

# Chapter 4

## Children and young people

4.1	Introduction	143
4.2	The policy context	143
4.3	Australian families	145
4.4	Education	153
4.5	Community participation	164
4.6	The transition to independence	166
4.7	Vulnerable children and young people	174
4.8	Where to from here?	185
	References	188

# 4 Children and young people

## At a glance

### Families

- Most families report high levels of family cohesion, although the proportion of one-parent families with children aged 6–7 and 10–11 who reported ‘good’, ‘very good’ or ‘excellent’ cohesion (83% and 81% for the age groups respectively) was lower than couple families (93% and 91%) in 2010–11.
- Some children and young people are more vulnerable to poorer outcomes—37,781 children aged 0 to 17 (7.4 per 1,000 children) were subject to a substantiation of abuse or neglect in 2011–12, 107,200 people aged under 25 were assisted by specialist homelessness agencies in 2011–12, and 6,940 young people were under youth justice supervision on an average day in 2011–12.

### Early childhood education and care

- Just over half (52%) of children aged 0 to 12 usually attended child care in 2011.
- In 2012, an estimated 89% of children were enrolled in a preschool program in the year before full-time schooling and 86% attended for at least 1 hour in the reference week.
- More than one-fifth (22%) of children in their first year of school were developmentally vulnerable on one or more domains of the Australian Early Development Index in 2012, a small decrease from 24% in 2009.

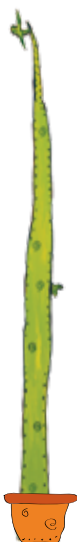
### School years

- In 2012, nearly three-quarters (72%) of children aged 5 to 14 took part in organised sport and/or selected cultural activities outside school hours in the previous year.
- Most students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9 (82% to 95%) in 2012 achieved at or above the national minimum standards for reading, persuasive writing, language conventions and numeracy.
- The apparent retention rates of full-time students from the first year of secondary school to Year 10 and Year 12 steadily increased for Indigenous students between 1998 and 2012—from 83% to 98% for Year 10 and from 32% to 51% for Year 12.

### Further education and employment

- In 2012, 12% of 20–24 year olds were not in employment, education or training compared with 14% in 2003. The proportion with a non-school qualification was similar in 2006 (39%) and 2011 (41%).
- Rates of unemployment (11.7%) and underemployment (13.7%) among 15–24 year olds in 2012 were twice the national rates for those aged 15 and over (5.2% and 7.3% respectively).

4



## 4.1 Introduction

Childhood and youth are periods of rapid growth and critical development. What happens during this time affects the immediate quality of young people's lives, as well as their future and that of the community as a whole. Child care, early education programs, schooling, and further education and training play a critical role in providing the foundation for successful entry into the workforce, transition to independence and full participation in society.

However, some children and young people are exposed to factors—such as child abuse and neglect, disability, violence, homelessness and contact with the justice system—that place them at risk of disadvantage and require the provision of additional supports and services.

This chapter looks at the key stages of growing up in Australia, from early childhood to young adulthood, as well as some of the supports available to children, young people and families. In this chapter, children are defined as those aged 0 to 14 and young people as those aged 15 to 24, unless otherwise stated.

## 4.2 The policy context

Most Australian children and young people lead healthy lives with access to appropriate services to meet their needs. They have one of the highest life expectancies in the world (see Indicator 1 in Chapter 11), and most parents rate their children's health as very good or excellent. The majority of Australian households with children perceive their neighbourhoods as safe, and most families report that they have access to assistance in times of crisis (AIHW 2012d). High quality early childhood services and education are readily accessible for most. However, some children are disadvantaged and vulnerable to social exclusion. Consequently, a key aim of government policy is to reduce this disadvantage and facilitate access to high quality services.

Recent national initiatives for children and young people have focused primarily on early childhood development, child and family safety, and education, as outlined below. Many of these build on long-term policy frameworks established in recent years, largely through national partnerships driven by COAG.

### Early childhood

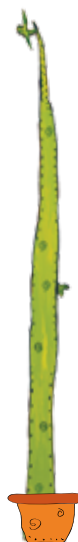
#### **National Quality Framework for Early Childhood Education and Care**

The National Quality Framework (an initiative under the COAG National Early Childhood Development Strategy) took effect on 1 January 2012. Under this framework, a range of key requirements, including staff qualification levels and educator-to-child ratios, are being phased in between 2012 and 2020 (DEEWR 2012b).

#### **National Partnership Agreement on Early Childhood Education (2009–13)**

The goal under this COAG agreement is universal access by June 2013 to early childhood education for children in the year before full-time school (COAG 2009a).

4



### **Early Years Workforce Strategy 2012–2016**

The strategy sets out how all governments will support the early childhood education and care workforce to ensure a sustainable and highly qualified workforce. It covers issues relating to attracting and retaining workers to the sector, ensuring their professionalism and qualifications, and building capacity to respond to the diverse needs of all children, families and communities accessing early childhood education and care services (DEEWR 2012a; SCSEEC 2012).

### **National Partnership Agreement on Indigenous Early Childhood Development (2009–14)**

This agreement supports the Closing the Gap targets through the establishment of 38 Children and Family Centres across Australia by June 2014. The centres will deliver integrated services, including early learning, child care and family support programs (Australian Government 2012).

## **Child and family safety**

### **Establishment of a National Children’s Commissioner**

In February 2013, the Australian Government announced the appointment of Australia’s first National Children’s Commissioner. The role of the Commissioner—which sits within the Australian Human Rights Commission—will complement those of existing commissioners and guardians at the state and territory level. The Commissioner will advocate rights of children and young people in national-level policies through: direct consultation with children and their representative organisations; promotion of public discussion and awareness; research and education programs; and examination of relevant Commonwealth legislation, policies and programs in a human rights context (FaHCSIA 2013b).

### **Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse**

In January 2013, a six-member Royal Commission was appointed to investigate Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse. The Royal Commission will prepare an interim report by 30 June 2014 (RCIIRCSA 2013).

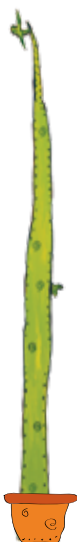
### **National Framework for Protecting Australia’s Children (2009–2020)**

The second 3-year action plan under this long-term framework sets out a range of actions for completion between 2012 and 2015. The plan focuses on enhancing collaborations between the government, non-government sector and the community, thus reflecting the notion that ‘protecting Australia’s children is everyone’s responsibility’ (FaHCSIA 2012c).

### **National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010–2022**

The first 3-year implementation plan (2010–2013) of this COAG initiative emphasises ‘building a strong foundation’ in working towards a long-term goal of reducing the rates of violence against women and their children (FaHCSIA 2012b).

4



## Education

### Review of Funding for Schooling and Australian Government response

The 2011 Review of Funding for Schooling (the 'Gonski review') was carried out with the aim of achieving a 'fair, financially sustainable and effective' funding system for Australian schools, focused on achieving the best outcomes for all students.

In response to the review, the Australian Government introduced the Australian Education Bill 2012. This Bill proposes a National Plan for School Improvement and a shift towards needs-based funding for education. The aim of the plan is for Australia to be ranked, by 2025, as one of the top five highest performing countries based on the performance of Australia's school students in reading, science and mathematics, and on the quality and equity of Australia's education system (Australian Government 2013c; Gillard 2012; Gonski et al. 2011).

### Australian Curriculum

*The Shape of the Australian Curriculum version 4* was released in October 2012. This version built upon the first release in late 2010 which, for the first time, made available a set of curriculum materials for use in schools across Australia. The Australian Curriculum currently includes English, mathematics, science and history. Other subject areas are in development and will be progressively added (ACARA 2012c).

## Young people

### National Partnership Agreement on Youth Attainment and Transitions (2009–2013)

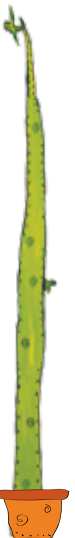
This COAG agreement aims to increase educational attainment and engagement of young people aged 15 to 24 at a national level. The first interim evaluation report recommended that priority be given to: enhancing the capacity of schools and training providers to engage young people returning to education or training, improving measures of performance, meeting resource demands for remote and disadvantaged locations, and undertaking greater knowledge-sharing of relevant initiatives and outcomes across states and territories (Dandolo Partners 2012).

## 4.3 Australian families

There were 5.7 million families in Australia according to the ABS 2011 Census (see Section 1.6). Almost half of these (45%) were couple families with children (including resident dependent and non-dependent children) and 16% were one-parent families. The remainder were either couple families without children (38%) or other family types, such as adult siblings living together (2%). The majority of this chapter focuses on the 60% of Australian families with children.

The composition of families has changed in recent decades. There has been a decrease in the proportion of couple families with dependent children and an increase in the proportion of one-parent families with dependent children. There has also been an increase in the proportion of couple families without children, including 'empty nesters' whose children have left home and younger couples choosing to delay having children or not to have children (Hayes et al. 2010; see Section 1.6). Fertility rates have remained below the replacement level of 2.1 births per woman since the late 1970s (1.9 births per woman in 2011) and women are having children later in life (ABS 2012a; see Section 1.4).

4



Coinciding with these changes, adoptions in Australia have declined by 97% since the 1970s—from almost 9,800 in 1971–72 to 333 in 2011–12—the lowest number of annual adoptions on record. The decrease is mainly due to a fall in adoptions of children born in Australia—almost half (45%) of all adoptions in 2011–12 were intercountry adoptions, compared with only 10% in 1984–85—although in recent years the number of intercountry adoptions has also declined (AIHW 2011a, 2012a).

These changes in family structure, fertility rates and adoptions reflect broader societal changes in relation to marriage, divorce, contraception and the increasing social acceptance of raising children outside of registered marriage (ABS 2011b; Higgins 2010).

## Family environment

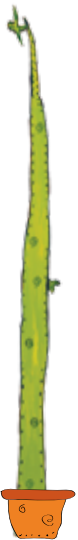
Families play a crucial role in the lives of children, providing the environment in which most children are cared for. Children raised in nurturing and stimulating family environments have better outcomes throughout life (McCain & Mustard 2002).

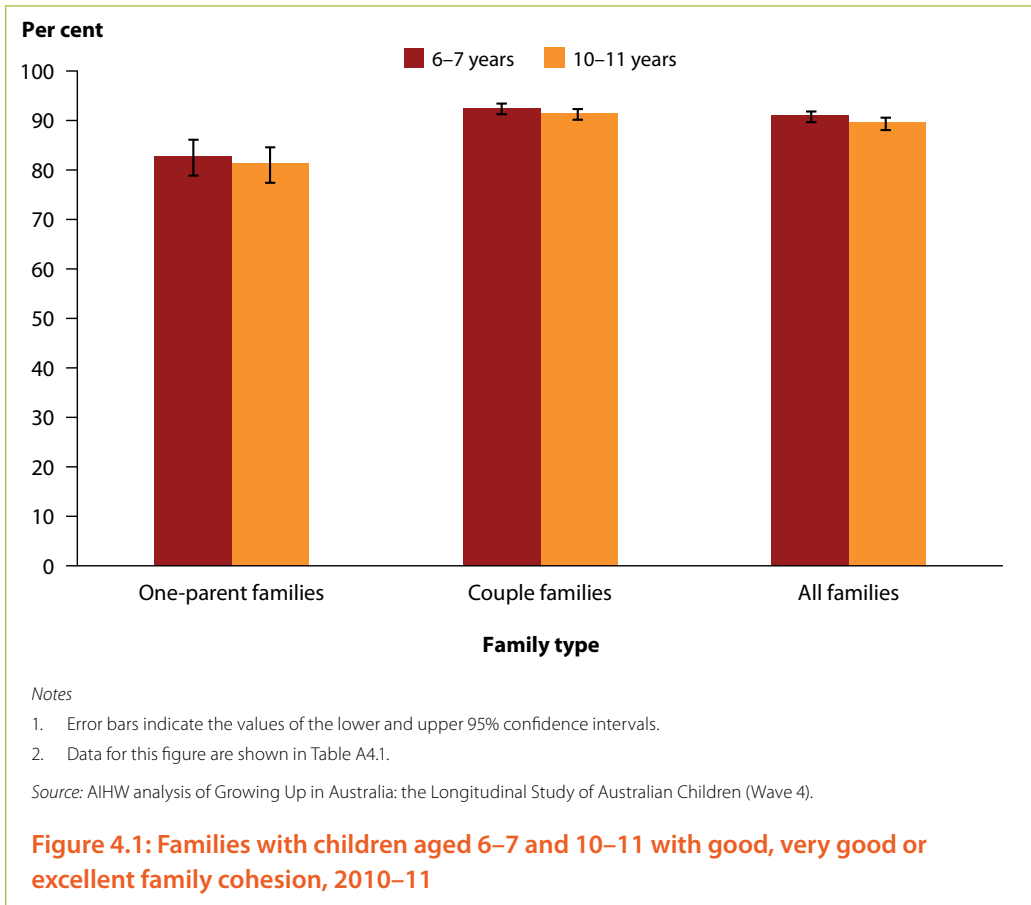
### Family functioning

Family functioning relates to a family's ability to interact, communicate, make decisions, solve problems and maintain relationships with each other. There are currently no national data available on a single overarching measure of family functioning. However, national data are available on specific components of family functioning, such as family cohesion, which is the ability of the family to get along with one another. Growing Up in Australia: the Longitudinal Study of Australian Children (LSAC) measured family cohesion in families of two cohorts of children—one aged 6–7 (birth cohort) and the other aged 10–11 (kinder cohort)—in 2010–11 (Wave 4).

According to the LSAC, family cohesion was reported to be 'good', 'very good' or 'excellent' in the vast majority of families of both cohorts—91% for the birth cohort and 90% for the kinder cohort families (Figure 4.1). The remainder of families reported 'fair' or 'poor' family cohesion. A higher proportion of couple families than one-parent families reported high levels of family cohesion. Among couple families, 93% of the birth cohort and 91% of the kinder cohort families reported 'good' to 'excellent' family cohesion, compared with 83% and 81% of one-parent families respectively.

4

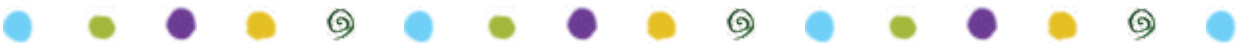
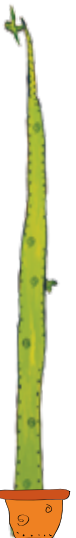




## Parental involvement in early learning

High levels of parental involvement in early learning and development are associated with better outcomes for children, such as increased educational engagement and achievement (Reynolds & Shlafer 2010). In 2011, most (91%) children aged 0 to 2 were involved in an informal learning activity with their parent in the previous week (ABS 2012c). This was similar to 2008 (92%) (ABS 2009a).

The most common activity was being read to from a book or told a story (80%) and this occurred daily for more than half (57%) of children. Children in couple families were more likely to be read to or told a story daily (59%) than children in one-parent families (41%). For most children, mothers were the parent predominantly involved in informal learning (69%), although mothers and fathers shared this role equally for 15% of children.



## Maternal workforce participation

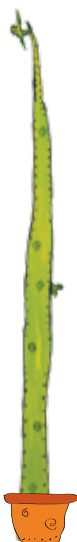
Participation in the labour force has increased over the last 50 years, particularly for females, with participation rates for females aged 15 and over increasing from 34% to 59% between 1961 and 2011, although this remains lower than for males (72% in 2011) (ABS 2011a). The rise in participation rates over time is largely due to the increased proportion of women returning to work after having children. In 1966, women's labour force participation dropped significantly during the prime child-raising years (20–34 year age group), with most women never returning to paid work. However, today many women take time away from employment after the birth of a child and often return to work part time while their children are young, rather than cease work (ABS 2011a). Women return to work for a variety of reasons, including financial (73%), for adult interaction/mental stimulation (54%) and to maintain one's career/skills (51%) (ABS 2012g).

Based on data from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) survey, between 2001 and 2009, the labour force participation rate of mothers with children under the age of 15 rose from 61% to 66%. The increase was greatest for lone mothers, where the proportion either employed or seeking employment rose from 51% to 64%. The proportion of partnered mothers in full-time employment remained relatively stable, rising from 22% to 26% between 2003 and 2008 before dropping to 24% in 2009. For lone mothers, full-time employment was steady at 20% between 2001 and 2005, rising to 23% in 2006 and 30% in 2008. This trend coincides with the introduction of the Child Care Rebate in 2004 and changes in eligibility for the Parenting Payment under the Welfare to Work reforms in 2006 (Wilkins & Warren 2012).

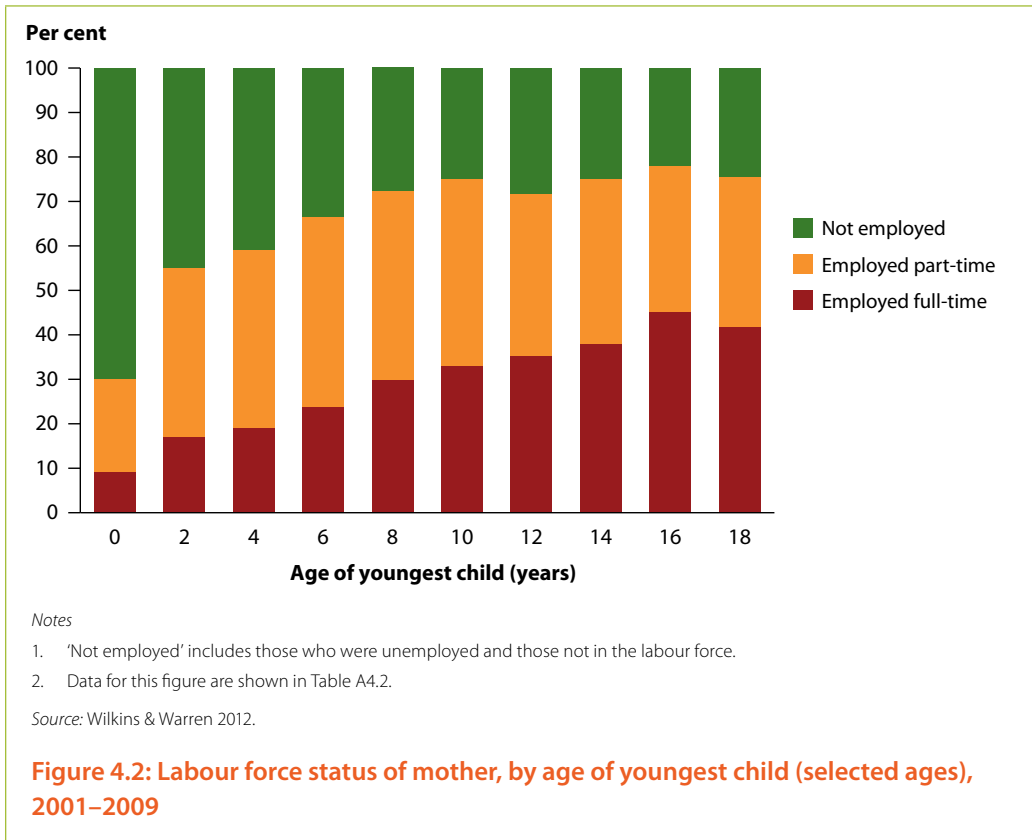
An important determinant of the labour force participation of mothers is the age of their youngest child (Wilkins & Warren 2012). As the age of the youngest child in the family increases, the labour force status of mothers tends to change, with more returning to the workforce and more working full time. While less than one-third of mothers (30%) whose youngest child was under the age of 1 had returned to full- or part-time employment over the 9-year period of 2001–2009, this increased to more than half (55%) by the time the youngest child was 2. By the time the youngest child was 8, almost three-quarters (73%) of mothers were working either full time or part time, with this proportion remaining relatively stable until the youngest child was 18 (76%) (Figure 4.2).

Mothers were more likely to work part time than full time during their youngest child's early years. Thirty-eight per cent of mothers worked part time when their youngest child was 2, while about half that proportion (17%) worked full time. However, the proportion of full-time working mothers rose steadily with the age of the youngest child, and overtook part-time working mothers when the youngest child was 13 (Table A4.2). It rose to 45% when the youngest child was 16 before dropping to 42% when the youngest child was 18. In contrast, the proportion of part-time working mothers fluctuated across the child-raising years. It rose from 21% when the youngest child was under the age of 1, increased to 44% when the youngest child was 7, and dropped to 31–34% when the youngest child was 16–18.

4

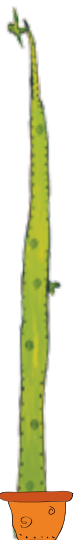






Balancing work and family life can be a challenge for working parents, but access to a range of entitlements can help. The national Paid Parental Leave scheme introduced in January 2011 includes Parental Leave Pay (from January 2011) and Dad and Partner Pay (from January 2013), and other payments include the Child Care Rebate and Parenting Payment (see Appendix B for a description of these payments). Various types of paid leave are also available, including personal leave, carer's leave, parental leave and adoption leave. In addition, the *Fair Work Act 2009* has given parents and other people caring for young children the right to make formal requests for flexible work arrangements, such as part-time work. Most recently, the *Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012* and the establishment of the Workplace Gender Equality Agency aim to remove barriers to the full and equal participation of women in the workforce and to eliminate gender discrimination relating to family and caring responsibilities (FaHCSIA 2012d).

Mothers are more likely than fathers to work part time to accommodate caring for young children (Strazdins et al. 2012). According to the ABS 2011 Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey, of the 39% of mothers with a child under the age of 2 who had returned to work, the majority (86%) had some form of flexible work arrangement. The most common types of arrangements were part-time work (76%), flexible working hours (40%) and working from home (30%).



Just over one-quarter of all mothers with a child under the age of 2 (26%) had a partner who used some form of flexible work arrangements to assist with child care. The most common arrangements used were flexible working hours (61%) and working from home (32%), while 12% worked part time. Of the partners who did not use flexible working arrangements to assist with child care, almost one-third (30%) had such arrangements available to them while half (50%) did not, and availability was not known in 20% of cases.

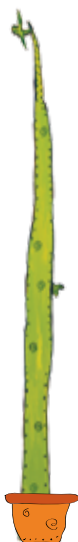
## Child care

Child care is a means of supporting the labour force participation of parents as well as a key form of early learning and development for children (DEEWR 2010). High quality child care has the potential to benefit children's cognitive, socio-emotional and physical development (UNICEF 2010). Quality is affected by factors such as staff–child ratios, facilities and available resources, and carer qualifications. The Australian Government, with the states and territories, has developed the National Quality Framework for Early Childhood Education and Care, which includes standards to ensure the safety, health and wellbeing of children attending child care services (see Section 4.2).

As noted earlier, women's labour force participation has increased substantially over recent decades and, with the increase in the number of two-parent working households, the demand for non-parental child care has risen. Child care is available in various forms to cater for differing family needs. Such care may be formal—including long day care, family day care, occasional care and before- and after-school care—or informal, which is non-regulated and often includes care by relatives or friends.

The number of children aged 0 to 12 attending Australian Government approved child care services in a given quarter has increased in recent years from 760,825 (22% of all children) in 2008 to 969,800 (26%) in 2012 (SCRGSP 2013).

4



According to the ABS 2011 Childhood Education and Care Survey, just over half (52%) of children aged 0 to 12 usually attended some type of child care, including care delivered in formal and informal settings (that is, not just Australian Government approved child care services). This is an increase from 43% of children in 2008, although changes to the ordering of survey questions between 2008 and 2012 may have affected the way parents reported their use of care (ABS 2009a, 2012c). Children in the 2–3 year age group were the most likely to attend child care in 2011 (72%) (Table A4.3). This may partly reflect the use of paid parental leave and unpaid parental leave arrangements provided for under the *Fair Work Act 2009* while children are aged 1 and under. School-aged children (aged 6 to 12) were less likely than younger children to attend child care, with half (50%) of those aged 6–8 and 43% of those aged 9–12 attending child care. Overall, children were more likely to attend informal care than formal care, except those aged 2–3.



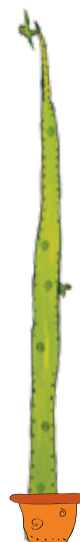
Certain groups of children are more likely to attend child care than others, which may reflect different child care needs for work-related or accessibility issues such as availability and affordability. In 2011, children in one-parent families were more likely to attend child care than those in couple families (65% compared with 49%). Children were also more likely to attend child care if English was the main language spoken at home (54%) compared with another language (35%). Children living in *Major cities* were slightly more likely to attend child care (54%) than children in *Inner regional areas* (49%) and *Outer regional, Remote and Very remote areas* combined (48%) (excluding Indigenous communities) (ABS 2012c).

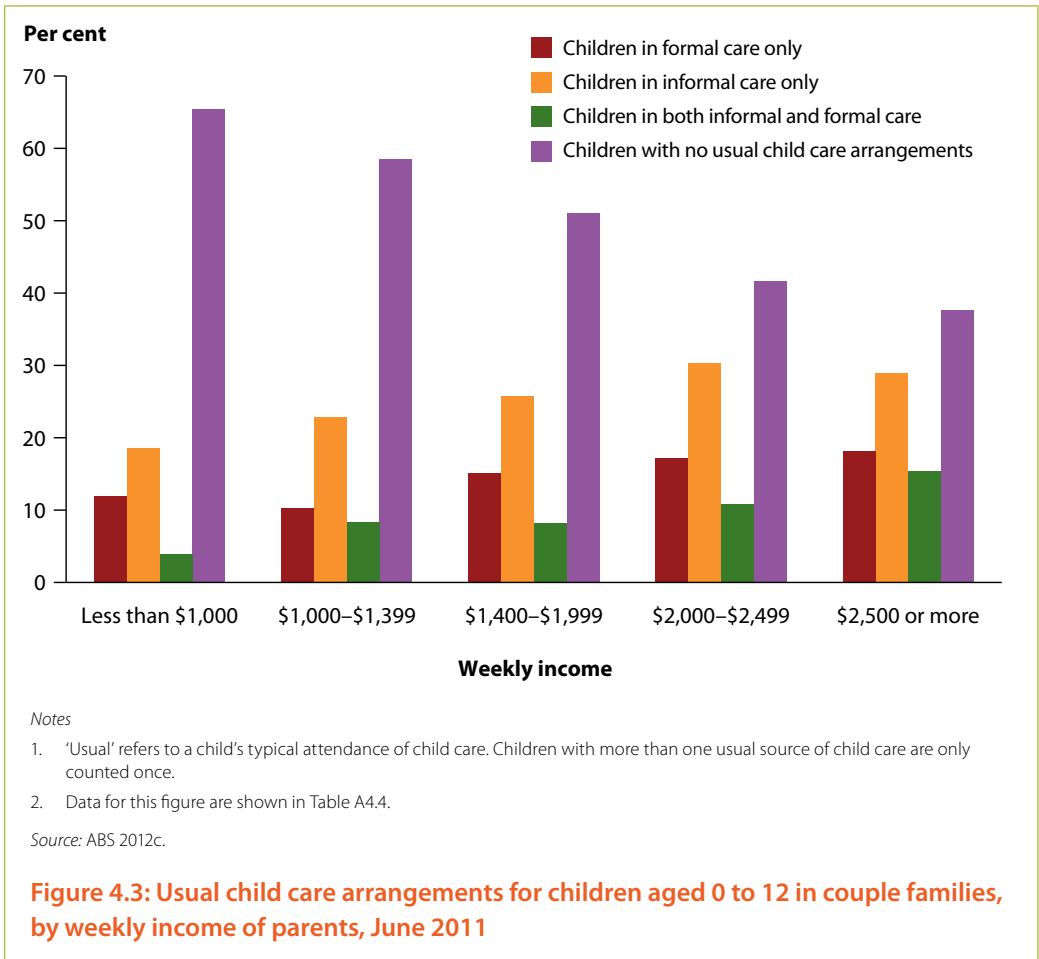
Data from the ABS 2008 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey indicate that 56% of Indigenous children aged 0 to 12 used child care compared with 43% of all Australian children (ABS 2011c). Indigenous children were more likely to use informal care (50%) and less likely to use formal care (14%) than all Australian children (29% and 22% respectively).

According to the ABS 2011 Childhood Education and Care Survey, work-related reasons were the most common main reason that children aged 0 to 12 attended child care—73% usually attended formal child care for this reason, as did 49% of those who usually attended informal care (ABS 2012c). This corresponds with the patterns of child care attendance by parents' employment status. The highest child care attendance rates were for children in one-parent families with an employed parent (82%) and in couple families with two employed parents (63%). Attendance rates were lower for children in couple and one-parent families in which no parent was employed (25% and 49% respectively) and in couple families with one employed parent (31%).

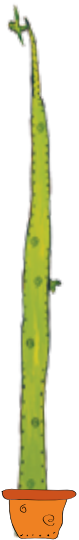
Income is related to parental employment and the need for child care. In couple families, the proportion of children aged 0 to 12 who usually attended child care increased with parental income in 2011, from 35% of children whose parents had a combined weekly income of less than \$1,000 to 62% of children whose parents' weekly income was \$2,500 or more (Figure 4.3). A high income may indicate that families are more easily able to afford child care and therefore choose to use it, or that there are two working parents within the family and therefore a greater need for child care. Children with parents who had a combined weekly income of \$2,500 or greater were more likely than those earning less than \$1,000 to use formal care (18% and 12% respectively) or informal care (29% and 19% respectively). The lower levels of child care use among families earning less than \$1,000 suggest that cost may be a barrier for low-income families, or that there is only one or no working parent in the household and less need for child care.

4





4



## Government financial support

The Australian Government provides financial support (and other services) to families to assist with the costs of raising children, including specific payments to support participation in the workforce through child care subsidies. Payment rates and eligibility varies with the type of payment. Appendix B outlines payment types and eligibility for various types of financial support. For details on the number of recipients receiving selected family-related payments from 2006 to 2012, see Table A4.5.

The number of families receiving Family Tax Benefit Part A has fallen since 2009. In June 2012, more than 1.6 million families received this payment—around 60% of all Australian families with dependent children—compared with 1.8 million families in June 2009. The number of families receiving Family Tax Benefit Part B remained fairly steady between June 2006 and June 2012 (around 1.4 million families, or half of Australian families with dependent children), with a peak in 2010 (Table A4.5).



During 2011–12, 756,000 families received the Child Care Benefit (about 28% of all families with dependent children), and around 772,000 families received the Child Care Rebate (29% of all families with dependent children) (Table 2.9).

Since the inception of the Baby Bonus in 2004, the number of recipients of the payment peaked at 287,000 in 2006–07. Income eligibility was introduced in 2009 and there was a corresponding decrease in those receiving the Baby Bonus, to 219,000 families in 2010–11. In January 2011, the Paid Parental Leave scheme was introduced, allowing parents to choose between Parental Leave Pay and the Baby Bonus depending on family circumstances. Primary carers who meet eligibility requirements such as working at least 10 of the 13 months before the baby was born can receive Parental Leave Pay rather than the Baby Bonus. Subsequently, payments of the Baby Bonus decreased to 158,000 families in 2011–12 (DHS 2013b). The Australian Government announced in the 2013–14 Budget its intention that the Baby Bonus will be replaced from 1 March 2014 with a rate increase of Family Tax Benefit Part A (DHS 2013a).

There was a substantial increase in the number of recipients of the Maternity Immunisation Allowance between 2010–11 and 2011–12—from 267,000 to 470,000. This is likely due to the cessation of the allowance from 1 July 2012, and an increase in the number of claims prior to this. In June 2012, more than half (53%) of all single-parent families with dependent children received a parenting payment (about 320,000, a decline from 433,000 in 2005–06), as did 4% of couple families with dependent children (114,000, a decline from 160,000 in 2005–06).

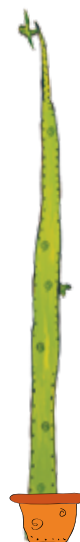
Some government financial assistance is also available to young people. Young people aged between 16 and 24 who are studying full time, undertaking a full-time apprenticeship, training, looking for work, or are sick may be eligible for Youth Allowance (DHS 2013d). Maximum fortnightly payments depend on individual circumstances such as age, partner status, income and whether the young person is living at or away from home. Parental income tests may also apply. Around 355,300 young people were receiving this payment in June 2012 (DHS 2013c).

## 4.4 Education

A young person's learning and development is integral to their overall health and wellbeing, as well as their future productivity and contribution to society. There is a link between intergenerational poverty and educational attainment—low educational attainment is a common factor in Australia's most disadvantaged communities and may increase the risk of social exclusion (Vinson et al. 2007). Education is important in breaking this cycle: those with higher levels of education are more likely to be employed and to have higher incomes (Callander et al. 2012).

Compulsory schooling ensures that children and young people acquire the essential knowledge and skills to allow them to participate fully and productively in the community. Children in Australia are required to attend school from age 6 (except in Tasmania where they must attend from age 5) until they complete Year 10, and then participate in full-time education, training or employment until they turn 17 (ACARA 2012b). A description of the key stages of education in Australia is in Box 4.1.

4



### Box 4.1: Education in Australia

Each state and territory has its own terminology and compulsory ages for schooling. Previously, each state and territory also had their own curriculum; however, the Australian Curriculum (see Section 4.2) is being progressively implemented from 2011.

Following is an overview of the key stages of education in Australia, although the details may vary somewhat between states and territories:

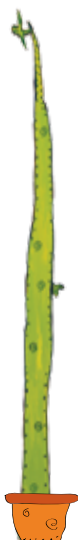
**Preschool**—a non-compulsory early childhood education and development program for children, before starting full-time schooling. Preschool is generally attended by 3 to 4 year olds part time, and is known as kindergarten in some states and territories. Preschool programs may be delivered in government- or private-funded stand-alone facilities, or within schools or long day care centres.

**Preparatory year**—although non-compulsory in most states and territories, the preparatory year is the first year of full-time schooling, and is generally attended by 4 to 5 year olds. This year has varying titles across states and territories, including kindergarten, prep, pre-primary, reception and transition.

**Primary and secondary school**—there are 12 years of primary and secondary school. Year 1 is the first compulsory year of full-time schooling in most states and territories, and is generally attended by 5 to 6 year olds. In most states and territories, it is compulsory for children to attend school from age 6 until they complete Year 10, although many students complete Year 12.

**Further education**—after secondary school, young people may start an apprenticeship (although some may start a school-based apprenticeship while still at secondary school) or a course of study at tertiary education institutions such as universities and technical and further education (TAFE) colleges.

4



## Early childhood education

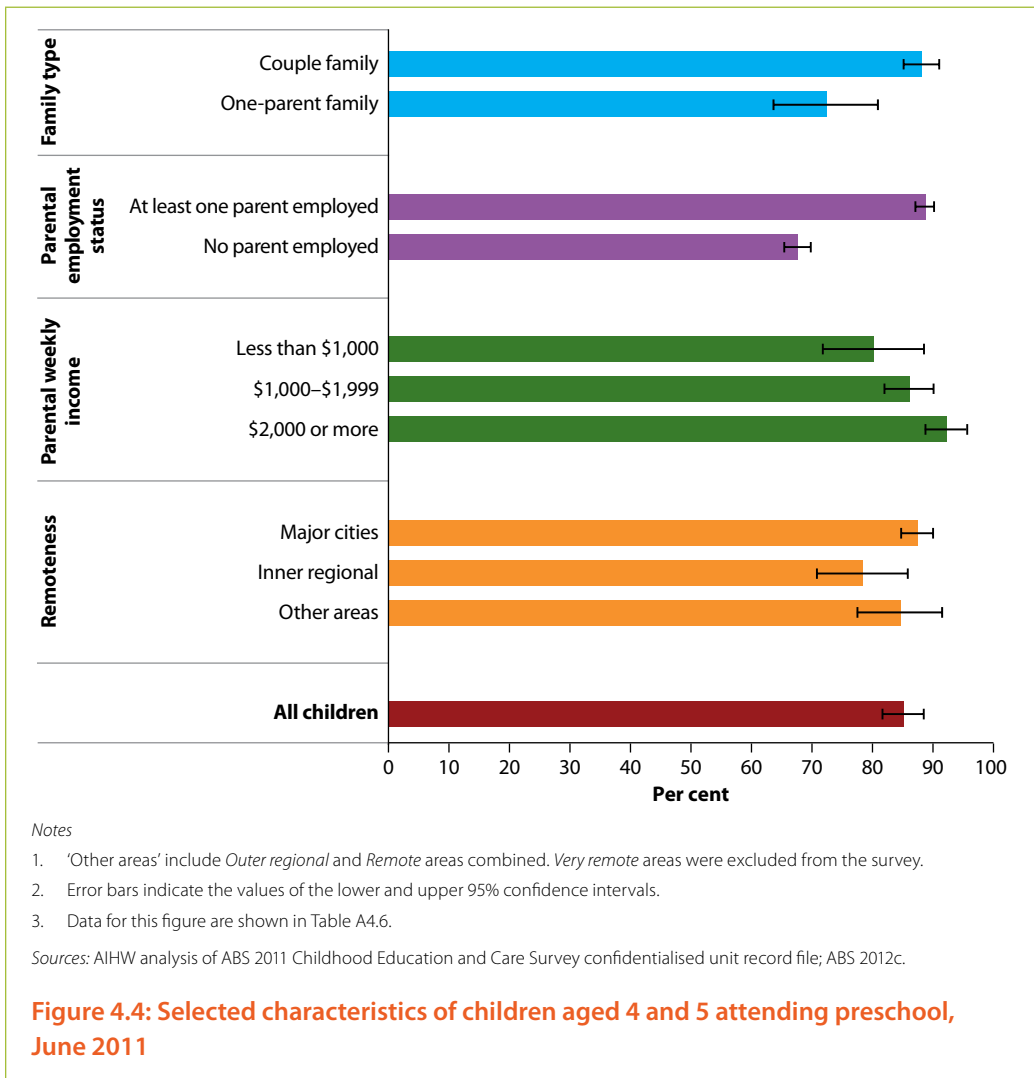
Participation in quality early childhood education has substantial positive effects on children's social and cognitive development and school readiness, especially for children from disadvantaged families (Burchinal et al. 2009; Elliott 2006). Participation in formal early childhood education programs usually occurs in the year or two before children start their first year of full-time schooling (see Box 4.1). It is the objective of the National Partnership Agreement on Early Childhood Education (NP ECE) that, by 2013, every child will have access to a quality early childhood education program delivered by a qualified early childhood teacher for 15 hours a week, 40 weeks a year, in the year before starting full-time schooling (COAG 2009a). A National Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) Collection has been developed to improve data to support the NP ECE (ABS 2013d, 2013e). Estimates from the ABS National ECEC Collection for 2012 indicate that 89% of children were enrolled in a preschool program in the year before full-time schooling and 86% of children were attending a preschool program for at least 1 hour in the reference week (data provided by DEEWR from the ABS 2012 National ECEC Collection).



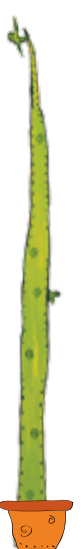
According to the ABS 2011 Childhood Education and Care Survey (CEaCS), most (85%) children aged 4 and 5 who were not yet in school attended preschool (including long day care preschool programs) (Figure 4.4). This was similar to the proportion in 2008 (86%). Preschool program attendance rates were higher among children:

- in couple families (88%) compared with one-parent families (73%)
- with at least one parent employed (89%) compared with those with no parent employed (68%)
- with higher parental income (92% among children whose parents earned \$2,000 or more per week) compared with those earning less than \$1,000 (80%).

Differences in preschool attendance by remoteness were not statistically significant (AIHW analysis of ABS 2008 and 2011 CEaCS data). See Box 4.2 for discussion of access to early childhood education for Indigenous children.



4



In 2011, the average usual weekly cost of preschool for children aged 4 to 5 was \$48, after taking into account the Child Care Benefit and Child Care Rebate. The average weekly cost was higher for children attending non-government preschool programs (\$96) compared with government preschool programs (\$18). It was also higher for children attending preschool programs in *Major cities* (\$59) compared with *Inner regional* (\$28), *Outer regional* (\$21) and *Remote* (\$7) areas (*Very remote* areas were excluded from the survey) (ABS 2012c).

#### **Box 4.2: Closing the Gap for Indigenous Australians—education**

The Australian Government's Closing the Gap strategy aims to reduce Indigenous disadvantage in the areas of life expectancy, child mortality, access to early childhood education, educational achievement and employment outcomes. Progress against the education-related targets is outlined below. Information on the other targets is in the Prime Minister's report (Australian Government 2013a).

##### **Ensure access to early childhood education for all Indigenous 4 year olds in remote communities by 2013**

Data from the ABS National Early Childhood Education and Care Collection are available to report on progress towards this target for the first time for 2011. These data show that 91% of Indigenous children in remote communities were enrolled in a preschool program in the year before full-time schooling and, based on the latest available data, this target is expected to be met in 2013 (Australian Government 2013a). See the 'Early childhood education' discussion earlier in this section for further information on preschool attendance and Section 4.8 for additional information on the ECEC collection.

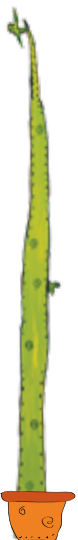
##### **Halve the gap in reading, writing and numeracy achievement rates for Indigenous children by 2018**

Indigenous students were less likely to have achieved at or above the minimum standards for Years 3, 5, 7 and 9 in 2012, with the proportion achieving at or above the minimum standards 18 to 35 percentage points lower than for non-Indigenous students (ACARA 2012a). Between 2008 and 2012, there was a reduction in the gap for reading in Years 3 and 7 (for which the gap closed by 5 and 4 percentage points respectively), and a small reduction for Year 5 numeracy (2 percentage points) (persuasive writing results are not comparable between 2011 and earlier years) (ACARA 2012a). See the discussion on 'Literacy and numeracy' in this section for further information on the national minimum standards.

##### **Halve the gap in the attainment of Year 12 certificate or Certificate II (or above) for Indigenous young people by 2020**

The Year 12 certificate or Certificate II or above attainment rate among Indigenous young people (aged 20 to 24) was 54% in 2011, an increase from 47% in 2006 (which is the baseline for this target), according to ABS Censuses. The rate for non-Indigenous young people increased slightly during this time (from 84% in 2006 to 86% in 2011) (Australian Government 2013a). See 'Completion of Year 12' later in this section for further information on attainment rates.

4





## Transition to primary school

Children entering school with basic skills for life and learning are more likely to experience a successful transition. The Australian Early Development Index (AEDI) provides a snapshot of children's development as they enter full-time schooling, and has been endorsed by COAG as a national progress measure of early childhood development in Australia. The AEDI is based on a teacher-completed checklist and collects information on five developmental domains: physical health and wellbeing, social competence, emotional maturity, language and cognitive skills, and communication skills and general knowledge. The AEDI was conducted across Australia for the first time in 2009 and was repeated in 2012.

According to the AEDI, in 2012 the majority of Australian children were doing well across all domains in their first year of formal full-time school (Australian Government 2013b). However, more than one-fifth (22%) of children were developmentally vulnerable on one or more domains, which suggests they may have difficulty in Year 1, although this is a statistically significant decrease from 24% in 2009. Around 1 in 9 children (11%) were vulnerable on two or more domains in 2012—these children are considered to be at high risk developmentally. A lower proportion of children were developmentally vulnerable on each domain in 2012 compared with 2009, with the exception of the physical health and wellbeing domain, which did not change.

The proportion of children developmentally vulnerable on one or more domains varied across population groups. In 2012, groups more likely to be developmentally vulnerable included boys (28%), children with a language background other than English (30%) and Indigenous children (43%). The proportion for Indigenous children has decreased from 47% in 2009.

There were some notable differences between groups on individual domains in 2012. Boys were around 3 times as likely as girls to be developmentally vulnerable on the emotional maturity domain and Indigenous children were almost 4 times as likely as non-Indigenous children to be developmentally vulnerable on the language and cognitive skills domain.

## School attendance

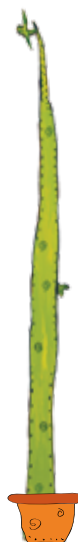
Regular school attendance is important for children to obtain the full benefits of schooling, such as the development of the building blocks for lifelong learning and educational attainment, social skills and healthy self-esteem. Conversely, absenteeism limits a child's opportunity to learn and can exacerbate self-esteem issues, social isolation and dissatisfaction (Bond 2004).

School attendance is reported here as children who are enrolled and actually attending school, rather than just enrolments. Data are not comparable across school sectors, states and territories; ranges have therefore been presented below as an overview (for further information, see ACARA 2012b).

Most children in Australia regularly attend school. In 2011, attendance rates across the six states and the Australian Capital Territory for all three school sectors (government, Catholic and independent) ranged from 92% to 95% for primary school students (Years 1 to 6) and from 85% to 95% for junior secondary school students (Years 7 to 10). Attendance rates in the Northern Territory were considerably lower (79% to 91% and 74% to 91% respectively) (SCRGSP 2012).

Attendance rates for all states and territories remained relatively stable between Years 1 to 6, but decreased between Years 7 to 10 in 2011.

4



The lower end of the range in attendance rates for primary school students (excluding those in the Northern Territory) increased slightly from 89% in 2007 to 92% in 2011 (the upper end was 95% in both years), whereas the range for junior secondary students remained similar.

In 2011, across the school sectors, and states and territories, attendance rates for Indigenous primary students ranged from 65% to 99% compared with 90% to 95% for non-Indigenous students. The corresponding proportions for junior secondary students were 55% to 100% compared with 85% to 95% respectively (SCRGSP 2012).

## Literacy and numeracy

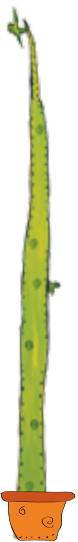
Literacy and numeracy skills are the foundation on which all further formal education is built. Research has shown that levels of literacy and numeracy are associated with school completion, employment, income and health outcomes (Masters 2011; Rothman & McMillan 2003).

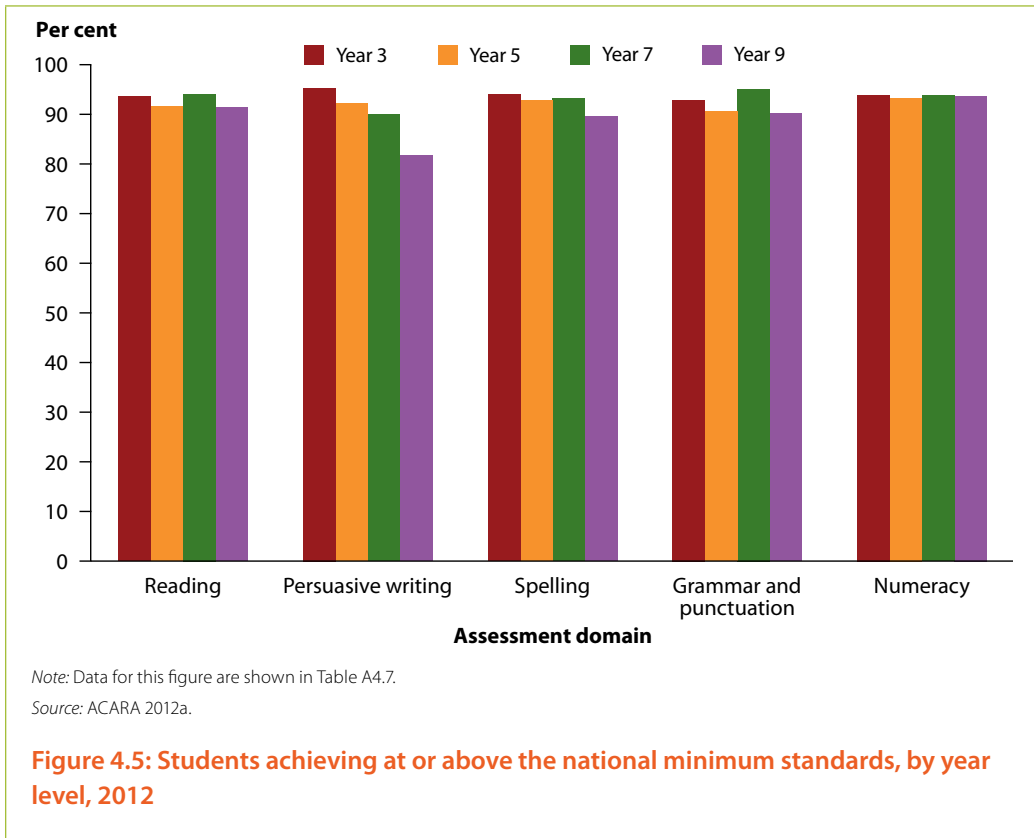
In Australia, national minimum standards (NMS) have been developed for reading, persuasive writing, language conventions (spelling, grammar and punctuation) and numeracy for students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9. In 2012, most students in these years (82% to 95%) achieved at or above the NMS across the assessment domains (Figure 4.5) (ACARA 2012a). Results were largely similar to previous years, with the exception of an improvement in Year 7 grammar and punctuation (92% in 2008 to 95% in 2012) and a decline in Year 9 writing results (from 85% in 2011 to 82% in 2012; the writing task is not comparable between 2011 and earlier years) (ACARA 2008, 2011, 2012a).

Female students were more likely than male students to achieve at or above the NMS for reading and writing (3 to 14 percentage points higher across Years 3, 5, 7 and 9), but there was little difference in the proportion achieving minimum standards for numeracy.

Some groups of students do not perform as well as others in terms of achieving at or above the NMS. The Schools Geographic Location Classification System categorises schools into *Metropolitan*, *Provincial*, *Remote* and *Very Remote* areas (ACARA 2012a). Students in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9 attending schools in *Remote* and *Very remote* areas were less likely than those in *Metropolitan* areas to meet the NMS for reading, writing and numeracy in 2012. Compared with those attending schools in *Metropolitan* areas, the proportions of students achieving the NMS in *Remote* areas were 9 to 19 percentage points lower, and for those in *Very remote* areas, 34 to 51 percentage points lower. Results for students in *Provincial* areas were 2 to 8 percentage points lower than for those in *Metropolitan* areas (ACARA 2012a). Results for Indigenous students are discussed in Box 4.2.

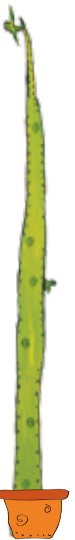
4





Among students for whom parental education data were recorded, those whose parents had an educational attainment of Year 11 or below (or equivalent) were less likely to achieve the NMS for reading, writing and numeracy (67 to 89%) than those for whom at least one parent had a Bachelor degree or above (93 to 98%). Further, among students for whom data on parental occupation were available, those with parents in unskilled occupations (such as machine operators, hospitality staff, assistants and labourers) were less likely to achieve the NMS for reading, writing and numeracy (74% to 94%) than students with parents in senior management and qualified professions (93% to 98%) (ACARA 2012a).

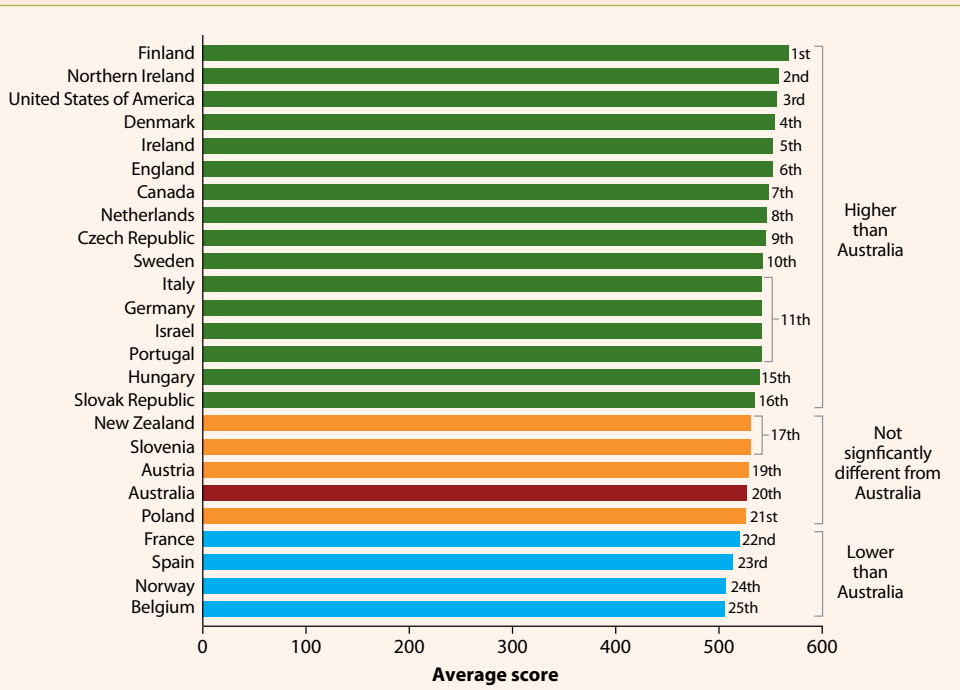
To see how Australia compares internationally, see Box 4.3.



### Box 4.3: Australia's international performance in reading, mathematics and science



Australia participates in several internationally comparable studies that assess performance in the areas of reading, mathematics and science. One of these is the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, which Australia participated in for the first time in 2011. The results placed Australian Year 4 students 20th out of the 25 participating OECD countries in reading. Australia's average score was significantly higher than 4 OECD countries and significantly lower than 16 (Figure 4.6) (Thomson et al. 2012b).



**Notes**

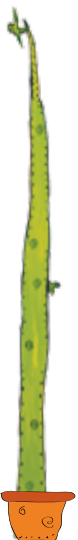
1. Based on data from 25 OECD countries. Data are not available for the United Kingdom; therefore, data for England and Northern Ireland are presented separately.
2. Data for this figure are shown in Table A4.8.

Source: Thomson et al. 2012b.

**Figure 4.6: Reading achievement scores of Year 4 students, participating OECD countries, 2011**

(continued)

4



### Box 4.3 (continued): Australia's international performance in reading, mathematics and science



Another internationally comparable study is the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study. In 2011, Australian Year 4 students ranked 13th out of the 26 participating OECD countries for mathematics and 18th out of 26 for science (Thomson et al. 2012a; Thomson et al. 2012b). Australia's average scores for mathematics and science were significantly higher than 9 and 7 OECD countries respectively. Australian Year 8 students ranked eighth out of 15 participating OECD countries for mathematics and science, with Australian average scores for mathematics and science significantly higher than 5 and 4 OECD countries respectively. There has been no significant change in Australia's scores for Year 4 science or Year 8 mathematics or science between 1995 and 2011, but there was an improvement of more than 20 points for Year 4 mathematics (495 in 1995 to 516 in 2011).

A third study is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), with the most recent data pertaining to 2009. According to the PISA, among students aged 15, Australia ranked sixth for reading literacy, ninth for mathematical literacy and seventh for science literacy out of 34 OECD countries in 2009 (OECD 2010). Australia's average score was significantly lower than 3 OECD countries for reading and scientific literacy and 6 OECD countries for mathematical literacy (Thomson et al. 2011). For more information on Australia's PISA results, refer to *Australia's welfare 2011* (AIHW 2011b).

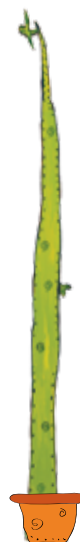
## School retention

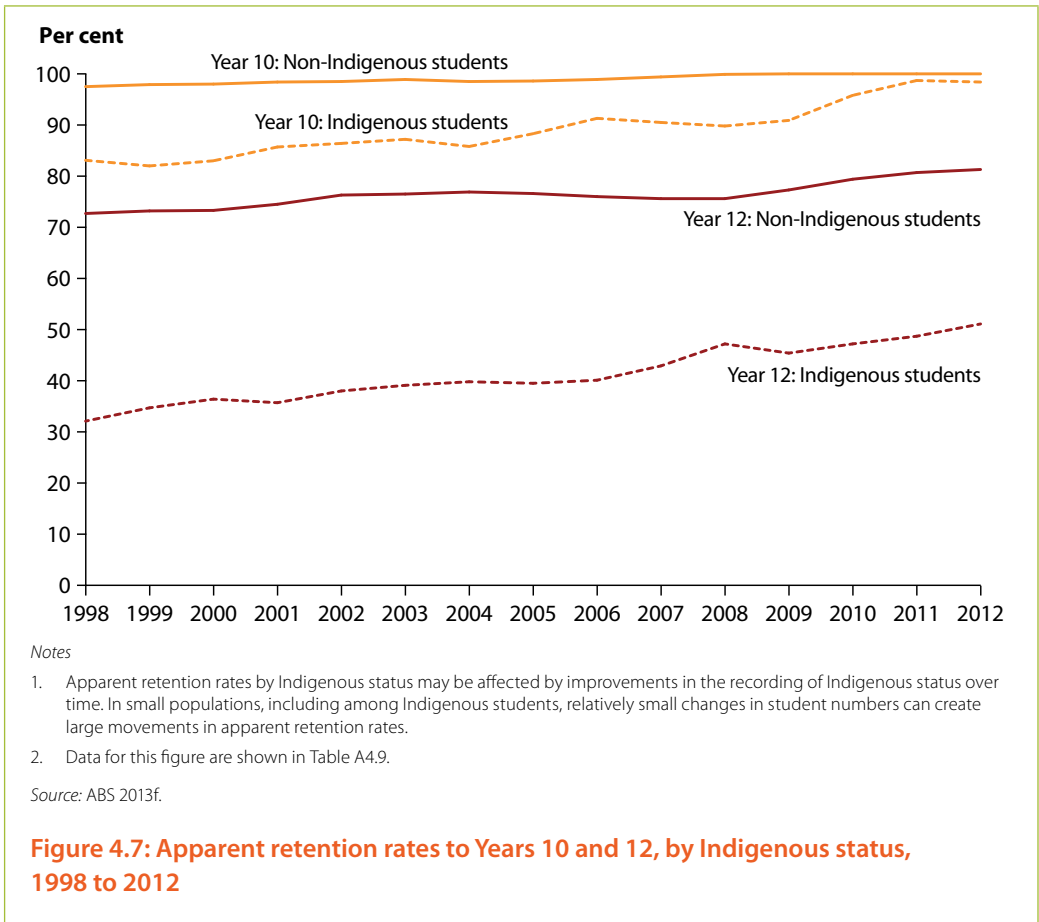
Remaining engaged in, and successfully completing, secondary school improves transitions into further study and employment, with the number of years of schooling a significant predictor of future earnings and employment (Lamb et al. 2004). The apparent retention rate to Year 12 is the most common measure of school participation. It estimates the percentage of students who remain enrolled full time in secondary education from the start of secondary school (Year 7 or 8 depending on the state or territory) to Year 12.

In 2012, the Year 12 apparent retention rate was 80%, having gradually increased from 72% in 1998 (ABS 2013f; Table A4.9). Females had a higher Year 12 apparent retention rate than males (84% compared with 76% in 2012). This is consistent with research showing that males are less likely to undertake Year 12 and more likely to leave school before Year 12 and undertake vocational programs (such as apprenticeships) or find employment (ABS 2013f; Curtis & McMillan 2008). See Indicator 14 in Chapter 11 for information on trends in Year 12 retention for males and females.

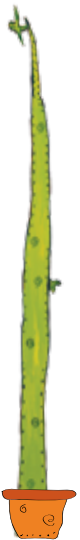
The Year 12 apparent retention rate for Indigenous students was 51% in 2012 and, although considerably lower than for non-Indigenous students (81%), has steadily increased from 32% in 1998 (Figure 4.7).

4





4



The apparent retention rate to Year 10 has also increased for Indigenous students, from 83% in 1998 to 98% in 2012, reducing the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students from 14 to 3 percentage points. The corresponding rate for non-Indigenous students increased from 98% to 101% over this time (the proportion exceeds 100% due to factors such as migration and inter-sector transfer).

### Completion of Year 12 or equivalent

The apparent retention rate reflects enrolment in school, but it is not a measure of the successful completion of Year 12. Completing Year 12, or an equivalent vocational qualification, is a key factor in improving economic and social opportunities in life, encouraging lifelong learning and lifting national productivity (Dandolo Partners 2012; Gonski et al. 2011; OECD 2005). According to the OECD, these qualifications have increasingly become the norm in advanced economies (OECD 2012).

Among young people aged 15 to 24 who had left school in 2011, 74% had completed Year 12—an increase from 70% in 2002 (ABS 2003, 2012f).



In 2009, the Australian Government set a target for 90% of young people aged 20 to 24 to have attained Year 12 or a Certificate II or above by 2015, and Year 12 or a Certificate III or above by 2020. In 2012, 86% of 20 to 24 year olds had completed Year 12 or at least Certificate II and 85% had completed Year 12 or at least Certificate III, which is an increase from 80% and 78% in 2003 respectively (ABS 2012e) (see also Box 2.2). Year 12 or equivalent attainment of Indigenous young people is discussed in Box 4.2.

Young people who have spent time in out-of-home care (for example, foster care and residential care) were about half as likely to complete Year 12 as the general population in 2009 (35% and 74% respectively) (Testro 2010).

## Post-school education

Post-school qualifications are an important predictor of an individual's ability to successfully compete in the labour market. The number of people with post-school qualifications in Australia has been steadily increasing over time, with the profile of the population shifting towards higher qualifications (Shah 2010).

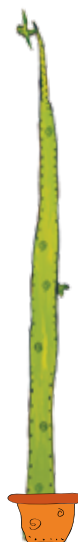
The education participation rate measures participation in school and post-school studies for young people aged 15 to 24, including full- and part-time studies at school, TAFE, colleges and tertiary institutions.

In 2012, the education participation rate was 80% for 15–19 year olds and 41% for 20–24 year olds, an increase from 2003 for both age groups (77% and 36% respectively) (ABS 2012f). The higher rate among those aged 15–19 reflects compulsory schooling requirements, and that teenagers are less likely to be in full-time employment than 20–24 year olds. Many young people combine employment and study—this is discussed in Section 4.6.

Of the 15–19 year olds enrolled in a course of study, most were studying for a Year 12 qualification or below (66%), a Bachelor degree (19%), or a Certificate III or IV (9%) (Table A4.10). Most 20–24 year olds were studying towards a Bachelor degree (62%), a Certificate III or IV (16%), or a Diploma or Advanced diploma (9%). In 2012, the most popular fields of study for non-school qualifications were management and commerce (21%), society and culture (16%) and engineering and related technologies (13%) (ABS 2012f).

Indigenous young people aged 15 to 24 were less likely to be studying for a qualification than non-Indigenous young people in 2011 (44% compared with 59%). These proportions are similar to those in 2006 (42% and 57% respectively) (AIHW analysis of ABS 2006 and 2011 Censuses).

4



## Completion of further education

In 2011, 41% of 20–24 year olds had attained a non-school qualification (that is, an educational attainment beyond secondary education), which is similar to 2006 (39%) (AIHW analysis of ABS 2006 and 2011 Censuses). Of those with a qualification, most had attained a Certificate III or IV (40%), a Bachelor degree (32%), or a Diploma or Advanced diploma (16%) as the highest level of attainment.

Indigenous young people aged 20–24 were less likely to have a non-school qualification than non-Indigenous young people in 2011 (25% and 43% respectively). However, the proportion of Indigenous young people attaining a non-school qualification has increased from 20% in 2006. Of those with a non-school qualification, the proportion of Indigenous young people with a Certificate (any level) as their highest qualification (84%) was greater than for non-Indigenous young people (48%); however, Indigenous young people were less likely to have a non-school qualification at any other level.

## 4.5 Community participation

Community participation includes activities such as being involved in clubs and community organisations, cultural activities and volunteering.

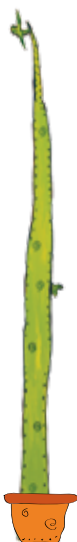
### Children's participation in cultural and leisure activities

Many children participate in cultural, sporting and other leisure activities, with participation in these activities considered important for their emotional, physical, social and intellectual development. In 2012, nearly three-quarters (72%) of children aged 5 to 14 had participated in organised sport, and/or selected cultural activities outside school hours in the 12 months prior to being surveyed (ABS 2012d). Six in 10 children (60%) had played organised sport, most (71%) had attended a cultural venue or event such as a public library or performing arts event, and around one-third (35%) were involved in at least one cultural activity, such as playing a musical instrument, dancing, singing, drama, or art and craft. Participation rates for attendance at cultural venues or events were similar in 2006 (71%). Trend data are not presented for participation in organised sport and cultural activities because 2012 data are not comparable with earlier surveys.

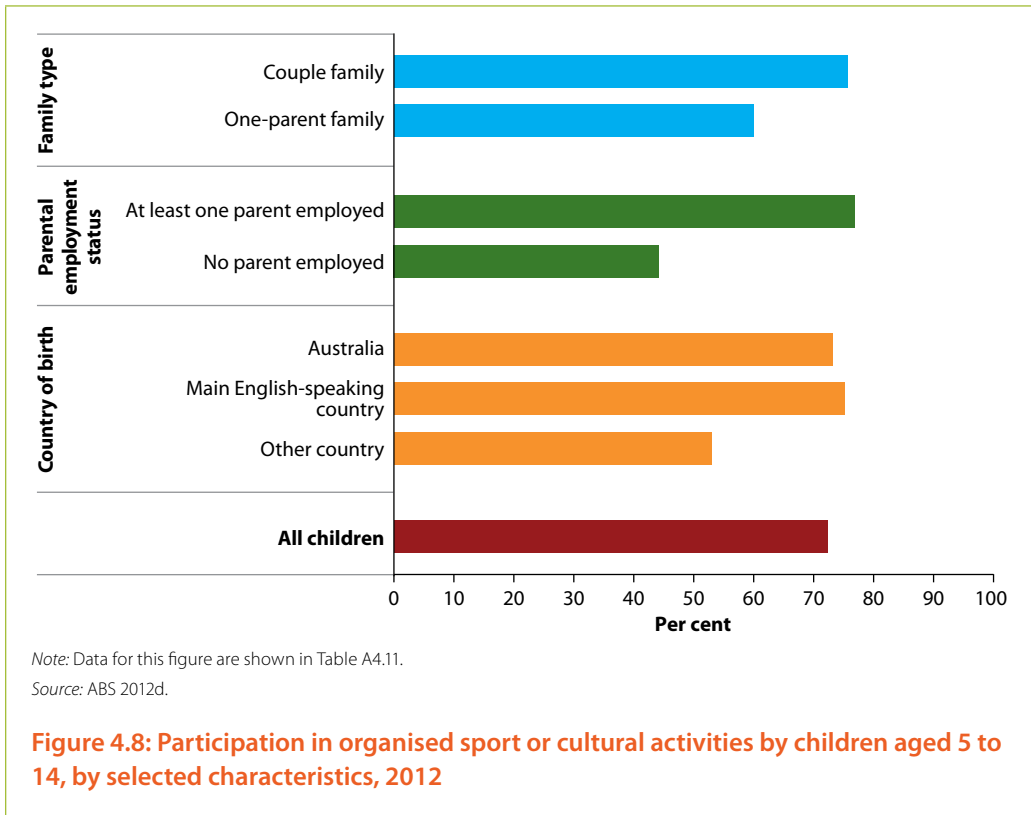
Girls were more likely than boys to participate in both sport and cultural activities (28% compared with 18%). However, girls were less likely than boys to participate only in sport (25% and 48% respectively) and more likely to participate only in cultural activities (19% compared with 6% of boys).

Certain groups of children were more likely to participate in either sport or cultural activities, or both. Children born in Australia (73%) or other main English-speaking countries (75%) had higher participation rates than those born in other countries (53%). Children were also more likely to participate if they lived in couple families (76%) than in one-parent families (60%), and in families where at least one parent was employed (77%) than in those where no parent was employed (44%) (Figure 4.8). This indicates that cost and/or parental time, among other possible reasons, may be associated with children's participation in these activities.

4





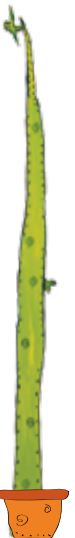


## Youth participation in social and community groups

Social and community participation is an important aspect of life, and provides social and psychological benefits that are important for health and wellbeing. Social time with family and friends, involvement with sporting teams and community groups, and other leisure activities within the community are forms of participation.

In 2010, more than two-thirds (68%) of young people aged 18 to 24 were involved in one or more social or community groups in the 12 months prior to being surveyed, which was not significantly different to the proportion in 2006 (72%). The most common types of social groups that young people reported involvement in were sport or recreation (39%), religious or spiritual (17%), and social clubs with restaurants or bars (15%). In terms of community groups, the most common types that young people reported involvement in were education and training (18%), health promotion and support (8%), and parenting, children and youth (6%) (AIHW analysis of ABS 2006 and 2010 General Social Surveys).

4



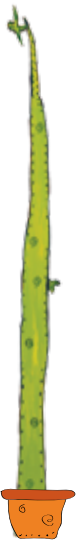
Participation of young people in social groups was higher than in community support groups (63% and 32% respectively), and females had a higher participation rate in at least one social or community group, although the difference was not statistically significant (73% and 64% respectively). Males and females had a similar rate of participation in social groups (62% and 64% respectively), but females were more likely to be involved in community groups than males (39% compared with 25%). Young people who were employed were more likely to participate in social or community groups (72%) than those who were unemployed (48%), and those born in a main English-speaking country (including Australia) (71%) were more likely to participate than those born in a non-main English speaking country (56%). There were no significant differences in participation by remoteness area or socioeconomic status (AIHW analysis of ABS 2010 General Social Survey).

## Unpaid voluntary work

Volunteering is a form of community participation that provides young people with social contact and learning opportunities, as well as providing a valuable contribution to many community and welfare organisations.

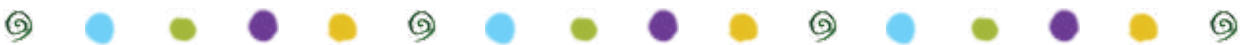
According to the ABS 2010 General Social Survey, around 1 in 4 (27%) young people aged 18 to 24 were involved in unpaid voluntary work in the previous 12 months (ABS 2011d). Volunteering rates were higher among young females (33%) than young males (21%), and among young people who were employed either full or part time (59%) than those who were unemployed or not in the labour force (35%). Young people who spoke only English at home were more likely to volunteer (29%) than those who spoke a language other than English (18%). Volunteering rates were similar in *Major cities* (27%), *Inner regional areas* (27%) and *Outer regional and Remote areas combined* (31%) (*Very remote areas* were excluded from the survey).

4



## 4.6 The transition to independence

Finishing school, undertaking further education, finding paid employment, moving out of the family home, forming relationships and starting a family are just some of the milestones that young people commonly experience as they transition to adulthood and independence (ABS 2009b). This transition may be affected by social, economic, environmental and technological changes that have occurred in recent decades. As a consequence, the pathways from education to work have become more varied and complex, and often extend over longer periods. Greater difficulty accessing secure employment and increased housing costs mean that young people often live in the parental home for longer. Socially, the current generation of young people has different ways of communicating than previous generations, having grown up with access to mobile phones, the Internet and email, and the emergence of social media (AIHW 2011c).



## Living arrangements of young people

The transitions of young people, including completing study, starting paid employment and forming relationships, are reflected in their living arrangements. Young Australians are living at home longer than previous generations, and are delaying both entering the rental market and purchasing their own home (Hillman & Marks 2002; Marks 2007). The reasons for these trends are not clearly understood, although it appears to be related to increased financial dependency of young people on their parents, which may be related to increased participation in tertiary education attainment, as well as factors such as housing costs, the labour market and income-support systems (Cobb-Clark 2008).

Reflecting these trends, the proportion of young people aged 18 to 24 living with one or more parents increased from 50% in 1997 to 58% in 2009–10, while young people living in group households decreased from 19% in 1997 to 9% in 2009–10 (ABS 2004; AIHW analysis of ABS 2009–10 Family Characteristics Survey). Around 1 in 5 (21%) young people were living in a household as a parent and/or in a couple relationship and a small proportion (3%) lived alone in 2009–10. The remaining 8% of young people lived in family households, and were either unrelated to other members of the household or related in a way not already described.

## Young parents

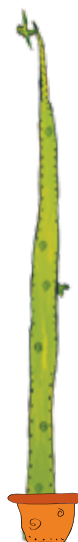
For some young people, part of the transition to independence includes having children. Parenthood in the teenage years, in particular, can result in interrupted (and lower rates of participation in) education, greater dependence on government assistance, increased problems entering the labour market and marital instability (Hoffman & Maynard 2008). However, the social and economic disadvantage that teenage parents and their babies experience may at least partly be a reflection of the circumstances before the pregnancy and birth (Paranjothy et al. 2009).

Although birth rates among young females have declined dramatically in recent years (see Section 1.4), parenthood before the age of 25 is not uncommon in Australia: almost 1 in 5 births (53,000 or 18% of births) were to mothers aged under 25 in 2011 (ABS 2012a). Of these babies, 11,300 (4% of all births) were born to teenage mothers (aged 19 and under), including 400 babies born to mothers aged 15 and under (0.1% of all births).

For each single year of age between 15 and 24, the overall fertility rate declined between 1991 and 2011. This was particularly apparent among 23 and 24 year olds, where the rate decreased from 89 to 58 births per 1,000 females and 102 to 67 births per 1,000 females respectively (Table A4.12).

The median age of mothers (30.6 years in 2011) is lower than for fathers (33.0), and the younger age of mothers is also evident among teenage parents—there were more than twice as many teenage mothers aged 15–19 as teenage fathers (ABS 2012a).

4



In 2011, the teenage birth rate among Indigenous females was 5 times that for all teenage females—78 compared with 16 births per 1,000 females aged 15–19 (see Section 1.4 for further details on fertility rates of Indigenous females).

Teenage births are also relatively more common in regional and remote areas, which may in part reflect the higher proportion of the population in these areas who are Indigenous and the higher teenage birth rates among Indigenous females. Teenage females who lived in *Remote and very remote* areas were more than 5 times as likely to give birth as their peers in *Major cities* (62 births per 1,000 compared with 12 births per 1,000) (ABS 2012a).

## Participation of young people in education and employment

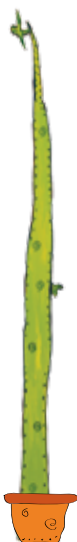
The Australian Government provides incentives for young people to be involved in work or education through the National Partnership Agreement on Youth Attainment and Transitions (see Section 4.2). This agreement contains five main elements, one of which is the Compact with Young Australians. The compact, commonly referred to as the Learn or Earn policy, introduced a mandatory requirement for all young people to remain in school until they complete Year 10 and then participate in full-time education, training or employment (or a combination of these activities) until they reach the age of 17. Year 12 completion rates are discussed in Section 4.4.

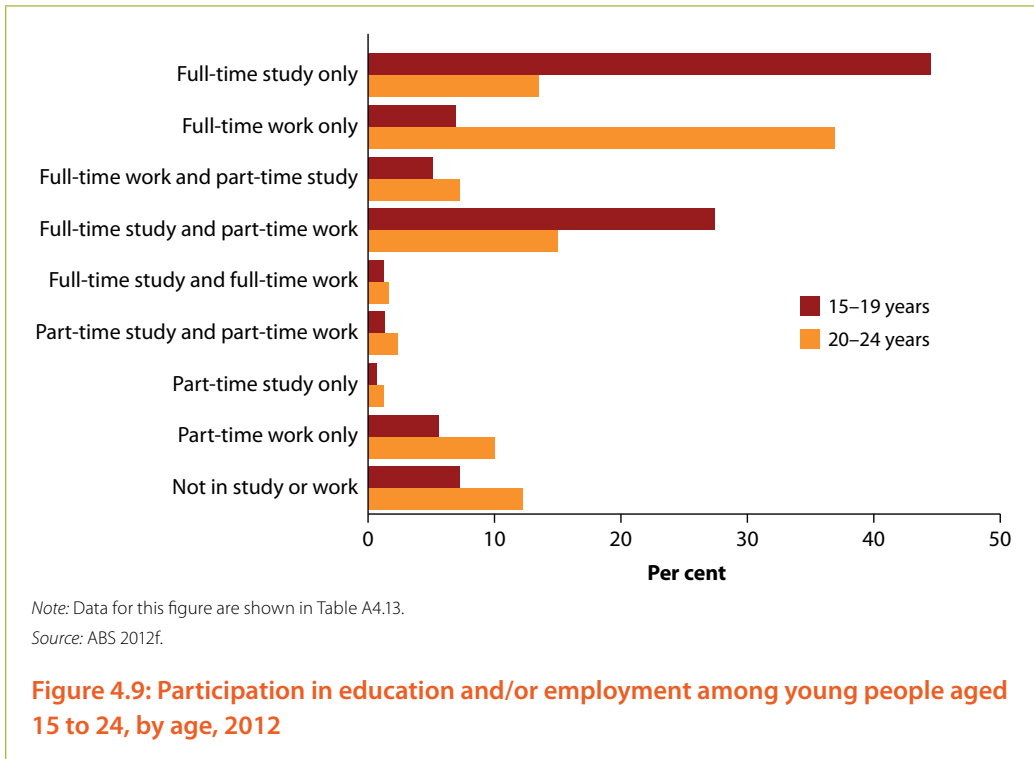
The Learn or Earn policy also introduced participation requirements for Youth Allowance (Section 4.3). To receive Youth Allowance, young people aged under 21 who have not finished Year 12 (or an equivalent Certificate II qualification) must be studying or training until they attain this qualification (DEEWR 2009).

### Combining education and employment

Some young people combine paid employment with secondary or tertiary study to support themselves financially and to develop skills for long-term participation in the labour force. In 2012, 30% of young people aged 15 to 24 combined study and work, a similar proportion to 2003 (29%) (ABS 2003, 2012f). The proportion was higher for 15–19 year olds (35%) than for 20–24 year olds (26%), reflecting the high proportion of 15–19 year olds attending secondary school full time (Figure 4.9). The corresponding proportions in 2003 were 34% for 15–19 year olds and 24% for 20–24 year olds.

4





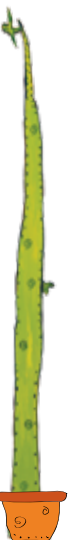
### Not in employment, education or training

Non-participation in work or study among young people has been linked to future unemployment, lower incomes and employment insecurity (Pech et al. 2009), placing young people at risk of social and economic disadvantage, and social exclusion. In 2012, 7% of 15–19 year olds and 12% of 20–24 year olds were not in employment, education or training (NEET), which is similar to 2003 (7% and 14% respectively) (Figure 4.9) (ABS 2003, 2012f). To see how Australia compares internationally, see Box 4.4.

Data from the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth indicate that, in 2010, some groups of 22 year olds were more likely than others to be NEET, including:

- those who were Indigenous (20%) compared with those who were non-Indigenous (8%)
- those with disability or a health condition (21%) compared with those without (7%) (Robinson & Lamb 2012).

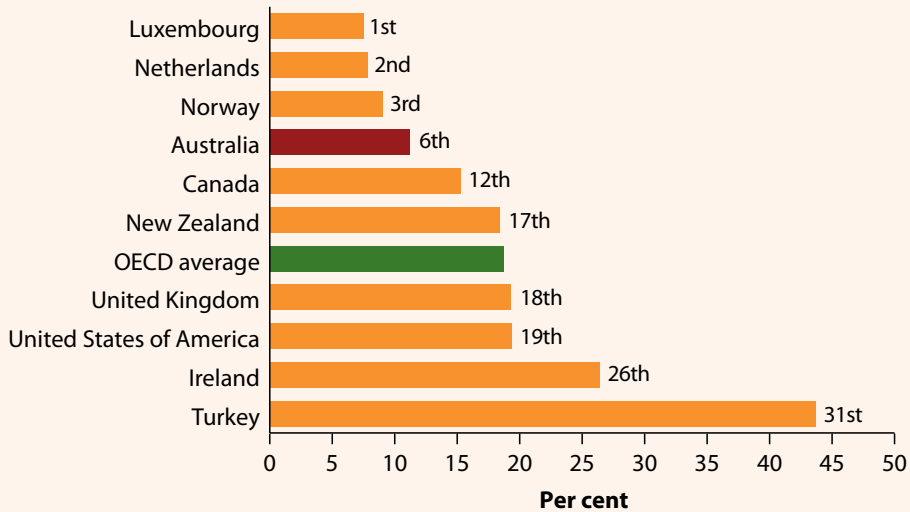
Educational attainment was also associated with NEET status—22 year olds who had not completed Year 12 or Certificate III were more likely to be not in employment, education or training (17%) than those who had (7%). Further, those whose highest year of school completed was Year 11 (11%), Year 10 (17%) or Year 9 or below (30%) were more likely to be NEET than those who had completed Year 12 (7%).



## Box 4.4: International comparison of youth not in education or employment



Internationally, the proportion of Australian 15–19 year olds not in education or employment was similar to the OECD average in 2010 (8.1% compared with 8.3%), with Australia ranked 20th out of 31 OECD countries with available data. Slovenia (3.2%), Poland (3.6%) and Germany (3.7%) had the lowest non-participation rates for this age group. Among 20–24 year olds, the Australian non-participation rate in 2010 (11%) was better than the OECD average (19%), and ranked sixth out of 31 OECD countries with available data (Figure 4.10). The non-participation rate was lowest in Luxembourg (8%), the Netherlands (8%) and Norway (9%), and highest in Israel (37%) and Turkey (44%) (OECD 2012).



### Notes

1. Based on 31 OECD countries with complete data.
2. Data for this figure are shown in Table A4.14.

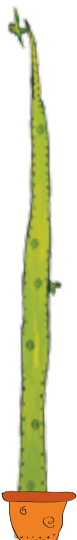
Source: OECD 2012.

**Figure 4.10: Young people aged 20–24 not in education or employment, selected OECD countries, 2010**

## School leavers

Of the 342,000 young people aged 15 to 24 who left school in 2011, the majority (74%) had completed Year 12. For 1 in 7 (14%) school leavers, the highest attainment was Year 10, and smaller proportions attained Year 11 (10%) and Year 9 or below (2%). The proportion who had completed Year 12 in 2011 was slightly higher than among those who left school in 2002 (70%) (ABS 2003, 2012f).

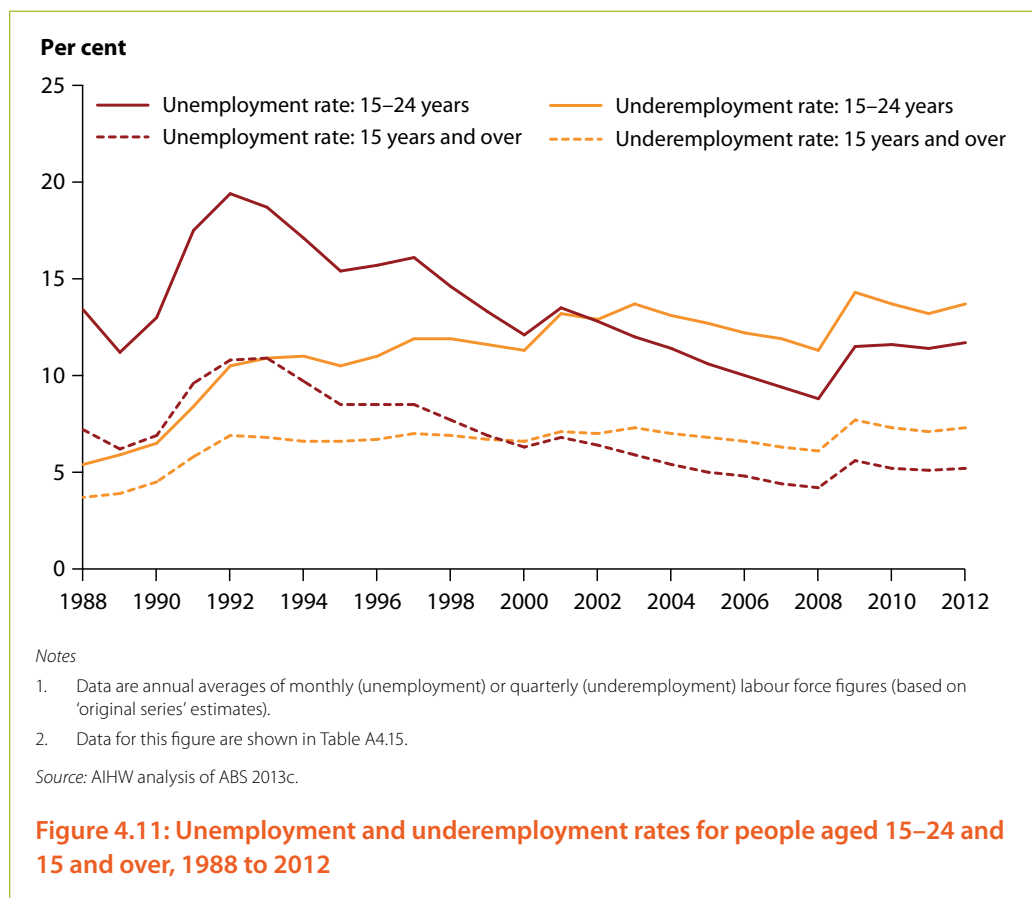
4



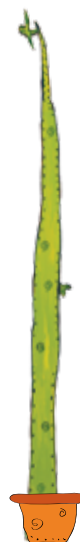
By May 2012, around one-third (34%) of young people who left school in 2011 were employed and enrolled in study, almost one-quarter (24%) were employed but not enrolled in study, just over one-quarter (27%) were enrolled in study and either unemployed or not in the labour force and the remaining 16% were not enrolled in study and were either unemployed or not in the labour force (ABS 2012f). There has been little change in these figures since 2003 (ABS 2003). School leavers aged 15 to 24 who did not finish Year 12 were more likely to be unemployed in 2012 than those who did (18% compared with 11%) (ABS 2012f).

## Youth unemployment and underemployment

Young people experience unemployment at a higher rate than the overall population. In 2012, the youth unemployment rate (15–24 years) was more than twice the national rate (11.7% and 5.2% respectively), with 2 in 5 (39%) of the unemployed population aged 15–24 (AIHW analysis of ABS 2013c). Over time, trends in youth unemployment have been broadly consistent with the general population, although the rates have been higher (Figure 4.11). Youth unemployment reached a low of 8.8% in 2008 before increasing to 11.5% in 2009 during the global financial crisis. The rate has remained above 11% through to 2012 (AIHW analysis of ABS 2013c). See Chapter 2 for more information about unemployment.



4



A large number of young people who are employed are considered to be ‘underemployed’—meaning that they would prefer, and are available for, more hours of work than they currently have (see Glossary). In 2012, the underemployment rate among 15–24 year olds was 13.7%, almost twice the rate for all ages (7.3%). Young people represented one-third (33%) of all underemployed workers in 2012, and this proportion has remained around 32% to 36% between 1988 and 2012. The youth underemployment rate increased from 11.3% to 14.3% between 2008 and 2009, coinciding with the global financial crisis, and has remained around this higher level to 2012 (Figure 4.11). A similar pattern was observed for all ages—the rate increased from 6.1% to 7.7% between 2008 and 2009, and remained at 7% through to 2012 (AIHW analysis of ABS 2013c).

## Apprentices and trainees

Apprenticeships and traineeships are ways in which young people can acquire essential skills while participating in the labour force. ‘Insufficient work experience’ is the most commonly cited reason that young people aged 15 to 24 give for their unemployment (ABS 2013b), which makes the experience gained from apprenticeship and traineeships important.

Young people in particular often choose this combination of on-the-job training and employment, which generally lasts 3 to 4 years. Secondary students of working age may also choose to undertake a school-based apprenticeship, which allows them to gain a formal qualification (and earn a wage for their time in the workplace), while simultaneously completing their school studies.

In 2012, 5% of young people aged 15 to 24 were undertaking apprenticeships or traineeships (excluding school-based), of which 54% were aged 15–19 and 79% were male (data provided by the ABS from the 2012 Survey of Education and Work). Young people comprised three-quarters (76%) of all apprentices and trainees (ABS 2012f).

Fewer young people were undertaking apprenticeships or traineeships in 2012 (165,700 or 5%) compared with 2007 (195,300 or 7%). As with unemployment and underemployment, apprenticeships and traineeships are sensitive to economic downturn, as demonstrated by a statistically significant decrease in the proportion of young people undertaking apprenticeships and traineeships between 2008 and 2009 (Table 4.1).

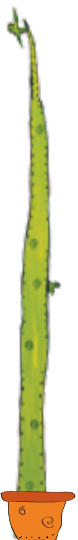
**Table 4.1: Apprentices and trainees aged 15 to 24, 2007 to 2012**

Age group (years)	2007		2008		2009		2010		2011		2012	
	No. ('000)	Per cent	No. ('000)	Per cent	No. ('000)	Per cent	No. ('000)	Per cent	No. ('000)	Per cent	No. ('000)	Per cent
15–19	105.6	7.6	112.7	8.0	91.9	6.4	88.8	6.0	85.6	5.8	89.4	6.1
20–24	89.7	6.2	78.0	5.3	67.4	4.5	74.5	4.6	80.7	4.9	76.3	4.7
<b>15–24</b>	<b>195.3</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>190.7</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>159.3</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>163.4</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>166.3</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>165.7</b>	<b>5.4</b>

Note: School-based apprentices are excluded from these data.

Source: Data provided by the ABS from the Surveys of Education and Work.

4





According to data from the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER), of those who commenced apprenticeships in 2005, completion rates were 46% for trade and 52% for non-trade apprenticeships and traineeships. The non-completion of apprenticeships is a significant cost in terms of the resources used for on- and off-the-job training. Reasons often cited for non-completion include issues with the employer and workplace, lack of support, low wages and dislike for the work (Apprenticeships for the 21st Century Expert Panel 2011).

An analysis of ABS data by the NCVER showed that, during 2007–2009, the proportion of all apprenticeships and traineeships that were completed in *Inner regional* areas (25%) and *Outer regional, Remote and Very remote* areas combined (17%) was higher than their share of the population (20% and 12% respectively), highlighting the importance of such opportunities in non-metropolitan areas where there are fewer alternative work prospects (Apprenticeships for the 21st Century Expert Panel 2011). For further details on work and study opportunities in regional and remote areas, see *Australia's welfare 2011* (AIHW 2011b).

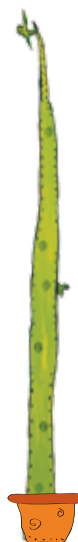
### Income of young people

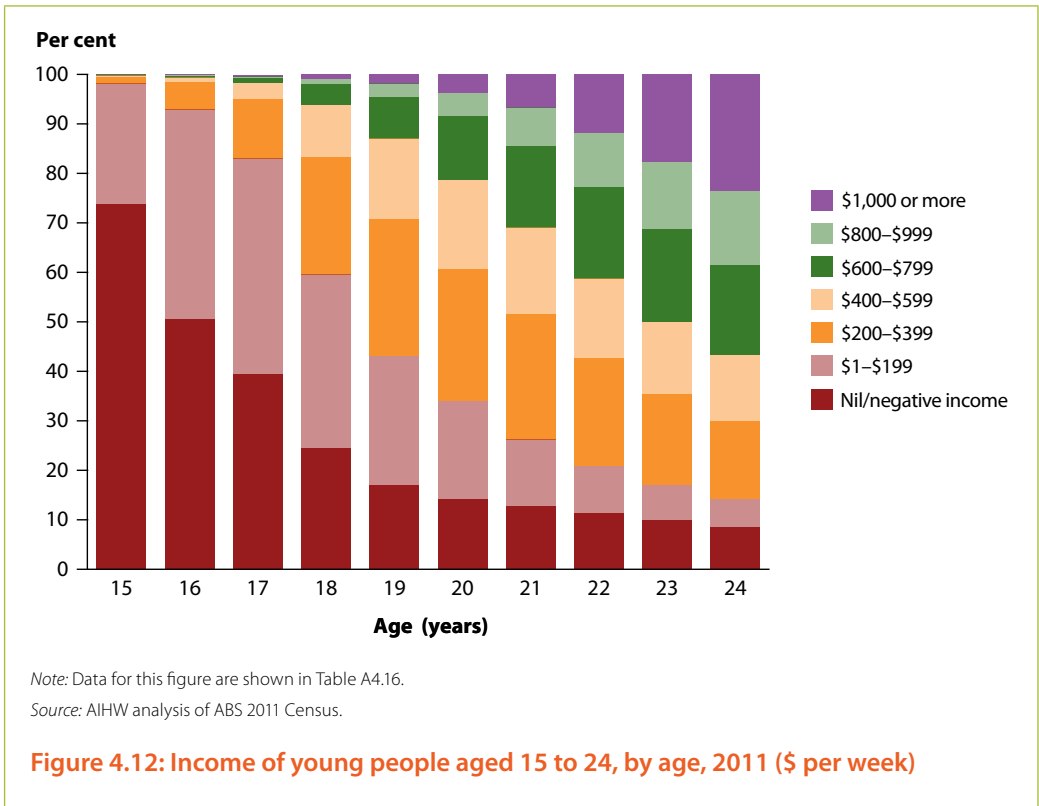
Given the high rates of unemployment and underemployment among young people, it is likely that a number of young people experience financial stress. In 2010, 12% of young people aged 15 to 25 had a household income that was less than half of the median income for all households (ACOSS 2012). This was similar to the 13% for the whole population.

An almost linear relationship exists between age and income between the ages of 15 and 24, reflecting the transition from education to employment (Figure 4.12). According to the 2011 Census, more than one-third (36%) of 15–19 year olds had a negative or nil weekly income and 31% had a weekly income of \$1 to \$199. This reflects the large proportion of this age group who are studying full time and living in the parental home and/or have part-time employment. For 20–24 year olds, income is more evenly distributed across the income groups and 30% had a weekly income between \$400 and \$799. The average weekly income of young people decreased in real terms for 15–19 year olds between 2006 and 2011 (from \$157 to \$146), but remained the same for 20–24 year olds (\$535 in 2006 and 2011) (data provided by the ABS from the 2006 and 2011 Censuses).

Certain groups of young people aged 15 to 24 had higher average weekly incomes than others, according to the 2011 Census. Based on average weekly income, young men earned almost 20% more than young women (\$375 compared with \$317), young people born in Australia or other main English-speaking countries earned around 40% more than young people born in other countries (\$361 compared with \$255), and non-Indigenous young people earned almost 20% more than Indigenous young people (\$349 compared with \$299) (data provided by the ABS from the 2011 Census).

4

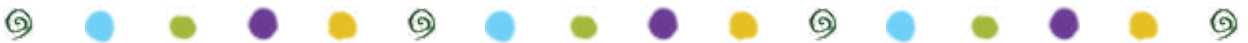
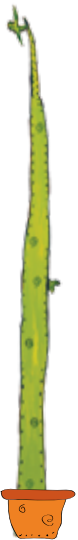




## 4.7 Vulnerable children and young people

### Child abuse and neglect

Despite the ongoing child protection efforts of communities and authorities alike, some children still experience maltreatment, often with wide-ranging impacts. The adverse effects of abuse and neglect include: poor physical health; attachment problems; reduced social skills; learning and developmental problems; a higher likelihood of criminal offending; and mental health issues such as anxiety, depression, eating disorders and substance abuse (Gupta 2008; Lamont 2010b; Zolotor et al. 1999). These effects can sometimes last for an extended period of time, with poor health, welfare and social relationships often continuing into adulthood (Lamont 2010a; Price-Robertson 2012). Children are particularly vulnerable to harm in families experiencing multiple disadvantages, such as housing instability, poverty, low education, social isolation, neighbourhood disadvantage, parental substance misuse and mental health problems (Bromfield et al. 2010).



In Australia, statutory child protection is primarily the responsibility of state and territory governments. Departments responsible for child protection provide support and assistance to the most vulnerable children and families, in collaboration with the non-government sector, which delivers a broad range of services. Children generally come to the attention of the state and territory departments responsible for child protection when concern for their wellbeing is reported by community members, professionals (for example, police or teachers), organisations, the children themselves, their parent/s, or another relative. These reports may relate to suspected abuse and neglect, or to broader family concerns such as economic problems or social isolation. Across Australia during 2011–12, there were 37,781 children aged 0 to 17 who were the subject of one or more substantiations of abuse or neglect, a rate of 7.4 per 1,000 children (see Box 4.5 for definitions). Between 2007–08 and 2011–12, the number of children with substantiations increased by 18% from 32,098; most of this increase occurred between 2010–11 and 2011–12, reversing a previous downward trend (AIHW 2013a). Note that trends in substantiations can be influenced by a range of factors, including legislative changes, enhanced public awareness, inquiries into child protection processes and real changes in abuse and neglect. Across all age groups, children aged under 12 months were most likely to be the subject of a substantiation in 2011–12 (13.2 per 1,000 children).

#### **Box 4.5: Selected child protection definitions**

A **substantiation** indicates that, following an investigation, there is sufficient reason to believe the child has been, is being, or is likely to be, abused, neglected or otherwise harmed. Substantiations may also include cases where there is no suitable caregiver.

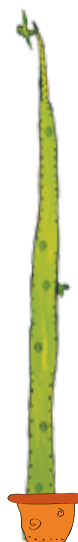
**Out-of-home care** provides alternative overnight accommodation for children and young people who are unable to live with their parents (including foster care and relative/kinship care).

The true prevalence of child abuse and neglect across Australia is unknown because national child protection data are based on reported cases.

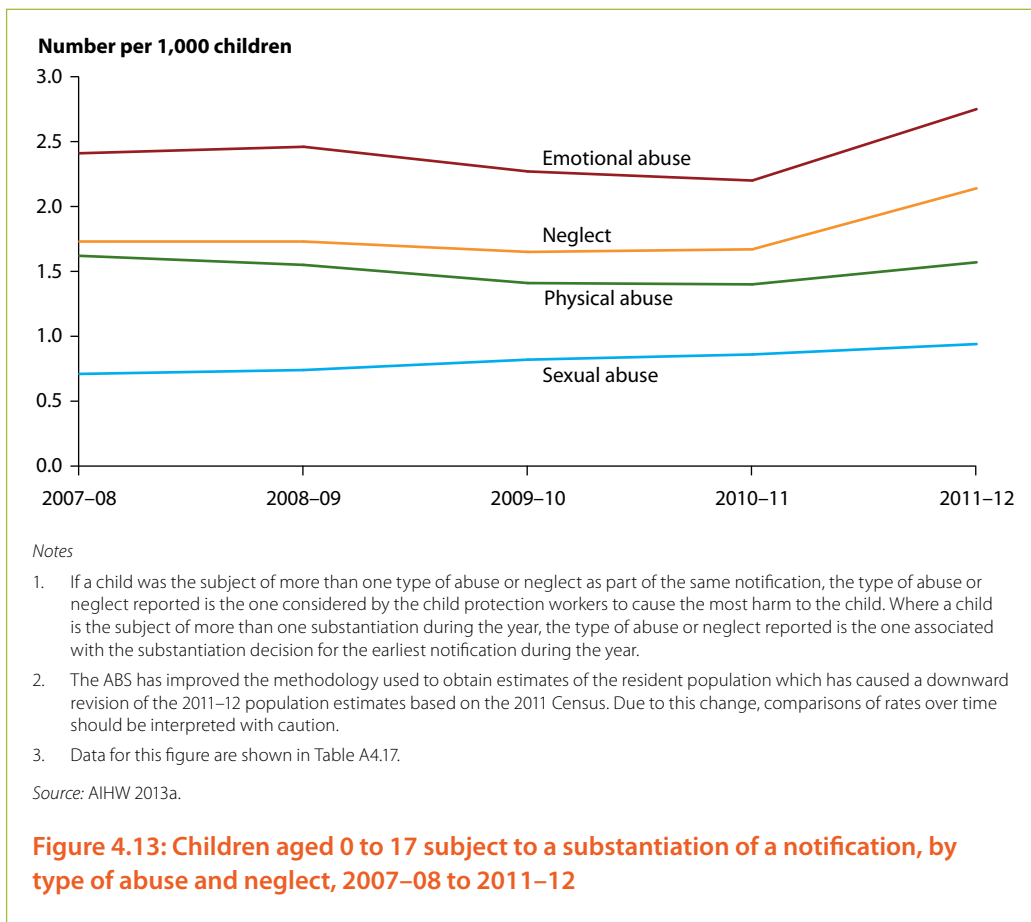
For more information on child protection processes and data, refer to the AIHW's annual *Child protection Australia* report (AIHW 2013a).

The most commonly reported abuse type in 2011–12 was emotional abuse, which increased from 2.2 to 2.8 per 1,000 children over the previous 12 months. Neglect was the next most common, reported at a rate of 2.1 in every 1,000 children in 2011–12 (Figure 4.13). Neglect was the most commonly reported abuse type among Indigenous children—representing 40% of all substantiations for Indigenous children, compared with 25% for non-Indigenous children (AIHW 2013a).

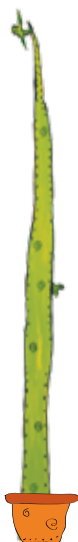
4



Compared with 2007–08, the rates of children who were the subject of substantiations for sexual abuse, emotional abuse and neglect were all somewhat higher in 2011–12. In contrast, the rate of children subject to substantiations of physical abuse remained relatively stable between 2007–08 and 2011–12 (Figure 4.13).



4



The number of children living in out-of-home care (see Box 4.5) increased by 27% between 30 June 2008 and 30 June 2012—from 31,166 to 39,621 (6.3 to 7.7 per 1,000 children) (AIHW 2013a). Some children are placed in out-of-home care because they were the subject of a child protection substantiation and require a more protective environment. Other situations in which a child may be placed in out-of-home care include those where parents are incapable of providing adequate care for the child, or where alternative accommodation is needed during times of family conflict. However, there are no national data available on the reasons children are placed in out-of-home care.



Indigenous children are consistently over-represented in the Australian child protection system. In 2011–12, the substantiation rate for Indigenous children (41.9 per 1,000) was almost 8 times the rate for non-Indigenous children (5.4 per 1,000 children) (Table 4.2). See Indicator 33 in Chapter 11 for trend information.

Indigenous children were also 10 times as likely to be in out-of-home care than non-Indigenous children (55.1 and 5.4 per 1,000 children, respectively) (Table 4.2).

**Table 4.2: Children aged 0 to 17 subject to a substantiation of a notification and in out-of-home care, by Indigenous status, 2011–12<sup>(a)</sup>**

	Number		Number per 1,000 children		Indigenous to non-Indigenous rate ratio
	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	
Subject to a substantiation	10,058	26,183	41.9	5.4	7.8
In out-of-home care	13,299	26,127	55.1	5.4	10.3

(a) The number of children subject to a substantiation are for the 2011–12 financial year, while the number of children in out-of-home care are at 30 June 2012.

Source: AIHW 2013a.

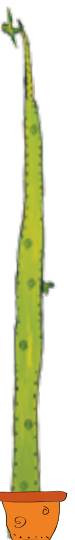
The reasons for the over-representation of Indigenous children in child protection services are complex. Research suggests that for Indigenous children some of the underlying causes include the intergenerational effects of separation from family and culture (a legacy of past policies), perceptions arising from cultural differences in child-rearing practices and the relative socioeconomic disadvantage of Indigenous Australians (HREOC 1997; Stanley et al. 2003).

## Disability

People with disability have diverse physical, sensory, intellectual and psychiatric impairments that may restrict their full involvement in society. The disability spectrum is typically measured in terms of the level of difficulty that a person has in performing the core activities of daily living—namely, self-care, mobility and communication—as well as other activities. A person who sometimes or always needs help with one or more of the core activities is referred to as having ‘severe or profound core activity limitation’. Schooling and employment are vital aspects of life for children and young people; disability can also be described in terms of ‘schooling restriction’ and/or ‘employment restriction’ (see the Glossary for definitions of these terms).

Seven per cent (or 288,300) of children aged 0 to 14 had some form of disability in 2009, and 3.9% (or 163,600) had severe or profound core activity limitation (ABS 2010). The corresponding proportions for young people aged 15 to 24 were 6.6% (204,200) and 1.8% (56,200), respectively. Children and young people with disability aged under 25 accounted for 12% of all people with disability (Table A5.1).

4



There were 185,200 children (6.8%) aged 5–14 who had a schooling restriction and 138,600 young people (4.5%) aged 15–24 who had a schooling or employment restriction (ABS 2010). Note that people may have both core activity limitation and a schooling or employment restriction. See Chapter 5 for a detailed discussion of people with disability.

## Homelessness

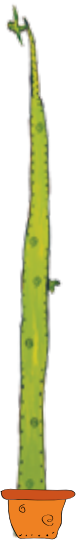
According to ABS estimates based on the 2011 Census, 44,100 children and young people aged 0 to 24 were considered homeless on Census night—42% of the total homeless population (Table A7.2). This included 17,800 children aged under 12 (or 54 per 10,000 children), 10,900 children aged 12–18 (56 per 10,000 children) and 15,300 young people aged 19–24 (88 per 10,000 children) (ABS 2012b). Children and young people who were homeless were most commonly living in severely crowded dwellings (54%); this is a higher proportion than for all homeless people (39%).

Specialist homelessness services deliver support to people who are homeless or at risk of homelessness. According to data from the AIHW's Specialist Homelessness Services Collection (SHSC), about 107,200 clients aged 0 to 24 were assisted by specialist homelessness agencies in 2011–12. This represented almost half (47%) of all clients, with 19% of all clients aged under 12, 13% aged 12–18 and 14% aged 19–24 (Table A7.9).

Among clients aged 15–24, around three-quarters (78%) presented alone to specialist homelessness agencies, with the remainder presenting as part of a group. For young people who presented alone, family problems were a common reason for seeking assistance, including domestic and family violence (15%) and relationship/family breakdown (14%) (AIHW 2012e).

Trend data are not presented here because the SHSC was implemented on 1 July 2011 and the previous collection gathered data about children and young people in a different way. See Chapter 7 for a detailed discussion of homelessness, including relevant definitions.

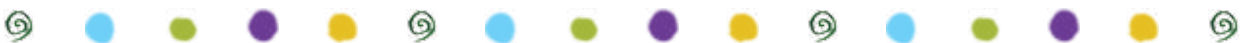
4

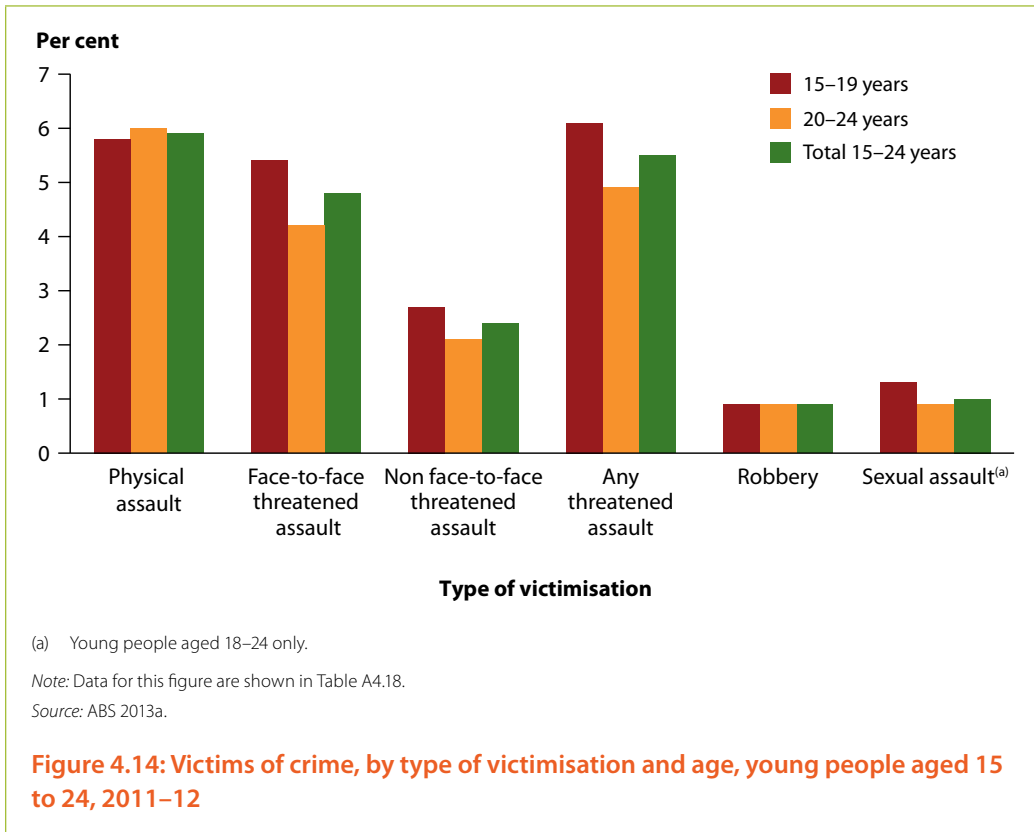


## Victims of violence

Violence can have a range of short- and long-term negative effects on young people's physical and psychological health, and can also increase the risk of young people victimising others (AIHW 2011 c). Information about crime victimisation is captured in the ABS Crime Victimization Survey, which collects information about self-reported incidents occurring in the previous 12 months among people aged 15 and over (ABS 2013a). In 2011–12, among the 3.1 million young people aged 15 to 24 in Australia:

- 180,300 (5.9%) were victims of physical assault
- 166,900 (5.5%) were threatened with assault—146,500 (4.8%) were threatened face-to-face and 72,600 (2.4%) by other means (some received both types of threats)
- 27,700 (0.9%) were victims of robbery
- 21,000 (1.0%) were victims of sexual assault (age 18–24 only) (Figure 4.14).

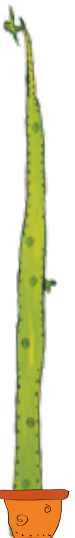




Among young people aged 15 to 24, those in the younger age group (aged 15-19) had higher rates of victimisation for threatened assault, while those in the older age group (aged 20-24) had higher rates of victimisation for physical assault. Young people aged 18-19 were more likely than those aged 20-24 to be victims of sexual assault.

The relatively high assault rates among young people largely reflect the impact of drug- and alcohol-related violence in these age groups. More than half of young people aged 18 to 24 who were victims of physical assault and face-to-face threatened assault (62% and 60% respectively) believed that alcohol or other substances contributed to their most recent incident of assault. The proportion who indicated this was slightly higher among those aged 18-19, compared with those aged 20-24.

Some young people are victims of more serious crimes, including homicide. During 2008-09 and 2009-10, 22% (118 people) of all homicide victims (people killed unlawfully) were aged under 25, including 49 people who were aged under 18. Most (70%) homicide victims aged under 25 were male (Chan & Payne 2013).



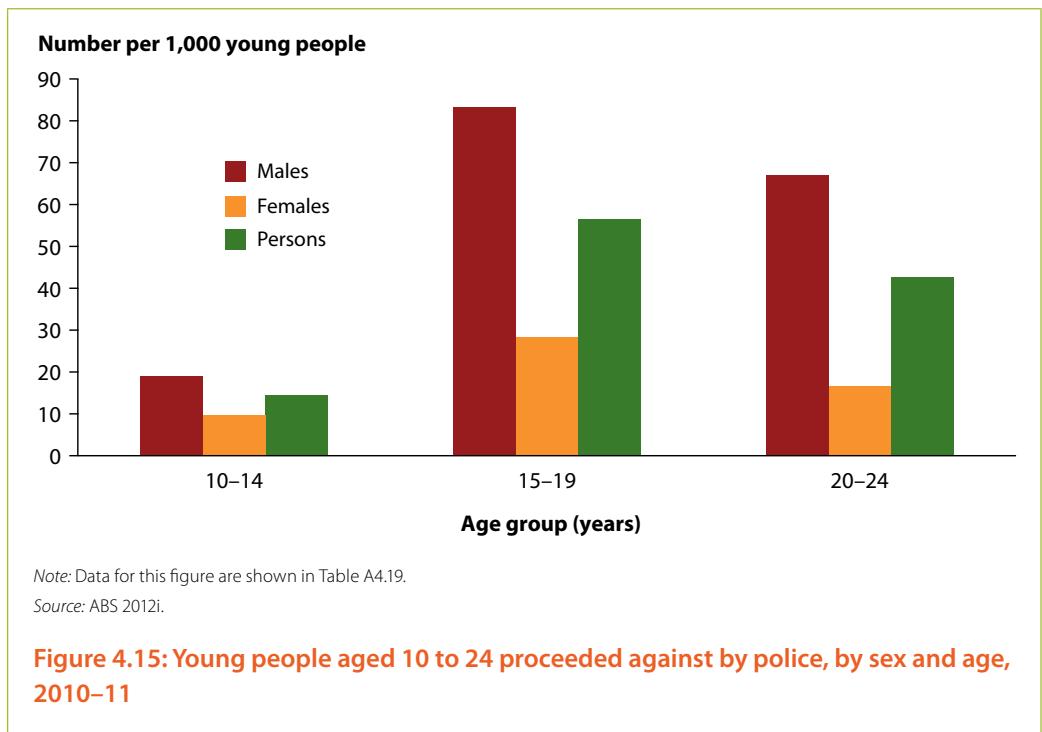
## Young people and crime

Young people in the youth justice system (also known as the juvenile justice system) are a particularly vulnerable group, often coming from relatively disadvantaged backgrounds as well as being a group at risk of continued and more serious criminal behaviour later in life. Under legislation across all states and territories, children and young people are deemed to have criminal responsibility if they are aged 10 or older. Those involved (or allegedly involved) in crime are dealt with in either the youth justice system (under the age of 18) or the adult system (aged 18 and over), although this varies somewhat among the states and territories and on a case-by-case basis.

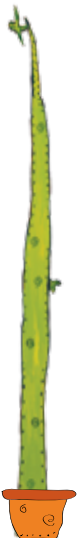
### Young people proceeded against by police

Young people first enter the justice system when they are proceeded against by police—that is, when legal action is initiated for an offence. Police proceedings include both court actions (the laying of charges that must be answered in court) and non-court actions (such as cautions, conferencing, counselling or infringement notices).

Involvement in crime tends to be highest in adolescence and early adulthood. In 2010–11, police proceeded against 175,300 young people aged 10 to 24—almost half (47%) of all those proceeded against by police that year (ABS 2012i). Rates of offending were highest among young people aged 15–19 (57 per 1,000), followed by those aged 20–24 (43 per 1,000) (Figure 4.15), and decreased steadily with age. About three-quarters (77%) of young people aged 10 to 24 proceeded against were male.



4





Rates of offending among young people in 2010–11 were similar to those in 2008–09 and 2009–10. Theft was the most common principal (or most serious) crime among young people aged 10–14 (36%) and 15–19 (25%) who were proceeded against by police in 2010–11. In contrast, the most common principal crimes among those aged 20–24 were public order offences (25%), followed by acts intended to cause injury (17%).

Some young people are involved in very serious offences, such as homicide. In 2008–09 and 2009–10, there were 180 homicide offenders (people charged with homicide offences) under the age of 25, 7 of whom were female (Chan & Payne 2013). Most of these young people were aged 18–24 (142 people, or 79%).

## Youth justice

Youth justice is the responsibility of state and territory governments, and each has its own legislation, policies and practices. Across Australia, young people may be charged with a criminal offence if they are aged 10 or over. The upper age limit for treatment as a young person is 17 (at the time an offence was allegedly committed) in all states and territories except Queensland, where the age limit is 16. However, it is possible for young people aged 18 and over to be under youth justice supervision. Reasons for this include the offence being committed when the young person was aged under 18, the continuation of supervision once they turn 18, or their vulnerability or immaturity. In addition, in Victoria, some young people aged 18 to 20 may be sentenced to detention in a youth facility (known as the 'dual track' system).

On an average day in 2011–12, there were 6,940 young people under youth justice supervision, a rate of 26 per 10,000 population (AIHW 2013b). Note that Western Australia and the Northern Territory did not contribute to the 2011–12 Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set. Where possible, estimates for these jurisdictions are included in national totals.

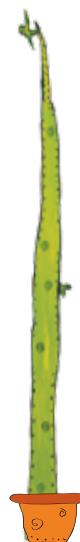
Among those under supervision on an average day:

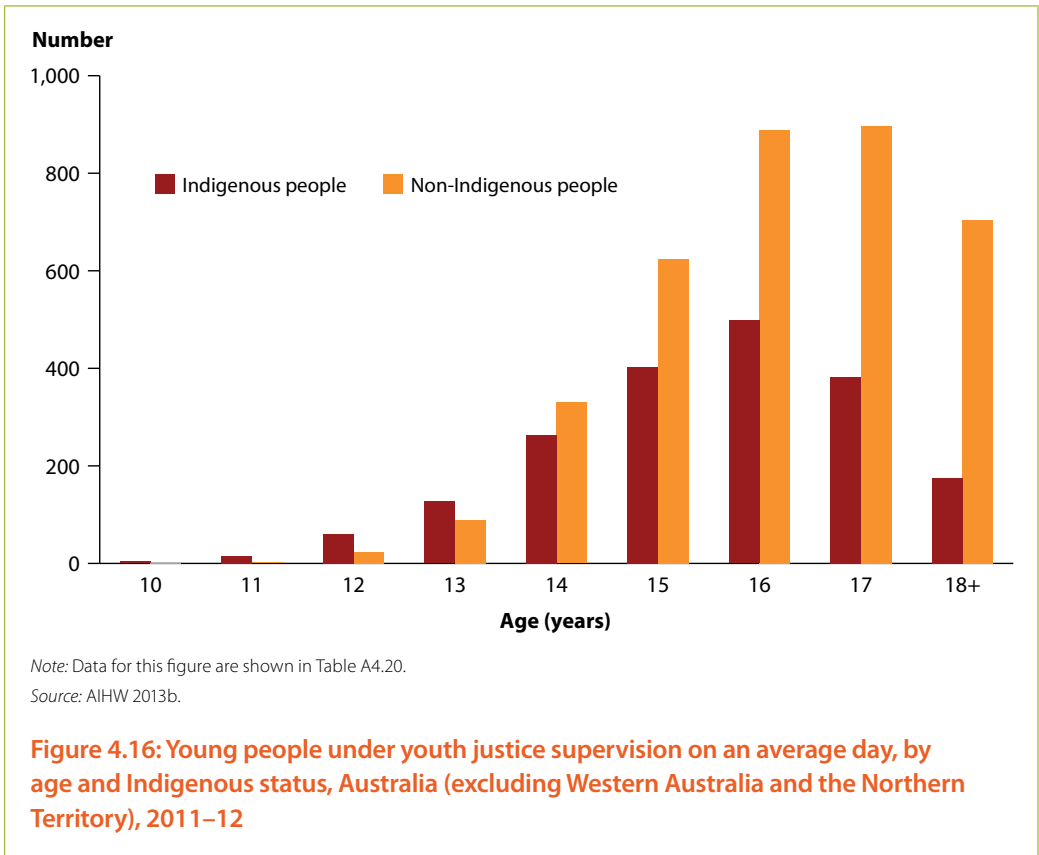
- most (83%) were male
- about 4 in 5 (79%) were aged 14–17
- about 2 in 5 (39%) were Indigenous.

On average, Indigenous young people under supervision were younger than non-Indigenous young people, with around a quarter (24%) of Indigenous young people under supervision aged 10–14, compared with 13% of non-Indigenous young people (Figure 4.16).

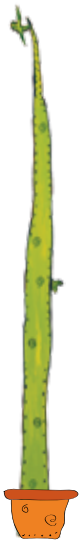
On an average day in 2011–12, most (86%) young people under youth justice supervision were supervised in the community, with the remainder in detention. There were 23 per 10,000 young people aged 10 to 17 under community-based supervision and 4 per 10,000 in detention.

4



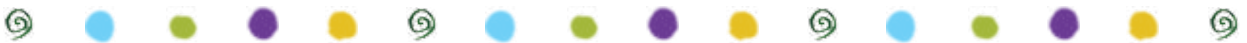


4

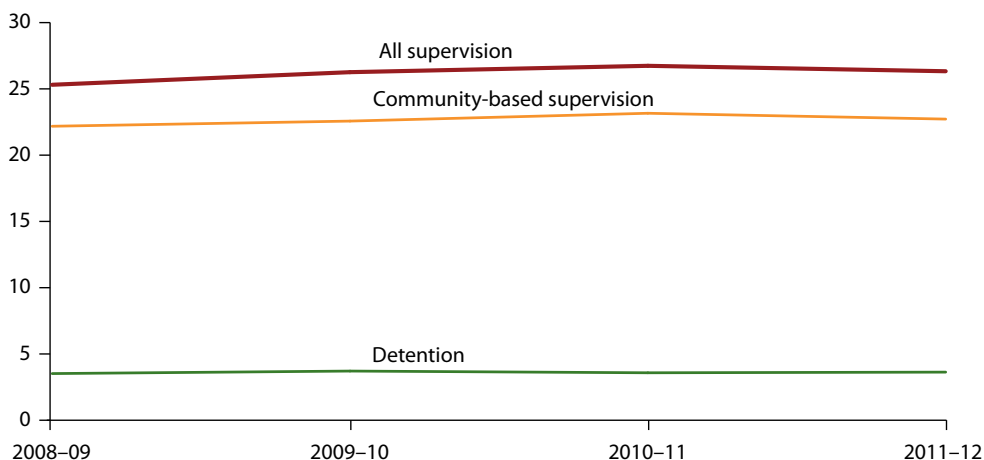


Over the 4 years to 2011–12, the rate of young people aged 10 to 17 under supervision on an average day remained relatively stable, at around 26–27 per 10,000 population each year (Figure 4.17).

Indigenous young people were 16 times as likely as non-Indigenous young people to be under supervision on an average day in 2011–12, up slightly from 15 times as likely in 2008–09. This was mainly due to an increase in the rate of Indigenous young people under supervision, with little change in the non-Indigenous rate.



### Number per 10,000 young people



Note: Data for this figure are shown in Table A4.21.

Source: AIHW 2013b.

**Figure 4.17: Young people aged 10 to 17 under youth justice supervision on an average day, by supervision type, Australia (including estimates for Western Australia and the Northern Territory), 2008-09 to 2011-12**

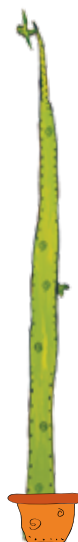
A recent study examined the complete youth justice supervision history of three cohorts of young people in Australia—those born in 1990-91, 1991-92 and 1992-93 (excluding some states and territories in some years; see AIHW 2012c). Across the cohorts, about 14% to 16% of Indigenous young people experienced supervision at some time when they were aged between 10 and 17, compared with 1% of non-Indigenous young people.

Indigenous young people who experienced supervision were more likely to have been in detention at some time. For example, among the 1992-93 cohort, 62% of Indigenous young people who experienced supervision had been in detention, compared with 50% of non-Indigenous young people. In addition, Indigenous young people spent longer in total under supervision when they were aged 10 to 17. About 2 in 5 (39%) Indigenous young people born in 1992-93 who experienced supervision spent a total of 18 months or longer under supervision, compared with 1 in 5 (20%) non-Indigenous young people.

### Young people in prison

On 30 June 2012, there were around 5,400 young people aged under 25 in adult prison, most of whom (94%) were young men (ABS 2012h). Almost 2 in 5 (38%) young people in prison were Indigenous, which was higher than the proportion among the total prison population (27%). In addition, almost half (47%) of young women aged under 25 in prison were Indigenous, compared with 38% of young men.

4



## Multiple disadvantage

Analysis undertaken by the Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet's Social Inclusion Unit based on the ABS General Social Survey indicated that in 2010 around 5% of Australian adults (aged 18 to 64) experienced multiple disadvantage—defined as three or more types of six specified disadvantages in the areas of income, work, health, education, joblessness and support (Australian Social Inclusion Board 2012). Children in jobless families were more likely than other groups to experience multiple disadvantage—for example, children whose parents were not in paid work for a full 12 months were more likely to fall below national minimum educational standards than students whose parents had some form of employment. Among those who experienced multiple disadvantage, almost 3 in 10 had children living with them—17% were lone parents and 12% were couples with children.

### Links between child protection, juvenile justice and homelessness

Research shows that there are relationships between homelessness, child abuse and neglect, and criminal activity among young people. For example, there is evidence that children who have been abused or neglected are more likely to be involved in crime, and more likely to experience homelessness, than those who have not (Dennison et al. 2006; National Youth Commission 2008; Prichard & Payne 2005; Stewart et al. 2005). However, information on the extent of multiple-sector involvement and the pathways of young people through these services is limited.

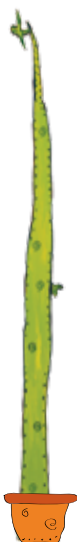
Recently, an AIHW linkage project examined multiple-sector involvement among young people in three community-sector data collections: the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) National Data Collection (superseded by the Specialist Homelessness Services Collection in 2011), the Juvenile Justice National Minimum Data Set (JJ NMDS), and child protection notifications and substantiations in Victoria and Tasmania (AIHW 2012b).

This research found that young people involved in one of the homelessness, juvenile justice and child protection service systems were more likely than those in the general population to experience multiple-sector involvement.

Around 1% to 2% of the general population receive homelessness services each year. However, almost 15% of those under juvenile justice supervision received homelessness services in the year before their most recent supervision, and 8% received services in the year after. Similarly, 6% of those with a substantiated child protection notification received homelessness services the year before their most recent substantiated notification, and 7% in the year after. Around 1% of Australians aged 16 or 17 are under juvenile justice supervision each year. However, more than 10% of those who received homelessness support as an adult had a history of supervision.

Although the findings should be interpreted with caution, since they are based on data for limited years, and the child protection data are for only two states, the results highlight the usefulness and possibilities for future data linkage work in these sectors.

4



## 4.8 Where to from here?

There are a range of significant data developments in progress in the children and young people sector. Several of these relate to the ongoing improvement of existing annual state/territory administrative data collections. Other projects reflect ongoing efforts to improve measurement in relation to long-term COAG National Partnership Agreements. In addition to these, a range of longitudinal surveys continue to build a comprehensive picture of how children, young people and families are faring over time, with survey content modified regularly to reflect current research priorities. Some of these major data developments, as well as data gaps, are outlined in this section.

### Education

#### **Early Childhood Education and Care National Minimum Data Set**

The AIHW and ABS collaborated to develop agreed data standards through the Early Childhood Education and Care National Minimum Data Set (ECEC NMDS) to provide a nationally consistent approach to data collection (the ECEC Collection) and provision for performance reporting to support the COAG National Agreement on Early Childhood Education. The AIHW continues to develop and refine the ECEC NMDS in consultation with states and territories and the ABS. The data from the ECEC Collection have been most recently reported in *Preschool education, Australia 2012* (ABS 2013e).

#### **National Early Childhood Development Researchable Data Set**

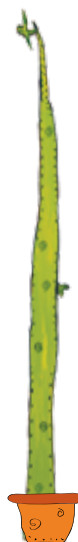
The AIHW is developing a national Early Childhood Development (ECD) Researchable Data Set, with this project funded by the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations under the National Information Agreement on Early Childhood Education and Care. The aim of the project is to use a range of Australian Government and state/territory administrative data sets to create a linked national data set on children 'from birth to the early years of schooling'. Once available, it is expected that the data set will enable research in early childhood development across health, human services and early childhood education and care, focusing on the transition to early years of school education.

### Child protection

#### **New child protection national minimum data set**

The development of a unit record (child-level) collection for child protection has been progressing over a number of years. This collection will greatly enhance the analytical power of data, including enabling accurate counts of children involved in child protection across the entire statutory system to be established. It is anticipated that the collection will be fully implemented in the second half of 2013.

4



## Development of an ongoing educational outcomes national data collection

Building on previous work, the AIHW consulted widely across the educational and child welfare sectors to produce a nationally agreed data collection methodology to investigate the educational outcomes of children in the child protection system.

The first phase of this project will include linkage between the child protection national minimum data set and the National Assessment Program—Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) data sets so that numeracy and literacy scores of young people in the child protection system can be compared with those of their peers.

## Youth justice

One of the key outcome measures for the youth justice system is reducing the levels of recidivism or reoffending. The AIHW is working with the Australasian Juvenile Justice Administrators to develop a data collection to measure juvenile recidivism. The first stage, carried out in 2012–13, involved testing and refining principles and data specifications for measuring recidivism and evaluating the usefulness of existing JJ NMDS data. Future stages will involve developing and piloting additional data items for more complete measures of recidivism.

## Longitudinal surveys relating to children and young people

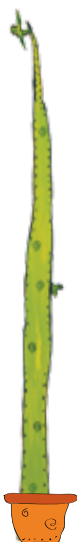
### Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia

The HILDA survey is a longitudinal household study that started in 2001. It covers a broad range of topics relating to wellbeing (both in economic and subjective terms), labour force participation of household members and family dynamics. Wave 1 consisted of around 7,700 households and 19,900 individuals. In Wave 11, the sample size was increased by more than 2,000 households and nearly 5,500 individuals. This expansion was designed to address coverage issues (targeting recent immigrants in particular) and is expected to enhance the analytical power of the data (Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research 2012). Wave 12 data collection was completed in early 2013 and included new content on education, skills and abilities; data from this wave are expected to be available in late 2013.

### Longitudinal Study of Australian Children

The LSAC started in 2004 with a sample of about 10,000 families. There are two cohorts of approximately equal numbers in the study—the B (infant) cohort aged 3 to 19 months at the start of the study, and the K (child) cohort who were aged 4 to 5 years. Wave 5 data collection was completed in early 2013 and data will be available in September 2013. Questions asked in each wave are modified to recognise the increasing age and maturity of each cohort. Wave 5 content areas for the K cohort (aged 12 to 13) reflected the increasing independence of this cohort and directed a greater proportion of the questions to children (as opposed to their parents). Wave 5 asked children new questions about peers, health and parental monitoring. Parents were asked new questions relating to health conditions, child employment and pocket money, and homelessness (FaHCSIA 2012a).

4



### **Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children**

The Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children, first conducted in 2008, initially involved around 1,700 interviews conducted with a parent or primary carer of an Indigenous child and a further 265 interviews with fathers or other significant carers. Wave 5 interviews were completed in 2012 and included new questions on life satisfaction, parenting efficacy and peer relationships (FaHCSIA 2013a).

### **Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth**

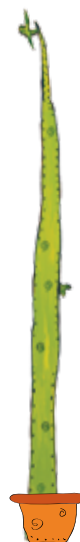
Since 1995, the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth (LSAY) have collected a range of information relating to young people as they transition from school into further study and the workforce. LSAY data consist of large representative cohorts (more than 10,000 per cohort) and ask respondents aged 15 and over about achievement, aspirations, retention, social background, general wellbeing, attitudes to school and work experiences. Survey cohorts are contacted annually for up to 12 consecutive years. The fifth cohort (known as Y09) started in 2009, with the third wave conducted during 2011. LSAY research priority areas confirmed for 2011 to 2013 include: improving the education outcomes of young people; providing young people with the skills, qualifications and capabilities needed for the contemporary labour market; and supporting young people to lead full and meaningful lives (NCVER 2012).

### **Current data gaps**

The challenges and complexities with a range of current data sources mean that much work remains to produce a comprehensive and coherent picture of children and young peoples' experiences. As noted above, work is progressing between the AIHW, ABS and other government departments to enable this to be addressed, with a strong current focus on educational data. Recent pilot studies have shown that the linkage of information can be a powerful analytical tool, capable of filling significant data gaps and providing information on pathways and outcomes within and across sectors.

A recent AIHW analysis of key national child and youth indicators revealed some significant data gaps due to a lack of available data sources in the areas of family functioning, school relationships and bullying, neonatal screening, social and emotional wellbeing, and quality of child care. In other cases, data sources are available but not in a comparable national form (for example, congenital anomalies information is limited to selected states/territories) or at regular intervals (for example, child and youth mental health diagnostic data were most recently collected in 1998). These gaps have been recognised, and various development activities are under way in most of these identified priority areas (AIHW 2012d).

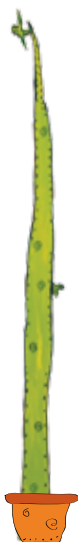
4



## References

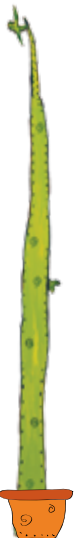
- ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics) 2003. Education and work, Australia, May 2003. ABS cat. no. 6227.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2004. Family characteristics, Australia, June 2003. ABS cat. no. 4442.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2009a. Childhood education and care, Australia, June 2008. ABS cat. no. 4402.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2009b. A picture of the nation: the statistician's report on the 2006 Census, 2006. ABS cat. no. 2070.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2010. Disability, ageing and carers, Australia: summary of findings, 2009. ABS cat. no. 4430.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2011a. Australian social trends, December 2011. ABS cat. no. 4102.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2011b. Births, Australia, 2010. ABS cat. no. 3301.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2011c. The health and welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, October 2010. Access to health and community services: child care. ABS cat. no. 4704.0. Canberra: ABS. Viewed 14 March 2013, <<http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/lookup/4704.0Chapter945Oct+2010>>.
- ABS 2011d. Voluntary work, Australia, 2010. ABS cat. no. 4441.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012a. Births, Australia, 2011. ABS cat. no. 3301.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012b. Census of Population and Housing: estimating homelessness, 2011. ABS cat. no. 2049.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012c. Childhood education and care, Australia, June 2011. ABS cat. no. 4402.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012d. Children's participation in cultural and leisure activities, Australia, April 2012. ABS cat. no. 4901.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012e. Education and work, Australia—additional data cubes, May 2012. ABS cat. no. 6227.0.55.003. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012f. Education and work, Australia, May 2012. ABS cat. no. 6227.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012g. Pregnancy and employment transitions, Australia, November 2011. ABS cat. no. 4913.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012h. Prisoners in Australia, 2012. ABS cat. no. 4517.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2012i. Recorded crime—offenders, 2010–11. ABS cat. no. 4519.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013a. Crime victimisation, Australia, 2011–12. ABS cat. no. 4530.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013b. Job search experience, Australia, July 2011. ABS cat. no. 6222.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013c. Labour force, Australia, February 2013. ABS cat. no. 6202.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013d. National Early Childhood Education and Care Collection: concepts, sources and methods, 2012. ABS cat. no. 4240.0.55.001. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013e. Preschool education, Australia, 2012. ABS cat. no. 4240.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ABS 2013f. Schools, Australia, 2012. ABS cat. no. 4221.0. Canberra: ABS.
- ACARA (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority) 2008. National Assessment Program: Literacy and Numeracy. Achievement in reading, writing, language conventions and numeracy. National report for 2008. Sydney: ACARA.
- ACARA 2011. National Assessment Program: Literacy and Numeracy. Achievement in reading, persuasive writing, language conventions and numeracy. National report for 2011. Sydney: ACARA.

4



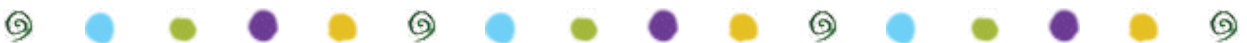
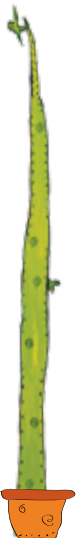


- ACARA 2012a. National Assessment Program: Literacy and Numeracy. Achievement in reading, persuasive writing, language conventions and numeracy. National report for 2012. Sydney: ACARA.
- ACARA 2012b. National report on schooling in Australia 2010. Sydney: ACARA.
- ACARA 2012c. The Shape of the Australian Curriculum, version 4. Sydney: ACARA.
- ACOSS (Australian Council of Social Service) 2012. Poverty in Australia: ACOSS paper 194. Sydney: ACOSS.
- AIHW (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare) 2011a. Adoptions Australia 2010–11. Child welfare series no. 52. Cat. no. CWS 40. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2011b. Australia's welfare 2011. Australia's welfare series no. 10. Cat. no. AUS 142. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2011c. Young Australians: their health and wellbeing 2011. Cat. no. PHE 140. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2012a. Adoptions Australia 2011–12. Child welfare series no. 54. Cat. no. CWS 42. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2012b. Children and young people at risk of social exclusion: links between homelessness, child protection and juvenile justice. Data linkage series no. 13. Cat. no. CSI 13. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2012c. Indigenous young people in the juvenile justice system: 2010–11. Bulletin no. 109. Cat. no. AUS 164. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2012d. A picture of Australia's children 2012. Cat. no. PHE 167. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2012e. Specialist homelessness services 2011–12. Cat. no. HOU 267. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2013a. Child protection Australia: 2011–12. Child welfare series no. 55. Cat. no. CWS 43. Canberra: AIHW.
- AIHW 2013b. Youth justice in Australia 2011–12: an overview. Bulletin no. 115. Cat. no. AUS 170. Canberra: AIHW.
- Apprenticeships for the 21st Century Expert Panel 2011. A shared responsibility. Apprenticeships for the 21st Century. Final report of the expert panel. 31 January 2011. Canberra: DEEWR. Viewed 13 May 2013, <<http://www.australianapprenticeships.gov.au/publications/shared-responsibility-apprenticeships-21st-century>>.
- Australian Government 2012. Programs for Indigenous families. Canberra: Australian Government. Viewed 20 May 2013, <<http://www.mychild.gov.au/pages/FamiliesProgIndigenousFam.aspx>>.
- Australian Government 2013a. Closing the Gap: Prime Minister's report 2013. Canberra: Australian Government.
- Australian Government 2013b. Snapshot of early childhood development in Australia 2012—AEDI national report. Canberra: Australian Government.
- Australian Government 2013c. The Australian Education Bill 2012: Better Schools. Canberra: Australian Government. Viewed 18 March 2013, <<http://www.betterschools.gov.au/docs/australian-education-bill-2012>>.
- Australian Social Inclusion Board 2012. Social inclusion in Australia: how Australia is faring. 2nd edn. Canberra: Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet.
- Bond G 2004. Tackling student absenteeism: research findings and recommendations for school and local communities. Viewed 10 November 2011, <<http://www.hwllen.com.au/Text/1062829817063-3396/uploadedFiles/1112325248500-2929.doc>>.
- Bromfield L, Lamont A, Parker R & Horsfall B 2010. Issues for the safety and wellbeing of children in families with multiple and complex problems: the co-occurrence of domestic violence, parental substance misuse, and mental health problems. National Child Protection Clearinghouse issues no. 33. Melbourne: AIFS.
- Burchinal P, Kainz K, Cai K, Tout K, Zaslow M & Martinez-Beck I 2009. Early care and education quality and child outcomes. OPRE research-to-policy brief no. 1. Washington DC: Child Trends. Viewed 27 April 2011, <[http://www.childtrends.org/Files//Child\\_Trends-2009\\_5\\_21\\_RB\\_earlycare.pdf](http://www.childtrends.org/Files//Child_Trends-2009_5_21_RB_earlycare.pdf)>.

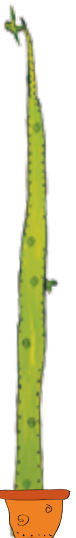


- Callander EJ, Schofield DJ, Shrestha RN & Kelly SJ 2012. Sufficient education attainment for a decent standard of living in modern Australia. *Journal of Social Inclusion* 3(1):7–20.
- Chan A & Payne J 2013. Homicide in Australia: 2008–09 to 2009–10 National Homicide Monitoring Program annual report. Monitoring report no. 21. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- COAG (Council of Australian Governments) 2009a. National Partnership Agreement on Early Childhood Education. Canberra: COAG. Viewed 13 May 2013, <[http://www.federalfinancialrelations.gov.au/content/npa/education/early\\_childhood/national\\_partnership.pdf](http://www.federalfinancialrelations.gov.au/content/npa/education/early_childhood/national_partnership.pdf)>.
- Cobb-Clark DA 2008. Leaving home: what economics has to say about the living arrangements of young Australians. *The Australian Economic Review* 41(2):160–76.
- Curtis DD & McMillan J 2008. School non-completers: profiles and initial destinations. *Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth research report 54*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Dandolo Partners 2012. Interim evaluation of the National Partnership on Youth Attainment and Transitions. A report for the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. 2 April 2012. Melbourne: Dandolo Partners.
- DEEWR (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations) 2009. Compact with Young Australians—increasing educational attainment of young people aged 15–24. Canberra: DEEWR. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://foi.deewr.gov.au/documents/compact-young-australians-increasing-educational-attainment-young-people-aged-15-24>>.
- DEEWR 2010. State of child care in Australia. April 2010. Canberra: DEEWR. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://foi.deewr.gov.au/documents/state-child-care-australia>>.
- DEEWR 2012a. Early Years Workforce Strategy. Canberra: DEEWR. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://deewr.gov.au/early-years-workforce-strategy>>.
- DEEWR 2012b. National Quality Framework for Early Childhood Education and Care—legislation, standards and progress. Canberra: DEEWR. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://deewr.gov.au/national-quality-framework-early-childhood-education-and-care-legislation-standards-and-progress>>.
- Dennison S, Stewart A & Hurren E 2006. Police cautioning in Queensland: the impact of juvenile offending pathways. *Trends & issues in crime and criminal justice* no. 306. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- DHS (Department of Human Services) 2012. Annual report 2011–12. Canberra: DHS. Viewed 15 May 2013, <<http://www.humanservices.gov.au/spw/corporate/publications-and-resources/annual-report/resources/1112/resources/dhs-annual-report-2011-12-full-report-web.pdf>>.
- DHS 2013a. Budget 2013–14: family payments reform—replacing the Baby Bonus. Canberra: DHS. Viewed 20 May 2013, <<http://www.humanservices.gov.au/corporate/publications-and-resources/budget/1314/measures/families/48-15254>>.
- DHS 2013b. Choosing between Parental Leave Pay and Baby Bonus. Canberra: DHS. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://www.humanservices.gov.au/customer/enablers/centrelink/baby-bonus/choosing-between-ppl-and-bb>>.
- DHS 2013c. Electorate data. Canberra: DHS. Viewed 28 May 2013, <<http://www.humanservices.gov.au/corporate/publications-and-resources/facts-and-figures/electorate-data/>>.
- DHS 2013d. Youth allowance. Canberra: DHS. Viewed 15 May 2013, <<http://www.humanservices.gov.au/customer/services/centrelink/youth-allowance>>.
- Elliott A 2006. Early childhood education: pathways to quality and equity for all children. *Australian Education Review* no. 50. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.

4

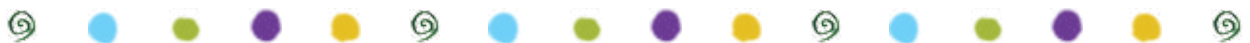
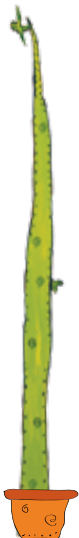


- FaHCSIA (Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs) 2012a. Growing Up in Australia: the Longitudinal Study of Australian Children: 2010–11 annual report. Canberra: FaHCSIA.
- FaHCSIA 2012b. National Implementation Plan for the First Action Plan 2010–2013: building a strong foundation. National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children. Canberra: FaHCSIA.
- FaHCSIA 2012c. Protecting Children is Everyone's Business: National Framework for Protecting Australia's Children 2009–2020—Second Action Plan 2012–2015. Canberra: FaHCSIA.
- FaHCSIA 2012d. The Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012. Canberra: FaHCSIA. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://www.fahcsia.gov.au/our-responsibilities/women/programs-services/economic-security/the-workplace-gender-equality-act-2012>>.
- FaHCSIA 2013a. Footprints in Time—the Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children (LSIC). Canberra: FaHCSIA. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://www.fahcsia.gov.au/about-fahcsia/publications-articles/research-publications/longitudinal-data-initiatives/footprints-in-time-the-longitudinal-study-of-indigenous-children-lsic>>.
- FaHCSIA 2013b. National Children's Commissioner. Canberra: FaHCSIA. Viewed 20 May 2013, <<http://www.fahcsia.gov.au/our-responsibilities/families-and-children/publications-articles/national-children-s-commissioner>>.
- Gillard J 2012. Better schools: a National Plan for School Improvement. Canberra: Press Office of the Prime Minister of Australia. Viewed 14 May 2013, <<http://www.pm.gov.au/press-office/better-schools-national-plan-school-improvement>>.
- Gonski D, Boston K, Greiner K, Lawrence C, Scales B & Tannock P 2011. Review of Funding for Schooling—final report. Canberra: DEEWR.
- Gupta A 2008. Responses to child neglect. *Community Care* 1727:24–5.
- Hayes A, Weston R, Qu L & Gray M 2010. Families then and now: 1980–2010. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies. Viewed 15 October 2012, <<http://www.aifs.gov.au/institute/pubs/factsheets/fs2010conf/fs2010conf.html>>.
- Higgins D 2010. Impact of past adoption practices: summary of key issues from Australian research. A report to the Australian Government Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs. Canberra: FaHCSIA.
- Hillman KJ & Marks GN 2002. Becoming an adult: leaving home, relationships and home ownership among Australian youth. Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth research report number 28. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Hoffman SD & Maynard RA (eds.) 2008. Kids having kids: economic costs and social consequences of teen pregnancy. Washington DC: The Urban Institute Press.
- HREOC (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission) 1997. Bringing them home. Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from their Families. Sydney: Australian HREOC.
- Lamb S, Walstab A, Teese R, Vickers M & Rumberger R 2004. Staying on at school: improving student retention in Australia. Melbourne: Centre for Post-compulsory Education and Lifelong Learning, The University of Melbourne.
- Lamont A 2010a. Effects of child abuse and neglect for adult survivors. NCPC resource sheet, April 2010. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.
- Lamont A 2010b. Effects of child abuse and neglect for children and adolescents. NCPC resource sheet, April 2010. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.



- Marks G 2007. Transitions to adulthood: leaving home and partnering. In: Headey B & Warren D (eds). Families, incomes and jobs, volume 2: a statistical report on Waves 1 to 4 of the HILDA survey. Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, University of Melbourne.
- Masters GN 2011. Improving educational outcomes in the Northern Territory: preliminary advice to the Northern Territory Department of Education and Training, with a particular focus on the ongoing improvement of students' literacy and numeracy achievements. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research. Viewed 22 October 2012, <[http://www.det.nt.gov.au/\\_\\_data/assets/pdf\\_file/0007/19690/ImprovingEducationalOutcomesNT.pdf](http://www.det.nt.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0007/19690/ImprovingEducationalOutcomesNT.pdf)>.
- McCain M & Mustard JF 2002. The Early Years Study—three years later, from early child development to human development: enabling communities. Toronto: Canadian Institute for Advanced Research.
- Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research 2012. HILDA Survey: annual report 2011. Melbourne: University of Melbourne.
- National Youth Commission 2008. Australia's homeless youth: a report of the National Youth Commission Inquiry into Youth Homelessness. Melbourne: National Youth Commission.
- NCVER (National Centre for Vocational Education Research) 2012. Outcomes of stakeholder consultations to identify the LSAY analytical program for 2011–13. Adelaide: NCVER.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) 2005. Education at a glance 2005: OECD indicators. Paris: OECD.
- OECD 2010. PISA 2009 results: what students know and can do: student performance in reading, mathematics and science. Vol. 1. Paris: OECD.
- OECD 2012. Education at a glance. Indicator C5: transition from school to work: where are the 15–29 year-olds? Paris: OECD.
- Paranjothy S, Broughton H, Adappa R & Fone D 2009. Teenage pregnancy: who suffers? Archives of Disease in Childhood 94(3):239–45.
- Pech J, McNevin A & Nelms L 2009. Young people with poor labour force attachment: a survey of concepts, data and previous research. Research report no. 11/09. Canberra: Australian Fair Pay Commission.
- Price-Robertson R 2012. Fathers with a history of child sexual abuse: new findings for policy and practice. CFCA paper no. 6. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.
- Prichard J & Payne J 2005. Alcohol, drugs and crime: a study of juveniles in detention. Research and public policy series no. 67. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- Reynolds AJ & Shlafer RJ 2010. Parent involvement in early education. In: Christenson S & Reschly A (eds). Handbook of school-family partnerships. New York: Routledge.
- Robinson L & Lamb S 2012. How young people are faring 2012. The national report on the learning and earning of young Australians. Melbourne: The Foundation for Young Australians.
- Rothman S & McMillan J 2003. Influences on achievement in literacy and numeracy. Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth research report 36. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- RCIIRCSA (Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse) 2013. About the Royal Commission. Sydney: RCIIRCSA. Viewed 4 March 2013, <<http://www.childabuseroyalcommission.gov.au/about/Pages/default.aspx>>.
- SCRGSP (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision) 2012. National Education Agreement performance reporting 2011—data tables. Canberra: Productivity Commission. Viewed 5 March 2013, <<http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/national-agreements/education>>.
- SCRGSP 2013. Report on Government Services 2013. Canberra: Productivity Commission.

4



- SCSEEC (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood) 2012. Early Years Workforce Strategy. The Early Childhood Education and Care Workforce Strategy for Australia 2012–2016. Melbourne: SCSEEC.
- Shah C 2010. Demand for qualifications and the future labour market in Australia 2010 to 2025: report prepared for Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. Melbourne: Centre for the Economics of Education and Training, Monash University.
- Stanley J, Tomison AM & Pocock J 2003. Child abuse and neglect in Indigenous Australian communities. Child abuse prevention issues no. 19. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.
- Stewart A, Dennison S & Hurren E 2005. Juvenile offending trajectories: pathways from child maltreatment to juvenile offending, and police cautioning in Queensland. Final report. Brisbane: School of Criminology and Criminal Justice, Griffith University.
- Strazdins L, Lucas N, Shipley M, Mathews R, Berry H, Rodgers B et al. 2012. Parent and child wellbeing and the influence of work and family arrangements: a three cohort study. Social policy research paper no. 44. Canberra: FaHCSIA.
- Testro P 2010. Learn or earn discussion paper: implications for young people in-care and post-care, November 2010. Melbourne: CREATE Foundation.
- Thomson S, De Bortoli L, Nicholas M, Hillman K & Buckley S 2011. Challenges for Australian education: results from PISA 2009. The PISA 2009 assessment of students' reading, mathematical and scientific literacy. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Thomson S, Hillman K & Wernert N 2012a. Monitoring Australian Year 8 student achievement internationally: TIMSS 2011. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Thomson S, Hillman K, Wernert N, Schmid M, Buckley S & Munene A 2012b. Monitoring Australian Year 4 student achievement internationally: TIMSS and PIRLS 2011. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) 2010. The children left behind. A league table of inequality in child well-being in the world's richest countries. Florence: UNICEF.
- Vinson T, Rawsthorne M & Cooper BA 2007. Dropping off the edge: the distribution of disadvantage in Australia. Richmond, Victoria and Curtin, Australian Capital Territory: Jesuit Social Services and Catholic Social Services Australia.
- Wilkins R & Warren D 2012. Families, incomes and jobs. Vol.7: a statistical report on Waves 1 to 9 of the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia survey. Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, The University of Melbourne.
- Zolotor A, Kotch J, Dufort V, Winsor J, Catellier D & Bou-Saada I 1999. School performance in a longitudinal cohort of children at risk of maltreatment. *Maternal and Child Health Journal* 3(1):19–27.

