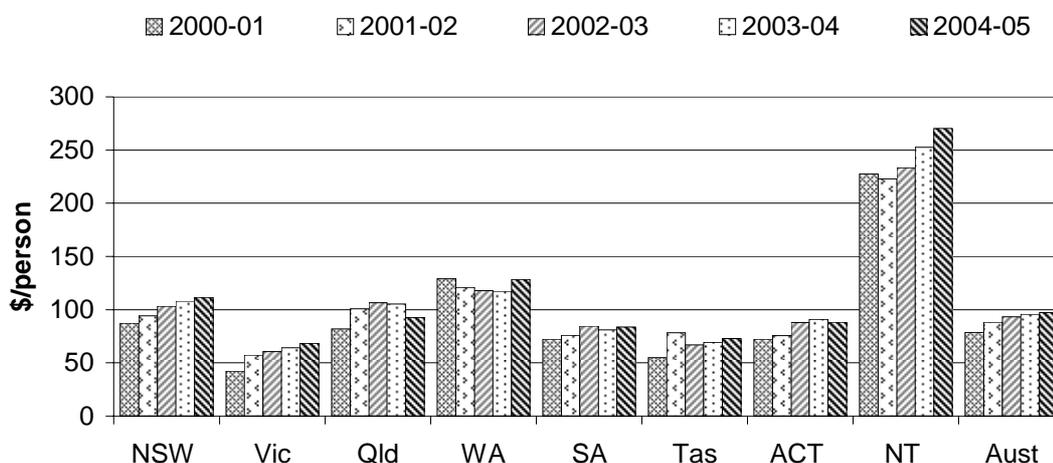
Roles and responsibilities

Corrective services are the responsibility of State and Territory governments, which may deliver services directly, purchase them through contractual arrangements, or operate a combination of both arrangements. All jurisdictions except the ACT maintained both open and secure custody prison facilities during the reporting period. In 2004-05, the ACT maintained two remand facilities and one periodic detention centre, with people sentenced to imprisonment in the ACT being held in NSW prisons under contractual arrangements between the two jurisdictions. Private prisons operated in five jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and SA) in 2004-05. Two jurisdictions (NSW and the ACT) provided periodic detention for prisoners — for example, weekend detention in custody, whereby prisoners can return home and maintain work commitments during the week.

Funding

Reported expenditure on corrective services (net of revenue derived from own sources and excluding payroll tax) totalled \$2.0 billion nationally in 2004-05 — \$1.7 billion for prisons (85.0 per cent), \$221.6 million for community corrections (11.3 per cent) and \$71.8 million (3.7 per cent) for transport and escort services (table 7A.11).² National expenditure per person in the population increased in real terms from \$79 in 2000-01 to \$97 in 2004-05 (figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 **Real expenditure on corrective services per person (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b}**



^a Includes expenditure for all corrections (prisons, transport and escort services, and community corrections) net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues); excludes payroll tax. Includes depreciation, capital asset charges, debt servicing fees and other associated capital expenses; excludes the user cost of capital. Per person cost is calculated using total population (all ages). ^b Data for previous years have been adjusted to 2004-05 dollars using the gross domestic product price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.12.

Size and scope of sector

Prison custody

Corrective services operated 120 custodial facilities nationally as at 30 June 2005 (table 7A.2). These comprised 81 government-operated prisons and seven privately operated prisons; five government operated community custodial facilities

² Transport and escort service expenditure for 2004-05 was reported separately from overall prison expenditure by NSW, Victoria, Queensland, SA and the ACT (table 7A.6).

(including two transitional centres) and one privately operated community custodial facility; 11 periodic detention centres; and 15 24-hour court-cell centres (under the responsibility of corrective services in NSW) (table 7A.2).

On average, 24 092 people per day (excluding periodic detainees) were held in Australian prisons during 2004-05 — an increase of 4.7 per cent over the average daily number reported in the previous year (table 7A.1). In addition, on average, 891 people per day were serving periodic detention orders in NSW and the ACT in 2004-05 — a rise of 7.2 per cent from the 2003-04 average.

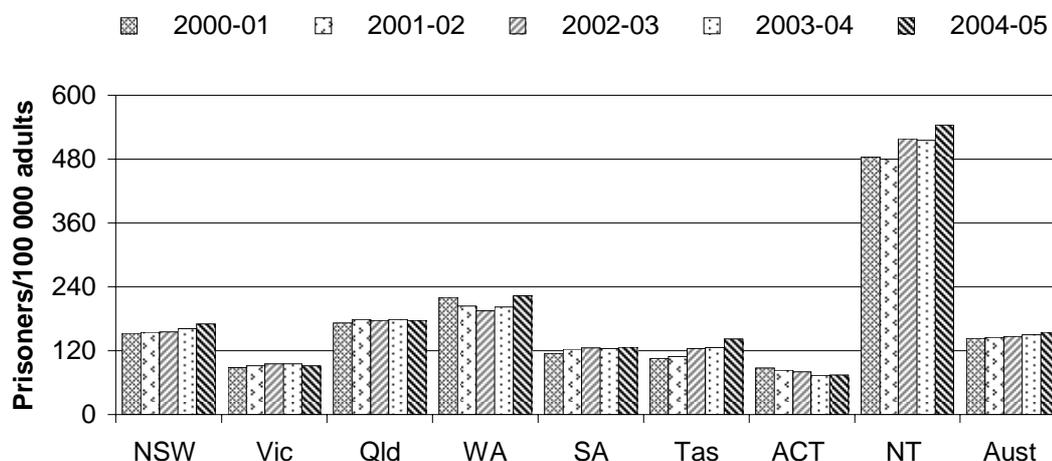
Excluding periodic detainees, 28.4 per cent of prisoners were held in open prisons (facilities for prisoners classified as low security) and 71.6 per cent were held in secure facilities in 2004-05. A daily average of 4303 prisoners (17.9 per cent of the total Australian prisoner population, excluding periodic detainees) were held in privately operated facilities during the year (table 7A.1).

Nationally, the daily average number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) in 2004-05 comprised 22 430 males and 1662 females — 93.1 per cent and 6.9 per cent of the prison population respectively. The daily average number of Indigenous prisoners was 5474 — 22.7 per cent of prisoners nationally (table 7A.1).

The rate of imprisonment represents the number of prisoners (excluding periodic detainees) per 100 000 people in the corresponding adult population. The adult population includes people at or over the minimum age at which sentencing to adult custody can occur in each jurisdiction (17 years in Victoria and Queensland, and 18 years in all other jurisdictions for the reporting period).

The national rate of imprisonment for all prisoners was 155.0 per 100 000 Australian adults in 2004-05, compared to 150.2 in 2003-04 (figure 7.2). On a gender basis, the national imprisonment rate was 293.2 per 100 000 adult males and 21.1 per 100 000 adult females in 2004-05 (table 7A.4).

Figure 7.2 **Imprisonment rates^{a, b}**



^a Non-age standardised rates are based on the daily average prisoner population numbers supplied by States and Territories, calculated against adult population estimates (population data supplied by the ABS National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b ACT rates include prisoners held in the ACT and ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. NSW rates exclude ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons as of 2002-03.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABS (unpublished) Australian Demographic Statistics, December quarter, 2004; table 7A.5.

The national imprisonment rate per 100 000 Indigenous adults in 2004-05 was 1957.1 compared with a rate of 118.0 for non-Indigenous prisoners (figure 7.3).

Imprisonment rate comparisons need to be interpreted with care, especially for states and territories with relatively low Indigenous populations, where small changes in prisoner numbers can cause variations in rates that do not accurately represent either real trends over time or consistent differences from other jurisdictions.

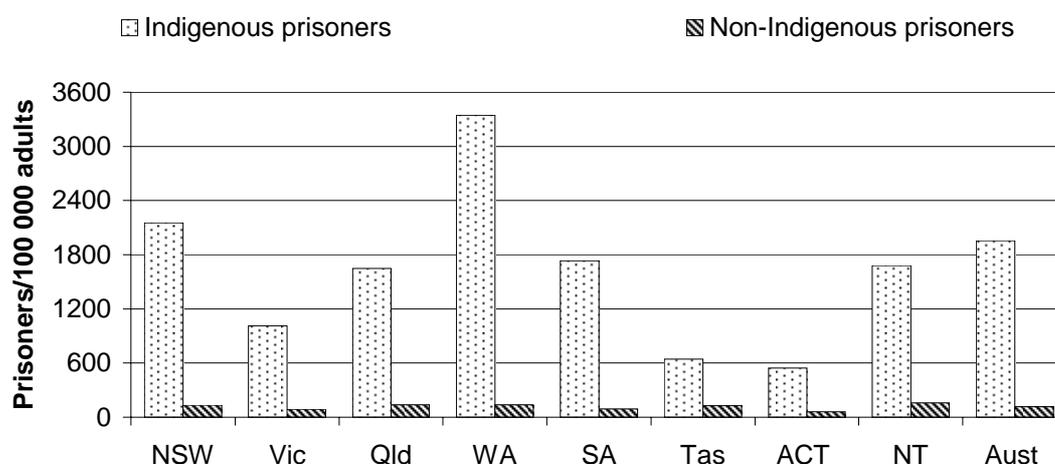
While imprisonment rates for Indigenous people are far higher than those for non-Indigenous people, the majority of prisoners are non-Indigenous. Nationally, 74.7 per cent of all prisoners were non-Indigenous in 2004-05 (table 7A.1).

The imprisonment rates in this Report have not been age standardised, therefore caution should be exercised when making comparisons between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. Using the overall (crude) imprisonment rate to examine differences between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations may lead to incorrect conclusions being drawn about variables that are correlated with age, rather than Indigenous status. The Indigenous population has a younger age profile compared to the non-Indigenous population. When the overall (crude) imprisonment rate is compared between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous

population, the imprisonment rate for the former is likely to be higher because of the larger proportion of young people in the Indigenous population.

Age standardisation is a statistical method that accounts for differences in the age structures of populations, enabling more realistic comparisons to be made between populations. Age standardisation will be considered for future Reports.

Figure 7.3 Indigenous and non-Indigenous imprisonment rates, 2004-05^{a, b, c}



^a Non-age standardised rates based on the daily average prisoner population numbers supplied by states and territories, calculated against adult Indigenous and non-Indigenous population estimates (population data supplied by the ABS National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b ACT rates include ACT prisoners held in the ACT and in NSW prisons. NSW rates exclude ACT prisoners held in NSW prisons. ^c Excludes prisoners reported as being of unknown Indigenous status.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABS (unpublished) Australian Demographic Statistics, December quarter, 2004; ABS 2002 (unpublished) Australian population projections; table 7A.4.

Community corrections

All jurisdictions provide community corrections services. Community corrections are responsible for a range of non-custodial sanctions (listed for each jurisdiction in table 7A.23) and deliver post-custodial interventions under which prisoners released into the community continue to be subject to corrective services supervision. These services 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 restriction placed on the person's freedom of movement in the community (for example, home detention). No single objective or set of characteristics is common to all community corrections services, other than that they generally provide a non-custodial sentencing alternative or a post-custodial

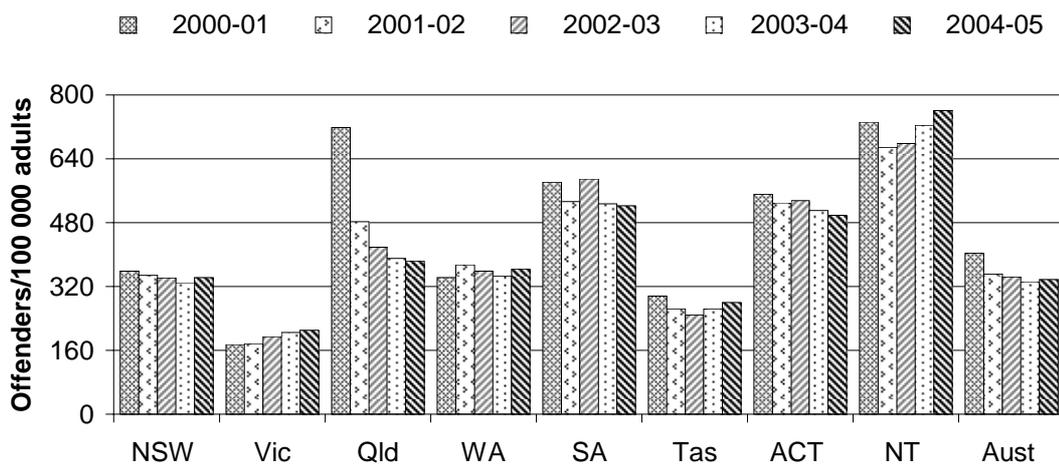
mechanism for reintegrating prisoners into the community under continued supervision.

All jurisdictions have reparation and supervision orders. Restricted movement orders were available in all jurisdictions except Tasmania in 2004-05. In most states and territories, fine default orders are administered by community corrections, as is bail supervision in some jurisdictions.

A daily average of 52 506 offenders were serving community corrections orders across Australia in 2004-05 — an increase of 3.3 per cent from the previous year's average (table 7A.3). This daily average comprised 42 811 males (81.5 per cent), 9386 females (17.9 per cent) and 309 offenders whose gender was not reported. The daily average comprised 8240 Indigenous offenders (15.7 per cent of the total community correction population), 40 145 non-Indigenous offenders (76.5 per cent) and 4121 persons whose Indigenous status was unknown (table 7A.3).

The community corrections rate represents the number of offenders serving community corrections orders per 100 000 people in the corresponding adult population. The adult population includes people at or over the age of entry to the adult correctional system in each jurisdiction (17 years in Victoria and Queensland, and 18 years in all other jurisdictions for the reporting period). The national community corrections rate was 337.9 per 100 000 adults in 2004-05 compared to 331.6 in 2003-04 (figure 7.4).

Figure 7.4 **Community corrections rates^{a, b}**



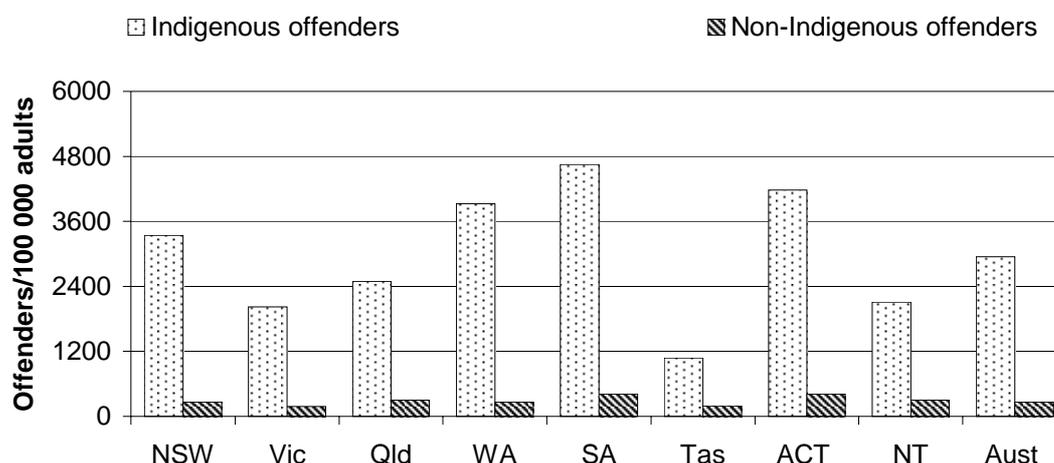
^a Non-age standardised rates based on the daily average offender population numbers supplied by State and Territory governments, calculated against adult population estimates (population data supplied by the ABS National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b As of 2000-01 rates include persons on inactive orders, though not all persons on inactive orders are included in all jurisdictions (tables 7A.29, 7A.35, 7A.73).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABS (unpublished) Australian Demographic Statistics, December quarter, 2004; table 7A.5.

The national rate for female community correction offenders was 119.0 per 100 000 adult females, compared with 559.6 for adult males (table 7A.4). The national rate for Indigenous offenders in 2004-05 was 2946.3 per 100 000 Indigenous adults compared with 263.1 for non-Indigenous offenders (figure 7.5).

As in the case of imprisonment rates, comparisons need to be interpreted with care, especially for those jurisdictions with relatively low Indigenous populations, where small changes in offender numbers can cause variations in rates that do not accurately represent either real trends over time or consistent differences from other jurisdictions.

Figure 7.5 **Indigenous and non-Indigenous community corrections rates, 2004-05^{a, b}**



^a Non-age standardised rates based on the daily average offender population numbers supplied by State and Territory governments, calculated against adult Indigenous and non-Indigenous population estimates (population data supplied by the ABS National Centre for Crime and Justice Statistics). ^b Excludes offenders whose Indigenous status was reported as unknown.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); ABS (unpublished) Australian Demographic Statistics, December quarter, 2004; ABS 2002 (unpublished) Australian population projections; table 7A.4.

7.2 Framework of performance indicators

Corrective services performance is reported against common objectives agreed by all jurisdictions, which were revised during 2004-05 (box 7.1). The performance indicator framework shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report (figure 7.6). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Box 7.1 Objectives for corrective services

Corrective Services contributes to the whole-of-government priority in all jurisdictions, to create safer communities through the administration of correctional sentences and orders. Correctional services' objectives are to:

Provide a safe, secure and humane custodial environment

Corrective services aim to protect the community through the effective management of prisoners commensurate with their needs and the risks they pose to the community.

Provide effective community corrections environment

Corrective services aim to protect the community through the effective management of offenders commensurate with their needs and the risks they pose to the community, and to provide advice services to courts and releasing authorities in the determination of orders and directions for offenders.

Provide program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending

Corrective services aim to reduce the risk of re-offending among prisoners and offenders by providing services and program interventions that address the causes of offending, maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community and to encourage offenders to adopt a law abiding way of life.

Jurisdictions continue to investigate comparability issues and work to improve the counting rules for performance indicators. Definitions and counting rules were refined during the year as part of the continuing effort to improve comparability of all indicators across jurisdictions. Data for previous years have been updated, where possible, in accordance with any revisions made to counting rules and definitions. As a result, this Report presents some historical data that may vary from data published in previous Reports. In other cases, it has not been possible to recalculate historical data. Any conclusions about changes within individual jurisdictions therefore need to be considered in this context.

Figure 7.6 Performance indicators for corrective services

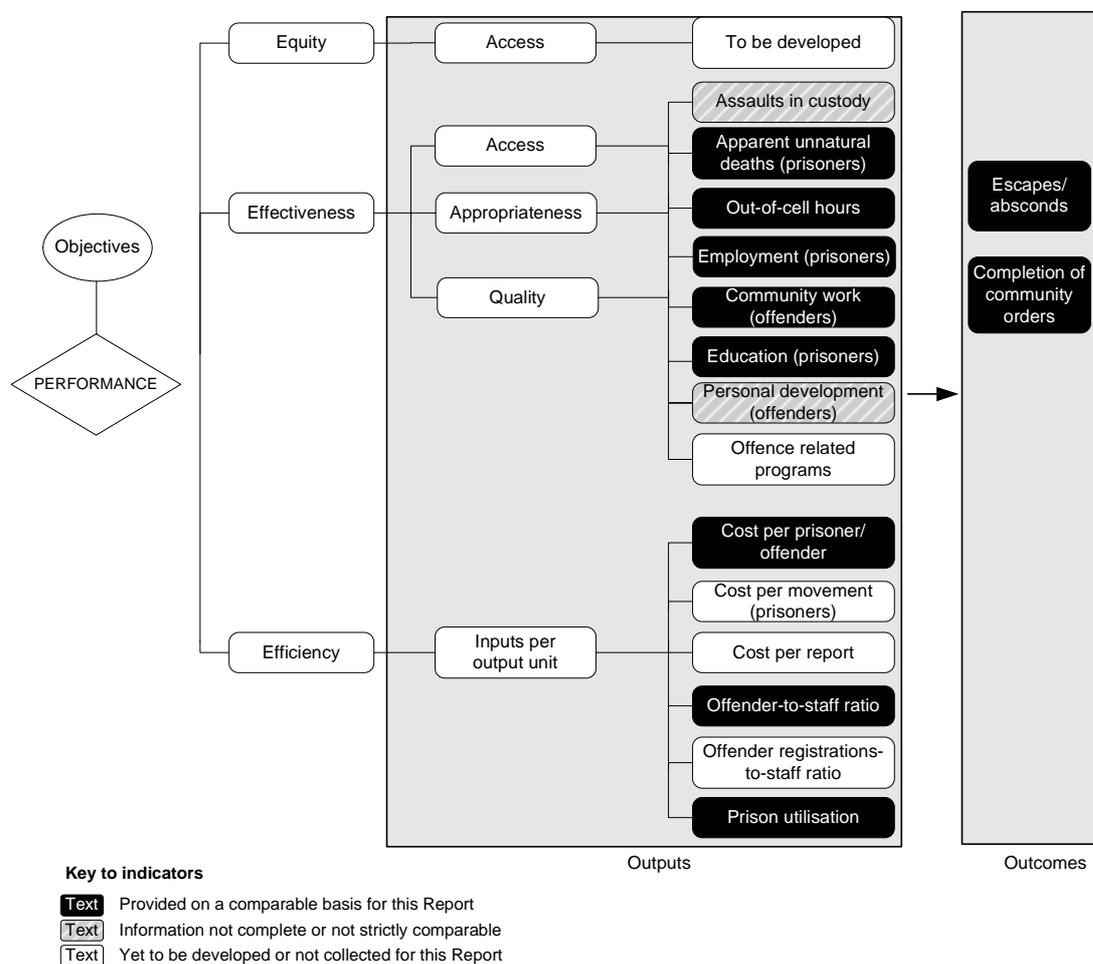


Figure 7.6 specifies the performance indicators associated with the objectives identified in box 7.1. For periodic detainees, relevant effectiveness indicators, such as assault and death rates, are reported separately. For relevant efficiency indicators (such as recurrent cost per prisoner), periodic detainees are counted as two sevenths of a prisoner, because they spend two days a week in prison. Given the unique contracted service arrangements in the ACT, the ACT indicators are presented according to the most appropriate representation of effectiveness and cost — that is, either separately for remand prisoners and/or periodic detainees held in ACT centres, or as the total ACT prisoner population (whether held in NSW or ACT facilities).

7.3 Key performance indicator results

Performance is reported against the objectives for corrective services set out in box 7.1, using the indicator framework shown in figure 7.6. Jurisdictional

differences in service delivery settings, geographic dispersal and prisoner/offender population profiles have an impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of correctional service systems. Appendix A contains detailed statistics and short profiles on each State and Territory, which may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this chapter.

Outputs

Equity

Equity — access indicator

The Steering Committee has identified equity — access in corrective services as a key area for further development in future reports (box 7.2).

Box 7.2 Performance indicator — access

An output indicator of access to appropriate programs and services for people under the responsibility of corrective services has yet to be developed.

Effectiveness

Assaults in custody

Assault rates are provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.3). Small numbers of incidents relative to small prisoner populations affect this indicator, especially the rate of serious assault, and need to be considered when interpreting these results.

Table 7A.13 provides information on the rates of assault and serious assault on prisoners and on staff for 2004-05.

Box 7.3 Assaults in custody

Meeting the objective of providing a safe, secure and humane custodial environment includes providing a prison environment where there is a low level of violence, whether perpetrated by prisoners on other prisoners or on staff. Low 'assaults' rates indicate better performance towards achieving this objective.

The 'assault' rates are defined as the number of victims of violent physical attacks reported over the year, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100. Rates for 'serious assaults' and 'assaults' are reported separately for assaults against another prisoner and assaults against a member of staff. 'Serious assaults' refer to acts of physical violence requiring medical treatment and assessment by a medical officer, resulting in overnight hospitalisation in a medical facility or requiring extended periods of medical treatment, and also include all acts of sexual assault. 'Assaults' refer to acts of physical violence resulting in a physical injury that may or may not require short-term medical intervention but do not involve hospitalisation.

Apparent unnatural deaths (prisoners)

The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.4). Small numbers of incidents relative to small prisoner populations affect this indicator, in that a single incident in a smaller jurisdiction can markedly increase the rate, but have little apparent effect in the larger jurisdictions.

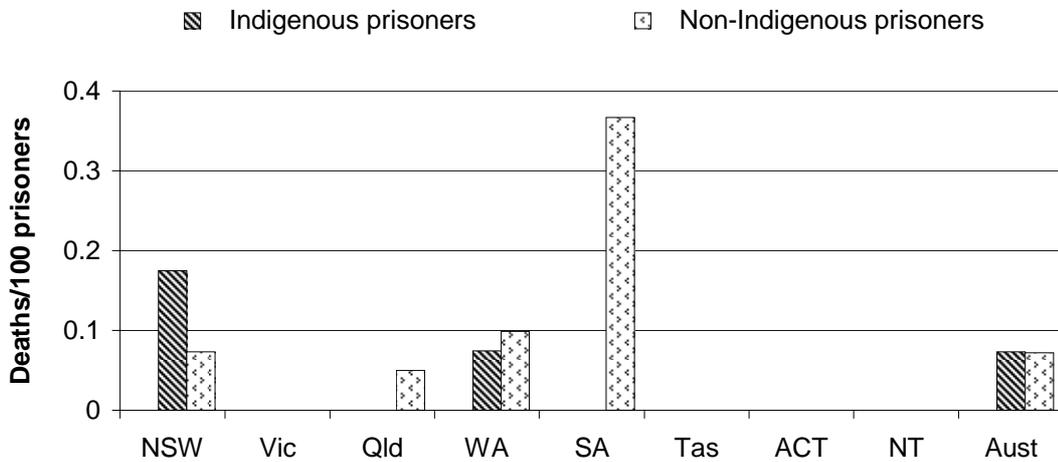
Box 7.4 Apparent unnatural deaths (prisoners)

Meeting the objective of providing a safe, secure and humane custodial environment includes providing a prison environment where there is a low risk of death from unnatural causes. A zero or low deaths rate indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

The 'apparent unnatural deaths' rate is defined as the number of deaths, divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100, where the likely cause of death is suicide, drug overdose, accidental injury and homicide, and is reported separately for Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners.

Figure 7.7 presents information on prisoner death rates in 2004-05 from apparent unnatural causes, for Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners.

Figure 7.7 Prisoner deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes, 2004-05^{a, b}

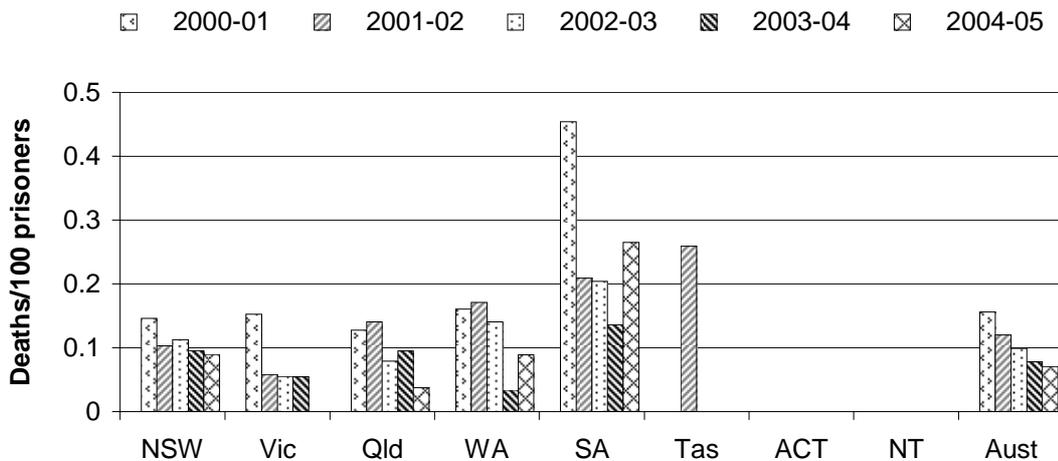


^a Indigenous deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes represent three deaths in NSW and one death in WA in 2004-05. ^b Victoria, Queensland, SA, Tasmania, the ACT and the NT reported zero deaths from unnatural causes for Indigenous prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.14.

The national rate of deaths from apparent unnatural causes for all prisoners declined from 0.16 in 2000-01 to 0.07 in 2004-05 (figure 7.8). Rates fell for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous prisoners (table 7A.15).

Figure 7.8 Prisoner deaths rates from apparent unnatural causes, all prisoners, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.15.

Out-of-cell hours

'Out-of-cell hours' per day is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.5). Jurisdictions with higher proportions of prisoners who need to be accommodated in more secure facilities because of the potentially greater risk that they pose to the community, are likely to report relatively lower total out-of-cell hours.

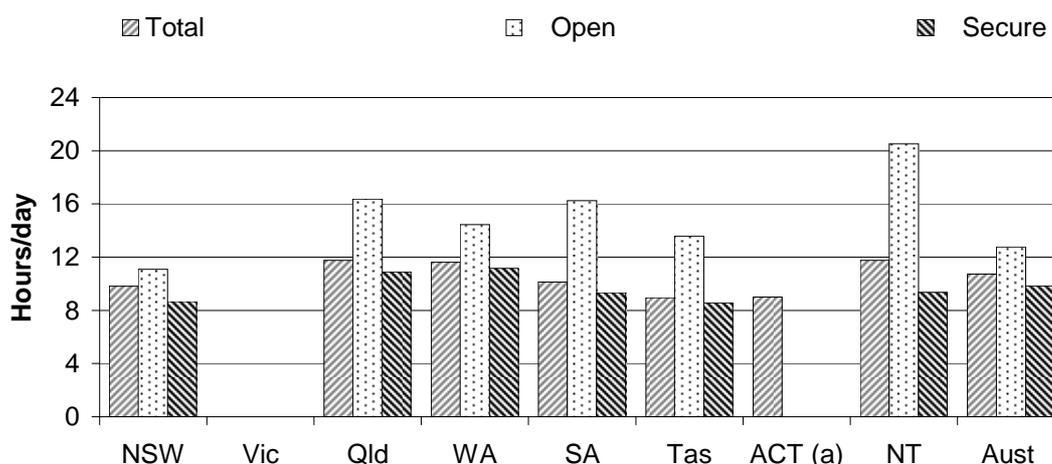
Box 7.5 Out-of-cell hours

Meeting the objective of providing a safe, secure and humane custodial environment includes managing prisoners in a manner that minimises the risks they pose to the community while enabling them to achieve an acceptable quality of life. Time spent out of cells provides a greater opportunity for prisoners to participate in activities such as work, education, well being, recreation and treatment programs, visits, and interacting with other prisoners and staff. A relatively high average 'out-of-cell hours' per day indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

'Out-of-cell hours' is defined as the average number of hours prisoners spend outside their cells during the day.

Nationally in 2004-05, the average number of out-of-cell hours per prisoner was 10.7 (figure 7.9). This figure excludes Victoria, as this jurisdiction was unable to provide data for 2004-05.

Figure 7.9 Average out-of-cell hours, by prisoner security level, 2004-05^{a, b}



^a The ACT data are based on prisoners held in ACT remand facilities and therefore open and secure custody breakdowns are not applicable for that jurisdiction. ^b Victoria did not report on this indicator in 2004-05.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.17.

Employment (prisoners)

The 'prisoner employment' rate is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.6). Jurisdictional comparisons should be interpreted with care because factors outside the control of corrective services (such as local economic conditions) affect the capacity to attract commercially viable prison industries, particularly where prisons are remote from large population centres.

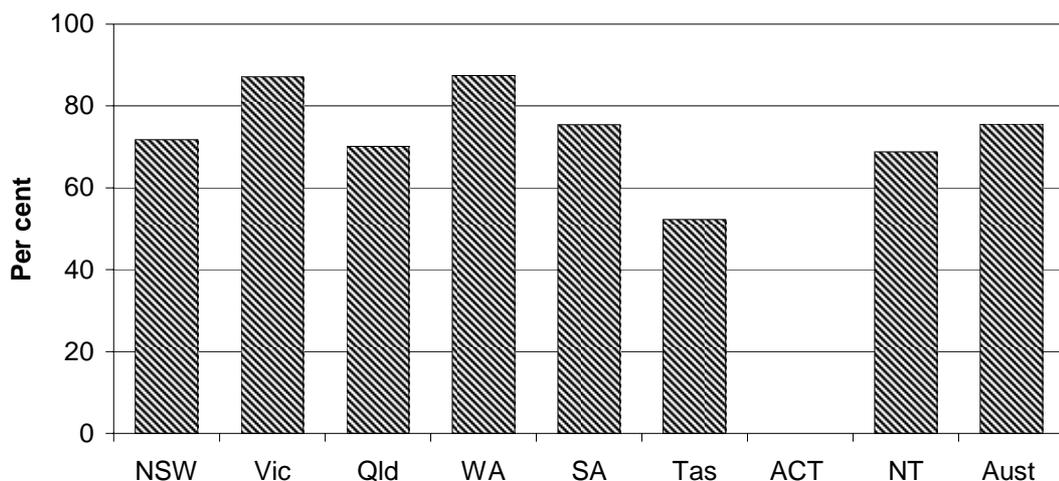
Box 7.6 Employment (prisoners)

Meeting the objective of providing program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending includes providing access to programs that address the causes of offending and maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community. Limited vocational skills and poor employment history have been identified as contributors to re-offending. A high 'prisoner employment' rate indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

The 'prisoner employment' rate is defined as the number of prisoners employed as a percentage of those eligible to work (that is, excluding those unable to participate in work programs because of full-time education, ill health, age, being imprisoned for only a short period of time, or other reason).

In 2004-05, 75.6 per cent of the eligible prisoners were employed (43.4 per cent in service industries, 30.9 per cent in commercial industries and 1.3 per cent on work release) (figure 7.10).

Figure 7.10 Proportion of eligible prisoners employed, 2004-05^a



^a Excludes the ACT because ACT prison facilities accommodate only remand prisoners, who are not required to work.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.19.

Community work (offenders)

Offender community work is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.7). Data are provided in table 7A.19.

Box 7.7 Community work (offenders)

Meeting the objective of providing an effective community corrections environment includes providing opportunities for offenders to make restitution to the community through the performance of unpaid community work where imposed as a requirement of community correctional orders. The ratio 'offender community work' indicates the extent to which corrective services were able to administer the community work components of the orders registered.

'Offender community work' is defined as the ratio of hours of community work expected to be worked to the number of hours actually worked. This indicator does not measure the extent to which individual offenders complied with the community work requirements of their orders or provide information on the degree to which the work undertaken benefits the community. It is based on the number of community work hours to be served on all orders registered during the year, divided by the number of hours actually worked by all offenders during the same period regardless of whether the current order was made in that year or relates to hours remaining to be served for an order made during a previous year.

Education (prisoners)

'Prisoner education' is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.8). Comparisons between jurisdictions should be made with care, as this indicator measures only participation in accredited education programs, and does not assess participation relative to individual prisoner needs, or measure successful completion of educational programs. Neither does it include a range of offence related programs that are also provided in prisons, such as drug and alcohol, psychological and personal development courses.

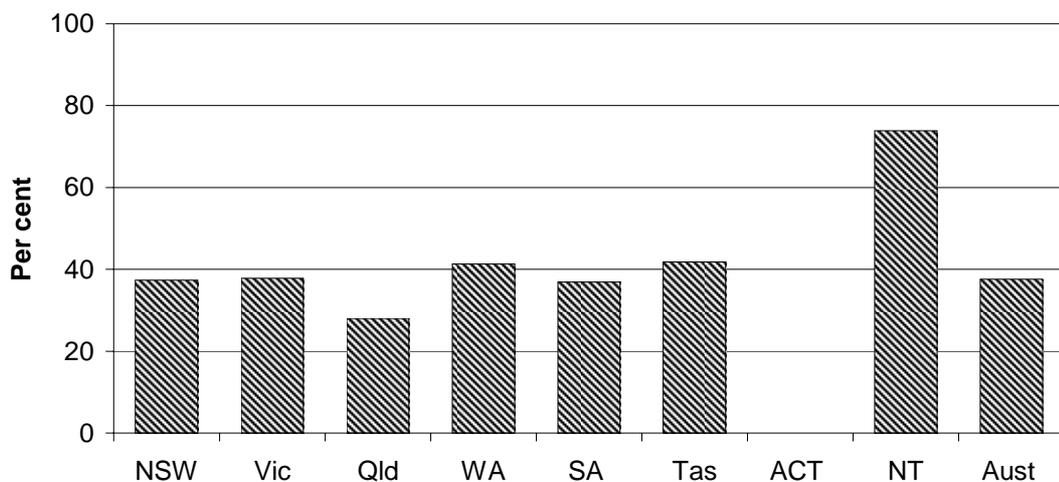
Box 7.8 Education (prisoners)

Meeting the objective of providing program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending includes providing access to programs that address the causes of offending and maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community. A high 'education' participation rate indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

The 'education' rate is defined as the number of prisoners participating in accredited education and training courses under the Australian Qualifications Framework as a percentage of those eligible to participate (that is, excluding those unable to participate for reasons of ill health, being imprisoned for only a short period of time, or other reason).

Nationally, 37.6 per cent of eligible prisoners participated in accredited education and training courses in 2004-05 (figure 7.11).

Figure 7.11 **Proportion of prisoners enrolled in education and training, 2004-05^a**



^a Excludes the ACT because ACT prison facilities accommodate only remand prisoners.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.20.

Personal development (offenders)

'Personal development' is provided as an output indicator of effectiveness (box 7.9). Data are provided in table 7A.20. As with prisoner education, interpretations of jurisdictional comparisons need to take into account that this indicator measures only enrolments in personal development programs, and does

not assess participation relative to individual offender needs, or measure successful completion of a program.

Box 7.9 Personal development (offenders)

Meeting the objective of providing program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending includes access to personal development programs. A high 'personal development' participation rate indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

'Personal development' participation is defined as the number of offenders participating in personal development programs provided by or on referral from corrective services as a percentage of total offenders.

Offence related programs

The Steering Committee has identified 'offence related programs' as an output indicator of the effectiveness of corrective services (box 7.10). No data were available for the 2006 Report.

Box 7.10 Offence related programs

Meeting the objective of providing program interventions to reduce the risk of re-offending includes providing offence related programs that address criminogenic behaviour and, for prisoners released from custody, maximise the chances of successful reintegration into the community.

An 'offence related programs' indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details). This measure will replace the 'personal development' indicator when finalised.

Efficiency

The data presented for these efficiency indicators are affected by factors other than differences in efficiency, including:

- the composition of the prisoner population (such as security classification and the number of female or special needs prisoners)
- the size and dispersion of the area serviced
- the scale of operations.

For community corrections, efficiency indicators are also affected by size and dispersion factors, particularly in jurisdictions where offenders reside in remote

communities. These indicators can also be affected by differences in criminal justice system policies and practices — for example, the availability and use of sentencing options that impose particular program or supervision requirements.

Inputs per output unit — cost per prisoner/offender

‘Cost per prisoner/offender’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.11). Efficiency indicators are difficult to interpret in isolation and should be considered in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A low cost per prisoner may reflect lesser emphasis on providing prisoner programs to address the risk of re-offending. Unit costs are also affected by differences in the composition of the prisoner and offender populations, geographic dispersion and isolation factors that limit opportunities to reduce overheads through economies of scale.

Box 7.11 Inputs per output unit — cost per prisoner/offender

The unit cost per prisoner and offender provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services. A low unit cost suggests better performance towards achieving efficient resource management.

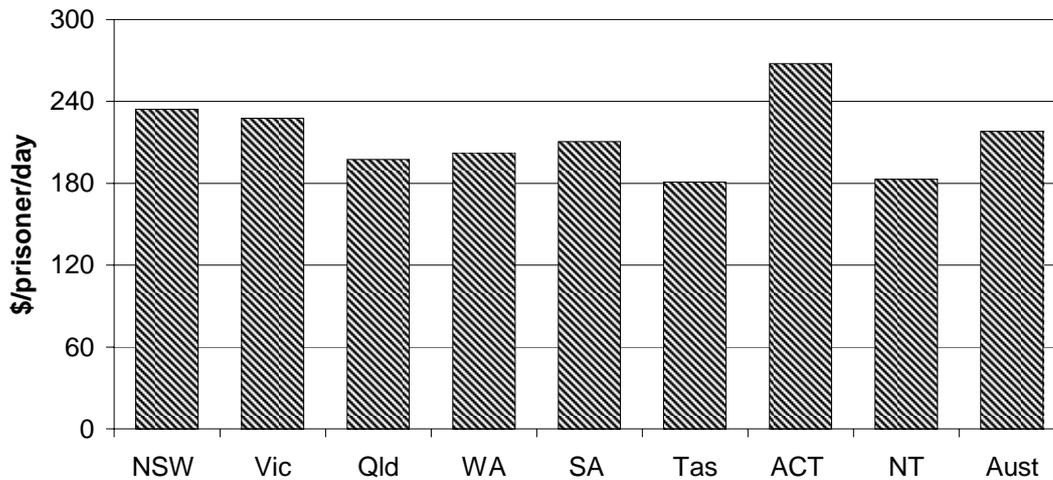
‘Cost per prisoner/offender’ is defined as the average daily cost of providing corrective services per prisoner and per offender, reported separately for recurrent cost and capital cost, and for secure and open custody prisoners.

The capital costs included in this section are the user cost of capital and depreciation for government owned prisons, and debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities. The user cost of capital is the cost of the funds tied up in government capital used to deliver services (for example, the land and buildings used to house prisoners). The user cost of capital makes explicit the opportunity cost of this capital (the return forgone by using the funds to deliver services rather than investing them elsewhere or using them to retire debt). The equivalent capital costs for privately owned prisons are debt servicing fees. These fees are paid to private owners in addition to payments relating to prison operations.

The user cost of capital was calculated by applying a nominal cost of capital rate of 8 per cent to the value of government assets. The costs of capital for land and other assets are shown separately in table 7A.6, to allow users to consider any differences in land values across jurisdictions when comparing the data.

In 2004-05, the total cost per prisoner per day, comprising recurrent expenditure, depreciation, debt servicing fee, and user cost of capital, was \$218 (figure 7.12).

Figure 7.12 Total cost per prisoner per day, 2004-05^a

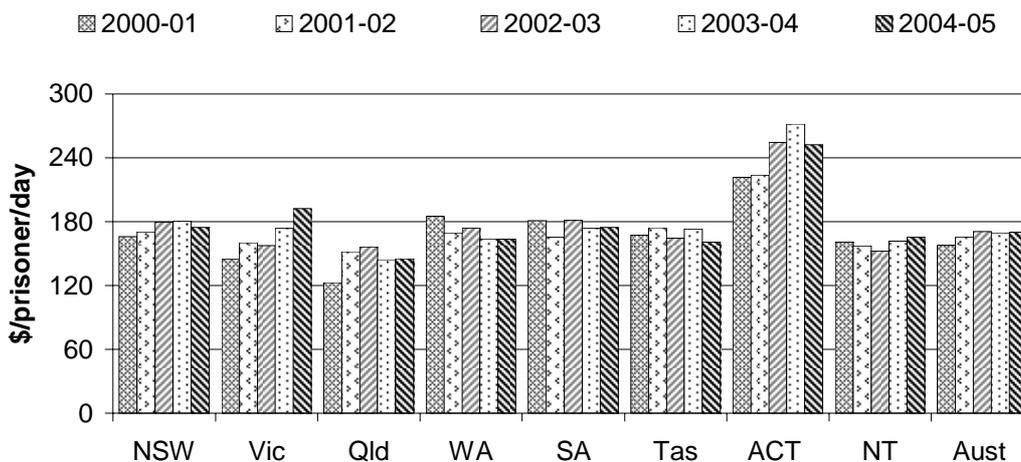


^a Total cost per prisoner per day is the combined recurrent and capital cost per prisoner per day. Recurrent cost is calculated from recurrent expenditure and is net of recurrent receipts (own source revenue) and payroll tax. Capital cost includes the user cost of capital (including land), depreciation and debt service fees where applicable. Total cost excludes the cost of transport and escort services where these are reported separately by jurisdictions.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.6.

Nationally, the real recurrent cost per prisoner per day rose from \$158 in 2000-01 to \$170 in 2004-05 – an increase of 7.6 per cent. (figure 7.13). These costs represent recurrent expenditure only, and exclude capital costs.

Figure 7.13 Real recurrent cost per prisoner per day (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b}

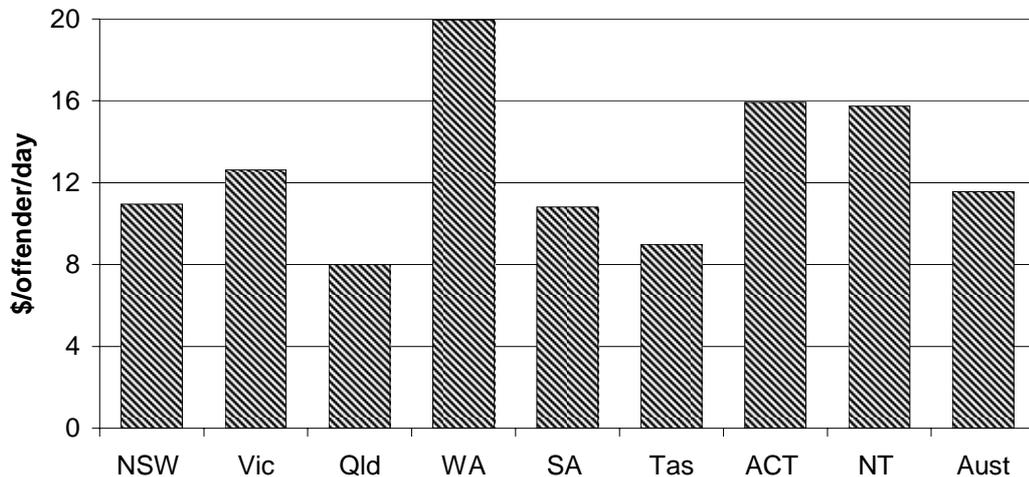


^a Costs are based on recurrent expenditure net of recurrent receipts (own source revenues) and exclude payroll tax. ^b Data for previous years were adjusted to 2004-05 dollars using the gross domestic product price deflator (table A.26).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.8.

Nationally, the real recurrent cost per offender per day was approximately \$12 in 2004-05 (figure 7.14).

Figure 7.14 Total cost per offender per day, 2004-05^a



^a Total cost per offender per day is the combined recurrent and capital cost per offender per day. Recurrent cost is calculated from recurrent expenditure and is net of recurrent receipts (own source revenue) and payroll tax. Capital cost includes the user cost of capital and depreciation.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.9.

Inputs per output unit — cost per movement (prisoners)

The Steering Committee has identified ‘cost per movement’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.12). No data were available for the 2006 Report.

Box 7.12 Inputs per output unit — cost per movement (prisoners)

‘Cost per movement’ of prisoners could potentially provide a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services, since the transport of prisoners can represent a significant resource expenditure for prison services that is not necessarily reflected in the cost per prisoner indicator.

A ‘cost per movement’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — cost per report

The Steering Committee has identified ‘cost per report’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.13). No data were available for the 2006 Report.

Box 7.13 Inputs per output unit — cost per report

The ‘cost per report’ is the average cost per report prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.

The ‘cost per report’ provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services, since the provision of advice to sentencing and releasing authorities can represent a significant resource expenditure for community corrections that is not necessarily reflected in the cost per offender indicator.

A ‘cost per report’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — offender-to-staff ratio

‘Offender-to-staff ratio’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.14). As with other efficiency indicators, it is difficult to interpret the offender-to-staff ratio in isolation, as it needs to be considered in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A low ratio may, for example, represent more intensive levels of supervision and program provision, commensurate with the risk and offence-related needs of the particular offender population aimed at producing greater efficiencies in the longer-term. Offender-to-staff ratios are also affected by differences in geographic dispersion and isolation factors that limit opportunities to reduce overheads through economies of scale.

Box 7.14 Inputs per output unit — offender-to-staff ratio

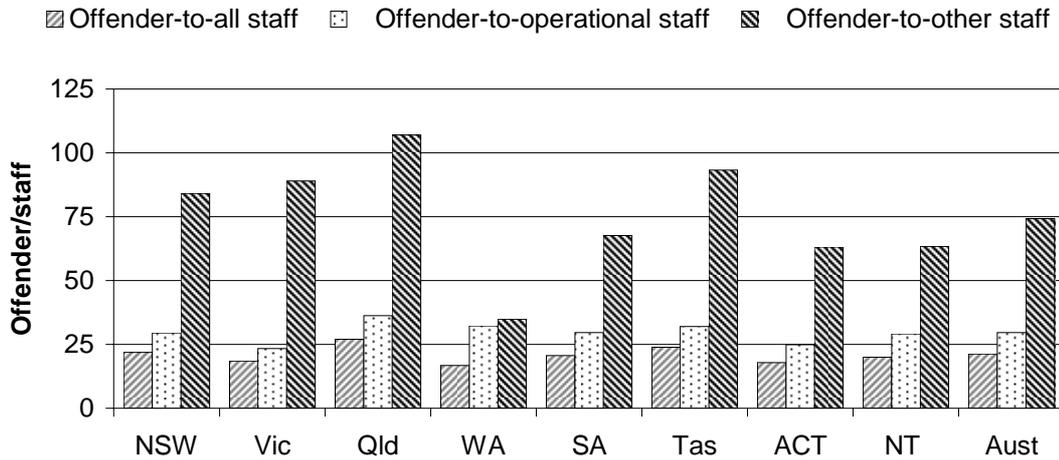
The number of staff relative to the number of offenders provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services. A high ratio suggests better performance towards achieving efficient resource management.

The ‘offender-to-staff ratio’ is defined as the number of offenders per full-time community corrections staff employed, and reported separately for operational staff (who are involved in the direct supervision of offenders) and other staff.

This indicator assesses the number of staff relative to the daily average number of offenders to provide a ‘snapshot’ measure (a count of individuals at a specific point in time), rather than ‘flow’ measure (a count of individuals across a period of time). Flow measures would be addressed by the offender registration-to-staff indicator (box 7.15).

Nationally, on a daily average there were approximately 21 offenders for every one full-time community corrections staff member in 2004-05 (figure 7.15).

Figure 7.15 **Community corrections offender-to-staff ratios, 2004-05**



Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.21.

Inputs per output unit — offender registrations-to-staff ratio

The Steering Committee has identified ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ as an output indicator of the efficiency of corrective services (box 7.15). No data were available for the 2006 Report.

Box 7.15 Inputs per output unit — offender registrations-to-staff ratio

The number of staff relative to the number of offenders provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services. This indicator assesses the number of staff relative to the number of new offenders registered during the year to provide a measure of ‘flow’ (a count of individuals across a period of time), rather than a ‘snapshot’ (a count of individuals at a specific point in time), which is addressed by the offender-to-staff indicator.

An ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ indicator is being developed (see section 7.4 for details).

Inputs per output unit — prison utilisation

‘Prison utilisation’ is provided as an output indicator of efficiency (box 7.16). Efficiency indicators are difficult to interpret in isolation and need to be considered

in conjunction with effectiveness indicators. A high utilisation rate, for example, may adversely impact on effectiveness indicators such as ‘assaults’.

Box 7.16 Inputs per output unit — prison utilisation

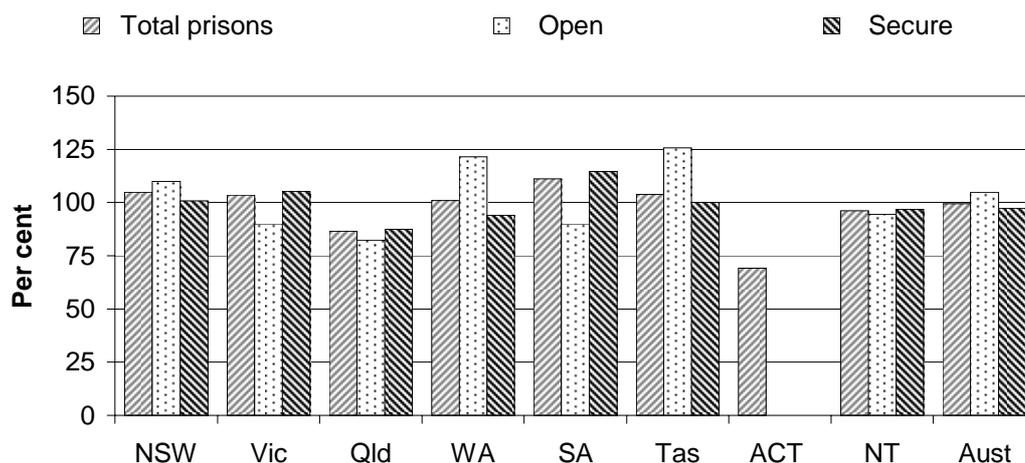
The extent to which prison design capacity is meeting the demand for prison accommodation provides a measure of efficient resource management by corrective services.

‘Prison utilisation’ is defined as the average daily prisoner population as a percentage of the number of single occupancy cells and designated beds in shared occupancy cells that is provided for in the design capacity of the prisons, and is reported separately for open and secure custody.

It is generally accepted that the desirable rate of ‘prison utilisation’ falls between 85 and 95 per cent because of the need for spare capacity to cater for the transfer of prisoners, special-purpose accommodation such as protection units, separate facilities for males and females and different security levels, and to manage short-term fluctuations in prisoner numbers. ‘Prison utilisation’ rates at the upper end of this range indicate better performance towards achieving efficient resource management.

Nationally, the prison utilisation rate was 99 per cent in 2004-05. The rate for open prisons was 105 per cent whilst the rate for secure facilities was 97 per cent (figure 7.16).

Figure 7.16 Prison design capacity utilisation rates, 2004-05^a



^a ACT data are based on prisoners held in ACT remand facilities.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.22.

Outcomes

Escapes/absconds

The 'escapes/absconds' rate is provided as an outcome indicator of corrective services contributions to Governments' priority of creating safer communities, by providing a safe, secure and humane custodial environment that protects the community through the effective management of prisoners commensurate with their needs and the risks they pose to the community (box 7.17).

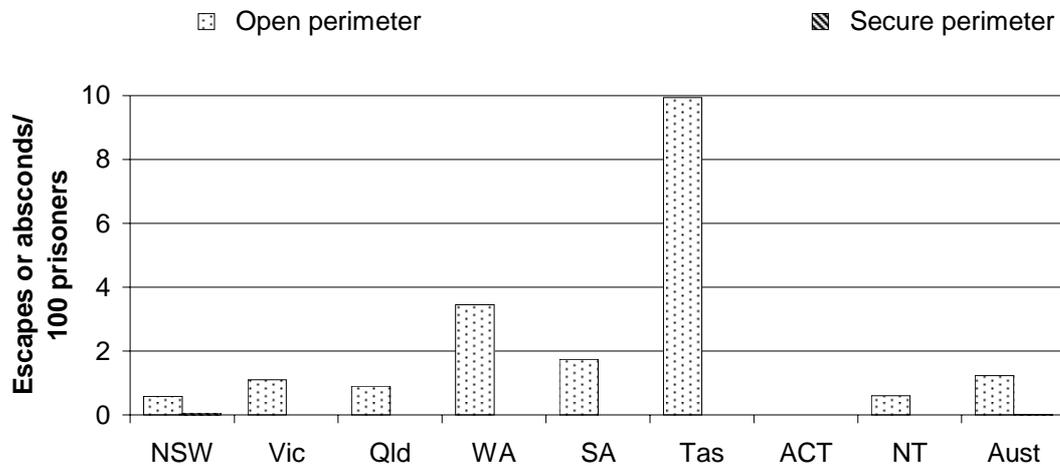
Box 7.17 Escapes/absconds

Meeting the objective of providing a safe, secure and humane custodial environment includes ensuring that all prisoners comply at all times with the requirements of the court order that has placed constraints on their liberty, particularly if their being supervised in the community poses a risk to the safety of any person. A zero or low 'escapes/absconds' rate indicates better performance towards achieving this objective.

The 'escapes/absconds' rate is defined as the number of escapes or absconds divided by the annual average prisoner population, multiplied by 100, and is reported separately for prisoners escaping from secure custody and from open custody.

Figure 7.17 presents the rates for prisoner escapes/absconds in 2004-05. Small numbers of incidents relative to small prisoner populations affect this indicator, in that a single incident in a smaller jurisdiction can markedly increase the rate, but have little apparent effect in the larger jurisdictions.

Figure 7.17 Prisoner escapes/absconds rate, 2004-05^a



^a Secure perimeter escapes rates represent three incidents in NSW in 2004-05 and zero incidents reported for all other jurisdictions.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.16.

Community corrections — completion of community orders

The percentage of community orders completed is provided as an outcome indicator of corrective services contributions to Governments' priority of creating safer communities, by providing an effective community corrections environment that protects the community through the effective management of offenders commensurate with their needs and the risks they pose to the community (box 7.18).

Comparisons of completion rates should be made with care. The indicator is affected by differences in the risk levels of offender populations and risk assessment and breach procedure policies. High-risk offenders subject to higher levels of supervision have a greater likelihood of being detected when conditions of orders are breached. High breach rates could therefore be interpreted as a positive outcome reflecting more intensive management of offenders. A high completion rate may therefore mean either exceptionally high compliance or a failure to detect or act on breaches of compliance.

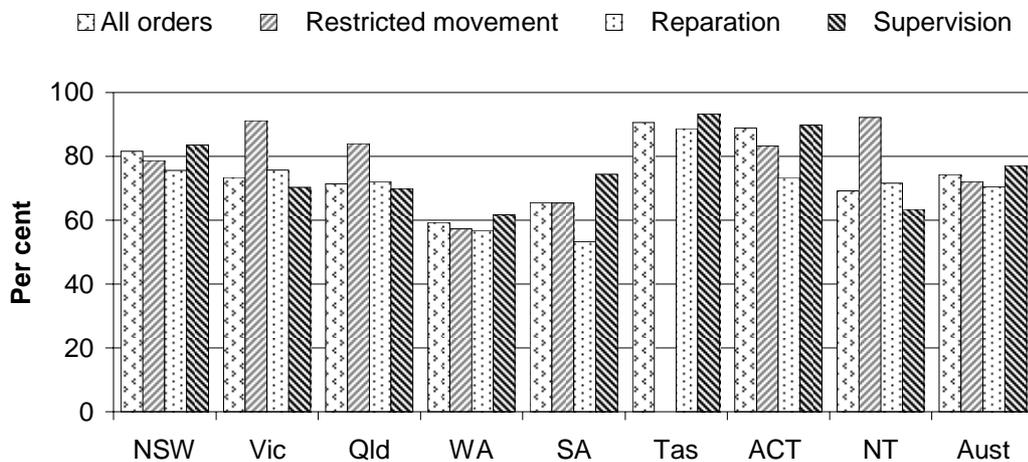
Box 7.18 Community corrections — completion of community orders

Meeting the objective of providing an effective community corrections environment includes ensuring offenders comply at all times with the requirements of the court order that has imposed certain conditions on their activities or behaviour. This may include restrictions on the offender’s liberty (as with home detention), a requirement to undertake community work or other specified activity (such as a drug or alcohol program), regularly attending a community corrections centre as part of supervision requirements, or other conditions. A high percentage of order completions indicates better performance towards achieving the outcome of providing an effective community corrections environment.

‘Completion of community orders’ is defined as the percentage of orders completed during the year that were not breached for failure to meet the order requirements or because further offences were committed.

In 2004-05, 74 per cent of community corrections orders were completed (figure 7.18).

Figure 7.18 Completion of community corrections orders, by type of order, 2004-05^{a, b}



^a Tasmania did not have restricted movement orders in 2004-05. ^b The ACT rates are based on only a small number of restricted movement orders per year. Therefore, they are not indicative of long-term trends and may fluctuate from year to year.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 7A.18.

7.4 Future directions in performance reporting

The Steering Committee is committed to the continual improvement of reporting on corrective services. It works closely with the jurisdictions to develop new indicators and improve reporting on existing indicators by refining data definitions and counting rules on an ongoing and incremental basis.

A number of indicators are being investigated including:

- ‘cost per movement’ — the cost of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services
- ‘cost per report’ — the cost of preparing reports for sentencing and releasing authorities
- the ‘offender registrations-to-staff ratio’ — new offenders registered with community corrections during the counting period who do not have a current order as a ratio of community corrections staff.

Other indicators are being developed to report on issues of policy relevance to corrective services, such as indicators to assess illicit substance abuse by prisoners, and offence related programs.

In 2004-05, continuing priority was given to identifying and resolving any outstanding comparability issues for assault, order completion, offender-to-staff ratio, and cost indicators.

7.5 Jurisdictions’ comments

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

New South Wales Government comments

“ NSW is responsible for managing the largest correctional system in Australia. Since 1998, NSW has experienced a significant increase in its prison population, rising from 6300 in 1998 to over 9100, at its highest point in May 2005, an overall rise of over 40 per cent, or an average of 400 extra prisoners per year. In 2004-05 the daily average prisoner population was 8926 and the daily average periodic detention population was 791.

The demand for community-based services remained high both in terms of increased demand for court advice and the subsequent flow of offenders registering with community-based orders. In 2004-05 the average number of people serving community based orders was 17 676, an increase of 5 per cent from last year.

In 2004-05, NSW maintained a strong management performance; notably, a persistent downward trend in prisoner assault rates and the lowest escape rates from open custody and periodic detention in Australia. Community Offender Services (COS) has increased the successful completions of community based orders from 80.6 per cent in 2003-04 to 81.6 per cent in 2004-05.

To meet the increasing demand for custodial and community based services, the NSW Government opened a number of new and/or expanded correctional facilities: Mid-North Coast Correctional Centre and Dillwynia Correctional Centre for women, and the expansion of Parklea Correctional Centre. To supplement existing bed-space, NSW has commenced construction of a correctional centre in Central West region of NSW located at Wellington. Planning is currently underway to manage the anticipated increase in offender population over the coming years.

NSW has fully implemented the standardised assessment of risk of re-offending with community based offenders. During 2004-05, NSW made a significant advancement in the implementation of the 'Throughcare model' incorporating whole of sentence planning, integrated case management and assessment of risk of re-offending. NSW has also established E Case Management based on the standardised risk needs assessment within COS and extended into correctional centres. A new Mental Health Screening Unit has been established within the Metropolitan Remand and Reception Centre at the Silverwater Correctional Complex. This unit assesses and manages inmates with mental illness. NSW is also establishing a Compulsory Drug Treatment Correctional Centre which will target drug affected offenders for participation in a custodial diversion program through the use of multi-staged intensive intervention regimes.

Accredited offender-based programs such as 'ThinkFirst' and 'Sober Drivers' have been implemented throughout the State. Other programs such as the Drug and Alcohol Program and Relapse Prevention Program also form part of a larger strategy which is currently being rolled out for offenders serving a community based sentence in NSW.

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Victorian Government comments



2004-05 was the fourth year of implementation of the Victorian Government's Corrections Long Term Management Strategy (CLTMS). This Strategy aims to enhance community safety, and comprises an extensive infrastructure program to ensure an adequate, modern and secure prison system, the diversion of low level offenders from imprisonment, and rehabilitative and re-integration programs to reduce re-offending by offenders and prisoners.

Performance highlights in 2004-05 were:

- continued strong performance by Community Correctional Services, measured both by orders made by the courts and in successful completion of orders
- a decline in Victoria's daily average prisoner population of 2 per cent in 2004-05 compared to 2003-04, the first significant decline in twelve years. At the same time, the daily average number of community corrections offenders was 4 per cent higher when compared to the previous year
- continuing improvement in prisoner recidivism rates, reversing a previous pattern of increasing recidivism.

Key initiatives during the year included:

- opening of the new Beechworth Correctional Centre, a 120 bed minimum security prison which focuses on prisoner rehabilitation
- continued construction of a 600-bed Metropolitan Remand Centre and the 300-bed Marngoneet Correctional Centre, both scheduled for completion in 2005-06
- funding of \$25.5 million over four years to support the Better Pathways: An Integrated Response to Women's Offending and Re-offending Strategy
- development of the Judy Lazarus Transition Centre, a 20 bed community transition unit which will provide a supervised pathway back into the community for selected prisoners nearing the end of their sentence
- launch of a Victims Register to improve the provision of information to victims of crime
- continued the roll-out of the Corrections Rehabilitation Framework including a new actuarial risk/need assessment tool (Victorian Intervention Screening Assessment Tool) and intensive Violent Offender programs.

In 2004-05, average prisoner costs increased significantly as a result of recurrent costs related to the major prison construction program, together with a decline in the daily average prisoner population and ongoing expenditure on programs under the Corrections Long Term Management Strategy. Nevertheless, Victoria's expenditure on corrective services per head of total population remained the lowest of all jurisdictions and well below the national average.



Queensland Government comments

“ Queensland’s Department of Corrective Services managed a daily average prison population of 5329 during 2004-05 compared to 5264 in the prior reporting period, reflecting continued growth in the prisoner population in Queensland. Indigenous peoples were reported as representing 24.1 per cent of the prisoner population.

The Government continued to maintain a safe, secure and humane correctional system. Points of particular note include no escapes from a secure custody prison, no unnatural deaths of Indigenous people in custody, effective infrastructure planning as reflected by prison capacity utilisation rates and continued cost efficiency.

The daily average number of persons on community correction orders in Queensland was 11 550 — a similar number to that reported last year. As with the prisoner population, the number of persons on community corrections orders was the second highest of all jurisdictions.

Significant progress was made during the year on the *Managing Growth in Prisoner Numbers Project*. Over the next 10 years, the number of low-risk, short-term prisoners is expected to rise significantly, placing pressure on prison infrastructure and resources. Through this project, the Government is exploring ways of diverting such offenders from custodial to community-based supervision while keeping recidivism rates low and minimising costs to the community.

In July 2004, the Minister for Police and Corrective Services announced the review of the *Corrective Services Act 2000*. A major part of the review has been public consultation. A series of consultation papers was released publicly and distributed to key stakeholders between October 2004 and January 2005. The Department received submissions from 127 community groups and individuals, including prisoners. The new corrective services legislation is expected to commence in late 2006.

Other developments in Queensland Corrective Services during 2004-05 included:

- the implementation of a new organisational structure and governance committees
 - reconfiguration of the WORC program to improve prisoner progression through the correctional system
 - deployment of new perimeter patrol vehicles
 - the completion of the Department’s information system supporting the Integrated Offender Management Strategy.
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Western Australian Government comments

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Western Australia experienced rises in prisoner numbers during 2004-05, especially aboriginal prisoners, which caused significant pressure in the regions and in the area of women's imprisonment. Short term capital works and a suite of fine default reforms aim to reduce the pressure on the prison system in the near future. A recruitment drive for prison officers between October 2004 and June 2005 resulted in the successful appointment of 200 new officers and the commencement of operational training. The drive aimed to fill a shortfall of officers due to the rising prison numbers and relieve officers undertaking overtime. Boronia Pre Release Centre for Women had its first full year of operation and early indications are that recidivism for women prisoners undertaking the new regime will be below the national rate of 45 per cent.

On 5 April 2005 an independent inquiry into 'the management of offenders in custody and in the community' was announced in response to a number of incidents. The inquiry reports in November 2005. At the same time, the Inspector of Custodial Services began a parallel inquiry under section 17 of the *Inspector of Custodial Services Act 2003* into the policies and practices of prisons.

Adult Community Corrections experienced an overall increase in numbers. A new Adult Case Assessment and Management Model was implemented and is undergoing review, operations at a new Centralised Breach Unit commenced and the Community Justice Services Training Unit programme was expanded during 2004-05. The Professional Practice Standards Unit was also established and completed an extensive programme of Community Justice Services office audits and thematic reviews. The extension of the Repay WA initiative provided many offenders with increased opportunities for providing reparation to the community through community work projects state-wide. The continued roll-out and evaluation of the Community Re-Entry initiatives, which aim to assist prisoners re-entering the community, and the evaluation of the Justice Mediation services highlighted positive achievements.

The Department of Justice continued to provide support to the Cross Border Justice Project and a number of initiatives were introduced to increase access to Victim Support and Child Witness services in Indigenous communities. The Magistrates Courts Reform Package, Fines Reform and the roll-out of the Aboriginal Justice Plan for Community and Juvenile Justice were additional achievements during 2004-05 for Western Australia.

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South Australian Government comments

“ The average South Australian inmate population has continued to steadily increase at a rate of approximately 2 per cent (compounded) per year since 1999-2000. In 2004-05 the daily average prisoner population was 1510. Intakes into custody during 2004-05 totalled 3234 persons. The majority of these entrants (2813) were unsentenced.

The demand for community-based services during 2004-05 remained relatively consistent, both in terms of demand for court advice and the subsequent flow of offenders registering with community-based orders. In 2004-05 some 5478 individuals were sentenced to a community based sanction. The Department completed 4444 reports for Courts over the same period.

The South Australian secure imprisonment rate has consistently been in excess of prison design capacity for a number of years. In response, the Department commissioned a purpose built fifty-bed medium security extension of its Mobilong facilities and is currently progressing a business case for the State's future infrastructure requirements.

Unnatural deaths in custody increased this year, highlighting the rise of persons in custody with increasing levels of risk and needs. Assessment improvements, along with an increased custodial capacity, are expected to produce improved outcomes for all prison detainees.

The Department continues in its commitment to the Aboriginal Reconciliation Framework through its involvement in the Aboriginal Lands Task Force and through its continued efforts to improve correctional services and programs in the Anangu-Pitjantjatjara (APY) lands. Under investigation is the establishment of a correctional facility on or near the APY lands and the Department continues to evaluate mechanisms to improve the reintegration of Aboriginal offenders to their communities.

Finally, in relation to the interpretation of South Australia data presented in the Corrective Services chapter of this Report, a reminder that it is important to take care when comparing indicators across jurisdictions. As stated at several points in this Report, very small changes in absolute numbers can result in significant changes in rates or percentages of the data of smaller jurisdictions. Such interpretive skewing can be misleading when making broader comparisons with the larger jurisdictions.

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Tasmanian Government comments

“ Tasmania experienced continued growth in its prisoner and offender populations during 2004-05. Community Corrections experienced a continued increase in demand across reparation and supervision orders, and reports for the courts and Parole Board. The prison population remained consistently above its design capacity throughout the year, which affected conditions for prison staff and prisoners. The construction of new facilities to provide for the increase in prison populations has continued on schedule. The first stage of the new women’s prison will be commissioned in March 2006 and the new men’s maximum/medium prison will undergo a staged commissioning process between September and December 2006.

Progress continued with the development of a new Tasmania Prison Service operating model that will be introduced in 2006. The model will incorporate contemporary best practice developments in assessment, sentence planning, case-management and reintegration. Negotiations towards a new correctional officers agreement commenced in 2004-05. The agreement includes a new rank structure, industry qualifications and revised duty statements that will support the new operating model.

Key initiatives undertaken in Community Corrections targeted toward improving service delivery include: a successful business case for additional officers based on an increase in demand for service; the review and development of work practice policy and procedure manuals; commencement of a professional supervision trial for Probation Officers; development of memoranda of understanding and active engagement with stakeholders; the employment of a Project Officer to maximise the utilisation of the offender information system; and psychological profiling of applicants for Probation Officer positions.

Work continued toward the development of a corrections throughcare system and greater coordination between the Tasmania Prison Service and Community Corrections. Progress included: improved communication between the two divisions; shared training in a cognitive skills program, which will be delivered to prisoners and offenders; development of consistent case management of offenders who have completed the prison-based sex offender treatment program; and development of an information sharing policy.

The Prisoner Escapes/Absconds rate (figure 7.17) appears to show a high escape rate compared with other jurisdictions. This figure represents nine escapes, in four incidents, from the minimum-security prison farm. The escapes occurred during a brief period when revised classification procedures were being trialled. Procedures were revised and there have been no escapes since.

In relation to the interpretation of Tasmanian data presented in the corrective services chapter, care must be taken when comparing indicators across jurisdictions, given Tasmania’s small size and prisoner/offender populations. Very small changes in absolute numbers, such as the escape rate discussed above, can result in significant changes in rates or percentages, and it can be misleading to make broad comparisons with other jurisdictions.”

Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ In 2004-05, increases in ACT prisoner and detainee numbers resulted in an overall decrease in the recurrent cost per prisoner day compared to the previous year. The ACT imprisonment rate of 74.4 per 100 000 of adult population is the lowest of all jurisdictions. The Indigenous imprisonment rate in 2004-05 has decreased significantly from 2003-04, and is also the lowest rate of any jurisdiction. The ACT has no control over per day costs of prisoners accommodated in NSW correctional facilities, as the cost of this arrangement is part of a contractual agreement with NSW.

The design stage for the construction of the new ACT prison, the Alexander Maconochie Centre (AMC), commenced in 2004-05 and will be completed in October 2005. The AMC will be a model of sustainable design, and its operations will promote a safe, healthy environment for prisoners, staff, visitors and the ACT community. The Operating Philosophy of the AMC will be consistent with the ACT *Human Rights Act 2004* and will sit within the social, spatial and economic framework of the Canberra Plan. The completion of the AMC in 2007 will lead to the repatriation of ACT prisoners from NSW.

In 2004-05, there was a significant increase in the home detention (HD) figures from the previous year as it became available as an option for persons on remand. However, the lower numbers of persons on HD compared to other jurisdictions still resulted in higher costs per HD day. The introduction of the *Crimes (Sentencing) Act 2005* consolidates existing sentencing laws and foreshadows the discontinuation of HD. The Act also introduces the concept of combination sentences that allow for greater flexibility in sentencing. Combination sentences aim to improve the options available to Courts to maximise the prevention, management and rehabilitation of offending behaviour.

The ACT's continued focus on the development of rehabilitation programs for offenders and remand prisoners was further enhanced in 2004-05 with the implementation of an intensive supervision program to tackle high volume, recidivist property offenders.

The emphasis on community based offence-related programs and the increased investment of resources being made by the ACT to rehabilitate offenders and reduce the risk of re-offending is evident in the high cost per offender day. This has resulted in the continued increase in the successful completion of community corrections orders from 86.9 per cent to 88.9 per cent. The average daily number of Indigenous offenders managed by Community Corrections was 103, five more offenders than the previous year.

ACT Corrective Services is currently reviewing all its policies and procedures to be consistent with the ACT's *Human Rights Act 2004*.

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Northern Territory Government comments

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The Northern Territory is home to people representing more than 100 nationalities. Almost 30 per cent of the population identify themselves as Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander. Correctional Services can be influenced by many factors including increasing prisoner numbers, geographic dispersion and a young population base. In the NT, criminal activity is disproportionately associated with young adult Indigenous people. Law and justice costs generally are expected to increase as a consequence of changes in the NT's future population composition as the population ages (as noted in the NT Treasury's response to the Productivity Commission's draft report on the Economic Implications of an Ageing Australia, November 2004).

The NT's adult custodial facilities are located in Darwin and Alice Springs. The Alice Springs Correctional Centre is situated 25km south of Alice Springs and is the NT's principal maximum security adult facility. The Centre accommodates prisoners of all security ratings with a total capacity of 400. The Darwin Correctional Centre is situated 16km from Darwin and is a multi-classification prison with a capacity of 400 (male and female). A new 80 bed low Security facility is due to open this year. Prisoner numbers have exceeded capacity at various times in 2005.

Community Corrections administers a number of services from ten offices located in urban and regional areas. Services include bail assessment and supervision, court services, community work orders, probation, home detention and parole.

Given the high number of Indigenous prisoners within the system, and their high re-offending rate, continuing challenges for Correctional Services include ensuring a high standard of prison health and medical care commensurate with the poor health status of Indigenous prisoners, expanding the range of culturally relevant effective interventions and increasing the number of Indigenous staff working across the Agency.

The implementation of all 71 recommendations from the Review of Adult Custodial Services (2004) continues to be a high priority. Other highlights in 2004-05 include:

- appointment of new Director and Deputy Director Indigenous Affairs
- development of the Indigenous male sex offender program
- implementation of the ATSIIC funded Indigenous Elders Visiting Program and Indigenous Family Violence Programs
- no adult deaths in custody from unnatural causes
- through the Community Support Program, provision of 60 613 hours of work to aid non-profit organisations, help the elderly and disabled and remove graffiti.

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7.6 Definitions of key terms and indicators

24-hour court cell	A place of detention located in court and/or police complexes managed by correctional officers and that accommodates sentenced/unsentenced prisoners/offenders for short periods of time (not including holding cells).
Assault	<p>An act of physical violence committed by a prisoner resulting in a physical injury that may or may not require short term medical intervention of a non-hospitalised nature. An assault is recorded where either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• a charge is proved either by a jurisdictional correctional authority, a Governor's hearing or a court of law, or• there is evidence that an assault took place because at least one of the following circumstances apply:<ul style="list-style-type: none">– there is at least one apparently reliable witness to the assault, or the victim claims assault and there is no obvious reason to doubt this claim, or– a visible injury has occurred and there is sufficient circumstantial or other evidence to make an assault the most likely cause of the injury on the basis of the balance of probabilities. <p>The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the total number of assaults by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.</p>
Average number of hours to be worked per offender	The balance of community work hours to be worked per offender with active work orders containing community hours on the first day of the counting period and/or imposed new community work hours ordered during the counting period.
Average number of hours actually worked per offender	The number of actual hours worked per offender with a work order in the counting period.
Capital cost per prisoner/offender	The daily cost per prisoner/offender, based on the user cost of capital (calculated as 8 per cent of the value of government assets), the depreciation cost for government owned prisons/facilities, and debt servicing fees for privately owned facilities.
Community corrections	Community-based management of court-ordered sanctions, post-prison administrative arrangements and fine conversions for offenders, which principally involve the provision of one or more of the following activities: supervision, programs or community work.
Community corrections rate	The annual average number of offenders per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.

Community corrections staff

Operational staff refers to staff whose main responsibility involves the supervision or provision of support services directly to offenders, for example, probation/parole/community corrections officers, home detention officers, case managers, program co-ordinators, and court advice workers. Other staff refers to staff based in Head Office or officers in the field whose responsibilities are managerial or administrative in relation to offender management. Staff members who perform a mix of caseload and administrative functions are allocated proportionately to each category based upon the workload assigned to that position.

Community custodial facilities

Correctional custodial facilities where prisoners are prepared for post-release by participating in work release programs and educational activities, performing community service, engaging in family visits and attending community-based rehabilitation programs. They include transitional centres in NSW and community custody centres (including Work Outreach Camps, Women's Community Custody Centres, and Indigenous Community Placement Centres) in Queensland.

Completion rate of community orders

The proportion of community orders successfully completed (by order type) within the counting period.

Cost per movement

The average cost per movement of transporting and escorting prisoners under the supervision of corrective services. Includes the costs of contracted transport services.

Cost per report

The average cost per report prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.

Daily average prisoner/periodic detention/offender population

The average number of prisoners, periodic detainees and/or offenders during the counting period.

Education rate

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:

- those in centres where the policy is not to provide education programs or where education programs are not available (that is, remand centres, 24-hour court cells)
- remandees for whom access to education is not available
- hospital patients who are medically unable to participate
- fine defaulters (who are incarcerated for only a few days at a time)
- subgroups of the above categories.

Employment (community corrections)

The number of community work hours worked per offender during the counting period.

Employment (prisoners and periodic detainees)	<p>The average number of prisoners or periodic detainees employed on the first day of each month as a proportion of those eligible to participate in employment. Prisoners excluded as ineligible for employment include those undertaking full time education and prisoners whose situation may exclude their participation in work programs, for example:</p> <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) • subgroups of the above categories.
Escapes/absconds rate (open/secure)	<p>A person who escapes or absconds from corrective services' custody (including under contract). The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the number of escapes/absconds by the daily average open/secure prison population, multiplied by 100.</p>
Home detention	<p>A corrective services program requiring offenders to be subject to supervision and monitoring by an authorised corrective services officer while confined to their place of residence or a place other than a prison.</p>
Imprisonment rate	<p>The annual average number of prisoners per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.</p>
Inactive order and/or in suspense	<p>Those orders awaiting breach or court hearing, interstate transfers or sentence to prison where prison sentence is less than the current active order.</p>
Indigenous	<p>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.</p>
New offender registrations-to-staff ratio	<p>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).</p>
Number of correctional facilities	<p>A facility gazetted as a prison, remand centre or periodic detention centre for adults, operated or administered by State/Territory correctional agencies and including community custodial facilities and 24-hour court cell centres .</p>
Number of reports recorded	<p>The number of pre- and post-sentence reports prepared by corrective services providing advice to sentencing and releasing authorities.</p>
Offence-related programs	<p>A structured, targeted, offence focused learning opportunity for prisoners/offenders, delivered in groups or on a one-to-one basis, according to assessed need.</p>
Offender	<p>An adult person with a current community-based corrections order (including bail supervision by corrective services).</p>
Offender-to-staff ratio	<p>The level of staff supervision based on the number of staff employed and the average number of offenders.</p>

Open custody	A custodial facility where the regime for managing prisoners does not require them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier, irrespective of whether a physical barrier exists.
Out-of-cell hours	The time during which prisoners are not confined to cells, averaged over all days of the year.
Periodic detainee	A person subject to a periodic detention order.
Periodic detention	An order of confinement, imposed by a court of law, requiring that a person be held in a legally proclaimed prison or periodic detention facility for two consecutive days within a one-week period.
Periodic detention rate	The annual average number of periodic detainees per 100 000 population aged 17 years or over in those jurisdictions where persons are remanded or sentenced to adult custody at 17 years of age, or 18 years or over in those jurisdictions where the age for adult custody is 18 years old.
Periodic detention utilisation rate	The extent to which periodic detention capacity is meeting demand for periodic detention accommodation, calculated as the total daily average periodic detention population attending a residential component of the order, divided by average periodic detention design capacity.
Personal development	The percentage of offenders taking personal development courses provided by, or on referral from, corrective services.
Prison	A legally proclaimed prison or remand centre which held adult prisoners, excluding police prisons or juvenile detention facilities.
Prison design capacity utilisation rate	The extent to which prison design capacity meets demand for prison accommodation, calculated as the total daily average prisoner population divided by average prison design capacity.
Prisoner	A person with a court-issued authority held in full time custody under the jurisdiction of an adult corrective service agency.
Private prison	A government or privately owned prison (see prison) managed under contract by a private sector organisation.
Rate of return to community corrections	The proportion of offenders completing a community order, not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon completion, who return to community corrections with a new correctional sanction within two years of the last community order completion date.
Rate of return to corrections	<p><i>Prisoners:</i> The proportion of sentenced prisoners not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon release who return to corrective services with a new correctional sanction within two years of completing a prison sentence.</p> <p><i>Community corrections:</i> The proportion of offenders not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon completion of an order who return to corrective services with a new correctional sanction within two years of the last community order completion date.</p>

Rate of return to prison	The proportion of sentenced prisoners not subject to further supervision/contact with corrective services upon release who return to prison with a new correctional sanction within two years of completing a prison sentence.
Ratio of number of hours ordered to actual hours worked per offender	The ratio of number of hours ordered to be worked to number of hours actually worked during the counting period per offender with a work order.
Recurrent cost per prisoner/offender	The daily cost of managing a prisoner/offender, calculated against recurrent expenditure net of consolidated funds and receipts (that is, own source revenue), payroll tax and capital costs.
Recurrent expenditure	Expenditure of an ongoing nature incurred in the provision of government services or programs, including salaries, maintenance and working expenses, grants and subsidies, other services, expenditure incurred by other departments on behalf of corrective services, contracted management services, and relevant expenditure by umbrella and other departments, but excluding payroll tax.
Reparation (i)	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to all offenders with a community service bond/order or fine option that requires them to undertake unpaid work.
Reparation (ii)	In the broader context of this data collection, refers to work undertaken by prisoners or offenders that benefits the community directly or indirectly by reducing costs to the taxpayer.
Restricted movement	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to offenders who are subject to a system of restricted movement, including supervision and/or electronic monitoring (e.g. home detention).
Secure custody	A custodial facility where the regime for managing prisoners requires them to be confined by a secure perimeter physical barrier.
Serious assault	<p>An act of physical violence committed by a prisoner against another prisoner or staff member resulting in actual bodily harm, including:</p> <p>(a) harm requiring medical treatment and assessment by a medical officer resulting in overnight hospitalisation in a medical facility (for example, prison clinic, infirmary, hospital or a public hospital)</p> <p>(b) harm requiring extended periods of ongoing medical treatment, or</p> <p>(c) all acts of sexual assault.</p> <p>The same requirements of (a) and (b) (above) for assault apply.</p>
Supervision (compliance)	A subcategory of community-based corrections that refers to all offenders (other than those categorised as restricted movement or reparation).
Total cost of service	Includes the combined prison and community corrections recurrent expenditure (net of recurrent receipts and payroll tax), the cost of transport and escort services, and capital costs comprising (for this item only) depreciation on government owned facilities, debt service fees for privately owned facilities, capital asset charges and other associated capital expenses, but excluding user cost of capital.

Transitional Centre

Facilities administered by corrective services for the purpose of accommodating prisoners prior to their release from custody.

Unnatural deaths rate

The death wherever occurring (including hospital) of a person:

- who is in prison custody
- whose death is caused or contributed to by traumatic injuries sustained, or by lack of proper care, while in such custody
- who dies or is fatally injured in the process of prison officers attempting to detain that person
- who dies or is fatally injured in the process of that person escaping or attempting to escape from prison custody, and
- there is sufficient evidence to suggest, subject to a Coroner's finding, that the most likely cause of death is homicide, suicide, an accidental cause or a drug overdose.

The rate is expressed per 100 prisoners, calculated by dividing the number of deaths by the daily average prisoner population, multiplied by 100.

Work order

A community service order or bond that imposes work upon an offender. (In some jurisdictions, fine options and expiations also require an undertaking by the offender to pay off the fine through community work).

Source: NCAG (2005).

7.7 Supporting tables

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix (for example, table 7A.3 is table 3 in the attachment). Supporting tables are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files containing the supporting tables are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach7A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach7A.pdf. The files containing the supporting tables can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without access to the CD-ROM or Internet can contact the Secretariat to obtain the supporting tables (see contact details on the inside front cover of the Report).

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7.8 Reference

NCAG (National Corrections Advisory Group) 2005, *Data Collection Manual 2004-05*, Canberra, unpublished.

PART D

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

8 Emergency management

Emergency management aims to reduce the level of risk to the community of emergencies occurring, reduce the adverse effects of emergency events, and improve the level and perception of safety in the community. This chapter reports on selected emergency events, including fire, ambulance (pre-hospital care, treatment and transport) and emergency road rescue events. While section 8.1 contains some information on the scope of emergency services organisations' (ESOs) activities, the chapter does not report on the total range of State and Territory ESO activities.

An overview of emergency management appears in section 8.1. A framework of performance indicators is outlined in section 8.2. The data are discussed in sections 8.3 (fire), 8.4 (ambulance) and 8.5 (road rescue), 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 (section 8.8), a list of supporting tables (section 8.9) and references in section 8.10.

Supporting tables

Supporting tables are identified in references throughout this chapter by an 'A' suffix. For example, table 8A.3 is table 3 in the supporting tables, details of which can be found in section 8.9.

8.1 Overview of emergency management

Emergency management is defined as a range of measures to manage risks to communities and the environment (EMA 2003). The emergency management sector includes a range of ESOs engaged in areas as diverse as risk assessment, State and city governance, legislation, community development, emergency response, urban development and land use management, and community recovery.

The range of events addressed by emergency management includes fires, medical transport and emergencies, rescues, other natural events (such as floods, earthquakes, tsunamis, landslides, heatwaves, cyclones and other storms), consequences of acts of terrorism, technological and hazardous material incidents

(such as chemical spills, harmful gas leaks, radiological contamination, explosions, and spills of petroleum and petroleum products), and the quarantine and control of diseases and biological contaminants. Emergency management aims to create and strengthen safe, sustainable and resilient communities that can avoid or minimise the effects of emergencies and, at the same time, have the ability to recover quickly by restoring their socioeconomic vitality.

Roles and responsibilities

The practice of emergency management requires cooperation among Australian, State, Territory and local governments, industry, community organisations and the community in general.

Australian Government

The primary role of the Australian Government is to support and develop national emergency management capability. This is achieved by a range of activities, including:

- coordinating the Australian Government's material and technical assistance to states and territories in the event of large scale emergencies (through Emergency Management Australia [EMA], which is a division within the Australian Attorney-General's Department)
- providing financial assistance to states, territories and authorities for natural disaster and flood prevention/mitigation (through the Natural Disaster Mitigation Program and the Regional Flood Mitigation Program of the Department of Transport and Regional Services [DOTARS]) and for helping to bear the costs of natural disasters (through DOTARS's Natural Disaster Relief Arrangements)
- providing information, best practice materials and training programs (through EMA)
- providing funding for risk management (through the DOTARS's Natural Disaster Risk Management Studies Program) and undertaking comprehensive risk assessment (through DOTARS and Geoscience Australia)
- supporting community awareness activities (through EMA, the Bureau of Meteorology and Geoscience Australia).

Australian Government agencies also have specific emergency management responsibilities, including: the control of exotic animal diseases; aviation and maritime search and rescue; the management of major marine pollution and meteorological and geological hazards; the provision of firefighting services at

some airports and some defence installations; human quarantine; and research and development.

State and Territory governments

State and Territory governments are responsible for regulatory arrangements for the protection of life, property and the environment, and they have primary responsibility for delivering emergency services (including fire and ambulance services) directly to the community.

Australian, State and Territory governments are jointly responsible for developing building fire safety codes, undertaking fire-related research, formulating policies and providing advice on fire safety.

Local governments

Local governments in most states and territories are involved to varying degrees in emergency management. Their roles and responsibilities include:

- considering community safety in regional and urban planning by assessing risks, and developing mitigation measures and prevention plans to address emergencies such as bushfires and structure fires, floods, storms, landslips and hazardous materials incidents
- improving community preparedness through local emergency and disaster plans
- issuing hazard reduction notices to private land holders and clearing vegetation in high risk public areas
- collecting statutory levies to fund fire and other emergency services
- allocating resources for response and recovery activities
- providing financial and operational assistance to rural fire brigades and/or other voluntary emergency service units.

Emergency service organisations

State and Territory governments and local governments provide emergency management services to the community through a range of ESOs. The structure and reporting lines of ESOs vary across jurisdictions. These organisations range from government departments to statutory authorities, and to smaller branches, agencies or services within larger departments or authorities. In some instances, non-government organisations are also involved in the provision of emergency management services, such as St John Ambulance in WA and the NT.

In all jurisdictions, there is considerable cooperation and coordination among ESOs in response to major emergency events. There can also be substantial cooperative efforts across government, particularly in the recovery stages after a major incident. Events of considerable magnitude and duration, such as earthquakes, cyclones and bushfires, can involve interstate cooperation and support.

Fire service organisations

State and Territory governments provide a range of emergency management activities through agencies historically considered as fire service organisations, including prevention, preparedness, response and recovery (section 8.2). The role of fire service organisations varies across jurisdictions and includes involvement in an expanding variety of activities (table 8A.35). Fire service organisations are involved in:

- developing building fire safety codes and inspecting fire safety equipment and practices
- training and educating the community to achieve community awareness and behavioural change in relation to fire safety and road safety issues
- assisting individuals and communities to prepare for bushfires
- responding to structure, bush, vehicle and other fires
- providing rural land management advice on the role and use of fire
- providing road accident rescue and other rescue services
- managing hazardous material incidents
- administering legislation relating to fire safety, hazardous materials facilities and hazard mitigation.

Fire service organisations work closely with other government departments and agencies — including ESOs such as the State Emergency Service/Territory Emergency Service (SES/TES), police and ambulance services, and community service organisations — to minimise the impact of fire and other emergencies on the community. Their management structure differs across jurisdictions (box 8.1).

Separate urban and rural fire service organisations deliver fire services in most jurisdictions. Land management departments typically also provide rural fire services (although data on these agencies are not reported in this chapter unless stated). Jurisdictions with more than one fire authority may separate services in different ways — for example, NSW separates fire services based on service function and geographic area, whereas Victoria separates fire services by geographic area only.

Some jurisdictions have particular arrangements for the provision of fire services to Indigenous communities. (For more information on fire services provided to Indigenous communities, see SCRCSSP 2002, p. 572.)

Box 8.1 Delivery and scope of activity of primary fire service organisations^a		
	<p>Urban</p> <p>Attend: residential and commercial structure fires; incidents involving hazardous materials; and road accidents within major urban centres.</p>	<p>Rural</p> <p>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.</p>
NSW	<p><i>NSW Fire Brigades</i> — this government department reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.</p>	<p><i>NSW Rural Fire Service</i> — this government department reports to the Minister for Emergency Services directly.</p>
Vic^b	<p><i>Metropolitan Fire and Emergency Services Board</i> — this statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services.</p> <p><i>Country Fire Authority</i> — this statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services.</p>	<p><i>Department of Sustainability and Environment</i> — this department is responsible for public lands.</p>
Qld	<p><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.</p>	
WA^c	<p><i>Fire and Emergency Services Authority of WA (FESA)</i> — this umbrella statutory authority reports to the Minister for Police and Emergency Services directly.</p>	
SA	<p><i>South Australian Metropolitan Fire Service</i> — this body corporate reports to the Board of the SA Fire and Emergency Services Commission.</p> <p><i>South Australian Country Fire Service</i> — this body corporate reports to the Board of the SA Fire and Emergency Services Commission.</p>	
Tas	<p><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.</p>	
ACT	<p><i>ACT Fire Brigade and ACT Rural Fire Service</i> — these are agencies of the ACT Emergency Services Authority, which reports to the ACT Minister for Police and Emergency Services.</p>	

(Continued on next page)

Box 8.1 (Continued)

NT^d *NT Fire and Rescue Service* — this is a branch of the larger Department of Police, Fire and Emergency Services. The Director of Fire and Rescue Services and Emergency Services, reports to the Commissioner for Police, who reports to the Minister for Police, Fire and Emergency Services.

Bushfires Council — this is a board, which reports to the Minister for Infrastructure, Planning and Environment.

^a Excludes brigades employed by large scale public and private land managers; port, mining and other infrastructure brigades; and land management departments and brigades operating under Australian jurisdiction (for example, airport and defence installations). ^b The Metropolitan Fire and Emergency Services Board provides urban fire services coverage from the Melbourne Central Business District through to the middle and outer suburbs. The Country Fire Authority provides urban and rural fire services coverage for all parts of Victoria other than the Melbourne Metropolitan Fire District and public lands. This includes outer metropolitan Melbourne and regional centres. ^c As the primary fire service organisation in WA, FESA incorporates the Fire and Rescue Service (FRS) and the Bush Fire Service in one Fire Services Division. The FRS career (paid) firefighters serve the gazetted fire districts in the Perth metropolitan area and five major urban regional centres. Volunteers in FRS serve in gazetted fire districts in smaller urban centres in regional areas. FESA provides funding and Bush Fire Service support to local government volunteer bush fire brigades, which are responsible for fire response in all other regional areas apart from national parks and forests. Fire response in national parks and forests is the responsibility of the Department of Conservation and Land Management. ^d The NT Bushfires Council is primarily a land management organisation and responds only to grass fires and bushfires on land outside the Fire and Rescue Service response areas. The NT statistics in this chapter do not apply to the Bushfires Council unless stated.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

Ambulance service organisations

The role of ambulance service organisations across jurisdictions generally includes:

- providing emergency pre-hospital patient care and transport in response to sudden injury and illness
- retrieving emergency patients
- accessing emergency pre-hospital patients (for example, in confined spaces and hazardous environments)
- undertaking interhospital patient transport
- conducting road accident rescue
- planning and coordinating patient services in multi-casualty events.

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).

The Royal Flying Doctor Service responds to medical emergencies in remote inland areas of Australia. New South Wales, Queensland and Tasmania contract the Royal Flying Doctor Service to provide aircraft and pilots for their air ambulance services, and the costs of those services are included in the ambulance costs reported for these jurisdictions. Data relating to other Royal Flying Doctor Service activities are not included in the Report (see also section 8.4 for a discussion of air ambulance services).

Some jurisdictions have particular arrangements for the provision of ambulance services to Indigenous communities. (For an example of ambulance services provided to Indigenous communities in Queensland, see SCRCSSP 2002, p. 574. For information on Indigenous access to air medical services, see SCRCSSP 2003, pp. 8.7–8.8.)

Some government ambulance service organisations also provide first aid training courses, as do non-government providers such as St John Ambulance and the Australian Red Cross.

Box 8.2 Relationships of primary ambulance response and management organisations to government

<i>NSW</i>	<i>Ambulance Service of NSW</i> — a statutory authority reporting to the Minister for Health
<i>Vic</i>	<i>Metropolitan Ambulance Service, Rural Ambulance Victoria, and Alexandra and District Ambulance Service</i> — separate statutory bodies reporting to the Minister for Health
<i>Qld</i>	<i>Queensland Ambulance Service</i> — a division of the Department of Emergency Services, reporting to the Director-General, who reports to the Minister for Emergency Services
<i>WA</i>	<i>St John Ambulance</i> — an incorporated not-for-profit organisation under contract to the WA Government
<i>SA</i>	<i>SA Ambulance Service (SAAS)</i> — SAAS is the trading name of SA St John Ambulance Service Inc., established under the <i>Associations Incorporations Act 1985</i> (SA). The <i>Ambulance Services Act 1992</i> (SA) authorises and licenses SAAS to provide an ambulance service in SA
<i>Tas</i>	<i>Tasmanian Ambulance Service</i> — a statutory service of the Hospital and Ambulance Division of the Department of Health and Human Services
<i>ACT</i>	<i>ACT Ambulance Service</i> — an agency of the ACT Emergency Services Authority, reporting to the ACT Minister for Police and Emergency Services
<i>NT</i>	<i>St John Ambulance</i> — an incorporated not-for-profit organisation under contract to the NT Government

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished).

State Emergency Services and Territory Emergency Services

State and Territory governments contribute to a range of emergency management activities through SES/TES. The activities of SES/TES (table 8A.36) include prevention, preparedness, response and recovery (section 8.2). The role of SES/TES across jurisdictions encompasses a variety of activities. The SES/TES are primarily the combat agencies responsible for flood and storm operations but also have a role in attending road rescue incidents and performing extrications.

Other ESOs

The Review does not yet report on the performance of Australian Government or local government emergency management services or their agencies.

Volunteers in emergency management

More than 250 000 fire, ambulance and SES/TES volunteers play a significant role in the provision of emergency services in Australia (table 8.1). 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.

Volunteers in many ESOs — including fire, ambulance, SES/TES, marine rescue, and recovery and relief agencies — provide services relating to emergency situations and disasters resulting from natural hazards such as wildfires, floods, severe storms, earthquakes, cyclones, and human caused and technological events. In total, over 500 000 volunteers from ESOs and other organisations (such as the Red Cross) participate each year in the management of a broad range of emergency situations and disasters (EMA 2001).

Table 8.1 Volunteers in emergency service organisations

	NSW ^a	Vic ^b	Qld ^c	WA ^d	SA ^e	Tas ^f	ACT	NT	Aust
2002-03									
ASOs	57	387	403	2 748	1 654	530	–	22	5 801
FSOs	68 676	58 000	46 677	23 743	12 244	4 912	650	455	215 357
SES/TES	9 072	5 129	18 265	2 308	6 808	550	180	539	42 851
Total	77 805	63 516	65 345	28 799	20 706	5992	830	1 016	264 009
2003-04									
ASOs	115	501	445	2 720	1 583	567	–	20	5 951
FSOs	73 059	58 583	44 286	22 328	11 161	4 766	810	521	215 514
SES/TES	10 026	4 839	17 211	2 039	2 050	450	180	582	37 377
Total	83 200	63 923	61 942	27 087	14 794	5 783	990	1 123	258 842
2004-05									
ASOs	118	819	575	2 624	1 530	448	–	17	6 131
FSOs	73 072	58 662	44 648	28 319	11 307	4 668	1 022	551	222 249
SES/TES	9 835	4 350	12 456	2 015	1 998	575	244	495	31 393
Total	83 025	63 831	57 679	32 958	14 835	5 691	1 266	1 063	259 773

ASO = ambulance service organisation. FSO = fire services organisation. ^a For NSW, fire service organisation numbers include community fire unit members. ^b Victorian ambulance service organisation data include remunerated volunteers. These volunteers were remunerated for some time (usually response time), but not for other time (usually on-call time). There were 362 remunerated volunteers in 2003-04 and 335 in 2002-03. ^c Ongoing audits of SES database have resulted in large numbers of inactive volunteers being removed. ^d WA data include multiskilled emergency service volunteers. ^e Fire service organisation numbers include retained firefighters. ^f Tasmania has reviewed its database to exclude inactive volunteers. – Nil or rounded to zero.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.5, 8A.21 and 8A.31.

Although volunteers make a valuable contribution, they should not be counted as an entirely free resource. For example, 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.

Emergency management events

This chapter focuses on the performance of emergency management in relation to three types of emergency event: fire events (section 8.3), ambulance events (section 8.4), and road rescue events (section 8.5). There are, however, many other categories of emergency management that are not currently reported, including: rescues on land (other than road rescues) and at sea; natural events (such as floods, earthquakes, landslides, heatwaves, cyclones and other storms); the consequences of acts of terrorism; technological and hazardous material incidents (such as chemical spills, harmful gas leaks, radiological contamination, explosions and spills of petroleum and petroleum products); and the quarantine and control of diseases and biological contaminants.

8.2 Framework for measuring the performance of emergency management

The broad aim of emergency management is to reduce the level of risk to the community from emergencies. The framework of performance indicators in this chapter is based on the objectives for emergency management, which are common to all Australian ESOs (box 8.3). These objectives are nationally agreed and developed by the Emergency Management Working Group.

Box 8.3 Objectives for emergency management

Emergency management services aim to provide highly effective, efficient and accessible services that:

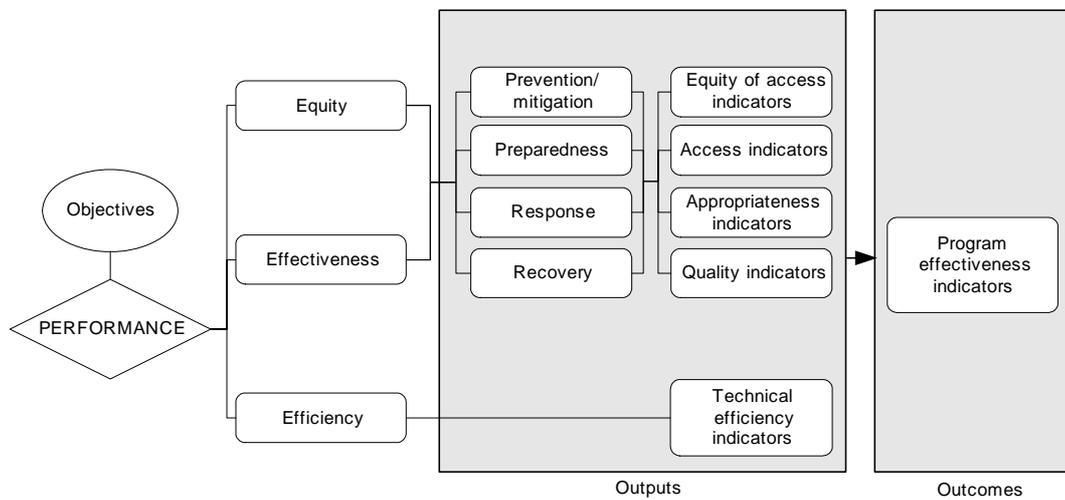
- reduce the adverse effects of emergencies and disasters on the Australian community (including people, property, infrastructure, economy and environment)
- contribute to the management of risks to the Australian community
- enhance public safety.

Emergency service organisations aim to reduce the number of emergency events through prevention activities, and to reduce the impact of emergency events through community and operational preparedness. Fast, effective response and recovery services are critical to containing hazards and managing the consequences of emergency events. The prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery performance indicator framework (figure 8.1) used in this chapter reflects all these activities.

The general performance indicator framework presented in figure 8.1 has been applied to fire events (section 8.3), ambulance events (section 8.4) and road rescue events (section 8.5).

The outcome indicators in the performance framework provide an indication of the effects of ESOs on the community, economy and environment. Those currently reported are, for fire events, the 'fire death rate', the 'fire injury rate', the 'median dollar losses from structure fire', 'total property losses from structure fire', and for ambulance events, the 'survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest'.

Figure 8.1 **General performance indicator framework for emergency management**



The framework uses the widely accepted ‘comprehensive approach’ (prevention/mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery) to classify the key functions common to ESOs in managing emergency events. Outputs in the emergency event frameworks are grouped accordingly.

- *Prevention and mitigation* — the results of measures taken in advance of an emergency aimed at decreasing or eliminating its impact on the community and the environment. Activities that contribute to outputs of prevention and mitigation include: advice on land management practice for hazard reduction and prevention; the inspection of property and buildings for hazards, compliance with standards and building codes, and levels of safe practices; the preparation of risk assessment and emergency management plans; risk categorisation for public information campaigns; and public information campaigns and educational programs to promote safe practices in the community.
- *Preparedness* — the results of measures to ensure, if an emergency occurs, that communities, resources and services are capable of responding to, and coping with, the effects. Activities that contribute to outputs of preparedness include: public education and training; emergency detection and response planning (including the installation of smoke alarms and/or sprinklers); hazardous chemicals and material certification, and the inspection of storage and handling arrangements; the exercising, training and testing of emergency service personnel; and standby and resource deployment and maintenance. Preparedness also involves establishing equipment standards and monitoring adherence to those standards.

-
- *Response* — the results of strategies and services to control, limit or modify the emergency to reduce its consequences. Activities that contribute to outputs of response include: the implementation of emergency plans and procedures; the issuing of emergency warnings; the mobilisation of resources in response to emergency incidents; the suppression of hazards (for example, fire containment); the provision of immediate medical assistance and relief; and search and rescue.
 - *Recovery (ESOs)* — the results of strategies and services to return agencies to a state of preparedness after emergency situations. Activities that contribute to outputs of emergency services recovery include: critical incident stress debriefing; and the return of ESO resources to the state of readiness specified in their response plan(s).
 - *Recovery (community)* — the results of strategies and services to support affected individuals and communities in their reconstruction of physical infrastructure and their restoration of emotional, social, economic and physical wellbeing. Activities that contribute to outputs of community recovery include: the restoration of essential services; counselling programs; temporary housing; long term medical care; and public health and safety information.

Effective prevention activities reduce the requirement to respond to, and recover from, emergency events. Every jurisdiction is placing a greater emphasis on preventative activities. Efficient resource use reduces the risk to the community by supporting a greater availability of services.

8.3 Fire events

This section contains information on the performance of ESOs in providing emergency management services for fire events. A fire event is an incident that is reported to a fire service organisation and requires a response. Fire events include (but are not limited to):

- structure fires (that is, fires inside a building or structure), regardless of whether there is damage to the structure
- landscape fires, including bushfires and grass fires, regardless of the size of the area burnt.

Emergency management services for fire events

Fire service organisations are the primary agencies involved in providing emergency management services for fire events. A range of other agencies may also

be involved, including ambulance service organisations, SES/TES and police services (table 8A.38).

Full reporting would ideally include information on the resources allocated by all ESOs to the management of fire events. Although this information is currently unavailable, work is underway to improve this information for future reports. The descriptive information provided below on funding, incidents and human resources relate to fire service organisations only (although, as discussed in section 8.1, fire service organisations are involved in other activities not directly related to fire events).

Funding

Total funding of the fire service organisations covered in this Report was over \$1.7 billion in 2004-05 (excluding funding for land management agencies). Nationally, over the period 2000-01 to 2004-05, funding increased with an average annual growth rate of 5.0 per cent. Within jurisdictions, funding increased (in real terms) for all jurisdictions except the NT (table 8.2).

**Table 8.2 Funding of fire service organisations (2004-05 dollars)
(\$ million)^a**

	<i>NSW</i> ^b	<i>Vic</i>	<i>Qld</i> ^c	<i>WA</i> ^d	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Aust</i> ^e
2000-01	486.4	350.9	270.4	109.7	124.9	42.4	42.2	23.9	1 450.8
2001-02	537.3	345.6	267.7	102.8	121.5	42.0	23.6	21.7	1 462.2
2002-03	617.3	399.3	300.5	106.7	126.4	51.3	30.6	15.4	1 647.4
2003-04	591.4	451.3	308.4	121.1	134.5	50.0	39.1	16.4	1 712.1
2004-05	622.0	471.9	296.3	115.3	132.9	49.5	43.5	20.6	1 751.9

^a Funding levels are adjusted using the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure. ^b NSW Fire Services data for 2001-02, 2002-03 and 2004-05 are artificially inflated by significant abnormal grants associated with natural disasters. ^c The State Government grant for Queensland in 2002-03 and 2003-04 included funding for a 6 per cent equity return, equal to \$15 million in 2002-03 and \$17 million in 2003-04. However, a whole of government decision in 2004-05 eliminated the equity return expense performance management regime and related funding with effect from 1 July 2004. This has resulted in a reduction of \$18 million in both revenues and expenses in 2004-05. ^d For WA, data for 2003-04 include operational and recurrent costs of local government Bush Fire Brigades, now funded by the Emergency Services Levy. ^e Totals may not sum as a result of rounding.

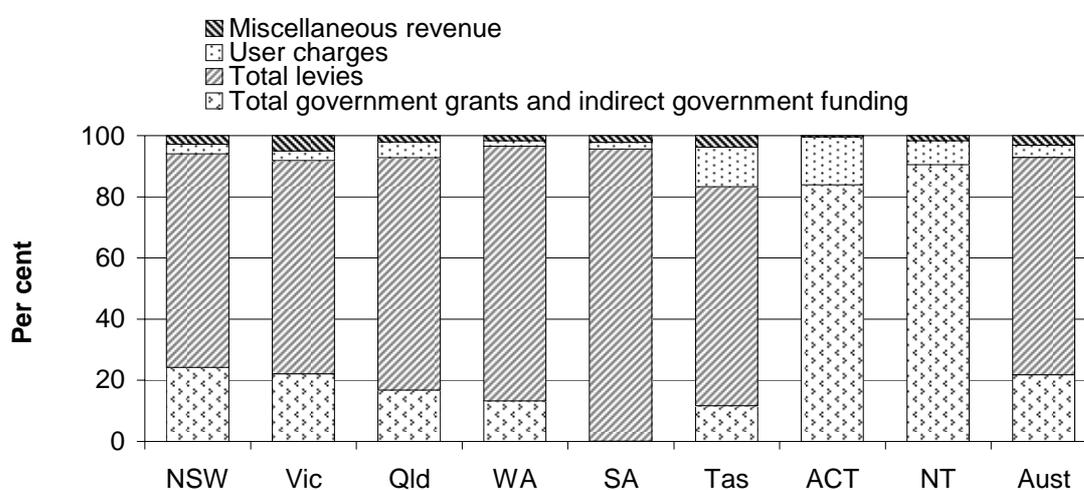
Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.1.

Fire levies were the primary source of funding in 2004-05 in all jurisdictions except the ACT and the NT, where Territory governments were the most important source of funds. Governments usually provide the legislative framework for the imposition of fire levies, rather than directly collecting the levies themselves. In 2004-05, fire

levies were raised from levies on property owners or, in some jurisdictions, from levies on both insurance companies and property owners (table 8A.1). In addition to relying on funded resources, all states and territories rely on volunteer firefighters, who make a significant contribution to the community.

Nationally, 21.7 per cent of funding for fire service organisations was provided by government as government grants and indirect government revenue in 2004-05, with the proportion varying across jurisdictions (figure 8.2).

Figure 8.2 Major sources of fire service organisation funding, 2004-05



Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.1.

Fires and other emergency incidents

As noted in box 8.1, various urban and rural fire service organisations operate within the jurisdictions, and data on reported fires and other incidents were not available for all fire service organisations in all jurisdictions.

Fire service organisations are required by legislation to respond to all calls, and an incident cannot be deemed to be a false report until the fire service organisation has responded and investigated the site. Nationally, 32.0 per cent or 113 178 of the 353 143 reported incidents were fires, and 68.0 per cent were other emergencies and incidents in 2004-05, with these proportions varying across jurisdictions (table 8A.2).

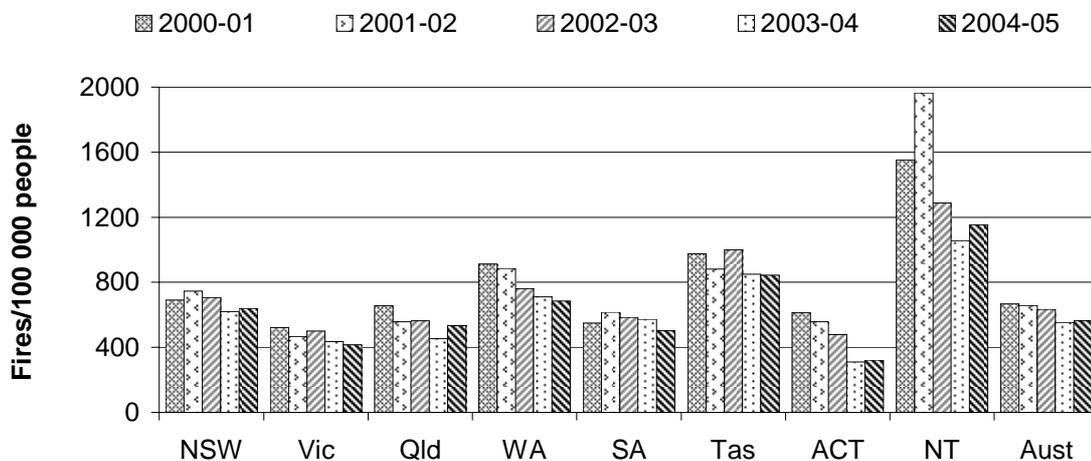
The proportion of fire types varied substantially across jurisdictions in 2004-05, with fires within or involving a structure the least attended type of fire for all jurisdictions except the ACT (table 8A.2). Although structure fires are relatively

uncommon compared with landscape (bush and grass) fires for example, their emphasis in this chapter is due to their high threat to life and property.

Total fire incidents attended by fire service organisations per 100 000 people

Nationally, 563 fire incidents per 100 000 people were attended in 2004-05, with the number generally declining over the period since 2000-01 (figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 Total fire incidents attended by fire service organisations per 100 000 people^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



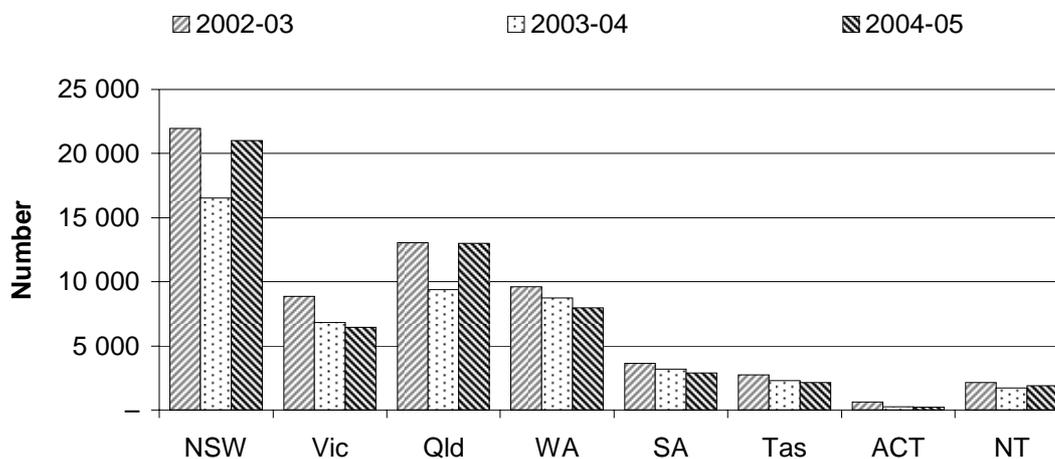
^a Total fire incidents data include landscape fire incidents attended by fire service organisations. ^b Includes data for urban or rural fire service organisations in the ACT. ^c Due to data collection issues, 2000-01 data for the NSW Fire Brigades are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. NSW 2000-01 data for areas serviced by the NSW Rural Fire Service have been derived from one third of Rural Fire Districts. The increase in incident levels for 2001-02 was due to the expansion of the incident reporting system to all NSW Rural Fire Districts. ^d In Queensland, accurate identification of incidents attended by both Queensland Fire and Rescue Service (QFRS) urban and rural crews is not possible at this stage. Reporting of incident attendance by QFRS rural crews is incomplete due to voluntary reporting procedures. ^e Does not include data from the NT Bushfires Council. ^f The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.10.

Total reported landscape fire incidents

Nationally, 55 536 landscape (bush and grass) fire incidents were reported by fire service organisations and land management agencies in 2004-05 (table 8A.3) Landscape fire incidents reported to land management agencies are excluded for some jurisdictions.

Figure 8.4 Fire service organisations and land management agencies reported total landscape (bush and grass) fire incidents^{a, b, c, d, e}



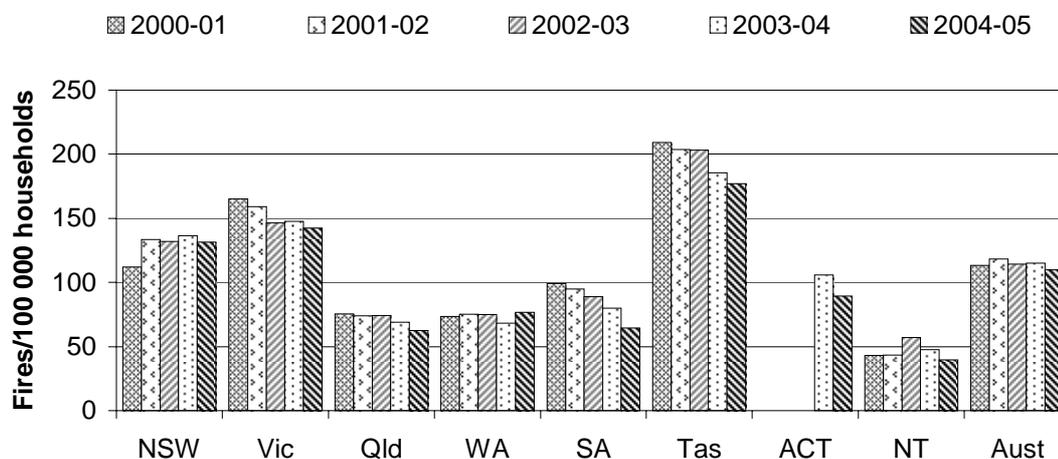
^a NSW data include data from the NSW Department of Environment and Conservation, the NSW Rural Fire Service and the NSW Fire Brigades for all bushfires and grass fires regardless of size of area burnt. ^b Queensland data include QFRS urban stations and rural brigades. Accurate identification of incidents attended by both QFRS urban and rural crews is not possible at this stage. Reporting of incident attendance by QFRS rural crews is incomplete due to voluntary reporting. ^c Data for WA include landscape fires, for which the Department of Conservation and Landscape Management (CALM) was the lead agency. CALM was the lead agency for 525 landscape fires in 2002-03, 353 in the 2003-04, and 364 in the 2004-05. ^d For Tasmania, data refer to all fire brigades, both full time and volunteer. ^e NT data exclude the NT Bushfires Council.

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

Accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations per 100 000 households

The rate of accidental residential structure fires per 100 000 households, is reported in figure 8.5. Although the national rate has been relatively constant, different trends appear in different jurisdictions.

Figure 8.5 **Accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations^{a, b}**



^a This measure may not be entirely comparable. The rate of accidental residential structure fires per 100 000 households is affected by the number of fires where the cause has been determined and classified by fire service personnel. Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations for the ACT. ^b QFRS Rural Incident database does not currently record the necessary information to calculate this measure.

Source: ABS Cat. no. 4102.0 (various years); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.4.

Human resources

Human resources refers to any person delivering a firefighting or firefighting-related service, or managing the delivery of this service, including:

- firefighters (qualified paid and volunteer firefighters)
- support personnel (any paid person or volunteer directly supporting the operational provider, including technical and communications personnel and personnel staff).

Nationally, 14 222 full time equivalent (FTE) paid personnel were involved in the delivery of fire services in 2004-05. Nationally, 11 157 FTE or 78.5 per cent of the 14 222 FTE paid personnel were firefighters. Volunteer firefighters (222 249 people) also participated in the delivery of fire services in 2004-05 (table 8A.5).

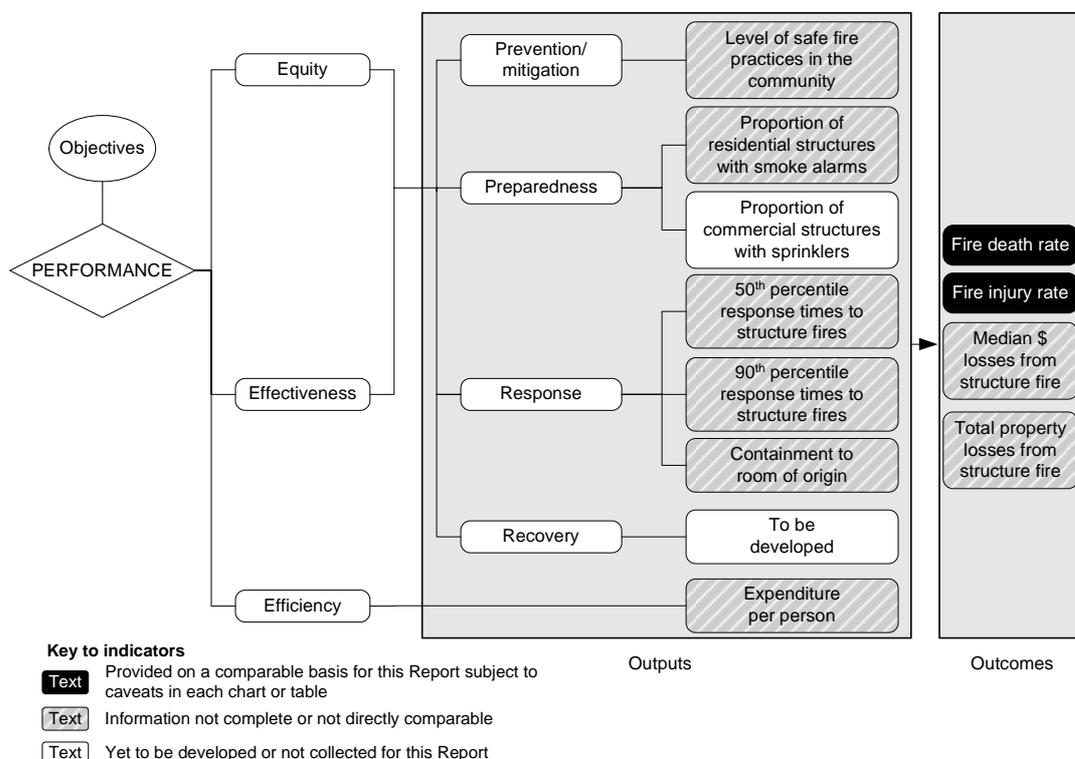
Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.6 presents the performance indicator framework for fire events, based on the general framework for all emergency events. Definitions of all indicators are provided in section 8.8.

The performance indicator framework for fire events shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report (figure 8.6). For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (see section 1.6).

Performance information is reported for a number of indicators. These results might have been influenced by factors such as differences in climatic and weather conditions, the sociodemographic and topographic composition of jurisdictions, property values and dwelling construction types. Importantly, jurisdictions also have diverse legislative fire protection requirements.

Figure 8.6 Performance indicators for fire events



Results need to be interpreted with care because data might have been derived from small samples (for example, jurisdictions' fire safety measures surveys) or may be

highly variable as a result of relatively small populations (as in Tasmania, the ACT and the NT).

The role of volunteers, particularly for country and rural fire brigades, also needs to be considered when interpreting some indicators (such as fire service organisation expenditure per 1000 people). Volunteer personnel provide a substantial proportion of fire services (and emergency services more generally) (ABS 2001a). While costs such as the training and equipment associated with volunteers are included in the cost of fire service provision, the labour costs of providing fire services would be much greater without volunteers (assuming these functions were still performed).

Information has not been reported for all fire events in each jurisdiction consistently over time. Reported results sometimes exclude rural fire events, so performance data are not always directly comparable across jurisdictions. Fire service organisations are cooperating to improve and enhance the standards for the collection of fire events data, which is evident by the inclusion of rural fire service organisations data for more jurisdictions in more current years. Differences in counting rules are expected to be minimised in future reports.

Key performance indicator results

Outputs — equity and effectiveness

Outputs are measured by the ‘level of safe fire practices in the community’; ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’; ‘the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers’; ‘the 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires’; ‘containment to the room of origin’; and ‘expenditure per person’.

Prevention/mitigation — level of safe fire practices in the community

One measure of the extent of prevention/mitigation in the community is ‘the level of safe fire practices in the community’ (box 8.4). Selected fire risk management/mitigation strategies across jurisdictions are identified in table 8A.33. Nationally consistent data on household fire safety measures installed or prevention procedures followed were previously available from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Population Survey Monitor (PSM) (table 8A.12), which has been discontinued. Nationally consistent data are not currently available.

Data from 2001-02 onwards are sourced from jurisdictional collections following the cessation of the PSM in 2001. They are not strictly comparable with the PSM data due to methodological differences.

Box 8.4 Level of safe fire practices in the community

‘The level of safe fire practices in the community’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and manage the risk of fires.

Holding other factors constant, the higher the proportion of households with a fire safety measure installed or prevention measure followed, the less likely are fires to occur or cause excessive damage. This indicator does not provide information on the degree to which practices under consideration contribute to fire prevention and mitigation.

Previously reported data are no longer collected by the ABS. The Steering Committee has identified this indicator for development and reporting in future.

Preparedness — proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms

One measure of the extent of preparedness in the community is ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’ (box 8.5).

Box 8.5 Proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms

‘The proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through preparedness measures.

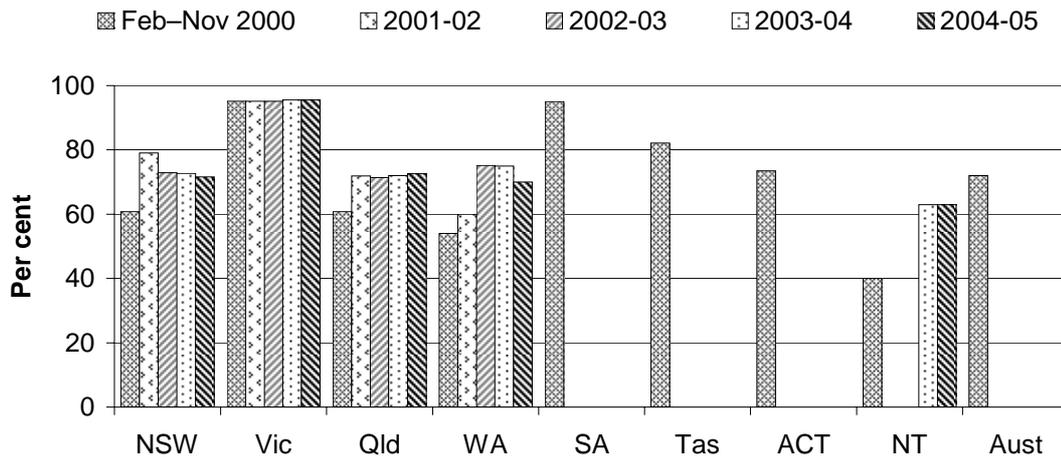
The indicator is defined as the number of households with an operational smoke alarm installed, divided by the total number of households.

The higher the proportion of households with an operational smoke alarm installed, the greater is the likelihood that the adverse effects of fire will be avoided or reduced.

Nationally consistent and complete data are not currently available on ‘the proportion of residential structures with smoke alarms’. Nationally consistent data were last available in 2000, from the discontinued ABS Population Survey Monitor (PSM). Data from 2001-02 onwards are sourced from jurisdictional collections following the cessation of the PSM in 2001, and are not strictly comparable with the PSM data due to methodological differences.

Five jurisdictions (NSW, Victoria, Queensland, WA and the NT) conducted surveys in 2004-05, collecting data on total households that had an operational smoke alarm or smoke detector installed (figure 8.7).

Figure 8.7 Households with an operational smoke alarm installed^{a, b, c, d, e}



^a Caution needs to be used where there are small differences in the Population Survey Monitor (PSM) results, which are affected by sample and estimate size. The PSM ceased in the final quarter for 2000. From 2001-02, data are from jurisdictional collections and are not strictly comparable with the Population Survey Monitor. ^b NSW data for 2001-02, 2002-03, 2003-04 and 2004-05 are sourced from the NSW Population Health Survey (HOIST), NSW Department of Health. Data for 2001-02 represent only 6 months of 2002 but later years each reflect 12 months of surveys. While the prevalence for 2004 (71.6 per cent) is less than that reported for 2003 (72.8 per cent) and 2002 (73.0 per cent) this may reflect normal sample survey variation rather than a significant underlying trend. This is evident because the 95 per cent confidence interval for 2004 (70.1 per cent – 72.9 per cent) overlaps with the confidence intervals for 2003 (71.1 per cent – 73.9 per cent) and 2002 (71.9 per cent – 74.1 per cent). Because the data are collected from a sample of the population, the 95 per cent confidence interval provides a range of values that should contain the actual value for the population 95 per cent of the time. In general, a wider confidence interval reflects less certainty in the indicator estimate. ^c Victorian 2001-02 data are sourced from a random telephone survey of 2304 respondents residing within the 23 local government areas significant to the metropolitan fire district. MFESB commissioned Crime Prevention Victoria to develop a survey around fire safety issues through their Local Safety Survey. 2004-05 data are based on the results of the most recent survey conducted in April 2004. ^d Queensland data are collected by the Office of Economic and Statistical Research, as part of the November 2004 Queensland Household Survey. The figure is an estimate for the whole population of Queensland. ^e For WA, 2002-03 data are collected by a market research organisation (random telephone survey with residents of Perth households). 2003-04 market research also a telephone survey, covering metropolitan and country residents. Apparent fall in percentage for 2004-05 data reflects more stringent survey design and collection by the Australian Bureau of Statistics: ABS Home Safety and Security, Western Australia, 4526.5.55.001, April 2005. Data collected October 2004.

Source: ABS (2001b); State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.11.

Preparedness — proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers

The Steering Committee has identified ‘the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers’ as an indicator of preparedness for fire events (box 8.6). Data for this indicator, however, were not available for the 2006 Report.

Box 8.6 Proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers

'The proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers' will provide an output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through preparedness and mitigation.

The indicator is defined as the number of commercial structures with sprinklers installed, divided by the total number of commercial structures.

The higher the proportion of commercial structures with sprinklers installed, the greater is the likelihood that the adverse effects of fire are reduced. This indicator will not provide information on the operational status of sprinkler systems or their contribution to fire prevention.

Response

Response times and containment of structure fires (to the object or room of origin) are indicators of the effectiveness of fire service organisations in terms of their ability to respond to and suppress fires. Response times to structure fires are reported first, followed by containment to room of origin.

Response — 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires

The 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires provide a measure of response activities (box 8.7). The data relate to the performance of the reporting agency (or agencies) only, not necessarily to the performance of all fire service organisations within each jurisdiction. Response time data need to be interpreted with care because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions, given the following:

- Response time data for some jurisdictions represent responses to urban, rural and remote areas.
- Responses may include career firefighters, auxiliary/part time firefighters and volunteers.
- While definitions on response times are consistent, not all jurisdictions have systems in place to capture all components of response time for all cases from the time of the call to arrival at the scene. Some agencies use a manual system to calculate response time figures, while other services retrieve the data from computer aided dispatch (CAD) systems.

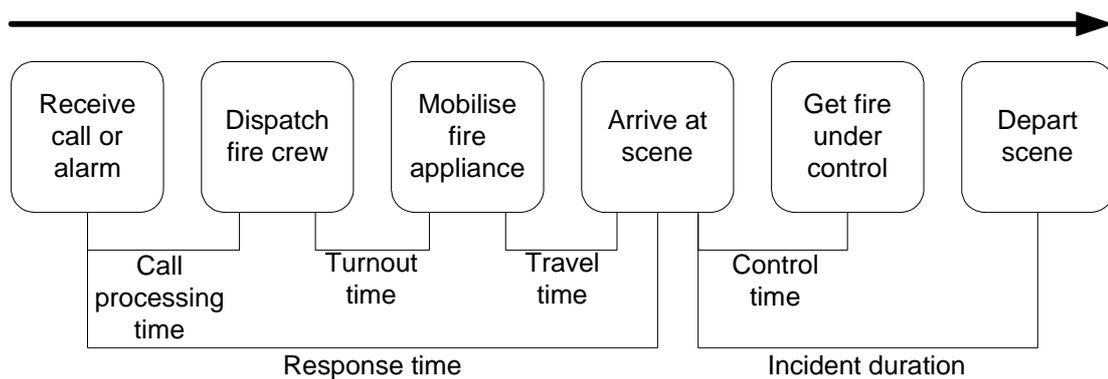
Box 8.7 50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires

'50th and 90th percentile response times to structure fires' are included as output indicators of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire on the Australian community through timely response.

The indicator '50th percentile response time' is defined as the time within which 50 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrive at the scene of structure fires. Similarly, '90th percentile response time' refers to the time within which 90 per cent of the first responding fire resources arrive at the scene of structure fires. Structure fires are those fires in housing and other buildings. The response time is defined as the interval between the receipt of the call at the dispatch centre and the arrival of the vehicle at the scene (that is, when the vehicle is stationary and the handbrake is applied). This and other intervals are illustrated in figure 8.8.

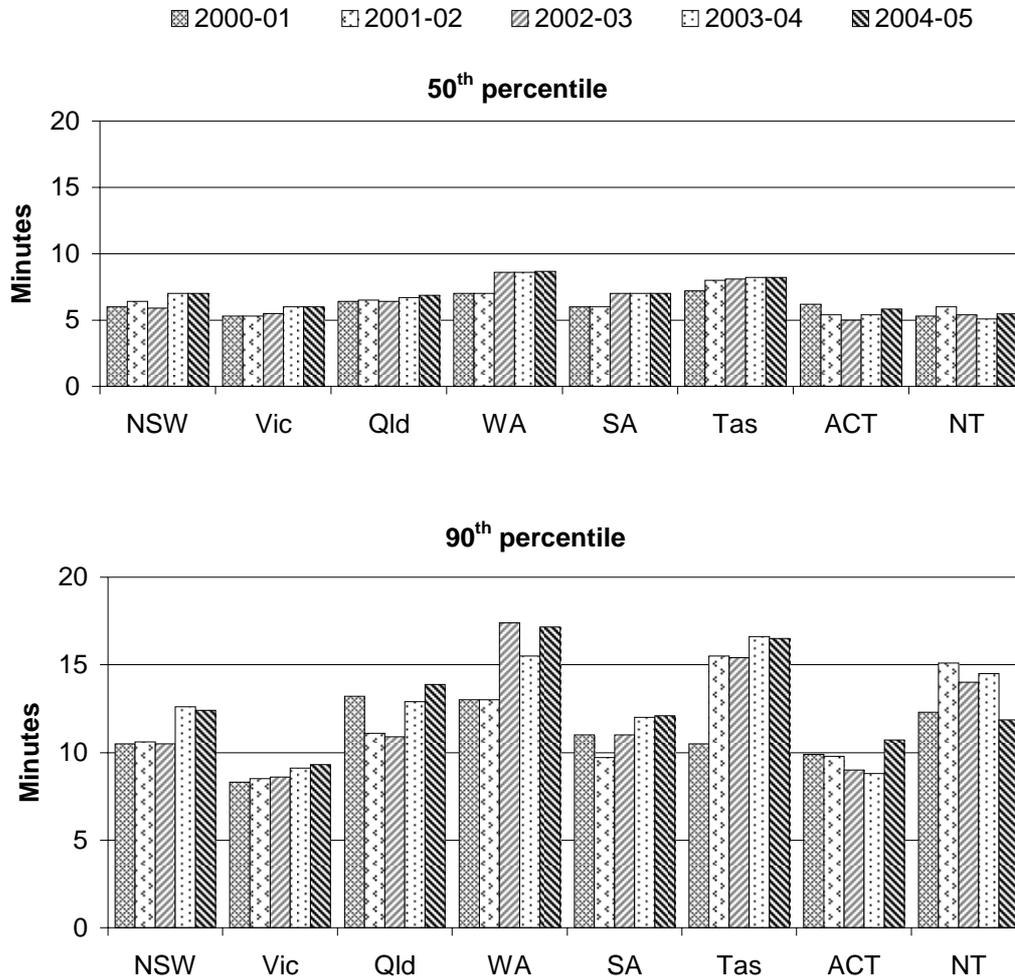
Shorter response times are more desirable.

Figure 8.8 Response time points and indicators for fire events



Response times vary between jurisdictions (figure 8.9). Response times also vary within jurisdictions depending on the remoteness of the area in which the responses occur (among other factors). Response times can be segmented into remoteness areas based on the ABS Australian Standard Geographical Classification (figure 8.10). Response times can be affected in regional and remote areas, where response is generally from home to station and then to the incident.

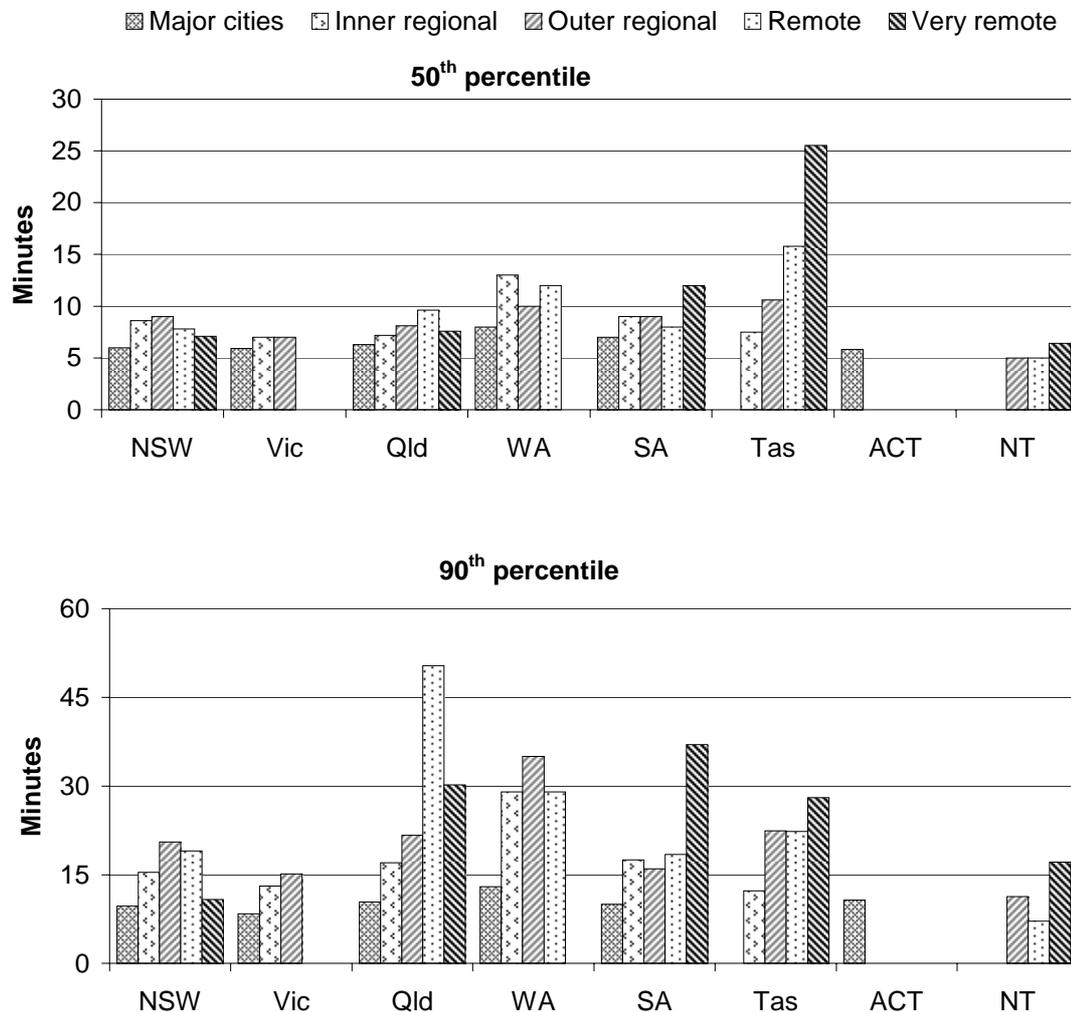
Figure 8.9 Response times to structure fires^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g}



^a Differences between jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix, and system type (manual or CAD) affect the comparability of response times data. ^b Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in the ACT. ^c NSW data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 are for NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades' designated fire district. Due to data collection issues, data for 2000-01 are derived from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. Data for 2002-03 and onwards include responses from the NSW Fire Brigades and the NSW Rural Fire Service. ^d Victorian data for 2001-02 and 2002-03 do not include all of the call processing time (approximately 36-40 seconds per response time). Response times for 2003-04 onwards include call handling time and are consistent with the nationally agreed definition. ^e For Queensland, collection procedures do not differentiate between responses made under normal road conditions and emergency responses. Response times for QFRS Rural brigade crews are not included. Only primary exposure incidents with completed geocodes and response times are included. ^f WA data exclude reports with incorrect time details. From 2000-01, data include both urban and rural fire services. ^g Tasmania has a far larger proportion of its population in small rural towns and other rural areas than all jurisdictions according to the Rural, Remote and Metropolitan Areas (RRMA) index.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.13.

Figure 8.10 Response times to structure fires, by geographic area, 2004-05^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



^a Differences between jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix, and system type (manual or CAD), affect the comparability of response times data. ^b NSW data include responses from the NSW Fire Brigades and the NSW Rural Fire Service. ^c For Queensland, response times for QFRS Rural brigade crews are not included as response times are not recorded in 97 per cent of incidents. QFRS did not capture data on whether vehicles travelled under normal road conditions or as emergency calls, therefore all structural fire incidents are included. Only primary exposure incidents with completed geocodes and response times are included. ^d In SA, the Country Fire Service and the Metropolitan Fire Service do not have geocoded data. SA data include incident records with both alarm and arrival times. Excludes response times of 12 hours or more. ^e For Tasmania, figures include data provided by all fire brigades, both full time and volunteer. ^f For the NT, data do not include data from the NT Bushfires Council.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.14.

Response — containment to room of origin

Another indicator of response effectiveness for structure fires is ‘containment to the room of origin’ (box 8.8).

Box 8.8 Containment to the room of origin

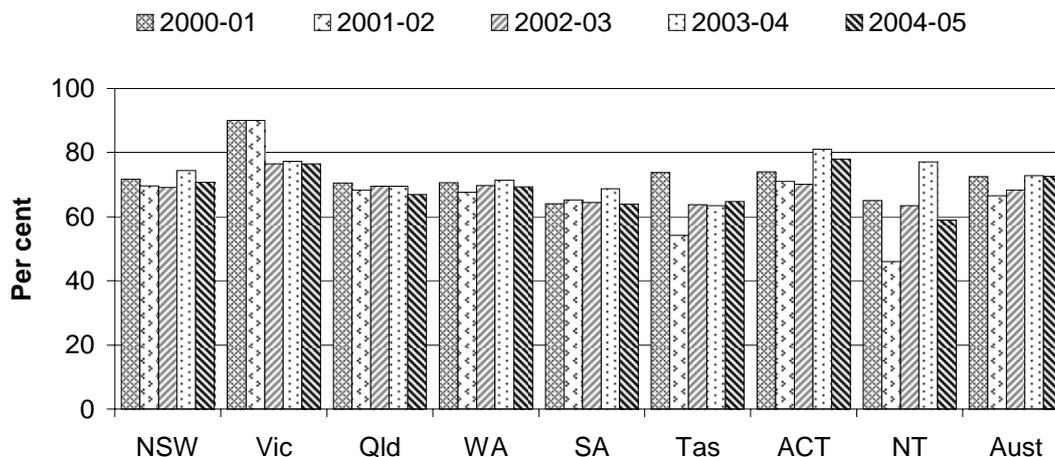
‘Containment to the room of origin’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects of fire emergency events on the Australian community by response and mitigation strategies.

The indicator is defined as the number of structure fires contained to the object or room of origin divided by the total number of structure fires. Structure fires are those fires in housing and other buildings.

A higher proportion of structure fires contained to the object or room of origin is more desirable.

The proportion of fires contained to the object or room of origin has varied between and within jurisdictions over time (figure 8.11).

Figure 8.11 Structure fires contained to the object/room of origin^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}



^a Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, SA and the ACT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^b NSW data exclude the NSW Rural Fire Service, but include responses to calls outside the NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. ^c Victorian data for 2000-01 and 2001-02 exclude the Country Fire Authority. Data from 2002-03 to 2004-05 include the Country Fire Authority. ^d QFRS Rural Incident Database does not currently record the necessary information to calculate this measure. ^e SA data exclude the Country Fire Service ^f Figures include data provided by all fire brigades, both full-time and volunteer. ^g NT data exclude the Bushfires Council. ^h The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions’ caveats.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.15.

Outputs — recovery

The Steering Committee has identified recovery as a key area for further development in future reports (box 8.9).

Box 8.9 Performance indicator — recovery

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community through recovery has yet to be developed.

Outputs — efficiency

Efficiency indicators report on the unit cost of service delivery. The calculation of unit costs requires the specification of outputs. For fire service organisations, this is a difficult task, given the diversity of activities undertaken. The fire sector has considered a range of options for specifying outputs.

Expenditure per person

'Expenditure per person' is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering emergency management services (box 8.10). Expenditure is reported as the total cost of fire service organisations.

Box 8.10 Expenditure per person

'Expenditure per person' is included as an output indicator of governments' objective to deliver efficient emergency management services. The indicator is defined as fire service organisation expenditure per 1000 people.

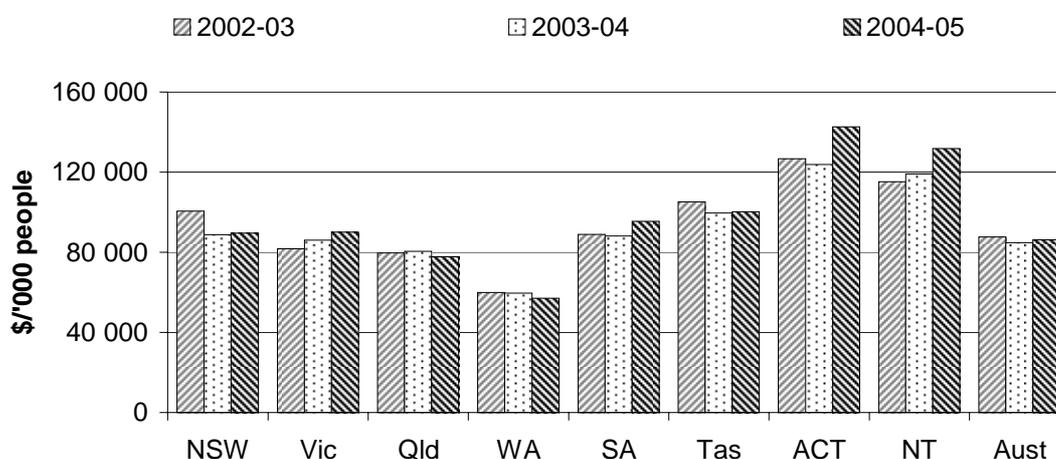
Expenditure is employed as a proxy for efficiency. Expenditure per fire is not used as a proxy for fire service organisation efficiency because an organisation that devotes more resources to the prevention and preparedness components to reduce the number of fire incidents could erroneously appear to be less efficient.

Holding other factors constant, lower expenditure per person represents greater efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret. While high or increasing expenditure per person may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in aspects of the service (such as improved response) or the characteristics of fire events (such as more challenging fires). Similarly, low or declining expenditure per person may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (response times) or less challenging fires.

Cost to government is reported as total government funding of fire service organisations. Total expenditure is a measure of efficiency for fire service organisations, and government funding is a measure of the cost to government of fire service organisations. Both are reported, because revenue from other sources is significant for a number of jurisdictions.

Nationally, the total expenditure on fire service organisations per 1000 people in 2004-05 was \$87 884 (figure 8.12).

Figure 8.12 Fire service organisations expenditure (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e}

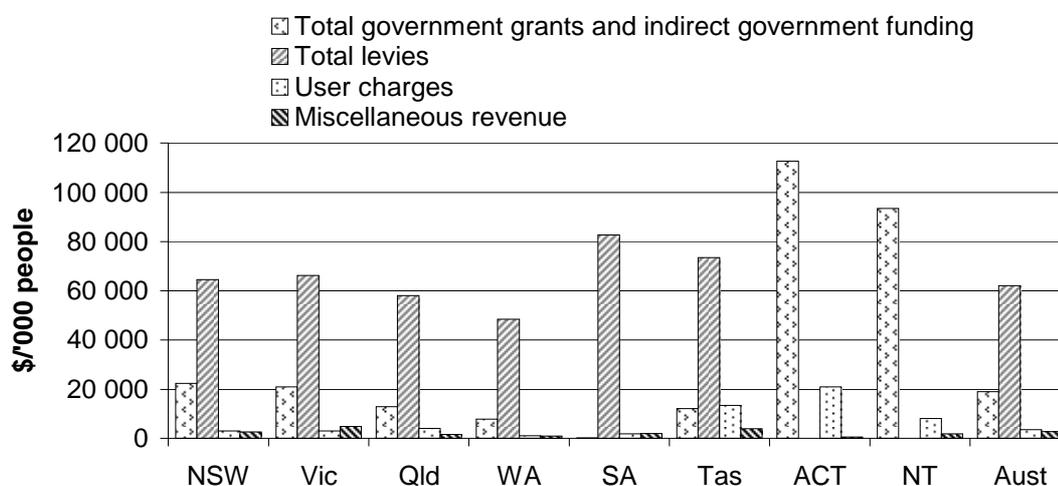


^a Total fire expenditure includes levies on insurance companies and property owners, user charges, fundraising and donations, and indirect revenue. Expenditure levels are adjusted using the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure. ^b NSW fire service organisations data for 2002-03 and 2004-05 are inflated by significant abnormal grants associated with natural disasters. ^c A property-based ESL (Emergency Services Levy) was introduced in WA on 1 July 2003; insurance fire levies ended on 31 December 2003. For this transitional year, 2003-04 funding includes part insurance fire levy and part ESL. The first full year of ESL funding was 2004-05. ^d User cost of capital in the NT includes assets for the NT Fire and Rescue Service only. Revenue from user charges includes the NT Fire and Rescue Service only, and other revenue includes the Bushfires Council only. ^e Funding for a special resources initiative was first included in Victorian data for 2000-01. There was an increase in the value of land and other assets due to revaluations for MFB. There was an increase in expenditure due to expenditure on appliance replacement and building alterations for MFB. Payroll costs for firefighters increased due to a 6.5 per cent salary increase. There was an increase in the payroll for support staff due to a 3 per cent wage increase, additional temporary staff costs, increased support staff numbers, increased leave and oncost provisions and FBT. MFB user cost of capital increase is related to June 2005 revaluations of \$34 million and the 8 per cent cost of capital calculation. Increase in other revenue is due to recharges to CFA (approximately \$2.5 million) for fibre optic communications/ICS support (SAP etc.).

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.17.

Nationally, total government grants and indirect government funding of fire service organisations per 1000 people in 2004-05 was \$18 968. Levies per 1000 people in 2004-05 averaged \$61 965 nationally, with relatively minor contributions from user charges and miscellaneous revenue (figure 8.13).

Figure 8.13 Fire service organisation funding, 2004-05^a



^a User cost of capital in the NT includes assets for the NT Fire and Rescue Service only. Revenue from user charges includes the NT Fire and Rescue Service only, and other revenue includes the Bushfires Council only.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.18.

Outcomes

The indicators of outcomes reported here relate to the objective of ESOs to minimise the effect of fire on life, property and the environment. The ‘fire death rate’, ‘fire injury rate’, ‘median dollar losses from structure fire’ and ‘total property losses from structure fire’ are indicators of outcomes in terms of the effect of fire on life, property and the environment. Caution in interpreting data for some indicators must be exercised (given, for example, the relatively small number of deaths and the significant fluctuations from year to year), particularly for jurisdictions with relatively small populations.

Fire death rate

The ‘fire death rate’ is an indicator of governments’ objective to minimise the adverse effects of fire events on the Australian community (box 8.11).

Box 8.11 Fire death rate

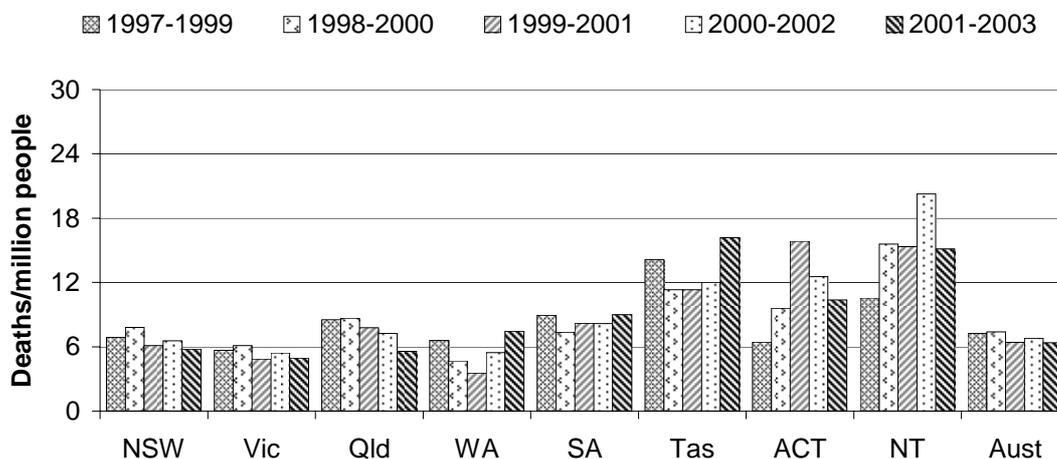
The 'fire death rate' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and enhance public safety.

The indicator is defined as the number of fire deaths per million people. A lower fire death rate represents a better outcome.

Nationally, there were 134 fire deaths in 2003. Exposure to smoke, fire and flames accounted for 92 deaths (68.7 per cent), followed by 35 fire deaths from intentional self-harm by smoke, fire and flames (26.1 per cent) and 7 deaths from assault by smoke, fire and flames (5.2 per cent) (table 8A.6). Nationally, the fire death rate was 6.7 deaths per million people in 2003.

Fire deaths data are volatile over time, given the small number of fire deaths. To overcome data volatility, a three year average fire death rate is reported (figure 8.14). Nationally, the three year average fire death rate was 6.4 per million people for 2001–2003.

Figure 8.14 Fire death rate^{a, b}



^a Fire deaths data are reported by the State or Territory of the deceased's usual residence, and by the year in which the death was registered. ^b The small number of deaths means it is difficult to establish patterns and provide detailed analysis. The rates fluctuate from year to year. This fluctuation demonstrates the data volatility, which must be taken into account in any interpretation of data.

Source: ABS Cat. no. 3303.0 (unpublished); table 8A.6.

Fire injury rate

The 'fire injury rate' is an indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fire events on the Australian community (box 8.12). Fire injuries are represented by hospital admissions and are reported by the State or Territory where the admission occurs (a person injured by fire may be treated more than once, and in more than one State or Territory).

Nationally, there were 2506 hospital admissions for fire injuries in 2003-04, or 12.5 admissions per 100 000 people (figure 8.15).

Fire injury rates are volatile over time, given the small number of fire injuries. To overcome data volatility, a three year average fire injury rate is also reported. Nationally, the three year average rate for 2001-02 to 2003-04 was 13.6 per 100 000 people (table 8A.7).

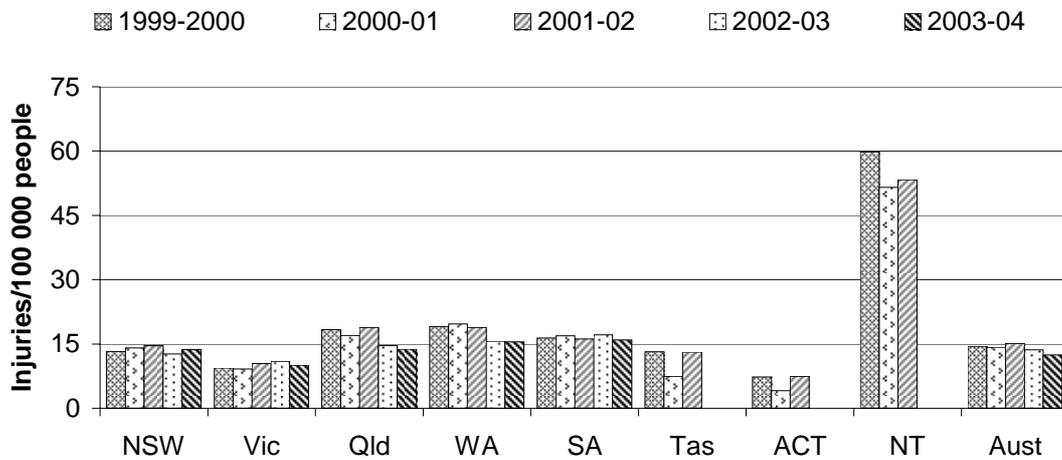
Box 8.12 Fire injury rate

The 'fire injury rate' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community and enhance public safety.

The indicator is defined as the number of fire injuries per 100 000 people. A lower fire injury rate represents a better outcome.

Fire injuries are represented by hospital admissions (excluding emergency department non-admitted casualties). Deaths from fire injuries after hospitalisation have been removed from the fire injuries data for the time series because these are counted in the fire death rate.

Figure 8.15 Fire injury rate^a



^a Fire injuries are defined as the number of hospital admissions to public and private hospitals. The data exclude emergency department non-admitted casualties and fire injuries arising from arson, secondary fires resulting from explosions, and transport accidents. Fire injuries are reported by the State or Territory in which the fire injury is treated. If fire injury patients are transferred, the State or Territory in which they are treated may not be the same as the State or Territory in which their injury occurred.

Source: ABS (unpublished); AIHW (unpublished); table 8A.7.

Losses from structure fire

The ‘median dollar losses from structure fire’ (box 8.13) and the ‘total property loss from structure fire’ (box 8.14) are outcome indicators of the effect of fire on property. These data (expressed in real terms) have not been adjusted for jurisdictional differences in the costs and values of various types of building. In addition, NSW, Queensland, the ACT and the NT report data for urban or rural fire services but not both. Further, the method of valuing property loss from fire varies across jurisdictions.

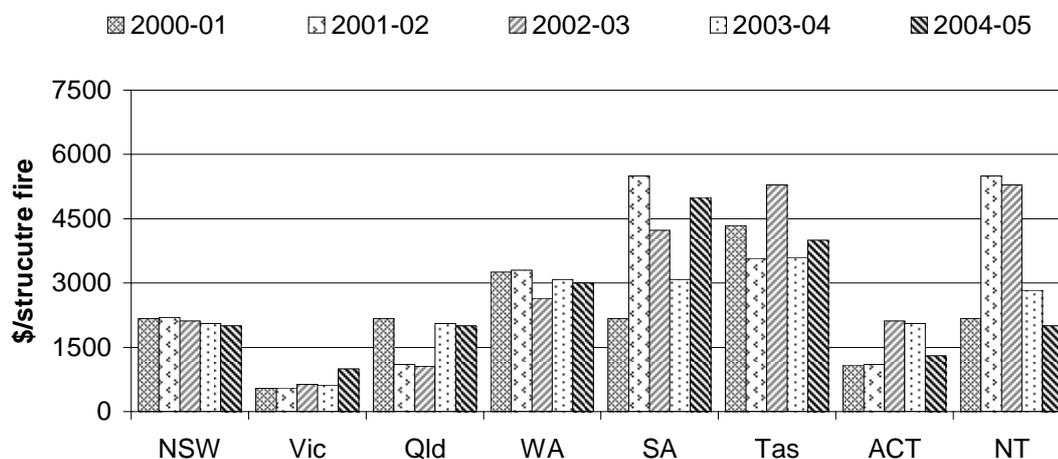
Box 8.13 Median dollar losses from structure fire

‘Median dollar losses from structure fire’ is included as an outcome indicator of governments’ objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community.

This indicator is defined as the median dollar losses from structure fire (a fire in a house or other building), adjusted for inflation. Lower median dollar losses represent a better outcome.

The median dollar loss varies across jurisdictions and over time. No clear national trends are evident (table 8A.8).

Figure 8.16 **Median dollar loss from structure fire (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c, d}**



^a Expenditure levels are adjusted using the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure. Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences. ^b Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, the ACT and the NT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^c NSW data are for the NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. Due to data collection issues, data for 2000-01 are from a sample representing 85 per cent of the incidents. Data for 2001-02 include an outlier that resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million. ^d For the ACT, data for 2002-03 exclude the January 2003 wildfire that destroyed over 500 houses and resulted in losses in excess of \$200 million.

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

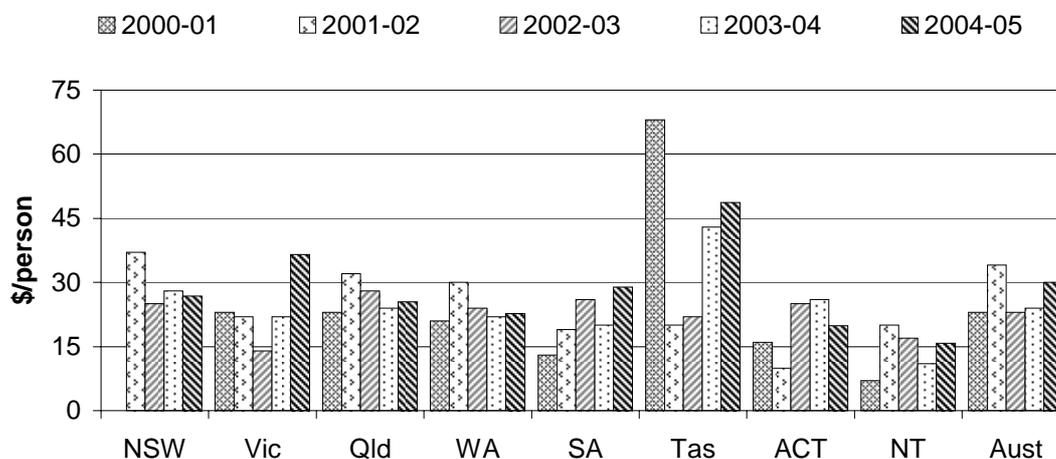
Box 8.14 **Total property losses from structure fire**

'Total property losses from structure fire' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to minimise the adverse effects of fires on the Australian community.

This indicator is defined as the total property loss from structure fire (a fire in housing or other building) per person adjusted for inflation. Lower total property losses from structure fire per person represent better outcomes.

The total property loss per person (expressed in real terms) increased from 2003-04 to 2004-05 in all jurisdictions except NSW and the ACT (figure 8.17).

Figure 8.17 Total property loss from structure fire (2004-05 dollars)^{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}



^a Total property loss levels are adjusted using the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure. Estimates have not been validated by the insurance industry or adjusted for interstate valuation differences. ^b Includes data for both urban and rural fire service organisations in all jurisdictions except NSW, Queensland, the ACT and the NT, which report data for either urban or rural fire service organisations (but not both). ^c NSW data are for the NSW Fire Brigades only, but include responses to calls outside NSW Fire Brigades designated fire districts. Data for 2001-02 include an outlier that resulted in a direct dollar loss of more than \$60 million. ^d For Queensland, data for all years except 2003-04 exclude incidents solely attended by the Rural Fire Services. Incidents with missing or nil dollar losses have been excluded. ^e For Tasmania, figures supplied include data provided by all fire brigades, both full-time and volunteer. The small population size means figures are affected by single large-loss events. Increases have been influenced by rising property prices. ^f For the ACT, data for 2002-03 exclude the January 2003 wildfire which destroyed over 500 houses and resulted in losses in excess of \$200 million. ^g The average for Australia excludes rural fire service data for some years as per the jurisdictions' caveats. ^h Total property loss from structure fires in Victoria in 2004-05 was higher than the previous year, due to a number of fires with significant levels of individual loss.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.9.

8.4 Ambulance events

This section provides information on the performance of ESOs in providing emergency management services for ambulance events. Ambulance events are incidents that result in demand for ambulance services to respond. They include the provision of emergency pre-hospital patient care and transport in response to sudden injury and illness; the retrieval of emergency patients; and the accessing of emergency pre-hospital patients (for example, in confined spaces and hazardous environments).

Emergency management services for ambulance events

Ambulance service organisations are the primary agencies involved in providing emergency management services for ambulance events. In a limited number of cases, other organisations provide services such as medical transport for emergencies (table 8A.38). The descriptive information provided below on funding, incidents and human resources are for ambulance service organisations only (although, as discussed in section 8.1, these organisations are involved in other activities in addition to providing ambulance event services).

Funding

Total funding of ambulance service organisations covered in this Report was \$1.3 billion in 2004-05. Nationally, funding (expressed in real terms) increased each year from 2000-01 to 2004-05, with an average annual growth rate of 6.7 per cent (table 8.3).

Table 8.3 **Funding of ambulance service organisations (2004-05 dollars) (\$ million)^{a, b, c}**

	NSW ^d	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	ACT	NT	Aust ^e
2000-01	317.1	261.7	255.9	66.3	79.3	17.0	16.2	10.2	1 023.7
2001-02	309.6	300.2	257.3	71.5	95.6	19.4	17.6	10.5	1 081.7
2002-03	339.3	325.0	275.9	74.5	86.4	19.7	22.7	11.7	1 155.3
2003-04	362.6	334.9	295.7	79.0	96.2	20.3	21.4	12.0	1 222.0
2004-05	377.4	368.4	298.8	92.7	106.5	23.7	16.1	15.0	1 298.7

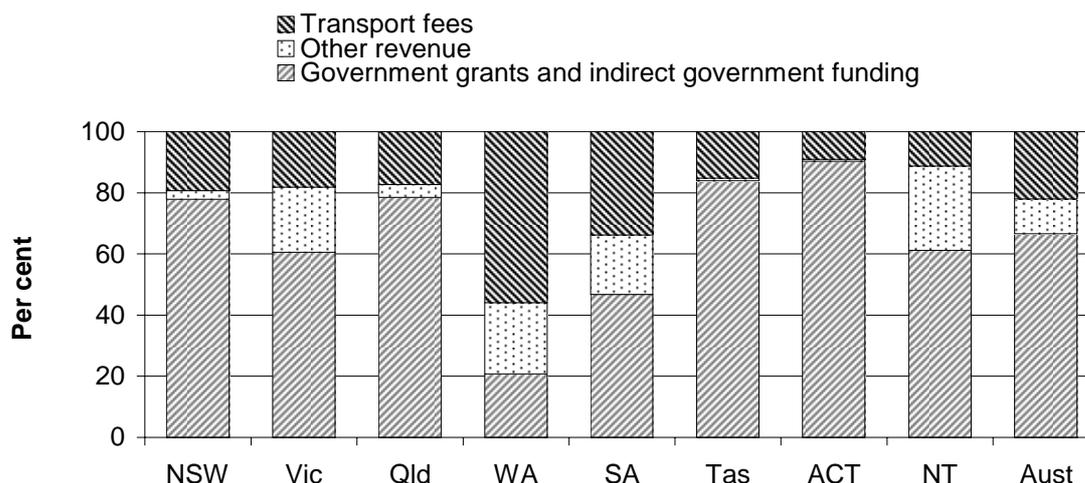
^a Funding levels are adjusted using the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure. ^b Funding reported is the sum of direct government grants, indirect government revenue, transport fees, subscriptions, donations and miscellaneous revenue. ^c Due to differences in definitions and counting rules, data reported may differ from data in agency annual reports and other sources. ^d NSW has a subscription scheme but funds are deposited in the consolidated revenue of NSW Treasury. ^e Totals may not sum as a result of rounding.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.19.

Ambulance service organisations are funded by a variety of sources, with non-government sources making a significant contribution. The primary sources of funding across all jurisdictions in 2004-05 were revenue grants from State and Territory governments, transport fees (from government hospitals, private citizens and insurance) and other revenue comprising subscriptions, donations and miscellaneous revenue (figure 8.18).

Nationally, 66.5 per cent of funding for ambulance service organisations in 2004-05 was provided as government grants and indirect government funding, with the remainder sourced from transport fees and other revenue (figure 8.18).

Figure 8.18 **Major sources of ambulance service organisation funding, 2004-05^a**



^a Other revenue is equal to the sum of subscriptions, donations and miscellaneous revenue.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.19.

Incidents

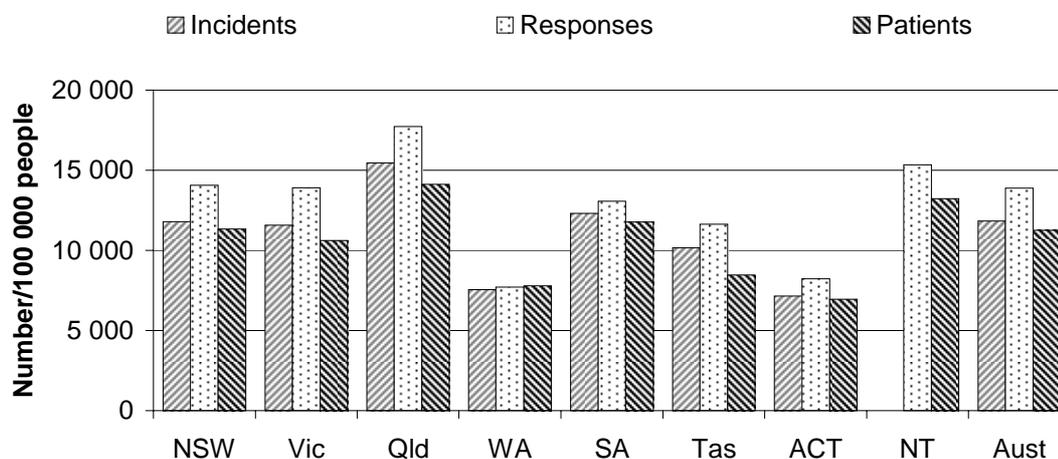
Ambulance services organisations attended 2.38 million incidents nationally in 2004-05 (table 8A.20). Most of these were emergency incidents (43.4 per cent), followed by non-emergency incidents (35.0 per cent) and urgent incidents (21.2 per cent).

Ambulance incidents, responses and patients per 100 000 people

The numbers of incidents, responses and patients are interrelated. Multiple responses/vehicles may be sent to a single incident, and there may be more than one patient per incident. There may also be responses to incidents that do not have people requiring treatment (so no patients).

Nationally, there were 11 835 incidents, 13 888 responses, and 11 256 patients per 100 000 people in 2004-05 (figure 8.19).

Figure 8.19 **Reported ambulance incidents, responses and patients, 2004-05^{a, b, c, d}**



^a An incident is an event that results in a demand for ambulance resources to respond. An ambulance response is a vehicle or vehicles sent to an incident. Multiple responses/vehicles may be sent to a single incident. A patient is someone assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service. ^b NSW does not triage emergency calls. Urgent incident and response caseload are included in emergency caseload figures. ^c WA does not have a policy of automatically dispatching more than one unit to an incident unless advised of more than one patient. ^d For the NT, a response is counted as an incident.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.20.

Nationally, between 2003-04 and 2004-05, the number of incidents rose by 16.0 per cent, the number of responses increased by 3.7 per cent and the number of patients increased by 3.1 per cent (table 8A.20).

Human resources

Data on human resources for ambulance service organisations are reported by operational status on an FTE basis to provide a detailed description of the human resources profile for ambulance service organisations. Human resources include any person involved in delivering an ambulance service or managing the delivery of this service, including:

- ambulance operatives (including patient transport officers, students and base level ambulance officers, qualified ambulance officers, other clinical personnel and communications operatives)
- operational and corporate support personnel (including management, operational planners and coordinators, education and training personnel, corporate support personnel, non-operative communications and technical personnel)

-
- remunerated and non-remunerated volunteers (including any paid and unpaid volunteer personnel providing ambulance services on an on-call basis, and corporate support).

Nationally, 10 672 FTE salaried personnel were involved in the delivery of ambulance services in 2004-05. The majority of salaried ambulance personnel in 2004-05 were ambulance operatives (82.0 per cent) (table 8A.21).

Nationally, 6131 volunteer ambulance personnel (comprising 5038 ambulance operatives and 1093 support personnel) participated in the delivery of ambulance services in 2004-05. The proportion of volunteer personnel and the nature of their role varied across jurisdictions. Given the decentralised structure of its ambulance service operations, WA has a high number of volunteer operational and corporate support personnel (table 8A.21).

Aero-medical arrangements in Australia

There is a variety of arrangements for air ambulance or aero-medical services throughout Australia. Some of these arrangements involve services provided entirely by State/Territory ambulance services or by sub-contractors to their services, while others are provided completely externally to the State ambulance services. Some arrangements involve a mix of the two, where external organisations provide aircraft and/or air crew while ambulance service organisations provide paramedics to staff the air ambulances. The result is that the revenue (funding) and expenditure for air ambulance services are included in ambulance reports from some jurisdictions while in other jurisdictions none of these costs are included.

The Australian Government also provides some capital and recurrent funding for aero-medical service provision through the Royal Flying Doctor Service, mainly for primary health services to rural and remote communities. In some jurisdictions these same aircraft are used to transfer patients requiring higher level care.

Although it is not possible for ambulance service organisations to provide full activity and financial data for air ambulance services in Australia, the Council of Ambulance Authorities (CAA) has tried to identify as comprehensively as possible, air ambulance services provided by ambulance service organisations directly, or by other service providers such as the Royal Flying Doctor Service. In doing so, the CAA has counted the total number of aircraft available in each jurisdiction during 2004-05, and the component of expenditure that is funded through ambulance service expenditure (i.e. the expenditure figures do not represent total expenditure, only that component funded through ambulance services) (see table 8.4).

Table 8.4 **Aero medical resources and expenditure, 2004-05^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>
Operated by State Ambulance Service									
Fixed wing	4	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	9
Helicopter	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Operated by other service providers									
Fixed wing ^b	1	0	9	11	7	0	0	6	34
Helicopter	9	3 ^c	9	1	2	1	1	0	26
Total aircraft	14	10	18	12	9	2	1	6	72
Expenditure (\$'000)	36 000	26 945	2 550	733	0	3 100	328	0	69 656

^a These figures do not represent the total air ambulance medical expenditure for the jurisdiction. They only represent that portion funded through ambulance services and reported as part of the total ambulance service expenditure for each jurisdiction. ^b Fixed wing services in WA, SA and NT are provided by the Royal Flying Doctor Service (RFDS). In addition, AMS, a NT Government operated aero-medical service, operates in the Top End. ^c 'Second tier' aircraft, tasked by ambulance service as required.

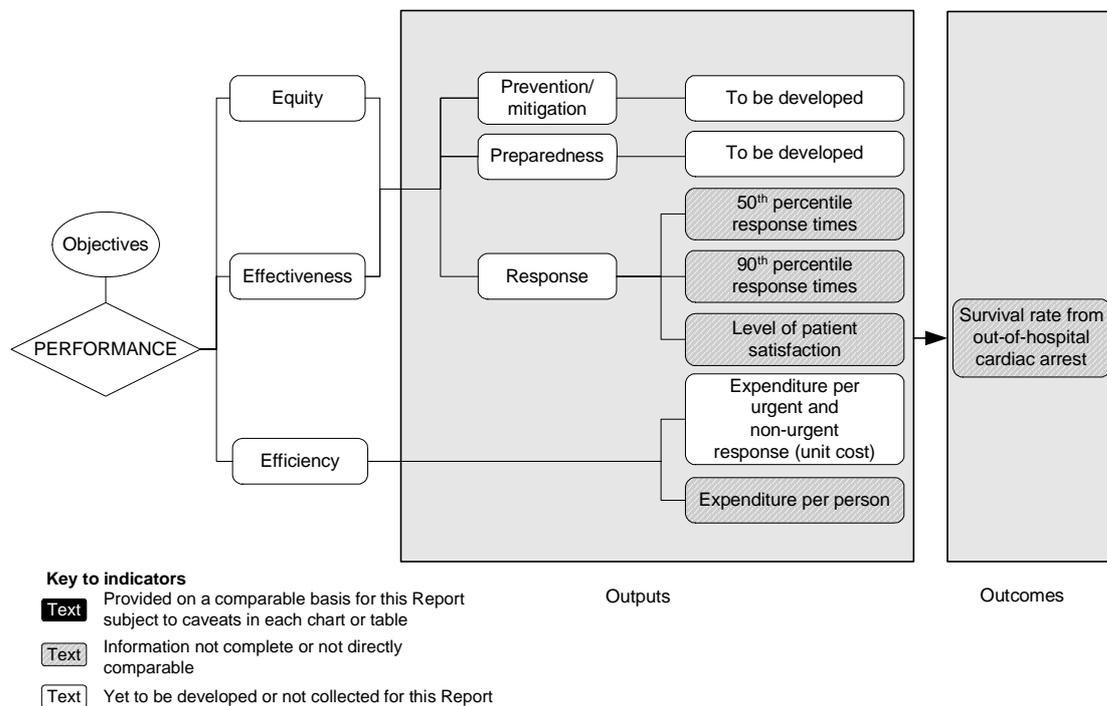
Source: Council of Ambulance Authorities (CAA).

Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.20 presents the performance indicator framework for ambulance events, based on the general framework for all ESOs (figure 8.1). Definitions of all indicators are provided in section 8.8. Performance has been reported for a number of indicators, but different delivery contexts, locations and types of client may affect these indicators. Appendix A contains demographic and socioeconomic data that may assist in interpreting the performance indicators presented in this section.

The performance indicator framework for ambulance events shows which data are comparable in the 2006 Report. For data that are not considered directly comparable, the text includes relevant caveats and supporting commentary. Chapter 1 discusses data comparability from a Report-wide perspective (section 1.6).

Figure 8.20 Performance indicators for ambulance events



Performance indicators for ambulance events have been provided at the State and Territory government level in the Report since 1998. Evaluation of performance has been limited, however, by factors that make comparisons difficult. Comparison of the small, urban, government operated ACT Ambulance Service with the privately operated St John Ambulance Service in the NT, or the large, Statewide NSW Ambulance Service, for example, is limited by both demographic and corporate governance issues.

The effect of volunteer activity has implications for the interpretation of financial and non-financial performance indicators in this chapter. Notional wages costs for volunteers are not reflected in monetary estimates of inputs or outputs, which means that data for some performance indicators may be misleading where the input of volunteers is not counted but affects outputs and outcomes. This issue may be explored in the future as the Review continues to examine data on rural and remote service provision in the emergency services sector.

Key performance indicator results

Outputs — equity and effectiveness

Prevention/mitigation

The Steering Committee has identified prevention/mitigation as a key area for development in future reports (box 8.15). There are difficulties in identifying useful and reliable indicators of prevention/mitigation for ambulance events given that other elements of both the health and justice systems are involved in these areas.

Box 8.15 Performance indicator — prevention/ mitigation

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects on the Australian community of emergencies requiring ambulance services through prevention and mitigation strategies has yet to be developed.

Preparedness

The Steering Committee has identified preparedness as a key area for development in future reports (box 8.16).

Box 8.16 Performance indicator — preparedness

An output indicator of governments' objective to reduce the effects on the Australian community of emergencies requiring ambulance services through preparedness strategies has yet to be developed.

Response

Indicators of response include the times during which 50 per cent and 90 per cent of first responding ambulance resources respond in code 1 situations, and the level of patient satisfaction (figure 8.20).

Response — 50th and 90th percentile response times

The 50th and 90th percentile response times for ambulance service organisations provide a measure of response activities (box 8.17). Response time data need to be

interpreted with care, however, because performance is not strictly comparable across jurisdictions:

- Response time data for some jurisdictions represent responses to urban, rural and remote areas, while others include urban areas only.
- Responses in some jurisdictions include responses from volunteer stations where turnout times are generally longer because volunteers are on call rather than on duty.
- Response times can be affected by the dispersion of the population (particularly rural/urban population proportions), topography, road/transport infrastructure and traffic densities.

While definitions of response times are consistent, not all jurisdictions have systems in place to capture all components of response time for all cases from the time of the call to arrival at the scene (figure 8.22).

Box 8.17 50th and 90th percentile response times

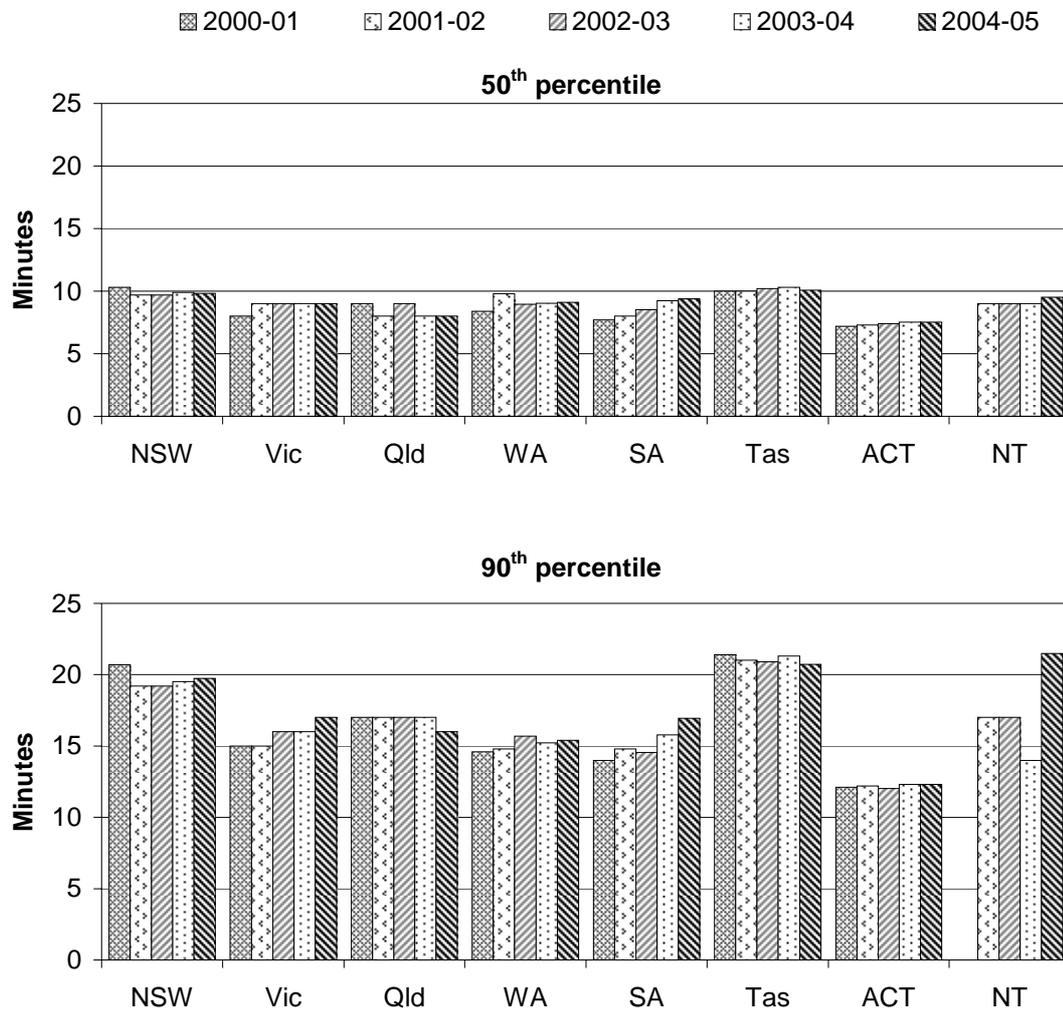
The 50th and 90th percentile response times are included as output indicators of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects on the Australian community of emergencies requiring ambulance services through timely response.

The indicator '50th percentile response time' is defined as the time within which 50 per cent of the first responding ambulance resources arrive at the scene of an emergency in code 1 situations. Similarly, '90th percentile response time' is the time within which 90 per cent of the first responding ambulance resources arrive at the scene of an emergency in code 1 situations. Shorter response times are more desirable.

The response time is defined as the time taken between the initial receipt of the call for an emergency ambulance and the ambulance's arrival at the scene of the emergency (figure 8.21). Emergency responses are categorised by an assessment of the severity of the medical problem:

- code 1 — responses to potentially life threatening situations using warning devices
- code 2 — responses to acutely ill patients (not in life threatening situations) where attendance is necessary but no warning devices are used.

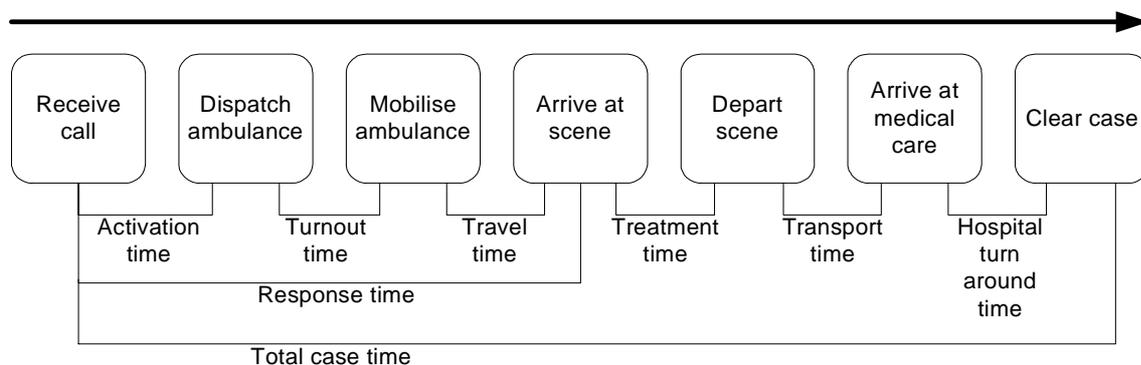
Figure 8.21 Ambulance response times^{a, b, c}



^a Differences across jurisdictions in definitions of response times, geography, personnel mix and system type for capturing data affect the comparability of response time data. ^b NSW does not triage emergency calls. Results for code 1 cases represent '000' and urgent medical incidents. ^c For Queensland, casualty room attendances are not included in response count, so are not reflected in response times data. Response times are reported from the CAD data.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.24.

Figure 8.22 Response time points and indicators for ambulance events



Response — level of patient satisfaction

Another indicator of response is the ‘level of patient satisfaction’ (box 8.18). The performance of ambulance service organisations in providing response services can be measured in terms of the satisfaction of those people who directly used the service (table 8A.25).

Data for 2003 to 2005 were collected by jurisdictions and collated by the CAA. The CAA surveyed obtained 4708 usable responses out of 2.2 million ambulance patients nationally who used an ambulance service in 2005 (table 8A.25). The estimated satisfaction levels for ambulance patients were comparable with previous years (figure 8.23).

Box 8.18 Level of patient satisfaction

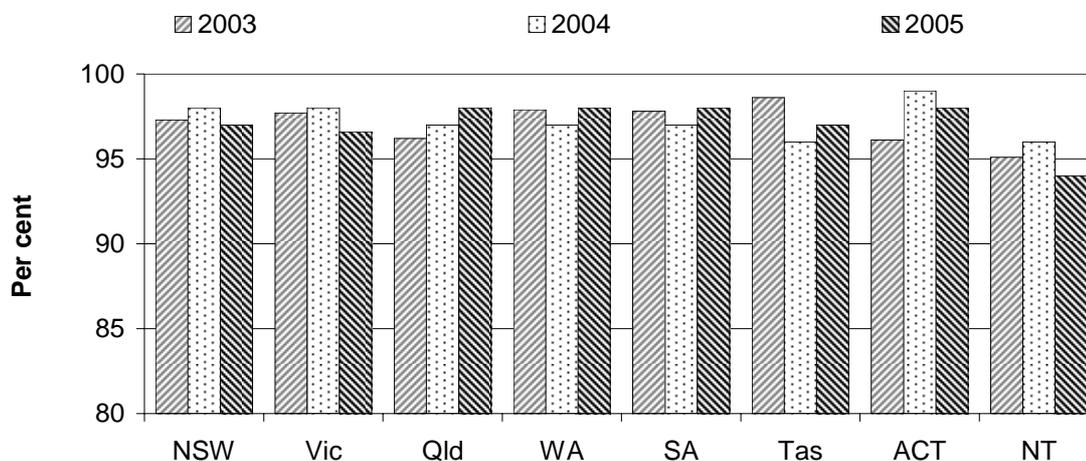
The ‘level of patient satisfaction’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to reduce the adverse effects on the Australian community of emergencies requiring ambulance services by meeting patient needs.

The indicator is defined as the total number of patients who were either ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with ambulance services they had received in the previous 12 months, divided by the total number of patients.

A higher level or increase in the proportion of patients who were either ‘satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ suggests greater success in meeting patient needs.

This indicator does not provide information on why some patients were not satisfied. It also does not provide information on the level of patient expectations.

Figure 8.23 **Proportion of ambulance users who were satisfied or very satisfied with the ambulance service^a**



^a Based on a survey of people who used an ambulance service in the previous 12 months. Jurisdictions conducted the surveys at various times during 2003, 2004 and 2005.

Source: CAA (2002, 2003); table 8A.25.

Outputs — efficiency

The main efficiency indicator is expenditure by ambulance service organisations per 1000 people. Funding of ambulance service organisations per 1000 people is also reported to show the contribution of governments and other funding sources. Care needs to be exercised when interpreting efficiency data, however, because differences in the reporting of asset-related costs mean data are not fully comparable across jurisdictions.

Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response

The Steering Committee has identified ‘expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response’ as an indicator of the efficiency with which governments deliver ambulance services. Data for this indicator were not available for the 2006 Report (box 8.19).

Box 8.19 Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response

‘Expenditure per urgent and non-urgent response’ has been identified for development as an output indicator of governments’ objective to deliver efficient emergency management services.

Expenditure per person

‘Expenditure per person’ is an indicator of the efficiency of governments in delivering emergency management services (box 8.20). Care needs to be taken when comparing data across jurisdictions because there are differences in the reporting of a range of cost items and funding arrangements (funding policies and taxing regimes). Some jurisdictions, for example, have a greater proportion of government funding compared with other jurisdictions.

Nationally, total expenditure on ambulance service organisations per 1000 people was \$63 063 in 2004-05 (figure 8.24).

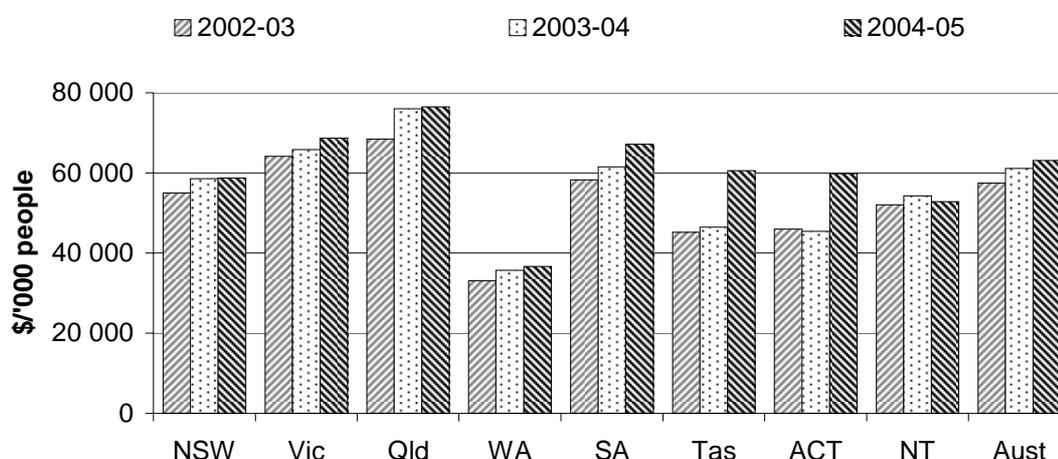
Box 8.20 Expenditure per person

‘Expenditure per person’ is included as an output indicator of governments’ objective to deliver efficient emergency management services.

The indicator is defined as ambulance service organisation expenditure per 1000 people. Expenditure is reported as the total cost (total direct and indirect government and other ambulance expenditure) of ambulance service organisations. The cost to government is reported as total government funding of these organisations. Total expenditure is a measure of efficiency for ambulance services, and government funding is a measure of the cost to government of ambulance service organisations. Both are reported, because revenue from other sources is significant for a number of jurisdictions.

Holding other factors constant, a decrease in expenditure per person represents an improvement in efficiency. Efficiency data are difficult to interpret, however. While high or increasing expenditure per person may reflect deteriorating efficiency, it may also reflect changes in aspects of the service (such as improved response) or changes in the characteristics of emergencies requiring ambulance services (such as more serious para-medical challenges). Similarly, low or declining expenditure per person may reflect improving efficiency or lower quality (slower response times) or less severe cases.

Figure 8.24 Ambulance service organisations expenditure (2004-05 dollars)^a

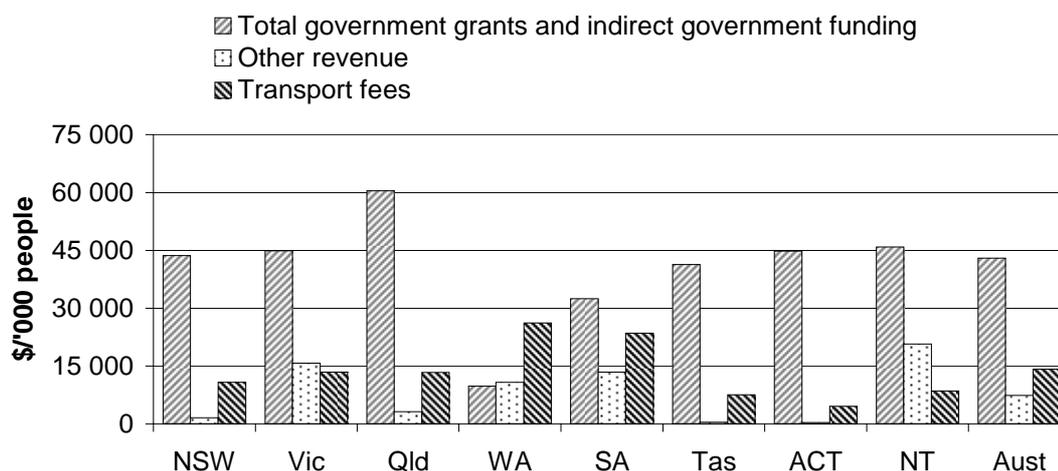


^a Expenditure levels are adjusted using the ABS gross domestic product price deflator (2004-05 = 100) (table A.26) to arrive at a constant price measure.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); tables 8A.26 and 8A.27.

Nationally, total government grants and indirect government funding of ambulance service organisations per 1000 people was \$42 978 in 2004-05 (figure 8.25).

Figure 8.25 Ambulance service organisations funding, 2004-05^a



^a Other revenue is equal to the sum of subscriptions, donations and miscellaneous revenue.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.28.

Outcomes

Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest

An outcome measure for ambulance events is the survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest (box 8.21).

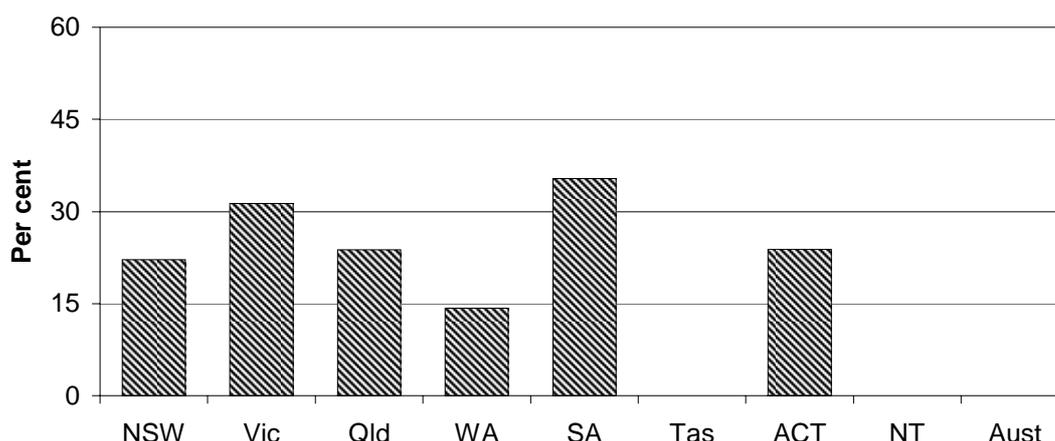
Box 8.21 Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest

'Survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest' is included as an outcome indicator of governments' objective to reduce the adverse effects on the Australian community of emergencies requiring ambulance services.

The indicator is defined as the percentage of patients aged 16 years and over in bystander (not paramedic) witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac origin on whom resuscitation was attempted and who had vital signs on arrival at hospital. Higher survival rates represent better outcomes.

The survival rate from out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrests varied across jurisdictions where data were available in 2004-05 (figure 8.26). Tasmania and the NT did not report on this indicator.

Figure 8.26 Cardiac arrest survival rate, 2004-05^{a, b}



^a The definition of witnessed cardiac arrest survival rates relates to the percentage of patients aged 16 years or over in bystander (not paramedic) witnessed out-of-hospital cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac origin on whom resuscitation was attempted and who had vital signs on arrival at hospital. ^b The ACT survival rate from out-of-hospital cardiac arrests data is a six year rolling average.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.23.

8.5 Road rescue events

A road rescue event is an accident or incident involving a motor vehicle and the presumption that there are injuries or that assistance is required from ESOs.

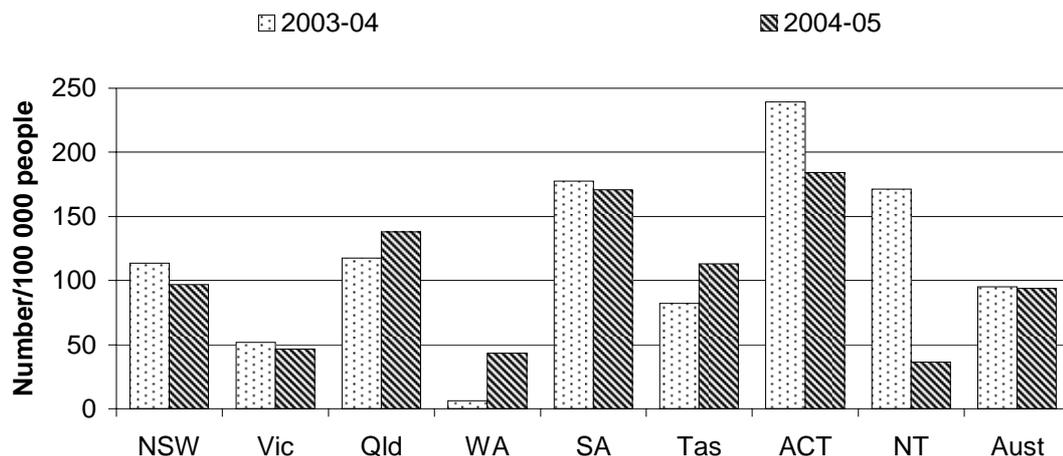
Emergency management services for road rescue events

In all jurisdictions, a diverse range of ESOs provide emergency management services for road rescue events. In some jurisdictions, several agencies provide road rescue services, although the trend is towards consolidation. In most jurisdictions, SES/TES have an important role in providing road rescue services, although this is not always the case. In Tasmania, the ambulance service provides road rescue services in urban areas, SES in most rural areas and the fire service in one rural area, while in NSW road rescue services are provided by five organisations.

Number of reported road rescue incidents

Nationally, there were 18 886 road rescue incidents in 2004-05, or 93.9 incidents per 100 000 people (table 8A.29). The number of incidents per 100 000 people varied across jurisdictions (figure 8.27).

Figure 8.27 **Reported road rescue incidents^{a, b, c}**



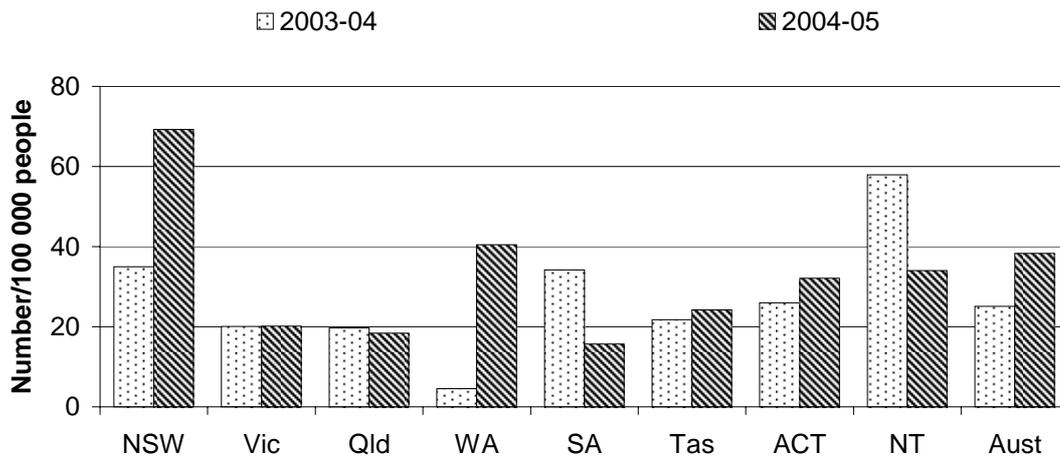
^a In Victoria, SES incidents reported are those where the SES responded as the primary rescue crew. ^b QFRS Rural Incident Database does not record the necessary information to satisfactorily calculate this measure. ^c In WA, the apparent rise in the number of road rescue incidents in 2004-05 is due to improved counting methods. Volunteer Emergency Services incidents are not included.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.29.

Number of reported road rescue extrications

The data for road rescue extrications per 100 000 people display some marked variations across jurisdictions and, in some cases, within jurisdictions between 2003-04 and 2004-05 (figure 8.28). These marked variations may reflect definitional issues and the newness of the collection.

Figure 8.28 **Reported road rescue extrications^{a, b, c, d}**



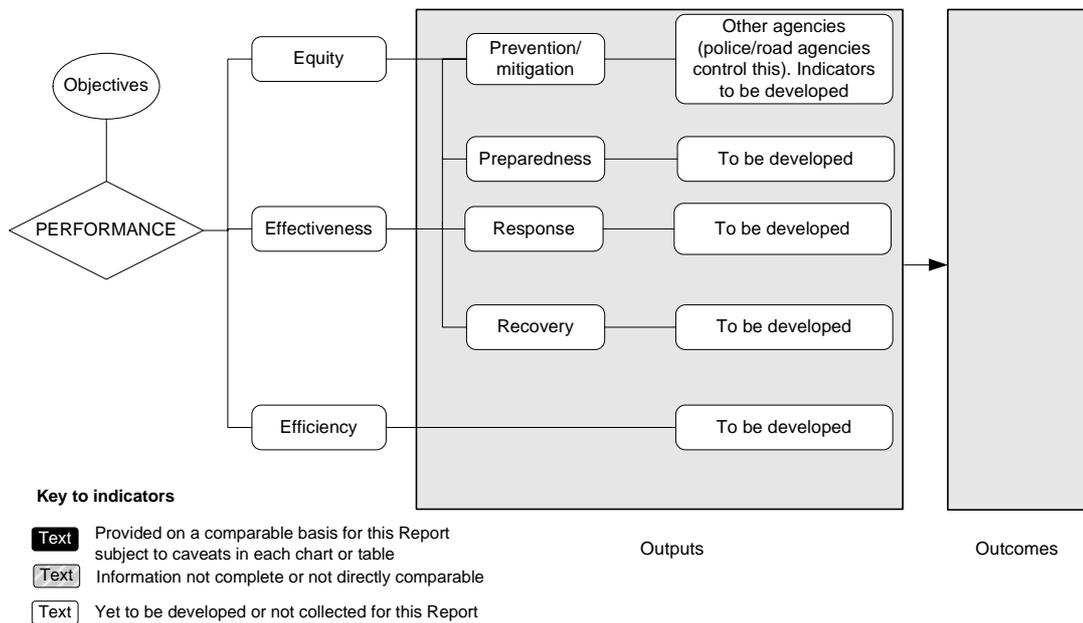
^a In Victoria, SES incidents reported are those where the SES responded as the primary rescue crew. ^b The apparent rise in the number of road rescue extrications in WA is due to improved counting methods. Volunteer Emergency Services incidents are not included. ^c QFRS Rural Incident Database does not currently record the necessary information to calculate this measure. ^d For SA, SES extrications are not available for 2004-05.

Source: State and Territory governments (unpublished); table 8A.30.

Framework of performance indicators

Figure 8.29 presents the performance indicator framework for road rescue events based on the general framework for emergency management (figure 8.1).

Figure 8.29 Performance indicators for road rescue events



Key performance indicator results

No performance indicators are reported this year for road rescue services. Work is being undertaken to develop and expand the scope of performance reporting for road rescue events (see section 8.6 below). Road rescue prevention/mitigation indicators are closely related to the indicators reported for road safety and traffic management in chapter 5 ('Police services').

8.6 Future directions in performance reporting

A number of developments are underway to improve data quality and comparability, and to expand the scope of reporting on emergency services.

Expanding the scope of reporting

Transport accidents are a significant cause of injury, both fatal and non-fatal across all jurisdictions. In the three calendar years from 2000 to 2002, transport accidents in Australia were the second most prevalent cause of fatal injury after suicide, with nearly 2000 deaths each year attributable to transport accidents. In 2003-04, transport accidents accounted for 39 000 hospitalisations (table 5A.63).

A primary aim of governments is to reduce death and injury and the personal suffering and economic costs of road crashes. Emergency service organisations provide services that contribute to these objectives through the provision of effective and efficient trauma mitigation and medical and retrieval services.

Previous editions of this chapter have provided road rescue information on the number of road rescue incidents and the number of events in which extrications occurred. The next challenge for the Emergency Management chapter of this report, however, is to demonstrate the cost, benefits and value of the full range of emergency risk management services related to road transport accidents. This, combined with data in other chapters, will provide a more comprehensive picture of the strategies and programs delivered by governments to reduce the impact of road transport accidents. Together with other research, this information will assist decision-making about appropriate investment in a balanced range of risk management services.

Using the PPRR framework applied in emergency management, these services could include:

- *prevention* of road crashes through community safety campaigns, regulation and law enforcement
- *preparedness* through safety engineering, vehicle technology and occupant protection (to reduce the severity of incidents)
- *response*, including emergency management services
- *recovery*, including work to reopen roadways, repair vehicles and rehabilitate patients.

Each of these activities contributes to social, economic and environmental outcomes. For emergency management, the most important result is minimising harm to the victims and improving the chances for a good patient outcome.

Other event-type services for which performance reporting has yet to be developed include: rescues (other than road rescues); natural events (other than landscape fires); technological and hazardous material incidents; emergency relief and recovery; and quarantine and disease control.

Improving data comparability and completeness

Work to improve the comparability and accuracy of data is underway. Performance indicators for fire, ambulance and road rescue services are being improved with the assistance of the Australasian Fire Authorities Council, the CAA and the Australian Council for State/Territory Emergency Services. These organisations will continue

to expand the scope of the data collected, and to refine data items and data definitions.

8.7 Jurisdictions' comments

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

New South Wales Government comments

“ The NSW Government continues its commitment to enhancing community safety, quality of life and confidence, by minimising the impact of hazards and emergency incidents on the people, environment and economy of NSW. In 2004-05 emergency service organisations (ESOs) undertook the following:

- Compartment Fire Behaviour Training was rolled out in NSW Fire Brigades (NSWFB) to further improve firefighter and community safety.
 - The Bushfire Environmental Assessment Code was reviewed to streamline the hazard reduction processes required to meet the *Rural Fires Act 1997* and *Environmental Assessment Legislation Amendment Act 2002*.
 - The State Emergency Service (SES) commenced implementation of a 24x7 Operational Communications Centre, the Rural Fire Service (RFS) launched its operations management system (ICON) and the SES commenced work on a state-wide online mapping system, and the Request For Assistance operational management system.
 - Operational staffing in the Ambulance Service of NSW (ASNSW) increased by 96, two new stations were opened and upgrading of the core skills for qualified ambulance officers commenced.
 - Automatic External Defibrillators (AED) were installed on fire engines at 30 NSWFB country fire stations to complement the resources of the ASNSW.
 - Fifty-two new NSWFB fire engines are in service, reducing the average fleet age to 9.6 years. The RFS tanker replacement program achieved delivery of 205 new and refurbished firefighting tankers. Eight new or refurbished NSWFB fire stations opened and the RFS Headquarters was relocated to a new centre at Homebush Bay with first class communications, operations and conference facilities.
 - A new patient allocation matrix was introduced to help ambulance officers to transport the patient to the most appropriate hospital. Real time notification to emergency departments on the estimated time of ambulance arrival and the condition of the patient has assisted hospitals in managing peak demand periods.
 - NSW ESOs participated in State Mitigation Strategy Planning and COAG Natural Disasters in Australia reform workshops through the State Emergency Management Committee.
 - The SES developed a FloodSafe Business Toolkit to assist small to medium sized businesses to prepare for the effects of flooding.
 - The NSW Ambulance ‘Health Counter Disaster Unit’ coordinated the national effort to provide a substantial mass casualty healthcare response to the tsunami effected regions in South East Asia, supported by NSWFB disaster logistics experts.
 - NSW ESOs contributed to planning and preparation for major emergencies and counter-terrorism response including involvement in the National Counter Terrorism Committee’s multi-agency Exercise Explorer.
- ”

Victorian Government comments

“

Victoria's emergency service organisations have been working closely together throughout the year in preparation for the 2006 Commonwealth Games. An Emergency Services Working Group was established to coordinate emergency planning and preparedness. Presentations and exercises are being conducted to evaluate arrangements and ensure awareness leading up to March 2006.

At the Premier's request, the Emergency Services Commissioner conducted a review of an incident at Melbourne Airport on 21 February 2005. The incident involved ambulance services treating 47 people and disrupted National domestic air transport for two days. The review found that Victoria's emergency management arrangements are of a high standard and that public safety was not affected. The review identified the critical need for well understood, timely, multi agency notification processes. The Commissioner's report made nine specific recommendations, all of which were accepted by the State Government.

Arrangements for the implementation of a single integrated point of responsibility for emergency services telecommunications were finalised during the year. As from 1 July 2005, Victoria has a new independent statutory authority (Emergency Service Telecommunication Authority) that is responsible for dispatching '000' calls to Police, Fire and Ambulance and 132 500 flood and storm emergency related calls to the Victorian State Emergency Service. Under the Government's State-wide Integrated Public Safety Communications Strategy (SIPSaCS) significant upgrades of communication and dispatch systems are in progress to improve operational performance and enhance coordination between emergency services.

The Victorian Government's commitment to delivering more responsive and safer ambulance services continued in 2004-05. The Metropolitan Ambulance Service referral service has been successful in diverting significant numbers of suitable cases to alternative service providers. Minimum standards for Non-Emergency Patient Transport operations have been developed in consultation with industry stakeholders and will come into force in 1 February 2006. There has also been significant investment in information systems; in particular the Victorian Ambulance Clinical Information System (VACIS) to replace paper based clinical records with an electronic data capture system transferring data to a central database.

A range of innovations have been introduced in locations more remote from ambulance stations or where rapid response times are critical, including the establishment of 25 Community Emergency Response Teams (CERT) to provide basic life support and first aid care in the local community until an ambulance arrives. The establishment of 17 Public Access Defibrillation (PAD) sites, which consist of teams of employees at public venues, trained to respond to a medical emergency and equipped with a defibrillator to be used in cases of cardiac arrest, has also boosted community capacity to manage medical emergencies until ambulance paramedics arrive.

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Queensland Government comments

“ The Queensland Government provides world class emergency and disaster management services through a holistic framework and infrastructure that integrates the emergency services within a single department. This unique model assists Queensland’s preparedness from an all-hazards perspective and facilitates multi-service collaboration, coordination and cooperation required to plan for and respond to individual emergencies, natural events as well as human-created accidental and deliberate events.

Queensland’s integrated and improved capability was strengthened with the opening in December 2004 of the Queensland Combined Emergency Services Academy at Whyte Island. The academy provides state of the art training facilities for all emergency services staff and volunteers. Another \$10 million was invested in a new multi-service Special Operations Centre at Cannon Hill which opened in February 2005 that will enable expert emergency response teams to be deployed throughout Australia and the Asia-Pacific region within hours of a disaster. The centre represents a major investment in preparedness to respond to accidental or deliberate chemical, biological, radiological, incendiary and explosive (CBRIE) events.

Queensland has also pioneered community Emergency Service Units to provide effective, timely and coordinated volunteer emergency services, such as State Emergency Service, Rural Fire Service and ambulance First Responder services in communities where there are limited resources. This development complements the work already undertaken to build capacity and improve service delivery to remote, isolated and indigenous communities.

The Queensland Ambulance Service (QAS) received its third Australian Business Excellence Award in 2005 and continues to improve on emergency response times with a near two percent improvement on the previous year. This has been aided by the employment of an additional 100 paramedics, as part of 240 extra paramedics over three years. This is to not only improve emergency response times, but also to improve services to rural, isolated and remote communities. In keeping with improving rural services, QAS will also train 60 paramedics over three years in partnership with Queensland Health to expand the role of rural paramedics to assist remote area nurses and rural doctors with ongoing patient care.

Key Queensland Fire and Rescue Service (QFRS) initiatives have been to enhance community bushfire hazard reduction and preparedness, together with bushfire response preparedness and capability in the urban/rural interface zone (iZone). Additional training officers have been allocated to deliver specific integrated training for permanent, auxiliary and volunteer firefighters working together in this operational environment. Also more than 50 rural firefighting vehicles, 20 firefighting trailers and portable dams have been purchased to support the rural fire service. QFRS is also ensuring better building fire safety standards through an inspections process of budget accommodation and other public buildings.

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Western Australian Government comments

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The WA Government continues to work collaboratively with the community to improve safety practices and to provide timely, quality and effective emergency services. Occupying over a third of Australia, WA's expansive land area, topography and demographic dispersal across rural and remote regions provide a challenging context for the delivery of emergency services. The extension of FESA's multi-skilled and multifunctional emergency services units is helping to address the problem of declining volunteers in rural and remote areas.

Firefighters on the ground are supported by rotary-winged Helitacs and fixed wing water bombers. In 2004-05 FESA extended its aerial firefighting capacity to cover a 120km zone around Perth. During the year aerial firefighters were deployed at 92 incidents, with Helitacs delivering approximately 3.2 million litres of water and 6 745 litres of foam in a total of 3 113 drops.

The role and responsibilities of FESA are being examined by the current legislative review of the emergency services Acts with reintroduction of the Emergency Management Bill into the Spring Session of the WA Parliament.

To further enhance the integration and management delivery of operational services, it is intended to create a single operational management structure to oversee the combined operations of the career and volunteer Fire and Rescue Service, State Emergency Services, Bush Fire Brigades, Volunteer Emergency Service Units and Volunteer Marine Rescue Service.

The 2004-05 year was the first complete year that the property-based Emergency Service Levy (ESL) was collected. Over \$7.1m of ESL capital grants were allocated for the construction or upgrade of 23 buildings, 65 fire appliances (new and refurbished) and provision of over 30 major assets for the SES including vehicles, boats, trailers and other major equipment. Volunteer units were allocated nearly \$7.5m in operating grants in 2004-05.

Ambulance services in Western Australia are comprised of road and air ambulance services. Non-government providers supply road ambulance services for most of the State and St John Ambulance Australia WA Ambulance Service (SJA) is the principal provider of these services. The 2004-05 year was the first year of a new contract between the Department of Health and SJA that will provide an additional 100 paramedics and a substantial capital works programme over five years. The additional resources are aimed primarily at enhancing metropolitan response times. Ambulance services in rural communities in WA are largely dependent on SJA volunteers with over 3 million volunteer hours being contributed annually.

The Royal Flying Doctor Service provides air ambulance services with 11 fixed wing aircraft. The FESA Emergency Rescue Helicopter Service (Rescue 1) has a primary 200 kilometre radius from Perth and reaches 90 per cent of WA's population. However, with refuelling, extended rescues are also possible. A St John Ambulance critical care paramedic is part of the crew of Rescue 1 to provide immediate specialised medical care.

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South Australian Government comments

To improve Public Safety the South Australian Government's vision is for emergency services:

- comprising dedicated, highly trained people
- using modern technology and equipment
- providing a community focus for positioning and aligning emergency services across Prevention, Preparedness, Response and Recovery
- efficiently working together and with the community
- efficiently managed and supported
- efficiently meeting modern challenges.

The Government has established the SA Fire and Emergency Services Commission (SAFECOM) to enhance community safety and make the best possible use of resources under the Fire and Emergency Services Act 2005.

SA Ambulance Service (SAAS) has increased collaboration with the Department of Health since moving into the Health portfolio in April 2004, while continuing to work closely with other emergency services agencies in response to major incidents including the Lower Eyre Peninsula bushfires in January 2005.

SAAS and other SA emergency services were involved in the multi-jurisdictional counter terrorist exercise Mercury 05 which provided an excellent way to test capabilities and procedures in response to a significant incident.

Major emergency management initiatives for 2005-06 include:

- implementing the recommendations of the COAG Reviews of Natural Disaster Management and Bushfires
- implementing arrangements under the Emergency Management Act 2004;
- improving emergency services' governance by establishing the Emergency Services Leadership Council
- planning SAAS's ambulance service delivery model, including: a new service delivery model through a review of SAAS's clinical governance, strategy and clinical development; identifying opportunities for linkages and involvement with government and health agencies from the Generational Health Review; and implementing improved and integrated out-of-hospital patient care services
- participating in the SA Computer Aided Dispatch (SACAD) project to replace computer aided dispatch systems for Police, Ambulance and SAFECOM (comprising the Metropolitan Fire Service, Country Fire Service, State Emergency Service)
- promoting long-term retention and recruitment of volunteers, including volunteer induction, recruitment and selection, reward and recognition, flexible learning and conflict resolution
- working closely with the Council of Ambulance Authorities and the Australasian Fire Authorities Councils' initiatives for service excellence.

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Tasmanian Government comments

Tasmania has a number of unique characteristics which impact on the provision of emergency services throughout the State, including the small and dispersed population (and subsequent lack of economies of scale), the reliance on a network of volunteers in rural and remote areas (affecting turnout times) and the State's rugged topography which impacts on response times and infrastructure costs (for example, radio communications).

Unlike some other jurisdictions, Tasmania includes data for both urban and rural fire and ambulance service performance. As Tasmania has the highest percentage of all jurisdictions of its population in rural areas, reliable comparisons with other jurisdictions are difficult.

Tasmania Fire Service (TFS) is comprised of four career brigades and 232 volunteer brigades that respond to fires in all metropolitan and rural areas. All incidents attended by these brigades are reported, and the TFS bears the full cost of funding both the operating and capital costs of its brigades.

Due to regular rains, a relatively mild bushfire season was experienced over the 2004-05 summer. There were no extended periods of extreme fire danger and few major bushfires.

The threat of terrorist activity has focussed the attention of TFS over the last twelve months on planning and training for chemical, biological and radiological incidents, and equipping and training firefighters in urban search and rescue.

TFS continues to deliver a broad range of programs to assist at-risk sectors of the community prevent fires and minimise the impact of fires that occur. Figures indicate that fire prevention programs targeting at-risk households are particularly effective, with significant decreases in house fire rates experienced over the last ten years.

The Tasmanian Ambulance Service (TAS) provides emergency ambulance care, rescue and transport services and a non-emergency patient transport service. In addition TAS provides fixed wing and helicopter aeromedical services and undertakes road rescue functions.

Tasmania is the only State that provides a free ambulance service to the general public, and as a consequence there is a far greater reliance on government funding for ambulance services than in other jurisdictions. Increasing demand for ambulance services is a major issue with the ageing of the population being the major factor in the growth in demand.

Tasmania trains a greater proportion of its salaried ambulance personnel to paramedic level than most other jurisdictions. Operational staffing increased by 20 positions and volunteer training was also improved.

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Australian Capital Territory Government comments

“ The ACT Government continued to enhance emergency management preparedness and capability through the establishment of the ACT Emergency Services Authority (the Authority) on July 1, 2004. Establishment of the Authority, which comprises the ACT Ambulance Service, the ACT Fire Brigade, the ACT Rural Fire Service and the ACT State Emergency Service, was a key recommendation of the McLeod ‘Inquiry into the Operational Response to the January 2003 Bushfires in the ACT’.

Headed by a Commissioner and underpinned by the newly created *Emergencies Act 2004*, the Authority’s mission is to ‘protect and preserve life, property and the environment in the ACT’. The Act requires the Authority to ensure effective and cohesive rural and urban fire services, state emergency services and ambulance services. The various inquiries conducted after the recent major bush fires heard criticism of the lack of coordination and cohesion within the ACT’s emergency services. Through the *Emergencies Act 2004*, and the establishment of the Authority, the ACT Government has taken positive steps to address this and the ACT’s emergency services now have:

- common governing legislation
- identical powers vested in their respective chief officers
- arrangements for the integration of planning and support between services in the event of crisis
- joint plans at the strategic level (for example, the Strategic Bushfire Management Plan,) and at operational and tactical levels
- efficient internal governance structures.

Other key achievements during the year were:

- implementation of a state of the art Computer Aided Dispatch (CAD) system, incorporating mobile data terminals and automatic vehicle location, for both the Ambulance Service and the Fire Brigade. This will be extended using an interface to the technology to provide the same capability for the Rural Fire Service and the State Emergency Service
- establishment of a permanent Emergency Coordination Centre
- development of an all-hazards evacuation strategy
- Trunk Radio Network commissioned which will be extended in the next year to improve operational coverage
- review of the organisational structure of each of the Authority’s response agencies
- introduction of joint operational plans
- engagement of the community through education and prevention activities
- extensive training of staff in the Australasian Interservice Incident Management System.

The ACT Government committed substantial additional funding during the year to support the many activities involved in the establishment of the Authority.”

Northern Territory Government comments

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In 2004-05, Northern Territory Fire and Rescue Services (NTFRS) and NT Emergency Service (NTES) continued to develop and implement initiatives to further promote and enhance community safety.

During the reporting period the NTFRS and NT Bushfires Council (BFC) worked together to develop the Community Safety Strategy and Fire Reduction Strategy. The aim of the strategies is to reduce the number of fires and the consequent impact which fires have on the community in terms of property loss, injury and death.

Fire Service facilities were increased with the opening of a new fire station at Humpty Doo. This station will service the Darwin rural region and will be responsible for all forms of fire fighting, road accident rescue, community safety and will assist with volunteer training in the area.

Counter Terrorism continues to be a major focus for the NTFRS. During the reporting period, the Special Operations Unit was established in order to further develop operational capabilities for response to incidents including Chemical, Biological and Radiological (CBR) and Urban Search and Rescue (USAR).

Following the review of the NTFRS and implementation of recommendations, the service is now in a much stronger position to deal with the challenges of the future. New initiatives included improvements to training through the conversion of the Australian Fire Competencies to the new Public Safety Training Package.

NTES produced a book, *Disaster Risk Management in Aboriginal Communities*, for distribution to all communities. NTES was also the lead agency in establishing a Planning Committee to coordinate the response of NT agencies to handle a Major Structure Collapse. Volunteers continued to provide essential assistance in responding to incidents.

NTFRS and NTES continue to promote safer communities through the development of policies, initiatives and infrastructure which provide the Northern Territory with a first class emergency management structure.

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8.8 Definitions of key terms and indicators

50th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first ambulance resources respond.
50th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 50 per cent of first fire resources respond.
90th percentile ambulance service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first ambulance resources respond.
90th percentile fire service response times	The time within which 90 per cent of first fire resources respond.
Alarm notification not involving fire	Fire alarm notification due to the accidental operation of an alarm, the failure to notify fire services of an incorrect test by service personnel or a storm induced voltage surge.
Ambulance expenditure	Includes salaries and payments in the nature of salaries to ambulance personnel, capital expenditure (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) and other operating expenditure (such as running expenditure, contract expenditure, provision for losses and other recurrent expenditure). Excludes interest on borrowings.
Ambulance incident	An event that results in a demand for ambulance resources to respond.
Ambulance non-government revenue	Includes revenue from subscription fees, transport fees, donations and other non-government revenue. Excludes funding revenue from Australian, State and local governments.
Ambulance patient	A person assessed, treated or transported by the ambulance service.
Ambulance personnel	Any person employed by the ambulance service provider who delivers an ambulance service, manages the delivery of this service or provides support for the delivery of this service. Includes salaried ambulance personnel, remunerated volunteer and nonremunerated volunteer ambulance personnel.
Ambulance response	A vehicle or vehicles sent to an incident. There may be multiple responses/vehicles sent to a single incident.
Ambulance services	Pre-hospital care, treatment and transport services.
Emergency ambulance response	An emergency ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident that necessitates the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
Events in which extrication(s) occurred	An event in which the assisted removal of a casualty occurs. An incident with multiple people extricated is counted the same as an incident with one person extricated.
Extrication	Assisted removal of a casualty.
False report	An incident in which the fire service responds to and investigates a site, and may restore a detection system.
Fire death	A fatality where fire is determined to be the underlying cause of death. This information is verified by coronial information.
Fire death rate	The number of fire deaths per 100 000 people in the total population.

Fire expenditure	Includes salaries and payments in the nature of salaries to fire personnel, capital expenditure (such as depreciation and the user cost of capital) and other operating expenditure (such as running expenditure, training expenditure, maintenance expenditure, communications expenditure, provision for losses and other recurrent expenditure). Excludes interest on borrowings.
Fire incident	A fire reported to a fire service that requires a response.
Fire injury	An injury resulting from a fire or flames, requiring admission to a hospital. Excludes emergency department outpatients.
Fire injury rate	The number of fire injuries per 100 000 people in the total population.
Fire personnel	Any person employed by the fire service provider who delivers a firefighting or firefighting-related service, or manages the delivery of this service. Includes paid and volunteer firefighters and support personnel.
Fire safety measure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operational smoke alarm or detector • Fire sprinkler system • Safety switch or circuit breaker • Fire extinguisher • Fire blanket • Fire evacuation plan • External water supply • The removal of an external fuel source • External sprinkler • Other fire safety measure.
Indirect revenue	All revenue or funding received indirectly by the agency (for example, directly to Treasury or other such entity) that arises from the agency's actions.
Landscape fires	Vegetation fires (for example, bush, grass, forest, orchard and harvest fires), regardless of the size of the area burnt.
Median dollar loss per structure fire	The median (middle number in a given sequence) value of the structure loss (in \$'000) per structure fire incident.
Non-emergency ambulance response	A non-emergency ambulance response that does not necessitate the use of ambulance warning (lights and sirens) devices.
Non-structure fire	A fire outside a building or structure, including fires involving mobile properties (such as vehicles), a rubbish fire, a bushfire, grass fire and an explosion.

Other incident	An incident (other than fire) reported to a fire service that requires a response. This may include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • overpressure ruptures (for example, steam or gas), explosions or excess heat (no combustion) • rescues (for example, industrial accidents or vehicle accidents) • hazardous conditions (for example, the escape of hazardous materials) • salvages • storms or extreme weather.
Paramedic response	A level of emergency care categorised as advanced life support.
Response time	The interval between the receipt of the call at the dispatch centre and the arrival of the vehicle at the scene (that is, when the vehicle is stationary and the handbrake is applied).
Road rescue	An accident or incident involving a motor vehicle and the presumption that there are injuries or that assistance is required from emergency services organisations.
Structure fire	A fire inside a building or structure, whether or not there is damage to the structure.
Structure fire contained to object or room of origin	A fire where direct fire/flame is contained to the room of origin (that is, excludes wildfires and vehicle fire in unconfined spaces). A room is an enclosed space, regardless of its dimensions or configuration. This category includes fires in residential and non-residential structures.
Survival rate for out-of-hospital witnessed cardiac arrest incidents	The percentage of patients with cardiac arrest of presumed cardiac cause, who have vital signs on arrival at hospital. Excludes incidents to children (younger than 16 years), drownings, trauma and other cases where aetiology is known (for example, asthma).
Urgent ambulance response	An urgent ambulance response to a pre-hospital medical incident or accident that does not necessitate the use of ambulance warning devices.
User cost of capital	The opportunity cost of funds tied up in the capital used to deliver services. Calculated as 8 per cent of the current value of noncurrent physical assets (including land, plant and equipment).

8.9 Supporting tables

Supporting tables are provided on the CD-ROM enclosed with the Report. The files containing the supporting tables are provided in Microsoft Excel format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach8A.xls and in Adobe PDF format as \Publications\Reports\2006\Attach8A.pdf. The files can also be found on the Review web page (www.pc.gov.au/gsp). Users without Internet access can contact the Secretariat to obtain the tables (see details on the inside front cover of the Report).

Fire events

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Table 8A.4	Accidental residential structure fires reported to fire service organisations per 100 000 households
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Ambulance Services

Table 8A.19	Major sources of ambulance service organisations funding (2004-05 dollars)
Table 8A.20	Reported ambulance incidents, responses, patients and transport
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Table 8A.37	Treatment of assets by emergency management agencies
Table 8A.38	Summary of emergency management organisations by event type, 2003
Table 8A.39	Reported fires and other primary incidents, urban and rural inclusions and exclusions (number)

8.10 References

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