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# FAMILY FRIENDLY WORKING ARRANGEMENTS

Labour market and workplace trends

A background report for the ACTU submission to the  
Fair Work Commission four yearly review of modern awards

MAY 2017

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*This report uses unit record data from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey. The HILDA Project was initiated and is funded by the Australian Government Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs (FaHCSIA) and is managed by the Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research (MLAESR). The findings and views reported in this report, however, are those of the author and should not be attributed to either FaHCSIA or the MLAESR.*

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Report written: May 2017.

This printing, with minor revisions: December 2017.

TYPESET WITH L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X

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## KEY FINDINGS

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The ageing of the Australian population and recent developments in the labour market pose a number of challenges for workplaces and families. Over the last decade [part-time](#) work has grown strongly in Australia, partly at the expense of [full-time](#) employment. At the same time, [underemployment](#) has also increased and casualisation and other forms of labour market insecurity have become entrenched. The implications of these for family friendly working arrangements are profound.

On the one hand, workers need to juggle not only their parenting responsibilities, but also the additional responsibilities which flow from the ageing of the population, such as caring for ageing parents or disabled relatives. On the other hand, the ageing of the working-age population also means that fewer potential workers are available to produce the future output required by a growing dependent population.

Access to secure part-time employment during those periods when parenting and caring responsibilities are intense can offer one solution to the difficulties of balancing work and family life. This report finds that the broader patterns of full-time and part-time work in the Australian labour market need to be scrutinised more closely. When this is done, we find a disturbing growth in underemployment, a loss of full-time employment among those who still need full-time jobs, and significant levels of labour market insecurity within segments of the workforce, particularly younger workers.

Part-time employment can be viewed in the context of life-cycle employment: something available for periods in life when non-work demands are greater, or as a useful transition to retirement.<sup>1</sup> In this respect, the growth of part-time can be viewed as a positive outcome. However, if that part-time work is casual, then such work is unlikely to suit those workers at that stage in their life-cycle when beginning a family, building a career, or taking on large financial commitments requires predictable hours, adequate remuneration, and a secure employment

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1. For a useful labour market framework to understand the life-cycle perspective, see G. Schmid 1998, *Transitional Labour Markets: A New European Employment Strategy*, Discussion Paper FS I, Berlin, pp. 98–206.



future. Even if part-time is permanent, but it fails to offer an adequate number of hours, then workers may struggle to meet these financial commitments and the added costs of parenting or caring.

There is an important gender dimension to parenting and caring because women undertake the bulk of this work. This report finds that there is an almost complete absence of part-time permanent employment among men between 30 and 54. When we turn to look at the situation for families with working parents, Australian Bureau of Statistics data shows that part-time employment was the most common arrangement used by working mothers to care for their children, along with flexible working hours (39 percent). For working fathers however, part-time employment counted for little: just 5 percent of fathers used this arrangement to care for their children. Taken together, these findings suggest that the prospects of Australian society developing more gender-neutral parenting and caring responsibilities within families in the 21st century appear limited.

While the use of flexible working hours by both male and female parents has been fundamental to managing child care, it appears that the spread of these arrangements plateaued in 2008, after a steady increase during the late 1990s and early 2000s. Similarly, the use of part-time work by working mothers has fallen since 2008.

This date appears significant, coinciding as it does with the Global Financial Crisis, the period during which many of the developments in the labour market outlined in this report intensified. This date also surfaces when we look at employees' access to various workplace entitlements which are relevant to parenting and caring responsibilities. In the case of carer's leave, access to permanent part-time work, home-based work, and flexible start and finish times progress has either stalled or gone backwards from around 2008 onwards.

Access to these entitlements is also very uneven, and this report finds that these entitlements were far less available to lower paid, lower skilled, casually employed, award-reliant employees working in smaller workplaces.

These entitlements are important for workers with caring responsibilities, as well as for parents. However, this report finds that the workforce situation of carers within the workforce is far from random, even though the needs of disabled relatives or ageing parents has no systematic dimension. In the first instance, employment outcomes are far from random, with carers far less likely to stay in employment, or gain employment, than is the case for non-carers. Once in employment, the distribution of carers is also far from random: carers are more likely to be found in large, public-sector workplaces with enterprise bargaining agreements and with trade union membership.

The other side of the coin is that carers are less likely to be found in small and medium size private sector workplaces, where union coverage is lower, and where individual agreements are more common. This may reflect a data censoring problem, in that the carers whom we might expect to find working may not be in employment at all. Alternatively, they might be working in these kinds of workplaces, but not undertaking caring activities because it is too difficult to combine them with the demands of their working life.

This report finds that taking on the roles of carers or parents sees people penalised by both the labour market and the workplace. Their employment outcomes are less favourable than those without such responsibilities, and for those in employment, taking on such roles imposes personal and family costs, particularly in terms of job security.

## FOREWORD

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This report follows a simple logic: Chapter One looks at demography and the labour market; Chapter Two looks at families and households; and Chapter Three examines how these intersect within the workplace. While there is some overlap between the different chapters because of the way the data are organised, this overall logic guides the story which unfolds.

The purpose of Chapter One is to provide a summary of the key features of the Australian population and the employed labour force. Recent trends are also analysed, but the longer term picture has been well established in earlier reports such as those by Campbell and Charlesworth and Watson and colleagues.<sup>2</sup> These studies have traced the evolution of the ‘modern’ couple family, those households where both partners are engaged in paid work, where child raising is a shared parental responsibility, and where caring for elderly parents, relatives or disabled persons, is also part of the picture. At the same time, the steady growth in single person households, as well as sole parent<sup>3</sup> families, has been part of the demographic landscape of contemporary Australia. What this means in terms of paid work is often framed as the ‘work life balance’ or the ‘work family balance’.<sup>4</sup>

Chapter Two extends the first chapter by considering households and families, summarising their characteristics, and examining issues of parenting and caring. While parenting is a ‘gender neutral’ term, in practice mothers do most of the unpaid work in this sphere. For this reason, data which focuses on employed mothers is analysed and one notable question which arises here is straightforward: what factors, within the labour market and the workplace, inhibit parenting from becoming more gender neutral in practice. In the case of [carers](#), the question which arises is equally blunt: can employed family members effectively combine caring responsibilities and jobs in ways which don’t disrupt or overwhelm their

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2. See Iain Campbell and Sara Charlesworth 2004, *Key Work and Family Trends in Australia*, Background Report, RMIT University: Centre for Applied Social Research; Ian Watson, John Buchanan, et al. 2003, *Fragmented Futures: New Challenges in Working Life*, Sydney: Federation Press.

3. This report uses the terms one parent, sole parent and single parent interchangeably. The ABS refers to [lone parent](#) in its Census dictionary and uses this term as a synonym for the others.

4. See the informative discussion of this concept in Iain Campbell and Sara Charlesworth 2004, *Key Work and Family Trends in Australia*, Background Report, RMIT University: Centre for Applied Social Research, pages A1-1 to A12.

working lives. While many questions like these arise in the report, the report does not attempt to answer them. The brief for this report is data analysis: discerning patterns in current and recent data and telling a story about what this means.

Examining family friendly working arrangements provides the core theme for Chapter Three. As this report will show, developments in the labour market make achieving a satisfactory work life balance problematic for many families and households. These changes can be viewed as operating at the macro level, but it is often at the micro level—that is, the workplace—where the most immediate influences can be felt. While Chapter One largely focusses on this macro dimension—demographic and labour market change—the key elements of the report are to be found in the third chapter, where employment and workplace arrangements are examined.

# I POPULATION AND THE EMPLOYED LABOUR FORCE

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## INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by examining the demographic profile of the Australian population using Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) data from September 2016. Most of the trends examined are from the period 2000 to 2016 with some longer term trends from the late 1970s or 1980s onwards. It then moves on to look closely at the Australia labour force, using the latest ABS data (January and February 2017), as well as various time series datasets.<sup>5</sup>

### I.1 THE AUSTRALIAN POPULATION

#### 1.1.1 Age structure

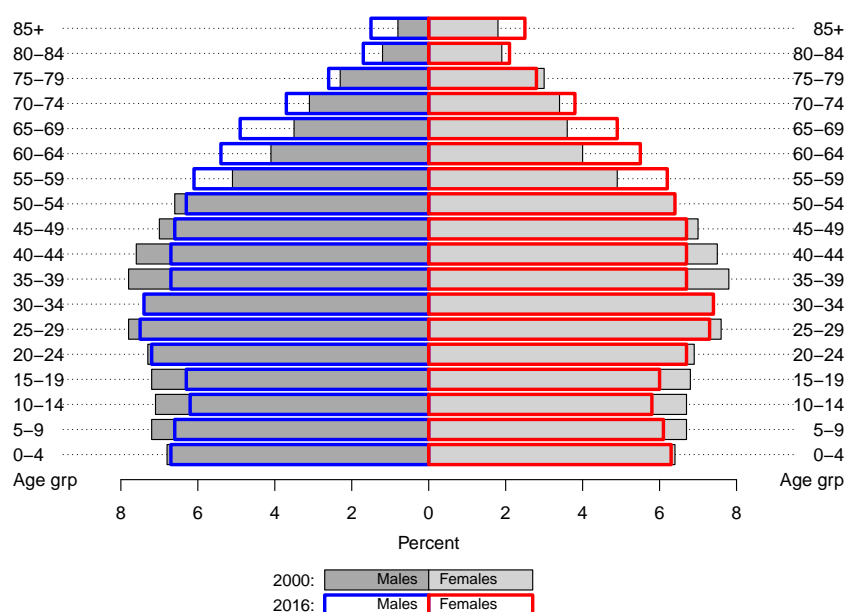
As is well known the Australian population is ageing as the cohort known as the ‘baby boomers’ moves through the age distribution. This is evident in a ‘population pyramid’, such as Figure 1.1, where the age and sex distribution of the Australia population can be visualised quite easily. In this figure the blue and red bars show the 2016 distribution for males and females, and the shaded greys bars show the distribution in 2000. The ageing of the population is evident in the shrinking bulge of the younger age groups and the expanding bulge of the older age groups.

The age structure of the Australian population is shown in counts and percentages in Table A1 in the appendix, and in Table 1.1 below. These tables provide a comparison between 2000 and 2016. Table A1 shows that the total population was estimated at 24,128,876 persons in 2016, composed of 11,990,972 males and 12,137,904 females. In the period since September 2000, the growth in population has been nearly 5 million persons, made up of 2.45 million males and 2.52 million females. While the numerically largest age groups in 2016 were those in the 20 to 34 year range, the largest increases over the period 2000 to 2016 were among those in the age groups spanning 55 to 70 years (the ‘baby boomers’).

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5. The March 2017 ABS Labour Force Survey was release just before this report was finished, and reference to this is made in one of the footnotes. All the 2017 data used in the report, however, come from the January or February issues.

**Figure 1.1: Population distribution by age and gender, Australia 2000 and 2016**



Source: See Table 1.1. Note: Percentages show the distribution of each age group within each gender for each of the time periods.

**Table 1.1: Population by age and sex, Australia 2000 and 2016 (percentages)**

Age group	2000			2016			Change 2000 to 2016		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
0-4	6.8	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.3	6.5	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1
5-9	7.2	6.7	6.9	6.6	6.1	6.3	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6
10-14	7.1	6.7	6.9	6.2	5.8	6.0	-0.9	-0.9	-0.9
15-19	7.2	6.8	7.0	6.3	6.0	6.2	-0.9	-0.8	-0.8
20-24	7.3	6.9	7.1	7.2	6.7	7.0	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1
25-29	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.5	7.3	7.4	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3
30-34	7.4	7.4	7.4	7.4	7.4	7.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
35-39	7.8	7.8	7.8	6.7	6.7	6.7	-1.1	-1.1	-1.1
40-44	7.6	7.5	7.5	6.7	6.7	6.7	-0.9	-0.8	-0.8
45-49	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.6	6.7	6.7	-0.4	-0.3	-0.3
50-54	6.6	6.4	6.5	6.3	6.4	6.4	-0.3	0.0	-0.1
55-59	5.1	4.9	5.0	6.1	6.2	6.1	1.0	1.3	1.1
60-64	4.1	4.0	4.1	5.4	5.5	5.4	1.3	1.5	1.3
65-69	3.5	3.6	3.5	4.9	4.9	4.9	1.4	1.3	1.4
70-74	3.1	3.4	3.3	3.7	3.8	3.7	0.6	0.4	0.4
75-79	2.3	3.0	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.7	0.3	-0.2	0.1
80-84	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.7	2.1	1.9	0.5	0.2	0.3
85+	0.8	1.8	1.3	1.5	2.5	2.0	0.7	0.7	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

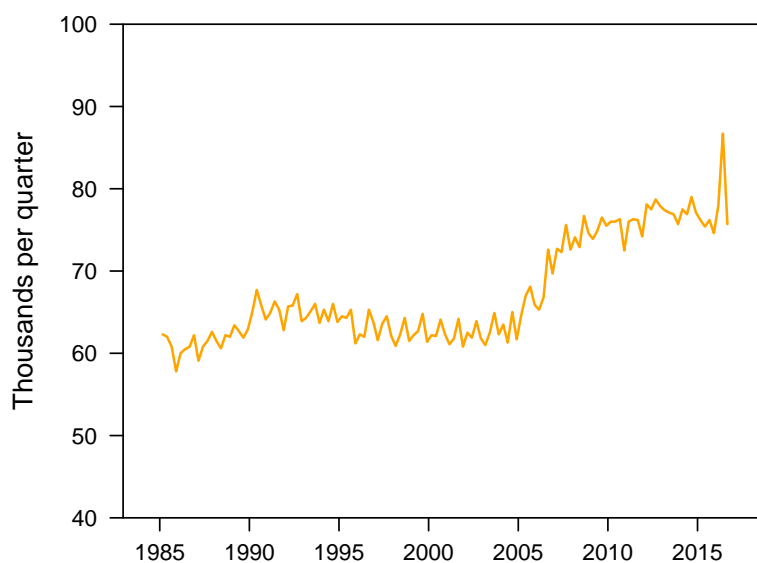
Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Cat.No. 3101.0, Sep 2000, Table 7, and Sep 2016, Table 6, (31010do002\_201609.xls).

This demographic pattern is more obvious in Table 1.1, which shows the age distribution in percentages. Persons in the three ages groups spanning 20 to 34 years each constituted over 7 percent, but the growth in these age groups over the last sixteen years was either negative or static. On the other hand, the strongest growth was in the 55 to 70 age groups, whose increases ranged from 1.1 percentage points to 1.4 percentage points.

### 1.1.2 Births and fertility rates

For much of the period from the 1980s to the mid 2000s, quarterly births in Australia were relatively stable, averaging around 63.2 thousand births per quarter. Since then, however, quarterly births have averaged 75.4 thousand per quarter. Figure 1.2 illustrates this pattern and shows a sharp increase in births in the period between 2005 and 2009, and another spike in June 2016.

**Figure 1.2: Quarterly births in Australia,  
March 1985 to September 2016**



Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Cat. No. 3101.0. Table 1. Population Change (310101.xls)

These trends also surface in Table 1.2 which shows the all-age fertility rates for Australia for the period from 2005 to 2015. These rates peaked between 2007 and 2010, with an all-age fertility rate of 2 births per woman.

**Table 1.2: Annual fertility rates by age group,  
Australia 2005 to 2015**

Year	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	All ages
2005	16.6	54.4	105.5	119.5	61.5	11.1	0.5	1.8
2006	16.3	54.1	104.7	123.1	64.7	11.6	0.6	1.9
2007	17.1	58.8	110.0	129.7	69.6	13.0	0.7	2.0
2008	18.4	59.4	108.9	130.7	72.0	14.5	0.7	2.0
2009	17.9	56.8	106.3	127.7	70.1	14.5	0.7	2.0
2010	16.7	55.3	104.0	127.2	71.1	15.1	0.8	2.0
2011	16.1	53.0	103.1	124.9	70.3	15.2	0.9	1.9
2012	16.1	53.3	102.8	126.8	71.5	15.2	1.0	1.9
2013	14.6	51.6	99.5	124.6	70.8	15.4	0.9	1.9
2014	12.9	47.9	95.5	120.5	68.9	14.4	1.0	1.8
2015	11.9	48.0	95.0	122.1	69.5	14.6	1.2	1.8

Source: Births, Australia, Cat. No. 3301.0. (Exported from ABS.Stat 28 March 2017.).

Notes: The All ages row shows births per woman; age breakdown rows show births per thousand women.

The age breakdown of these rates shows a considerable decline in fertility rates in younger age groups (those aged under 30) over the last few years. A more stable rate among those women in their early thirties is evident (though with some decline more recently). Nevertheless, this age group remain the group with the highest fertility rates, averaging 125 births per thousand over this period.

### 1.1.3 The working-age population

These trends in the age structure of the Australian population have relevance to the size of the [working-age population](#), defined as those persons aged from 15 to 64. Table [A2](#), in the appendix, shows that the working-age population consisted of nearly 16 million persons in 2016, an increase of over 3 million persons since 2000. In percentage terms, they represented 65.9 percent of the total population in 2016, down from 67.2 percent in 2000. This drop of 1.3 percentage points contrasted with a growth of 2.9 percentage points among persons aged 65 years and older.

The gender difference in these data is marked: the drop in the male working-age population of 1.8 percentage points was considerably greater than the drop in the female working-age population (0.8 percentage points). Similarly, despite the greater longevity among female seniors, the larger increase in the seniors population was among men (3.5 percentage points compared to 2.4 percentage points).

The distribution of age groups within the working-age population is also shown



in Table A2. In 2016 the largest proportion of persons were in the 25 to 34 age range while the smallest were in the two extremes, the older age groups (over 50 years), and the youngest (under 20 years). There were no substantial gender differences in these patterns. In terms of changes since 2000, most of the growth was in the older age groups, those aged between 55 and 64 years, with women contributing more to this growth, particularly in the 55 to 59 age group. The situation among persons in their early thirties was mostly static, but all other age groups from 20 through to 50 years saw declines over this period.

These youngest (under 15 years) and oldest age groups (65 years and older) can be consolidated into a single grouping: the **dependent population** and the comparison between this group and the working-age population is shown in Table 1.3. By expressing the number of dependants per 100 persons of working-age we can derive a **dependency ratio**. As Table 1.3 shows, this hovered around 48 for most of the 2000s before rising to over 51 by 2016.

**Table 1.3: Dependent population, working age population and dependency ratio, Australia 2004 to 2016.**

Year	Population counts			Ratio
	Dependent	Working age	Total	
2004	6,589,978	13,537,385	20,127,363	48.7
2005	6,659,615	13,735,176	20,394,791	48.5
2006	6,743,104	13,954,776	20,697,880	48.3
2007	6,847,850	14,224,602	21,072,452	48.1
2008	6,906,063	14,343,136	21,249,199	48.1
2009	7,048,606	14,643,047	21,691,653	48.1
2010	7,185,373	14,846,377	22,031,750	48.4
2011	7,321,524	15,018,500	22,340,024	48.8
2012	7,518,538	15,209,716	22,728,254	49.4
2013	7,708,888	15,408,465	23,117,353	50.0
2014	7,880,234	15,580,460	23,460,694	50.6
2015	8,047,307	15,743,748	23,791,055	51.1
2016	8,222,111	15,906,765	24,128,876	51.7

Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Cat.No. 3101.0, 2008, 2013 and 2016. Table 7, (31010do001\_200812.xls; 31010do001\_201303.xls; 31010do001\_201609.xls).

Notes: Dependent population defined as aged 0 to 14 and 65 and older; working population defined as aged 15 to 64. Ratio is defined as the number of dependents per 100 persons of working age.

## 1.2 THE LABOUR FORCE

### 1.2.1 Conceptual bearings

When we move from a demographic framework into a labour force framework, the category of the *working-age population* is often dispensed with in favour of the *civilian population aged 15 and over*. This reflects the fact that persons 65 and over are employed. Similarly, concepts such as paid and unpaid work, which become important in the context of family friendly working arrangements, are also not often utilised in a labour force framework. A taxonomy for this labour force framework, as defined by the ABS, is shown in Figure 1.3.

The general understanding of the paid / unpaid dichotomy lies in the distinction between work which earns an income and that which does not, with the latter category including domestic labour, child rearing, other caring activities, volunteering and community service.

By way of contrast, the labour force framework—based on the *activity* concept—distinguishes between those in the labour force and those not in the labour force. Within the labour force, distinctions are drawn—also based on the activity concept—between the employed and unemployed. The focus of this section of the report is on the employed labour force, and the blue branches which are shown in Figure 1.3. As this taxonomy shows, when we descend to the employed labour force, further breakdowns depend on the purpose of the analysis. The monthly household Labour Force Survey conducted by the ABS focuses on the usual hours worked by employed persons, with employment broken down by full-time (35 hours or more) and part-time (less than 35 hours). These categories are used extensively in the analysis which follows.

Other distinctions within the employed labour force, based on the *mode of employment*, are used by the ABS, and data based on these categories are collected in annual Labour Force Survey data as well as biennial employer survey data.<sup>6</sup> These data distinguish between employees and other categories, as shown in the red branch of Figure 1.3.<sup>7</sup>

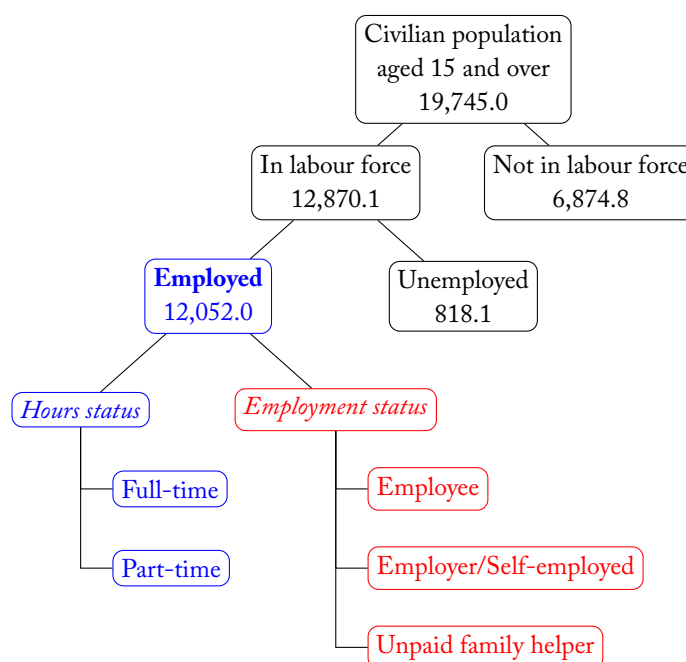
Clearly, from the perspective of industrial relations coverage, the category of **employee** is fundamental. Consequently, Chapter Three uses both employed

6. The August household Labour Force Survey collects these data and publishes this in ABS, *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia* (EEBTUM), Cat. No. 6310.0; while the employer survey is conducted every two years in May, and its results are published in *Employee Earnings and Hours Australia* (EEH), Cat. No. 6306.0.

7. Mode of employment can, of course, be much more finely broken down, taking into account categories like **casual** and temporary or **fixed-term** employment; employment through intermediaries (such as labour hire companies); and forms of unpaid employment, such as internships.

persons and employees, with the footnotes in tables indicating which population is relevant. While most ABS Labour Force Survey data uses employed persons, the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) survey allows us to restrict the population to employees when this is appropriate. It does need to be kept in mind, however, that nearly all employed persons are employees (84 percent in HILDA, and higher in the ABS data) and therefore many of the patterns found in the data for employed persons provide a reliable indication of the patterns among employees.<sup>8</sup>

**Figure 1.3: Taxonomy for labour force statistics, Australia**



Notes: the figures shown are thousands of persons, and come from ABS, *Labour Force Australia* February 2017, Cat. No. 6202.0, Table 3 (Original data series). Figures for the employed sub-categories are not available from the February Labour Force survey.

Returning to the popular distinction between paid and unpaid work, the ABS does collect data on unpaid family helpers (shown above) and on other activities such as volunteering. However, this general paid / unpaid work division is not utilised within the labour force framework. Consequently, while a major focus of this report relates to caring activities, the discussion of detailed employment trends is based on the ABS labour force framework. As such the labour force is both broader and narrower than the working-age population. It is broader because it includes persons *aged over 64* and it is narrower because it excludes those *not in the labour force*. While the concept of the working-age population is a useful demographic concept, for labour market analysis the more appropriate

8. One reason for differences in employee estimates between the ABS and HILDA data lies in different definitions of employee. See [employee](#) in the glossary for details.

categories are those shown in Figure 1.3. Similarly, the concept of the dependent population is not part of the labour force framework.

### 1.2.2 Employment numbers

Data on the numbers of persons employed are available on a monthly basis from the ABS household Labour Force Survey and can be disaggregated by sex, age and hours status (full-time / part-time). Data from both 2000 and 2016 are shown in Table A3 in the appendix. At this level of detail, the [original data](#) series are used, rather than the [trend data](#) series, which the ABS provides for its more aggregated data. To deal with the volatility in the original series, the approach taken in this section has been to trend the graph lines and to average the monthly data over a year when reporting annual comparisons.<sup>9</sup>

Employment numbers are important because they allow us to directly compare the *magnitude* of employment across various sub-groups of the employed labour force, thus answering questions about the largest sub-groups in the labour force. This is illustrated in Figure 1.4, where these cross-comparisons show that male full-time employment continues to be the largest category of employment for all groups aged 20 and over. By contrast, among teenagers, female part-time employment is now the largest category. While female full-time employment is the second largest grouping for those aged 20 to 34 years, it shares this position with female part-time employment in the 35 to 44 years age group and the 55 to 59 year age group. Despite its strong growth (to be further discussed shortly), male part-time employment remains the smallest category for all males except teenagers and those aged 65 years or older.

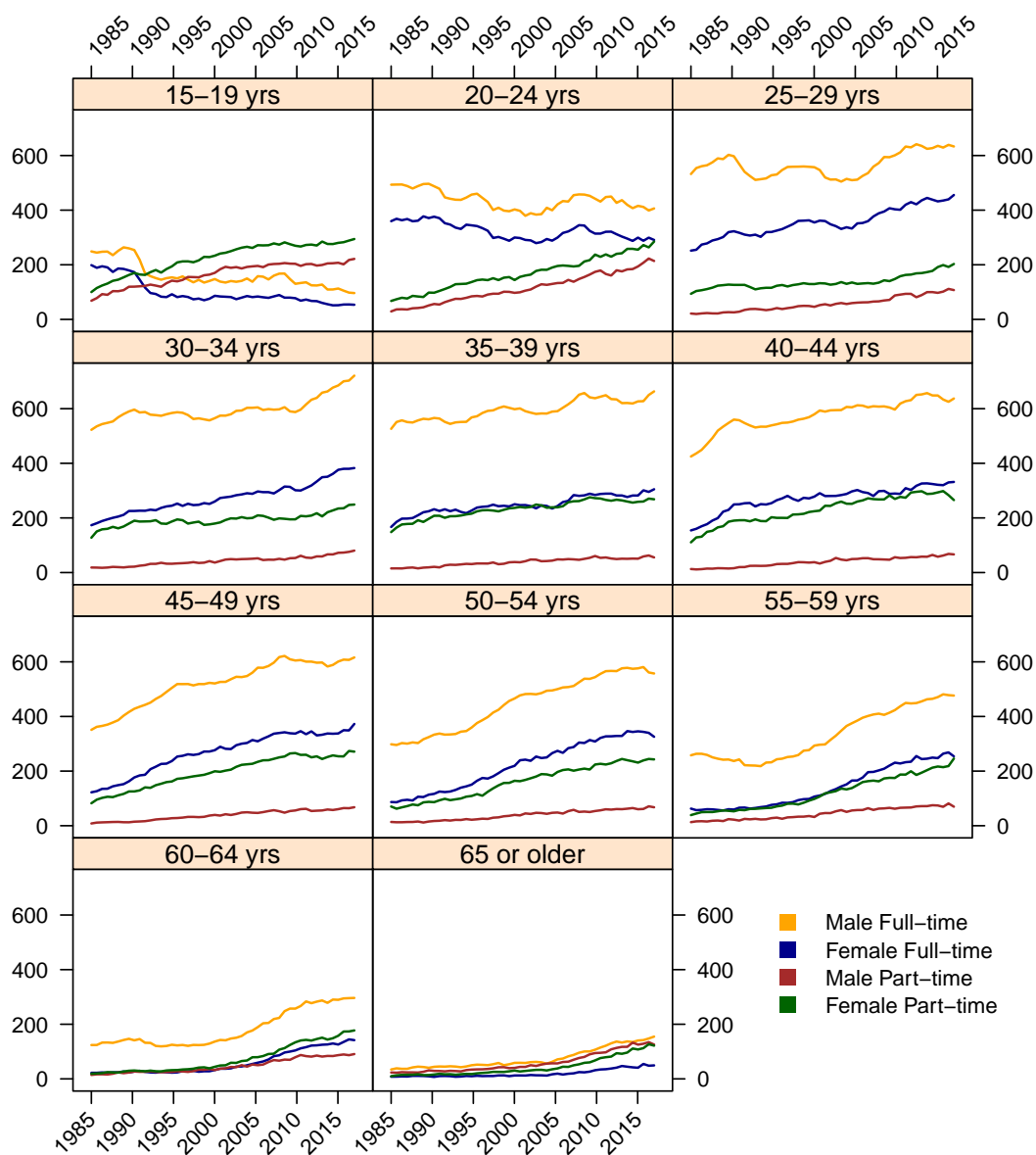
In terms of employment change, Figure 1.4 shows several distinct changes since the mid 1980s:

- ◁ large drops in full-time employment among young persons (those under 25) for both males and females;
- ◁ growth in employment for both male and female workers aged 45 and older, though with this trend flattening in recent years.

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9. Trending is done by using a [loess smoothing](#) function. If the data is presented by the ABS as ratios or aggregate hours, the trending of graph lines has also been employed but no further calculations on the data have been carried out.

**Figure 1.4: Employment numbers by age and sex,  
Australia 1985 to 2017 (thousands)**



Source: ABS, Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017, Cat. No. 6291.0.55.001. (6291001.xls).

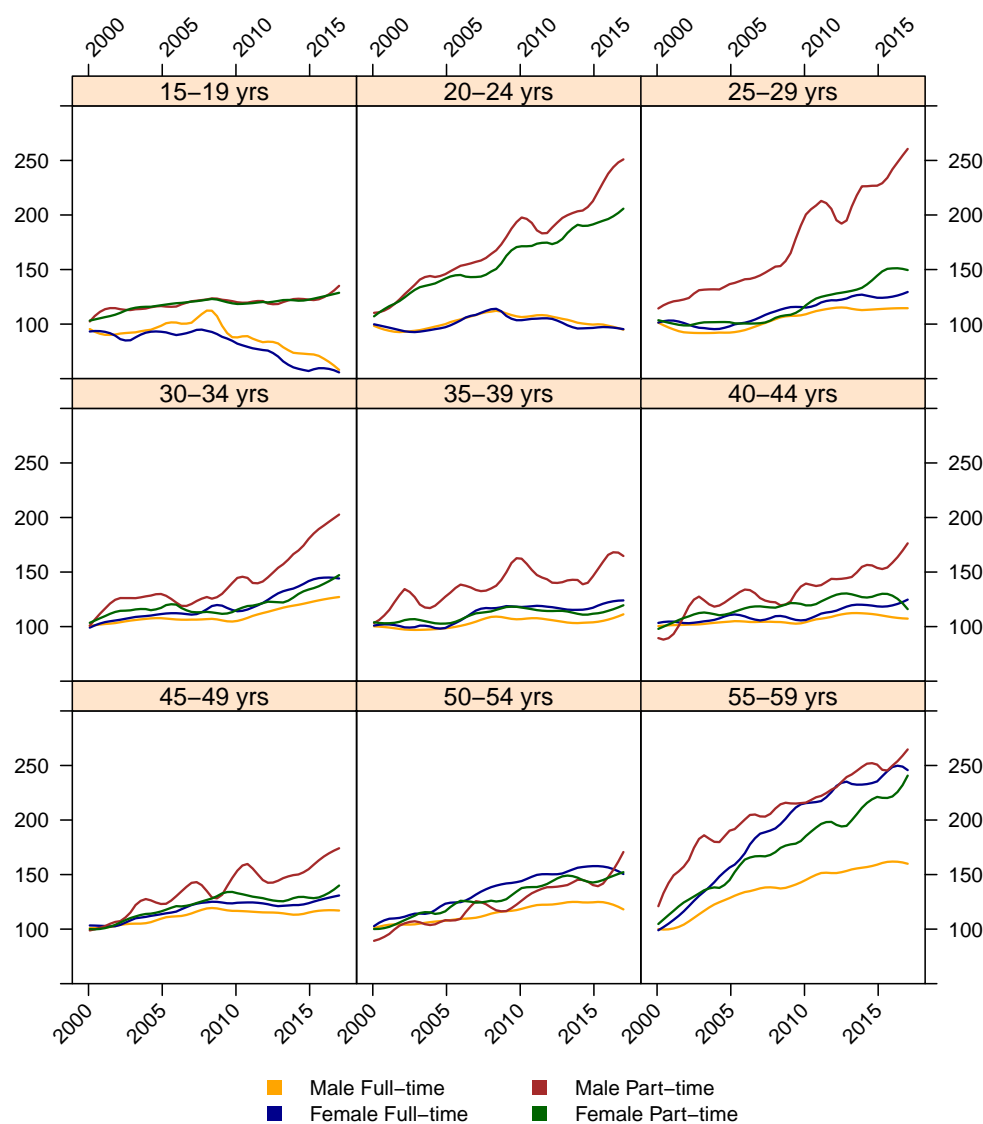
Notes: Data are original series, less smoothed to remove month-to-month volatility.

While Figure 1.4 illustrates these long term trends, the more recent data, from 2000 onwards, suggests such trends are changing. When it comes to tracking changes, raw numbers are less useful than indexed numbers, where a common base year is indexed to 100. Figure 1.5 shows these employment numbers indexed to the year 2000 for all of the age groups below 60.<sup>10</sup> The long term decline

10. The age groups over 60 are not shown. They are small in number, and indexing these groups exaggerates the amount of change.

in teenage full-time employment was clearly evident in Figure 1.4, and the sharp deterioration since the mid 2000s is particularly pronounced in Figure 1.4. Among the 20 to 24 year age group, strong growth in part-time employment is evident since 2000, while full-time employment has plateaued.

**Figure 1.5: Employment numbers by age and sex, Australia 2000 to 2017 (indexed)**



Source: ABS, Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017. Cat. No. 6291.0.55.001. (6291001.xls).

Notes: Data are original series, less smoothed to remove month-to-month volatility.

Male part-time employment growth for those aged 25 to 59 has also been strong over this period, while full-time growth has been largely stagnant (though the volatility shown in Figure 1.5 is exaggerated due to high sampling variability for these subgroups, where the absolute numbers are low). Despite this variability, the overall trend for this category of employment is unmistakable.

For the female workforce, employment growth has been static for those aged 35 to 49 years, while the categories which have shown growth since 2000 have been female part-time employment for those aged 20 to 34 years and those aged 50 and over. The age groups where full-time employment has been strongest have been the older groups: 50 and over. As with the data on males, strong growth in the oldest age group here needs to be kept in perspective: these workers are small in absolute terms.

**Table 1.4: Changes in employment numbers by age, sex and full-time / part-time, Australia 2000 and 2016 (percentages)**

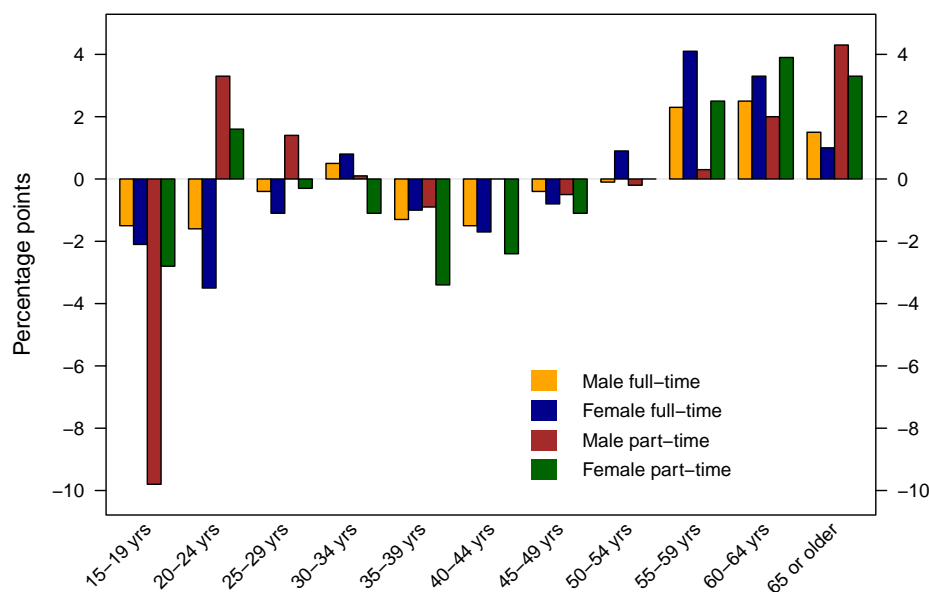
<i>Age group</i>	<i>Male FT</i>	<i>Female FT</i>	<i>Male PT</i>	<i>Female PT</i>	<i>Total</i>
15-19 yrs	-32.9	-37.9	21.6	20.7	1.3
20-24 yrs	-0.2	-1.3	125.8	78.9	25.2
25-29 yrs	16.0	23.9	118.8	45.4	27.0
30-34 yrs	23.9	42.0	91.6	35.9	33.1
35-39 yrs	8.6	20.5	59.2	14.3	14.1
40-44 yrs	6.9	15.7	89.4	24.0	15.1
45-49 yrs	16.3	24.4	69.4	36.9	24.3
50-54 yrs	18.7	44.8	79.1	50.6	33.7
55-59 yrs	60.6	144.8	96.5	112.8	89.9
60-64 yrs	111.0	307.0	154.1	263.7	171.8
65 or older	152.1	284.6	208.6	361.0	221.5
Total	20.0	33.0	87.0	51.6	34.1

Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2016. (6291001.xls).

Notes: FT = Full-time, PT = Part-time. All figures in percentages. Data are original series, averaged for the year.

The overall effect of the differing growth rates in employment can be viewed as a re-arrangement of the share of employment held by particular age groups in the labour force. While always keeping in mind the overall numbers employed, Figure 1.6 nevertheless illustrates this shift in the share of employment away from younger persons to older persons. Moreover, as Figure 1.6 shows, this is not just about teenagers: throughout their 20s young people are witnessing declining shares in full-time employment, the decade when traditionally young people began building their working careers.

**Figure 1.6: Changing shares of employment, by age, sex and full-time / part-time, Australia 2000 and 2016**



*Source:* Based on percentage point columns (change) in Table A4.

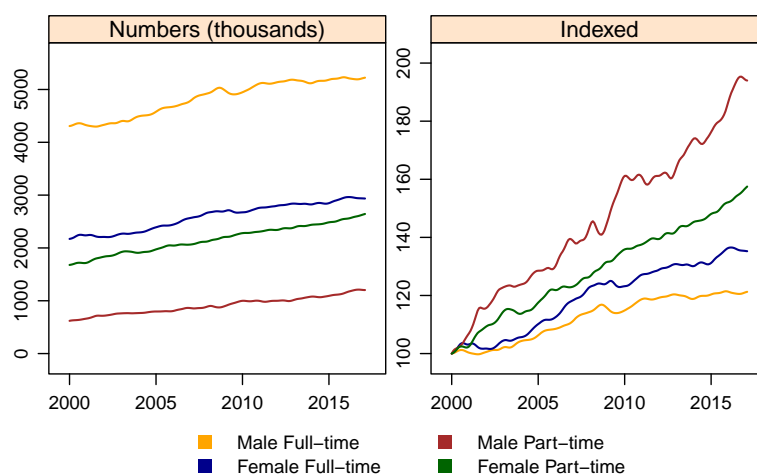
*Notes:* Percentage points show the change in the share of employment, across age groups, within each category (eg. Male FT). Consequently, all columns sum to zero within each category (ie. Male FT).

### 1.2.3 Recent trends in employment

Since the turn of the century, employment growth in Australia has been divided into three periods: prior to the [Global Financial Crisis \(GFC\)](#), the period immediately after the GFC, and the period since 2011. Prior to 2008 employment was growing steadily among both the full-time and part-time workforce but full-time employment dropped sharply with the GFC—something evident in both panels of [Figure 1.7](#). Full-time employment revived shortly afterwards—largely as a result of fiscal stimulus—but the continuation of this growth was uneven. Female full-time employment continued to grow until quite recently, but male full-time employment remained largely static from 2011 onward.



**Figure 1.7: Employment by gender and employment status, Australia 2000 to 2017**



Source: ABS, 6202.0 Labour Force, Australia, Feb 2017. Table 1. (6202001.xls).

Note: Trend data.

The changes in part-time employment have been dramatic, and this is particularly evident in the second panel of Figure 1.7 which shows employment status indexed to a common starting point for 2000. Whereas male full-time employment had only grown by 21 percent over this period, and female full-time employment has grown by 35 percent, the figures for part-time growth were startling: 94 percent among men and 57 percent among women. A distinctive feature of the GFC, compared to earlier downturns, was the reluctance by employers to engage in labour shedding, preferring to reduce hours. Similarly, hiring decisions favoured part-time over full-time jobs. This pattern is particularly notable in the second panel of Figure 1.7 where the sharp upturn in male part-time employment between 2008 and 2010 is dramatic. While this growth plateaued after 2010, strong male part-time employment growth resumed in 2013.

Coupled with the flat growth in male full-time employment and the recent downturn in female full-time employment, commentators have begun to talk about Australia becoming a ‘part-time nation’. As the first panel in Figure 1.7 shows, in absolute terms this is far from accurate, but in terms of growth, the expression has some force. In its main Labour Force publication, the ABS acknowledged this weakness in the labour market:

Year on year trend employment increased by 100,800 persons (or 0.8 per cent), which is less than half of the average year-on-year growth over the past 20 years (1.8 per cent) ... Over the past year, full-time employment decreased by 21,200, while part time employment increased by 122,000 persons.<sup>11</sup>

11. ‘Labour Force Commentary’, in Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Labour Force Australia*, February 2017, Cat. No. 6202.0, page 3. The most recent Labour Force Survey (March 2017) saw a sharp increase in full-time employment, but

### 1.2.4 *The employment to population ratio*

When examining changes in employment among age groups it is important to keep in the mind the demographic profile of the population, the patterns outlined earlier in Section 1.1. The ‘ageing of the population’, evident in the ‘baby boomer bulge’ which was observed in those data, surfaces in the ageing of the labour force. Thus, some of the growth in the older age groups observed in the employment numbers, represents actual growth in employment among older age groups—often as they re-enter the labour market after an absence—and some of this growth represents continuously employed workers who are growing older. In order to disentangle these influences, the [employment to population ratio](#), also termed the [employment rate](#), is particularly useful. When this ratio increases for a particular sub-group, it indicates that the amount of employment held by that sub-group has actually increased, rather than being due to ageing of that cohort within the overall population.

This ratio, for the entire employed labour force can be illustrated with the data for February 2017, shown in Figure 1.3. It expresses the number of employed persons (12,052,000) over the number of persons in the civilian population aged 15 and over (19,745,000), a calculation which gives a figure 61 percent.

The employment to population ratio is more useful than the unemployment rate for examining the employment situation of subgroups in the population. While the unemployment rate does indicate the extent of the lack of employment in the labour market, it is influenced by changes in the participation rate, as unemployed persons move in and out of the labour market (for example, the ‘discouraged job seeker’ effect). Consequently, the employment to population ratio is valuable because it avoids this influence and can be used for analysing time-series and looking more closely at sub-groups within the labour market.<sup>12</sup>

Employment to population ratios are primarily influenced by gender, the life cycle, and the economic business cycle. These influences are evident in the following graphs which chart these rates since the late 1970s. Some of these changes are quite striking, and worth closer attention.

Figure 1.8 and Figure 1.9 both show that employment among teenagers has fallen steadily over this period, with the sharpest decline for young men during the recessions of the early 1980s and 1990s. For both young men and women, there has been a notable deterioration in employment since the Global Financial Crisis (GFC) in 2008.

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many commentators have withheld judgement about whether this marks a change in the trend, or whether it reflects a sampling issue. Several more months of data will be needed to make a more sober assessment.

12. Of course, changes in the civilian population (the denominator) will also be reflected in this ratio, as well those changes which take place in employment (the numerator), but the former are more stable than the labour market flows which influence the participation rate.

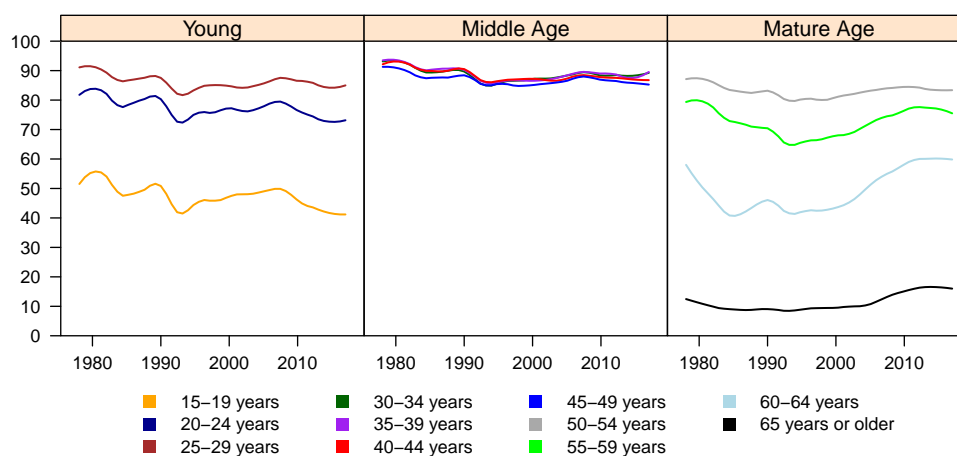
At the other end of the life cycle—the mature age years from 50 onward—employment has varied among men but has generally increased among women. For both groups, however, longer term trends began to change after the GFC. Prior to that, for men in their early 50s there had been a long term decline; for men in their late 50s and early 60s the decline reversed from the early 1990s onwards. For women in their 50s, employment rates increased strongly throughout the whole period, though the last decade has seen this begin to change. For women in their 60s, the strongest growth began after 2000 and does not appear to have stalled since the GFC. In absolute terms, employment rates for women in their early 60s still remain much lower than for those in their 50s.

It is notable that men in their 60s had either matched or surpassed the employment rates they held in the late 1970s, but men in their 50s had undergone a long term decline, despite the growth since the mid 1990s. For men in both their 50s and 60s, employment rates have either declined slightly or remained static since the GFC.

In terms of the middle aged period—the traditional ‘prime working age’—the different age groups have much closer employment rates, evident in the bunching of these graph lines. To unpack the trends here, a closer view is needed (and this is shown in Figure 1.10) but before looking at this, an overall gender comparison is informative.

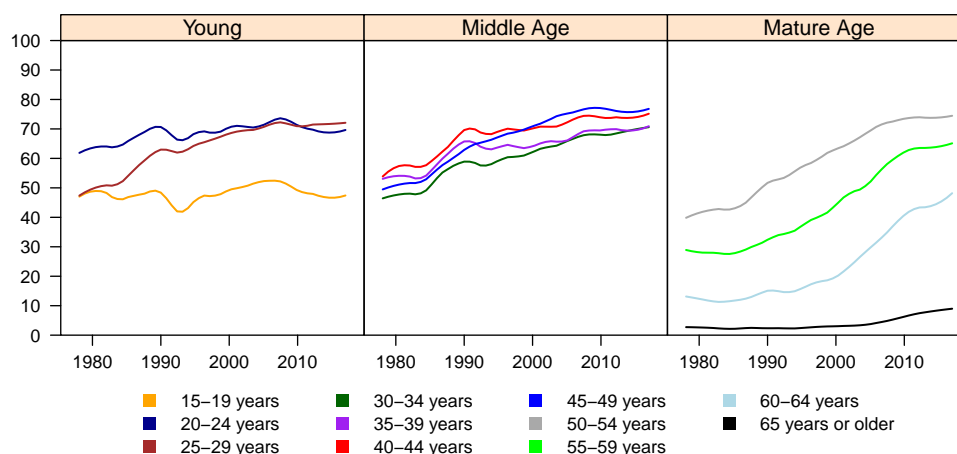
Despite the loss of employment among young men in their twenties, their employment rates remain above those of young women in their twenties in absolute terms. The trend, however, appears to be continuing downward for young men and flattening for young women. For those in middle age, men have higher employment rates than women in absolute terms but the gap has closed substantially. What’s more, their historical trajectories have been quite different (more on this shortly). Finally, in absolute terms, employment rates among mature age men remain higher than those among mature age women, despite their different histories. (A more precise comparison is shown for the current differences in Table 1.5 below.)

**Figure 1.8: Employment population ratios by age group, males, Australia 1978 to 2017**



Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017. (6291001.xls).

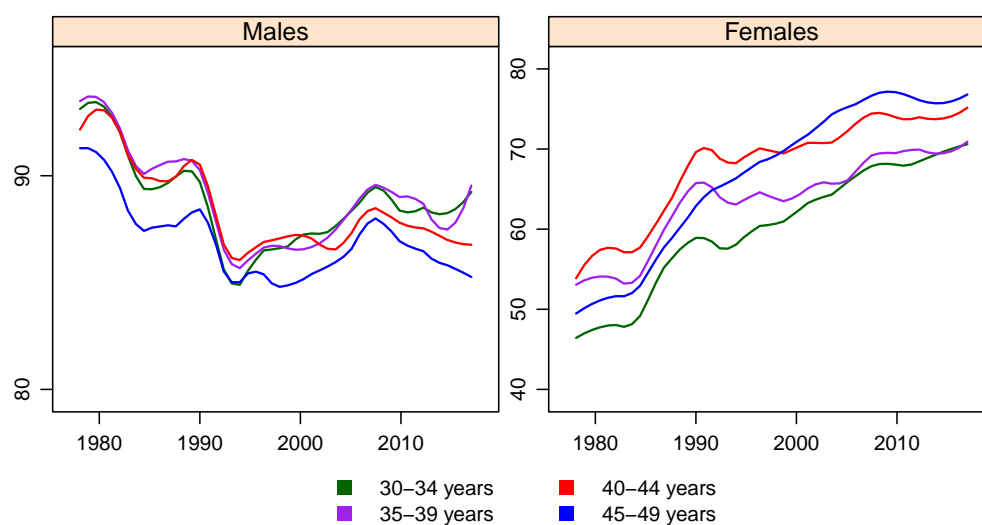
**Figure 1.9: Employment population ratios by age group, females, Australia 1978 to 2017**



Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017. (6291001.xls).

Interesting trends in relativities among the middle aged population are evident in Figure 1.10. Among middle aged men, we can see that employment among the oldest group (the late 40s) has been consistently lower over the whole period, and that their declines during recessionary periods are much sharper than the other age groups. By contrast, among middle aged women it is this very age cohort—that is, those in their late 40s—who have experienced stronger employment growth. In the 1980s women in the age range from 35 to 44 had the highest employment rates, whereas by the 2000s women in their late 40s had the highest rates.

**Figure 1.10: Employment population ratios for middle aged groups, males and females, Australia 1978 to 2017**



Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017. (6291001.xls).

Note: It is important to note that the scales for these two panels are different (because of the magnified view) and are not directly comparable in terms of line slopes.

### 1.2.5 Current situation

The culmination of these trends is shown in Table 1.5. I noted earlier that the employment to population ratio in February 2017 was 61 percent. The male figure was 66.6 percent and the female figure 55.7 percent. When it comes to particular age groups (for January 2017), Table 1.5 shows that employment rates for men peaked at 88 percent—those in their 30s—and for women at 75 per cent—those in their late 40s. Apart from teenagers, where the gender gap favoured women, the gap favoured men's employment across the life cycle. It reached its highest for those in their 30s—nearly 20 percentage points—and was at its lowest for those in the under 25 year age group—just 2 percent for those in their early 20s and -6 percent for teenagers.

While the *number* of persons employed is a useful measure of the amount of employment available in the economy, the number of *hours* of work provided by that labour force is also critical. In the next section I look more closely at the issue of underemployment and the need to understand what the growth in part-time employment means. In that context, hours of work refer to person-averages among sub-groups in the work force, eg. 20 hours per week. In concluding this section I look at the *volume* of hours worked—that is, total hours—by various sub-groups. This provides another measure of the amount of employment which those groups undertake. A breakdown of these hours for age groups, hours status and sex is shown in Table A5 and the all age-group totals are shown in Figure 1.11.

**Table 1.5: Employment to population ratios,  
by sex, 2017**

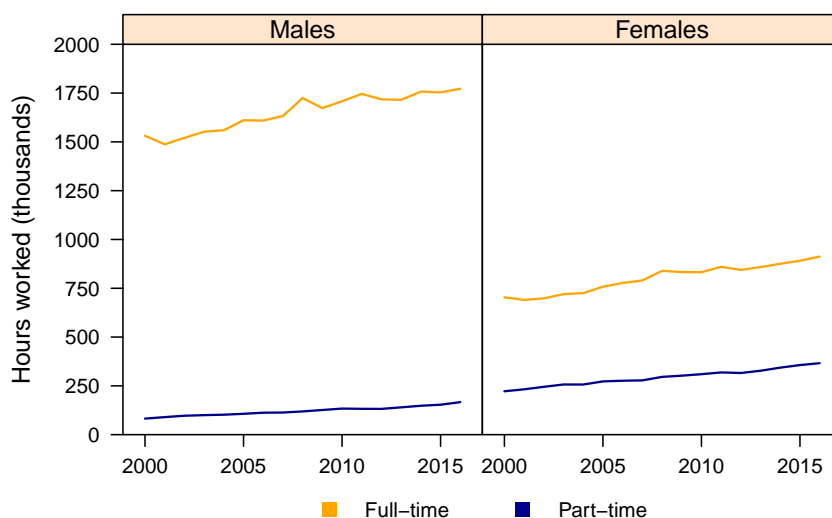
<i>Age groups</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Gap</i>
15-19 years	42.5	48.9	-6.4
20-24 years	72.2	70.0	2.2
25-29 years	82.7	70.9	11.8
30-34 years	88.0	68.7	19.2
35-39 years	88.3	68.6	19.7
40-44 years	86.4	72.2	14.2
45-49 years	83.3	75.3	8.0
50-54 years	82.0	71.9	10.1
55-59 years	74.3	63.9	10.4
60-64 years	58.9	47.6	11.3
65 years or older	15.4	8.5	6.9

Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2017. (6291001.xls).

While the overall growth in employment numbers has been strong among the female workforce, the dominance of part-time work within that workforce means that the total hours accumulated by the full-time male workforce remains considerably higher than the total accumulated by the full-time female workforce. This is evident in the large gap between these two categories in Figure 1.11.

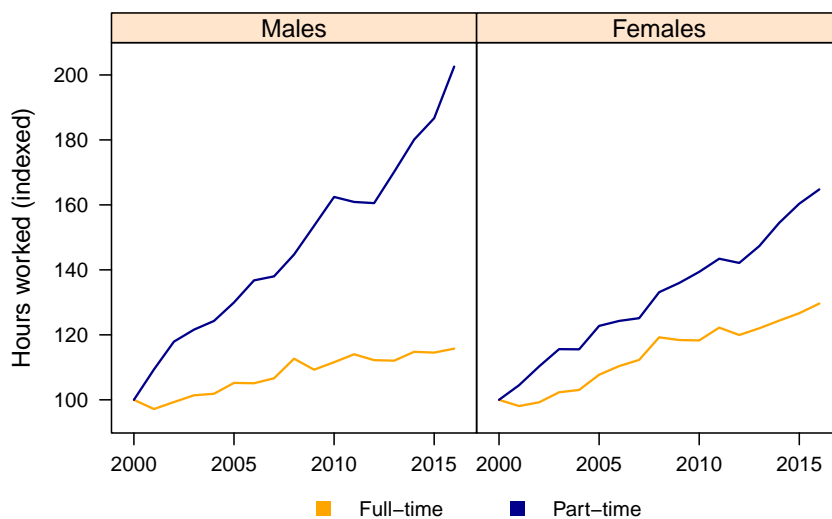
When it comes to rates of growth, however, the dramatic changes have been in part-time hours. Figure 1.12 shows these same data indexed to 100 in the year 2000, which allows us to compare all categories on the same scale. As this figure shows, the growth in hours worked for the part-time workforce has exceeded that among the full-time workforce for both sexes, while among males the growth has been exceptional. By contrast, male full-time hours growth has not only been sluggish, but has been weaker than female full-time hours growth.

**Figure 1.11: Hours worked by sex and hours status, Australia 2000 to 2016 (thousands)**



Source: ABS, Employed persons by Age, Hours actually worked in all jobs and Sex, January 1991 onwards, Cat. No 6291.0.55.001. (EM1a.xlsx). Notes: Hours worked are totals for the reference week in each monthly survey and are averaged for the year.

**Figure 1.12: Hours worked by sex and hours status, Australia 2000 to 2016 (indexed)**

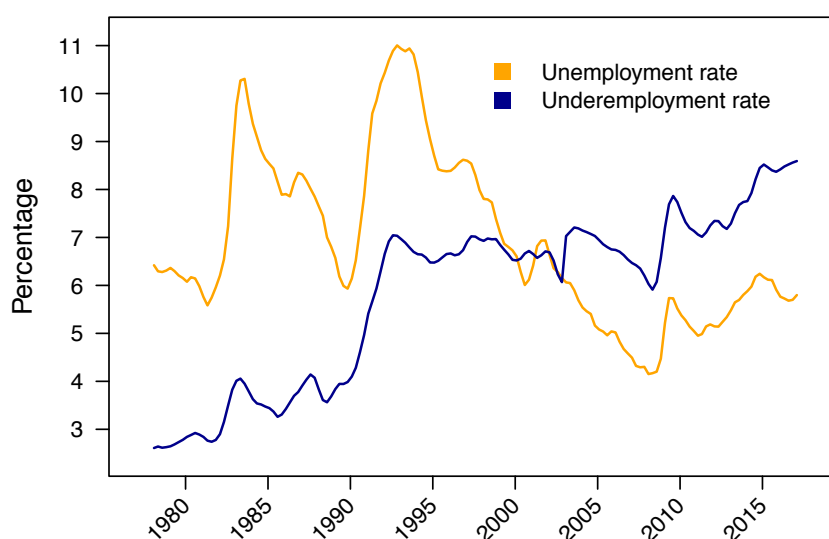


Source: Data in Figure 1.11 indexed to 2000.

### 1.3 UNDEREMPLOYMENT AND CASUALISATION

The emergence of higher levels of underemployment has been a significant feature of the labour market landscape since the GFC. Underemployment refers to the situation where workers are unable to obtain as many hours of employment as they would like. This growth since the GFC corresponds with much higher levels of part-time employment over that period, and this suggests that much of the growth in part-time employment discussed in the last section has not been voluntary on the part of workers.

**Figure 1.13: Unemployment and underemployment rates, Australia 1978 to 2017**



Source: ABS, Labour Force Survey, Cat. No. 6202.0 (6202001.xls and 6202022.xls).

Population: Persons in the labour force.

Notes: Both rates expressed as a percentage of the labour force.

As Figure 1.13 shows, there have been two sharp spikes in the rise in underemployment, the first during the recession of the early 1990s and the second during the GFC. In both cases, labour shedding by employers—evident in the spikes in unemployment—was accompanied by reducing hours of the workers retained, or hiring part-time workers in lieu of full-time staff. What is distinctive about the phenomenon of underemployment is that the levels do not drop back to pre-recession or pre-crisis levels after economic growth returns. Unlike the unemployment rate, which we can observe falls once economic growth resumes, the levels of underemployment remain at elevated levels. In the most recent period—since the end of 2014—unemployment has fallen but underemployment has not improved at all, leading the ABS to comment about an ‘increasing divergence between the rates’.<sup>13</sup> The divergence is notable in Figure 1.13.

13. ABS, ‘Spotlight on Underemployment’, *Labour Force, Australia*, Nov 2016, Cat. No. 6202.0., page 11.



The issue of insecurity in the labour market used to refer to subjective appraisals of the prospects of losing one's job, and data on this was regularly collected. In the 21st century, however, the term has increasingly come to signify concerns about the kinds of jobs available in the labour market, particularly casual, fixed-term and other types of non-permanent employment. The 1980s and early 1990s witnessed the strongest growth in casualisation, and much of this took place in industries with fluctuating consumer demand, such as retail trade and hospitality, and was largely confined to the part-time workforce. What characterised the late 1990s was the spread of casualisation into non-traditional areas, such as manufacturing, finance, transport and storage, and an increase in the incidence of *full-time casual* work, an employment category which had rarely featured in the 1980s.<sup>14</sup> During the 2000s, the overall rates of casualisation have remained largely static (see Table 1.6 below), though we have also seen the spread of other forms of insecure employment—often through labour market intermediaries such as labour hire—and continuing growth in casualisation among younger workers. The two key groups of workers who remain disproportionately represented in the casual workforce are those aged under 25, and women aged from 30 to 49 years. In the case of the former, many are students working part-time; in the case of the latter, many are parents working part-time.

Figures 1.14 and 1.15 show the growth in casualisation since 1992, broken down by age group and hours status. This definition of casuals is based on an ABS 'leave entitlements' framework and does not separate out fixed-term or temporary employment (see the Glossary for discussion of *casual*, *permanent* and *fixed-term*). Note that these panels use different scales, so visually comparing different age groups is only warranted where they share the same scale. The reason for these different scales is to elucidate the 'mix' of employment types among each age group and the patterns of change over time. Several aspects of these data are notable:

- ◁ among men aged from 30 to 59, full-time permanent employment is still the 'norm', and despite the downturn in recent years for some age groups, this form of employment remains largely dominant; part-time permanent employment barely features as a form of employment;
- ◁ by contrast, among women in this age range, the mix of forms of employment is diverse; while full-time permanent is dominant, both part-time permanent and part-time casual also feature significantly;
- ◁ among teenagers, part-time casual employment is totally dominant, particularly for women, and this pattern is being extended into the under 25 age group;

14. Between 1985 and 1994, the rate of casualisation across all industries grew from 16 percent to 23.7 percent, and then to 27.3 by 2000. See Ian Watson, John Buchanan, et al. 2003, *Fragmented Futures: New Challenges in Working Life*, Sydney: Federation Press, page, 69.

- ◁ the late 20s remains a period when full-time permanent employment begins to grow strongly (though this has stalled in recent years, particularly for men);
- ◁ the mature years, from 55 onwards, has seen a revival in employment levels among men, largely based on full-time permanent employment growing after a period of stagnation.<sup>15</sup>
- ◁ by contrast, among women in these mature years, the growth in employment has spanned all forms of employment, except for full-time casual. Both part-time permanent and part-time casual have grown strongly.

What do these patterns mean for parenting and caring? The absence of forms of employment among men which facilitate these roles—namely part-time permanent employment—suggests that they are poorly placed to contribute effectively in these areas without facing significant time pressures. This not only applies to parenting in the critical mid-life years, but also at the more mature stage of working life, when caring for ageing parents becomes an issue. On the other hand, the challenges faced by women in undertaking these responsibilities lies in avoiding part-time casual jobs when part-time permanent jobs may be required. Writing in 2004, Campbell and Charlesworth pointed to the dilemma which these data revealed:

Casual employment is particularly important for women ... 31.9 percent of female employees are casual. Other data suggest that the figure is even higher for women with children under 12 who are employees ... In short, casual employment is disproportionately made up of many people who have particularly strong needs for family-friendly benefits.<sup>16</sup>

Securing permanency in part-time work may not be enough when it comes to maintaining a livelihood. Underemployment is also an issue for part-time permanent workers. While it is certainly the case that insufficient hours of work are a major problem for part-time casual employees—48 percent report they want more hours of work—the HILDA data also show that one quarter of part-time permanent employees indicate that they want more hours of work.<sup>17</sup>

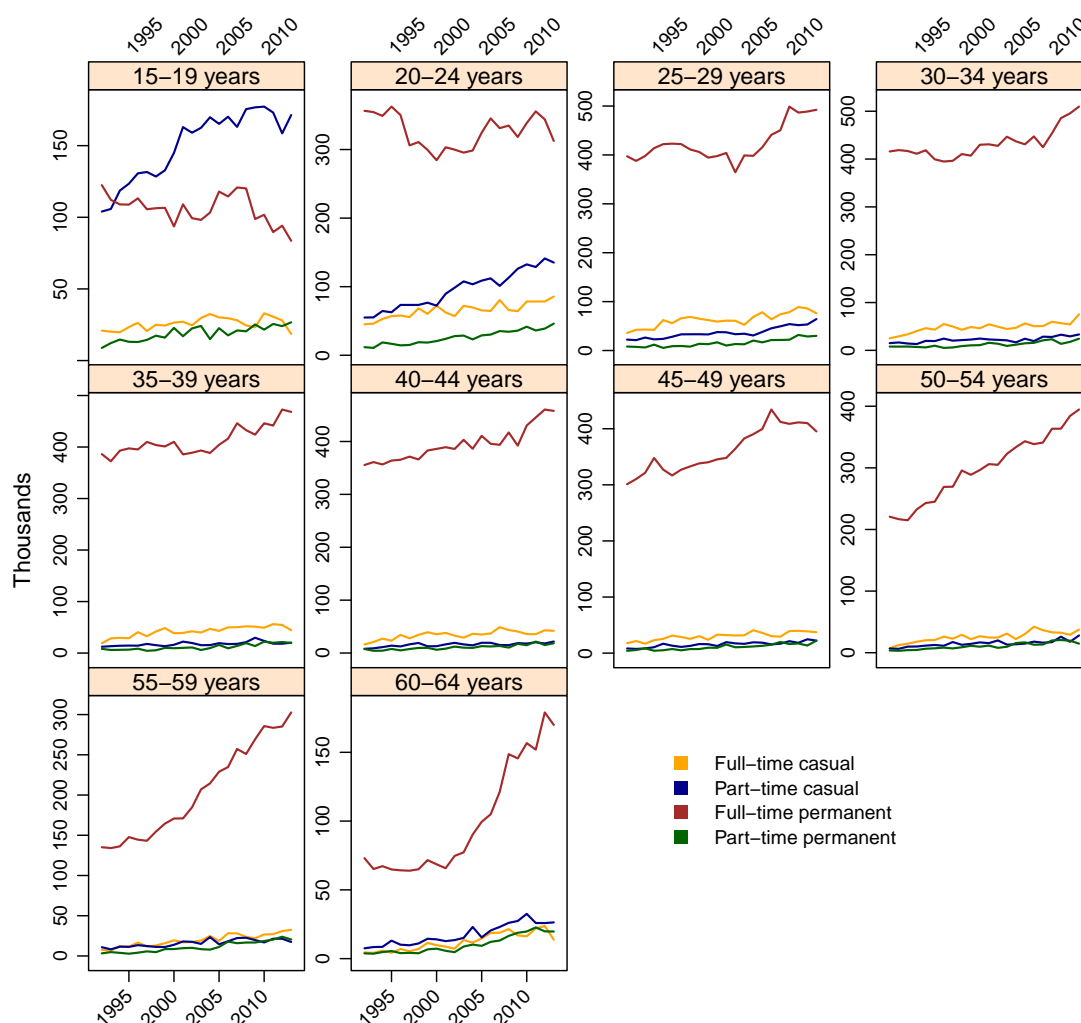
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15. Part of the reason for this is the 'baby boom' bulge moving through the workforce. Another reason is the delayed retirement by those who once might have taken early retirement but have suffered losses to their superannuation during the GFC.

16. Iain Campbell and Sara Charlesworth 2004, *Key Work and Family Trends in Australia*, Background Report, RMIT University: Centre for Applied Social Research, page 46.

17. Unpublished HILDA data for 2015.

**Figure 1.14: Male employees with and without leave entitlements, by age, Australia 1992 to 2013 (thousands)**

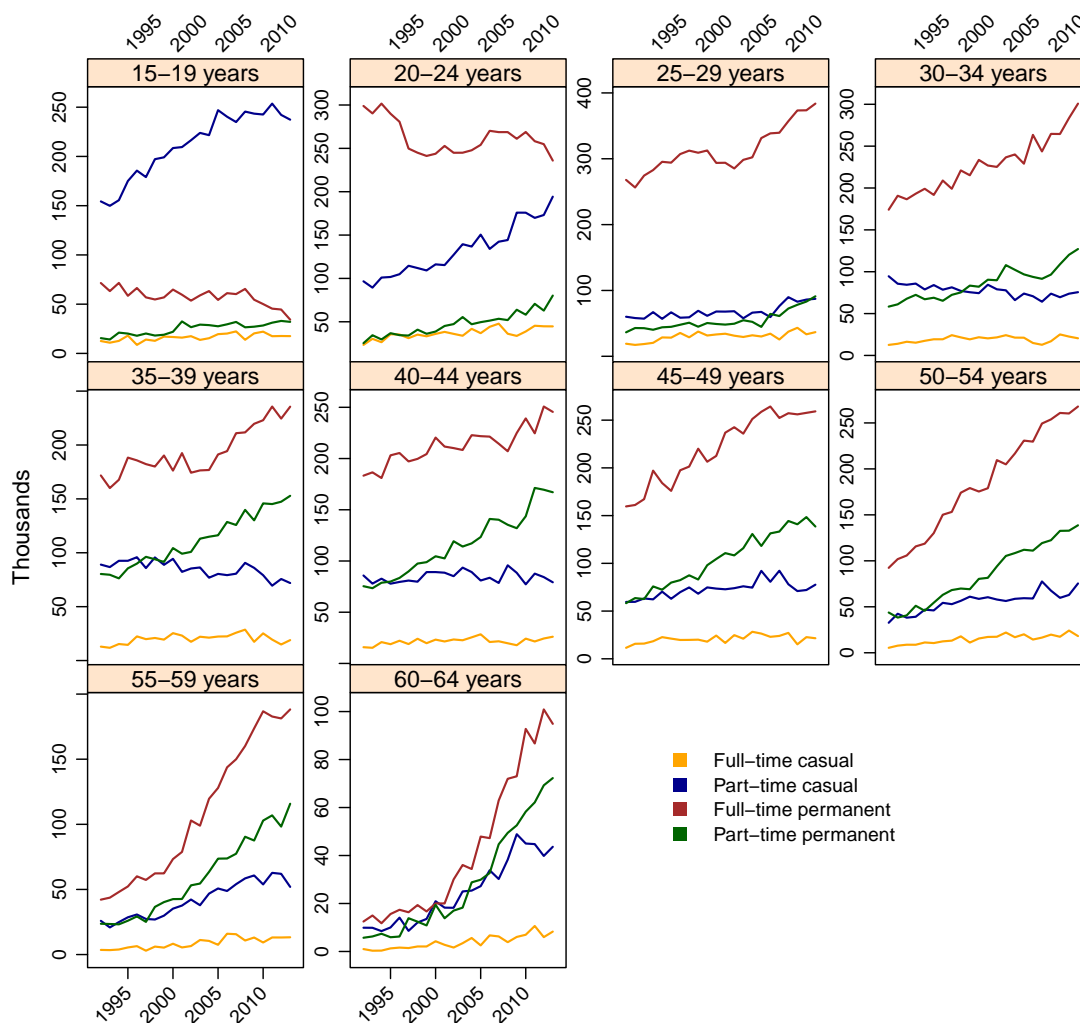


Source: ABS, Australian Labour Market Statistics, Cat. No. 6105.0. (61050TS0001\_201407 Employment type.xls).

Population: Employees (excludes owner managers of incorporated enterprises).

Notes: Each panel has its own y-axis scale so panels should not be visually compared unless they share the same scale.

**Figure 1.15: Female employees with and without leave entitlements, by age, Australia 1992 to 2013 (thousands)**



Source: ABS, Australian Labour Market Statistics, Cat. No. 6105.0. (61050TS0001\_201407 Employment type.xls).

Population: Employees (excludes owner managers of incorporated enterprises).

Notes: Each panel has its own y-axis scale so panels should not be visually compared unless they share the same scale.

**Table 1.6: Forms of employment, HILDA and ABS comparison, Australia 2001 to 2015**

Year	ABS definition			HILDA definition			
	Perma- nent	Casual	Total	Perma- nent	Casual	Fixed term	Total
2001	72	28	100	66	25	9	100
2002	72	28	100	65	25	10	100
2003	72	28	100	67	24	9	100
2004	73	27	100	67	24	8	100
2005	74	26	100	68	23	10	100
2006	74	26	100	68	23	9	100
2007	75	25	100	69	21	9	100
2008	76	24	100	70	21	9	100
2009	75	25	100	69	21	10	100
2010	76	24	100	68	21	11	100
2011	74	26	100	68	22	10	100
2012	74	26	100	68	22	10	100
2013	74	26	100	68	22	10	100
2014	74	26	100	67	23	10	100
2015	73	27	100	67	23	10	100

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Employees.

Returning to the issue of casualisation, Table 1.6 compares the ABS definition of casuals (based on leave entitlements) with those from HILDA (based on contract of employment).<sup>18</sup> It is clear that the ABS data understate the extent of insecurity by including a certain proportion of fixed-term, or temporary, workers within their permanent category.<sup>19</sup> These workers often have pro-rata leave entitlements, even though there is no ongoing certainty of employment. Workers who have that form of certainty, make up just two-thirds of the workforce, not the three quarters implied by the ABS data. While leave entitlements are an important workplace right, many of the other advantages attached to permanent employment—such as training and promotion opportunities—are less likely to be available to those workers who do not enjoy ongoing employment.

18. This comparison is possible because the HILDA survey codes the same respondents using both definitions. It also needs to be kept in mind that the HILDA survey's cross-sectional time series results are less robust than the equivalent data from the ABS. See the discussion of this issue in the appendix.

19. When the Australian Workplace Relations Study tabulated the forms of employment within the enterprises it surveyed, it included *all* fixed-term contract employees in the permanent category. Consequently, its estimates for casual employment—of between 21 and 23 percent—are considerably less than the ABS estimates. See Table 4.1, AWRS 2014, Workforce Profile survey. <https://www.fwc.gov.au/resources/research/australian-workplace-relations-study/first-findings-report/4-employment-practices/workforce-profile>. When one cross-tabulates the two definitions against each other for the HILDA data in 2015, some 18 percent of employees on fixed-term contracts are in the ABS 'casual' category.

## 2 FAMILIES: CARING AND PARENTING

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### INTRODUCTION

The concept of a [household](#) and a [family](#) are distinct, even though they are used interchangeably in everyday language. The former refers to the specific sharing of a *common dwelling* by people, who may or may not be related. A family, on the other hand, is defined by the *relationships* between the people. The ABS definitions, upon which the following data are based, are outlined in the Glossary. While these two categories are certainly distinct, the overlap between family and household is very high: around 96 percent of households are composed of one family households. Consequently, in everyday practice the interchangeable use of the terms ‘household’ and ‘family’ is not unreasonable. This can also be useful when a particular data source only provides information on one of these categories. We can infer that the patterns in such data are likely to apply to the other category as well.

Much of the data in this chapter is based on demographic sources, namely ABS publications which are derived from the Census and from population projections based on the Census. The main limitation of this source is that the most recently published Census data is for 2011 (with 2016 Census data not due for publication until the second half of 2017). Projections of one or two years from the date of the Census are usually reliable, and for this reason, data for 2012 is reported below. However, the most recent data on families comes from the ABS Labour Force Survey, the same data source used extensively in the last chapter. This source of data is more up-to-date, but as a household survey, it is subject to the usual limitations which sample surveys suffer. Sampling error (sampling variability) mainly surfaces as a restriction on drawing inferences from small changes, as well as a need for greater caution when using estimates from small subgroups. For these reasons, the counts in the different tables in this chapter may not always match, but the percentages are usually very close. The notes for each table indicate which source has been used. Any differences between definitions are also discussed in the table notes, though most ABS published data uses the same conceptual framework and the same definitions (which are shown in the Glossary for this report).

Most of the commentary in this chapter is based on households or families as the [unit of analysis](#), but some tables report data on individuals. The notes at the bottom of each table indicate the relevant unit of analysis whenever appropriate.

## 2.1 HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

### 2.1.1 Households

In 2012 the total number of households in Australia was 8,890 thousand. The composition of these households, and comparisons with 2007, are shown in [Table 2.1](#). More recent detailed data will only become available in the second half of 2017 with the publication of 2016 Census data. Other sources of data include population *projections*, which are based on the 2011 Census. In 2016 the total number of households in Australia was estimated to number 9,241.5 thousand. The projected total number of *family households* for 2017 is 6,696 thousand.<sup>20</sup> This number compares with a figure of 6,553 for 2012, as shown in [Table 2.1](#).

As the projections move further away from the 2011 Census, their usefulness diminishes. Consequently, the most useful comparison is between the 2007 and 2012 data, shown in [Table 2.1](#). One-family households remained the largest category of household types, and they increased by 12 percent in number between 2007 and 2012 to make up 72 percent of all household types. While the largest increases in household categories was a 56 percent increase in multi-family households, these households remained the smallest proportion of all households and made up just 2 percent of all households. Among non-family households, the lone person category was the largest and grew by 4 percent during this period. Their share of the overall distribution, however, dropped by 2 percentage points, from 25 to 23 percent of all households.

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20. Households from ABS, *Australian Demographic Statistics*, September Quarter 2016, Cat. No. 3101.0, table 18 and ABS, *Household and Family Projections*, Australia, 2011 to 2036, Cat. No. 3236.0, Table 4.1.; and family households from ABS, *Household and Family Projections*, Australia, 2011 to 2036, Cat. No. 3236.0, Table 4.1

**Table 2.1: Household composition, Australia 2007 and 2012**

Category	Counts (thousands)				Proportions		
	2007	2012	Change	% ch	2007	2012	% pt ch
<b>Family households</b>							
One family households	5,719	6,413	694	12	71	72	1
Multi-family households	91	142	51	56	1	2	1
Total family households	5,810	6,553	743	13	72	74	2
<b>Non-family households</b>							
Lone person households	1,999	2,071	72	4	25	23	-2
Group households	262	267	5	2	3	3	0
Total non-family households	2,261	2,336	75	3	28	26	-2
<b>Total households</b>	8,071	8,890	819	10	100	100	0

ABS, Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13, Cat. No. 44420DO001\_20122013 (44420do001.xls).  
Notes: % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years; % pt ch is percentage point change in the proportions.

### 2.1.2 Families

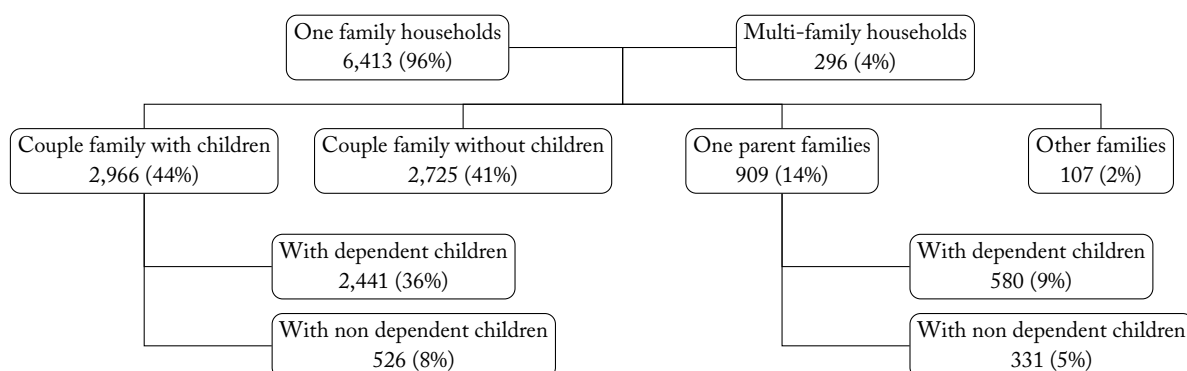
In 2012 the total number of *families* in Australia was 6,705 thousand. The composition of these families, and comparisons with 2007, are shown in Table 2.2 and the taxonomy which lies behind these data is shown in Figure 2.1.<sup>21</sup> Again, more recent detailed data will only become available in the second half of 2017, when 2016 Census data are published. Population projections estimate that the total number of families in Australia in 2016 was 6,737 thousand. Couple families with children numbering 2,925.5 thousand, couple families without children numbering 2,614.5 thousand and one-parent families numbering 1,076.7 thousand. Among the latter, female parents made up the largest number by far (at 888.1 thousand).<sup>22</sup>

As with the household data, the analysis of change among families is also for the period from 2007 to 2012 (see Table 2.2). In 2012 couple families with children were the largest family type, at 44 percent while couple families without children were close behind at 41 percent. One-parent families made up 14 percent. In terms of changes, couple families without children grew in number by 15 percent, while the other two family types grew by 12 percent. The 'other families' category grew the most (at 32 percent) but they remained the smallest family type (at just 2 per cent).

21. For ease of comparison the categories in the upper layers of Figure 2.1 are bolded in Table 2.2.

22. Series I projections from Family Projections in ABS, *Household and Family Projections*, Australia, 2011 to 2036, Cat. No. 3236.0.



**Figure 2.1: Taxonomy for families, Australia 2012**

Source: ABS, Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13, Cat. No. 44420DO001\_20122013 (44420do001.xls).

Notes: the figures shown are thousands of families (with percentage distribution across total families shown in brackets).

**Table 2.2: Families, Australia 2007 and 2012**

Category	Counts (thousands)				Proportions		
	2007	2012	Change	% ch	2007	2012	% pt ch
Families							
<b>In one family households</b>	5,719	6,413	694	12	97	96	-1
<b>In multi-family households</b>	185	296	111	60	3	4	1
Family composition							
<b>Couple families without children</b>	2,369	2,725	356	15	40	41	1
Couple families with children							
with dependent children	2,177	2,441	264	12	37	36	-1
with non-dependent children only	471	526	55	12	8	8	0
<b>Total couple families with children</b>	2,647	2,966	319	12	45	44	-1
One parent families							
with dependent children	534	580	46	9	9	9	0
with non-dependent children only	274	331	57	21	5	5	0
<b>Total one parent families</b>	808	909	101	12	14	14	0
<b>Other families</b>	81	107	26	32	1	2	1
Total families	5,905	6,705	800	14	100	100	0

ABS, Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13, Cat. No. 44420DO001\_20122013 (44420do001.xls).  
Notes: % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years; % pt ch is percentage point change in the proportions.

Table 2.3 reproduces the information on family type, but with different definitions and with Labour Force Survey data from 2016. In this table, dependants within families are defined as both children (aged under 15) and other dependants. Couple families make up 84 percent of all families while one parent families make up a further 14 per cent. Within couple families, those with dependants make up 44 percent, and 37 percent of all families. In the case of

one parent families, those with dependants make up a larger proportion, at 65 percent, though their proportion of all families is much smaller, at 9 per cent. In the period between 2012 and 2016, couple families grew at a slightly faster rate than one parent families. It was, however, within one parents families that the highest growth rates could be observed, and this was for one parent families without dependants. Despite the slight differences in definition, these data are largely in accord with the data discussed above.

**Table 2.3: Families by family type, Australia 2012 and 2016**

Category	Counts (thousands)				Proportions	
	2012	2016	Change	% ch	Within	Across
Couple families						
With dependants	2,362.5	2,520.7	158.2	6.7	44.4	37.4
Without dependants	2,973.2	3,155.8	182.6	6.1	55.6	46.8
Total	5,335.7	5,676.5	340.8	6.4	100.0	84.2
One parent families						
With dependants	609.1	618.9	9.8	1.6	65.2	9.2
Without dependants	303.1	330.0	26.9	8.9	34.8	4.9
Total	912.2	948.8	36.6	4.0	100.0	14.1
Other Families	95.9	120.3	24.4	25.4		1.8
<b>All families</b>	<b>6,343.8</b>	<b>6,745.6</b>	<b>401.8</b>	<b>6.3</b>		

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do001\_201606.xls)

Notes: Population is families, but note that dependants consist of children under 15 as well as other dependants. % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years. Within proportions show breakdown within couple and one parent households and across proportions show each row's proportion of the total.

### 2.1.3 People in households and children in families

The unit of analysis in the discussion above was the household and the family. Here I look at the people within those households and the children within those families. Table 2.4 shows the former and Table 2.5 shows the latter. People overwhelmingly live in one family households (85 percent), with the remainder split between lone person households, group households and multi-family households. While the latter category has grown strongly, increasing by two-thirds between 2007 and 2012, people living in multi-family households remain a very small segment of the population.

While the earlier discussion showed that lone person households make up nearly one quarter of all households, the people living in them only constituted 9 percent of the population. The growth in these households has lagged behind both household growth and population growth. Lone person households are divided evenly between men and women.

**Table 2.4: Persons living in households, Australia 2007 and 2012**

Category	Counts (thousands)				Proportions		
	2007	2012	Change	% ch	2007	2012	% pt ch
In one family hholds	17,200.0	19,324.0	2,124.0	12.3	85.0	85.0	0.0
In multi-family hholds	486.0	811.0	325.0	66.9	2.0	4.0	2.0
In lone person hholds	1,999.0	2,068.0	69.0	3.5	10.0	9.0	-1.0
women living alone	1,033.0	1,068.0	35.0	3.4	5.0	5.0	0.0
men living alone	966.0	1,000.0	34.0	3.5	5.0	4.0	-1.0
In group hholds	599.0	616.0	17.0	2.8	3.0	3.0	0.0
Total persons	20,284.0	22,819.0	2,535.0	12.5	100.0	100.0	0.0

ABS, Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13, Cat. No. 44420DO001\_20122013 (44420do001.xls).  
 Notes: 'hhold' = households. % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years; % pt ch is percentage point change in the proportions.

In the case of children (aged 0 to 17) living within families, some three quarters are found in 'intact families', with the remainder in either one parent families (18 percent) or 'step or blended families' (8 per cent). The overwhelmingly situation among the one parent families is for a natural parent of the child(ren) to live elsewhere, rather than there being no other natural parent. This differs from 'step or blended families' where nearly 40 percent of children have no natural parent elsewhere. In other words, many of these families reflect family re-formation after the death of a parent.

**Table 2.5: Children living in families, Australia 2007 and 2012**

Category	Counts (thousands)				Proportions		
	2007	2012	Change	% ch	2007	2012	% pt ch
<b>In intact families</b>	3,484.0	3,815.0	331.0	9.5	73.0	74.0	1.0
In step or blended families							
with a nat parent elsewhere	229.0	242.0	13.0	5.7	5.0	5.0	0.0
with no nat parent elsewhere	162.0	160.0	-2.0	-1.2	3.0	3.0	0.0
<b>Total in step or blend fam</b>	390.0	401.0	11.0	2.8	8.0	8.0	0.0
In one parent families							
with a nat parent elsewhere	780.0	828.0	48.0	6.2	16.0	16.0	0.0
with no nat parent elsewhere	76.0	105.0	29.0	38.2	2.0	2.0	0.0
<b>Total in one parent fam</b>	855.0	935.0	80.0	9.4	18.0	18.0	0.0
<b>Total children</b>	4,753.0	5,183.0	430.0	9.0	100.0	100.0	0.0

ABS, Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13, Cat. No. 44420DO001\_20122013 (44420do001.xls).  
 Notes: Population is children aged 0 to 17 years.  
 'nat' = natural; 'fam' = family; 'blend' = blended. % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years; % pt ch is percentage point change in the proportions.

Another perspective on children within families is provided by the ABS Labour Force Survey data, which provides an age-group breakdown among dependent children, as well as identifying dependent students aged 15 to 24. These data

are presented in Table 2.6 and show that families with dependants number just over 3 million, with nearly 6 million dependants living in those families. The majority of these families are couple families (2.5 million) with nearly 5 million dependants. One parent families number just over 600 thousand and have responsibility for just over a million dependants.

The majority of these dependants are children aged 0 to 14 and they are almost evenly split across the three age brackets: 0 to 4 year olds, 5 to 9 year olds and 10 to 14 year olds. The profile of one parent families differs slightly, with a smaller proportion of 0 to 4 year olds and a higher proportion of children in the 10 to 14 year age range.

**Table 2.6: Children and dependants in families, Australia 2016**

Category	Dependants (children and students)						Families
	Aged 0-4	Aged 5-9	Aged 10-14	Total 0-14	Aged 15-24	Total dep	
Counts (thousands)							
Couple families	1,340.5	1,242.0	1,130.4	3,712.9	1,102.8	4,815.7	2,520.7
One parent families	211.9	287.0	304.5	803.5	270.3	1,073.8	618.9
All families	1,552.5	1,529.0	1,435.0	4,516.4	1,373.1	5,889.5	3,139.5
Percentages							
Couple families	36.1	33.5	30.4	100.0			
One parent families	26.4	35.7	37.9	100.0			
All families	34.4	33.9	31.8	100.0			

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do005\_201606.xls).

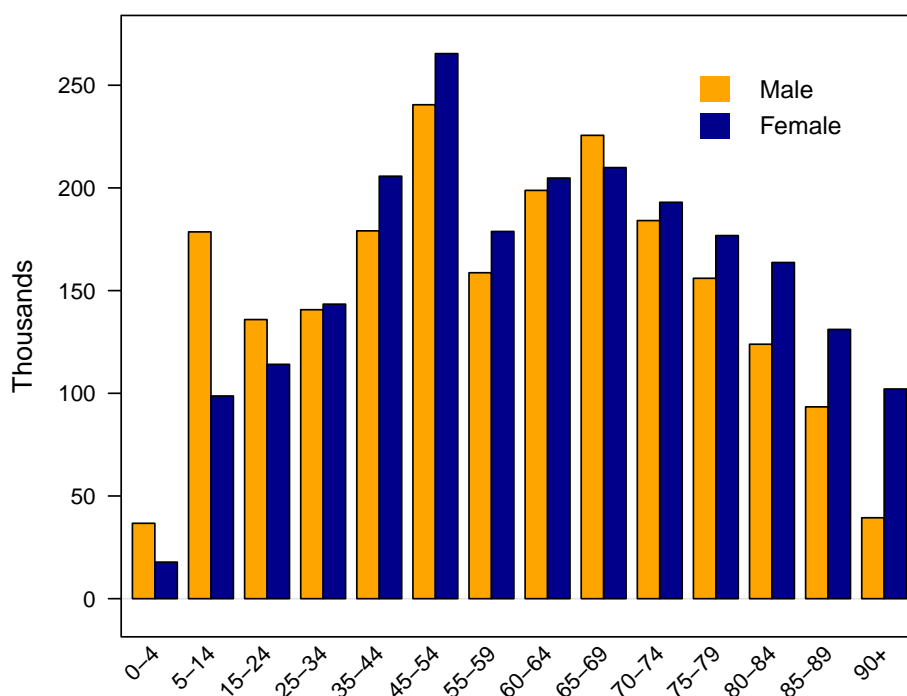
Notes: Category Age 15–24 are dependant students. Counts for children and dependants are person counts; families is a count of families. dep=dependants.

## 2.2 PERSONS WITH A DISABILITY

The age distribution for [persons with a disability](#) in 2015 is shown in Figure 2.2 and how this has changed is shown in Figure 2.3. As Figure 2.2 shows, among both males and females, those aged 45 to 54 constitute the largest group. The numbers fall away steadily, and almost symmetrically on both sides of this age group, with several interesting exceptions. There is a large grouping of males in the age group 5 to 14, and there is a decline, followed by a rise, in the numbers of males and females in the age range from 55 to 69.<sup>23</sup>

23. While the first exception is dramatic, the latter could to some extent be an artefact of the binning of the data, that is, the cut-points used to produce the age groups.

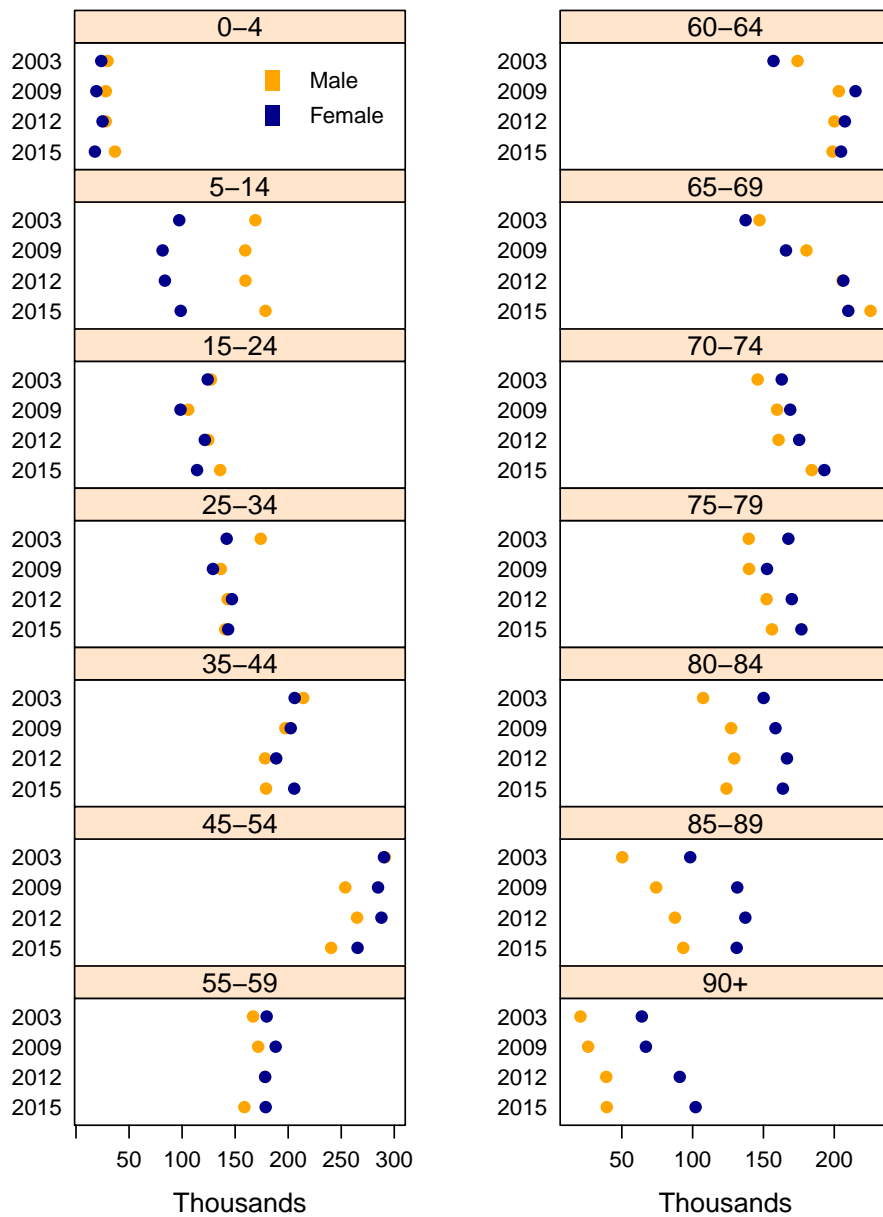
**Figure 2.2: Persons with a disability by age and sex, Australia 2015**



Source: ABS, Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 2015, Cat. No. 44300DO020\_2015, Table 1.2. (44300DO020.xls).

As with the general population, the population of persons with a disability has been ageing, but the gender differences among the latter are noteworthy. The range of dates in Figure 2.3 (2003 to 2015) shows the changing age profile of persons with a disability. Among males, the number of younger people has been relatively stable since 2003, those aged between 25 and 54 has been falling since 2003, and the number of those aged over 65 has been rising. Among females, the age profile has been stable since 2003 for those aged under 45. For those aged 45 to 54, the numbers have been falling, while for those aged over 60 the numbers for all age subgroups have been rising.

**Figure 2.3: Persons with a disability by age and sex, Australia 2003 to 2015**



Source: ABS, Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 2015, Cat. No. 44300DO020\_2015, Table 1.2 (44300DO020.xls).

### 2.3 GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF HOUSEHOLDS

The geographical distribution of households is shown in Table 2.7. By 2016 New South Wales remained the state with the largest number of households, followed by Victoria and Queensland. These three states accounted for three quarters of all households in Australia. Since 2011, Victoria and Queensland have both grown at a faster rate than New South Wales, though the greatest rate of increase was in Western Australia where the increase of 17 percent was considerably higher than the national average of 9.8 percent.

**Table 2.7: Distribution of households across states, Australia 2011 and 2016**

State	Counts (thousands)				Proportions		
	2011	2016	Change	% ch	2011	2016	% pt ch
New South Wales	2,689.5	2,889.9	200.4	7.4	31.9	31.3	-0.7
Victoria	2,098.8	2,310.6	211.8	10.1	24.9	25.0	0.1
Queensland	1,679.0	1,868.1	189.1	11.3	19.9	20.2	0.3
South Australia	660.5	701.5	41.1	6.2	7.8	7.6	-0.3
Western Australia	874.1	1,023.0	148.9	17.0	10.4	11.1	0.7
Tasmania	207.5	215.7	8.1	3.9	2.5	2.3	-0.1
Northern Territory	70.7	78.2	7.5	10.5	0.8	0.8	0.0
Australian Capital Territory	139.1	153.7	14.6	10.5	1.7	1.7	0.0
Australia	8,420.0	9,241.5	821.5	9.8	100.0	100.0	0.0

Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Sep 2016, Table 18 (31010do001\_201609.xls).

Notes: % ch is percentage change in counts between the two years; % pt ch is percentage point change in the proportions.

Table 2.8 shows that within most states of Australia, households are concentrated in the capital cities. The states of Victoria, South Australia and Western Australia are the most heavily urbanised (ranging from 74 to 79 percent) while Queensland and Tasmania are the least urbanised (at 47 and 43 percent). In the largest state, New South Wales, some 62 percent of households live in the capital city.

**Table 2.8: Distribution of households within states, Australia 2016 (thousands)**

<i>State</i>	<i>Remainder state</i>	<i>Capital city</i>	<i>Percentage in city</i>
New South Wales	1,089.2	1,800.7	62.3
Victoria	595.9	1,714.7	74.2
Queensland	989.1	879.1	47.1
South Australia	164.2	537.4	76.6
Western Australia	211.7	811.4	79.3
Tasmania	123.9	91.8	42.6
Northern Territory	28.5	49.6	63.5

Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Sep 2016, Table 18 (31010do001\_201609.xls).

Notes: Counts are in thousands, Percentage column shows proportion within the state that live in the capital city.

When it comes to families, the distribution of each family type across the states of Australia differs very little (see Table 2.9). Apart from the 'other' category (where the numbers are quite small), only one parent families show any departure from the overall pattern: their location in New South Wales is slightly higher, and in Western Australia, slightly lower, than the all-Australia averages.

**Table 2.9: Distribution of families across states, Australia 2016**

<i>State</i>	<i>Counts (thousands)</i>				<i>Proportions</i>			
	<i>All</i>	<i>Couple</i>	<i>One parent</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>All</i>	<i>Couple</i>	<i>One parent</i>	<i>Other</i>
NSW	2,149.4	1,805.3	307.8	36.3	31.9	31.8	32.4	30.2
Vic	1,686.6	1,422.6	229.9	34.1	25.0	25.1	24.2	28.3
Qld	1,375.6	1,153.3	202.9	19.4	20.4	20.3	21.4	16.1
SA	484.8	404.4	73.1	7.3	7.2	7.1	7.7	6.1
WA	728.6	619.4	91.1	18.1	10.8	10.9	9.6	15.0
Tas	148.5	123.1	23.4	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.5	1.6
NT	59.7	51.0	6.9	1.8	0.9	0.9	0.7	1.5
ACT	112.5	97.4	13.7	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2
Aust	6,745.6	5,676.5	948.8	120.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do002\_201606.xls)



## 3 FAMILY FRIENDLY WORKING ARRANGEMENTS

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### INTRODUCTION

This chapter brings together the intersection of the two previous chapters: the overlaps between the labour force, paid work and the household and family, with a particular emphasis on parenting and caring. The main theme is whether working arrangements facilitate employees combining their paid work and their unpaid parenting and caring responsibilities. The concept of family friendly working arrangements highlights those aspects of the labour market or the workplace where work life balance around these responsibilities is successful. The absence of such arrangements may result in such a balance being undermined and people's family lives and working lives may suffer as a result.

The data used in this chapter is based on ABS surveys and the HILDA survey. The former collects information on family characteristics and employment, on carers, and on childcare arrangements. These all shed light on this intersection between the labour force and the family. In most cases, the unit of analysis is the person—usually the employed person—but in some cases, the unit of analysis is the family. In the case of the HILDA survey, the unit of analysis is the person—often employees—and their location within families and households is incorporated into the analysis.

In a number of cases, direct comparisons are possible between these two data sources, and the results confirm the reliability of the HILDA estimates for the cross-sectional analysis used in this chapter.<sup>24</sup> Moreover, the trends which are evident in the ABS data also surface in the HILDA data, further strengthening the reliability of the patterns observed.

### 3.1 FAMILIES IN THE LABOUR FORCE

In this section I focus on the labour force characteristics of families using data which are collected in the June monthly Labour Force Survey. The advantage of this data is its recency and its source in the flagship ABS household survey. The population here is *employed persons*, rather than *employees*, but as a later section

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24. See the discussion of the issue of using HILDA for cross-sectional analysis in the appendix.

will show, the overlap between the two categories is very high. As mentioned earlier, all survey data is subject to sampling error and caution is warranted in drawing conclusions about trends over time and differences between small subgroups.

### 3.1.1 Couple families: labour force status

In 2016 there were about 5.6 million families living as couple families and nearly one million one parent families. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show the labour force status of these two types of families. Labour force status here is defined as **employed**, **unemployed** and **not in the labour force** (abbreviated to NILF).

In the case of couple families, these tables cross-tabulate the labour force status of each partner, allowing us to quantify the various combinations of labour forces status to be found within families.<sup>25</sup>

**Table 3.1: Couple families by labour force status, Australia 2016  
(thousands)**

<i>Husband/partner LFS</i>	<i>Wife/partner labour force status</i>				<i>Total</i>
	<i>Em- ployed</i>	<i>Unem- ployed</i>	<i>NILF</i>	<i>Not det</i>	
Employed	3,038.8	99.7	883.0	15.3	4,036.8
Unemployed	68.9	15.8	30.6	0.3	115.7
NILF	274.1	14.2	1,141.5	4.0	1,433.8
Not determined	35.7	1.7	17.8	34.9	90.1
Total	3,417.6	131.5	2,072.9	54.6	5,676.5

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do003\_201606.xls).

Notes: LFS=Labour Force Status; NILF=not in the labour force; Not det=Not determined.

25. The ABS uses the language of husband/partner and wife/partner and I also adopt this terminology. These are very broad categories and include defacto relationships and same-sex relationships.

**Table 3.2: Couple families by labour force status, Australia 2016  
(percentages)**

<i>Husband/partner LFS</i>	<i>Wife/partner labour force status</i>				<i>Total</i>
	<i>Em- ployed</i>	<i>Unem- ployed</i>	<i>NILF</i>	<i>Not det</i>	
Employed	53.5	1.8	15.6	0.3	71.1
Unemployed	1.2	0.3	0.5	0.0	2.0
NILF	4.8	0.3	20.1	0.1	25.3
Not determined	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.6	1.6
Total	60.2	2.3	36.5	1.0	100.0

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do003\_201606.xls).

Notes: LFS=Labour Force Status; NILF=not in the labour force; Not det=Not determined.

In the case of couple families, three combinations of labour force status dominate:

- ◁ families where the husband/partner is employed and the wife/partner is also employed: these make up 53.5 percent of all families;
- ◁ families where the husband/partner is employed and the wife/partner is not in the labour force: these make up 15.6 percent of all families;
- ◁ families where the husband/partner is not in the labour force and the wife/partner is also not in the labour force: these make up 20.1 percent of all families.

The combination most likely to reverse the traditional ‘breadwinner’ family combination—namely where the wife/partner works and the husband/partner is not in the labour force—make up only 4.8 percent of these couple families. It needs to be kept in mind that these figures include families with retired couples, as well as families with no dependants.

Turning to the HILDA survey allows us to take a closer look by making use of important sub-categories: couples of working-age and couple of working-age with and without dependants aged under 15. These results are shown in Table 3.3 with each of the sub-categories shown as panels. A comparison of the top panel in this table with the ABS data in Table 3.2 suggests the HILDA data is quite robust in this context.

The most interesting features of Table 3.3 are:

- ◁ restricting the sample to working-age couples (that is, both partners aged under 65) sees the combination of employed/employed rise to nearly 66 percent and the NILF/NILF combination drop to just under 5 percent. The

respective figures for all couple families (shown in Table 3.2) were 53 percent and 20 percent.

- ◁ situations where the husband was working, but his partner was no longer in the labour force, were comparable between the first two panels.
- ◁ the absence of dependent children under 15 for these working age couples saw a small increase in the employed/employed combination (to 70 percent) and a drop in the NILF categories for women (but a small increase for men).
- ◁ the final category—where working-age couples are responsible for dependent children under 15—sees the lowest employed/employed combination amongst working-wage couples, at 62 percent; in this category we also find the highest level of NILF by women, and the lowest level by men.

**Table 3.3: Broad labour force status combinations within couple families, Australia, 2015 (percentages)**

<i>Husband/partner LFS</i>	<i>Wife/partner labour force status</i>			<i>Total</i>
	<i>Employed</i>	<i>Unem- ployed</i>	<i>NILF</i>	
<b>COUPLE FAMILIES</b>				
Employed	52.7	1.8	17.1	71.6
Unemployed	1.3	0.2	0.7	2.2
NILF	6.1	0.3	19.9	26.3
Total	60.0	2.3	37.7	100.0
<b>WORKING AGE COUPLE FAMILIES</b>				
Employed	65.8	2.3	19.0	87.1
Unemployed	1.6	0.3	0.8	2.8
NILF	5.2	0.3	4.6	10.1
Total	72.7	2.9	24.4	100.0
<b>WK AGE COUPLE FAM WITH NO DEP CHILD</b>				
Employed	68.9	2.4	12.6	83.9
Unemployed	1.6	0.4	0.3	2.4
NILF	7.1	0.4	6.2	13.7
Total	77.6	3.3	19.2	100.0
<b>WK AGE COUPLE FAM WITH DEP CHILD</b>				
Employed	62.5	2.2	25.9	90.7
Unemployed	1.7	0.2	1.4	3.2
NILF	3.1	0.2	2.7	6.1
Total	67.4	2.6	30.1	100.0

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Husbands in couple families, cross-tabulated against wife's labour force status. Note that population includes same-sex couples and terminology of 'husband' and 'wife' is equivalent to 'partners' and is used for comparability with ABS terminology.

Note: Dep child=dependent children. Wk age = working age (ie. both partners under 65). NILF=not in the labour force.

While these broad labour force status categories are useful, the best insights are found by breaking down employment into full-time and part-time, and the NILF category into those who are *marginally attached* and those who are not. Marginal attachment to the labour force can indicate the person does wish to undertake employment, but is not actively seeking work because of the unavailability of childcare.

**Table 3.4: Detailed labour force status combinations within couple families, Australia, 2015 (percentages)**

Husband/partner LFS	Wife/partner labour force status						Total
	Emp FT	Emp PT	Un-emp FT	Un-emp PT	NILF marg	NILF	
WK AGE COUPLE FAM WITH NO DEP CHILD							
Emp FT	36.6	23.2	1.6	0.6	3.1	7.2	72.2
Emp PT	5.2	3.9	0.1	0.2	0.9	1.4	11.6
Unemp FT	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	1.8
Unemp PT	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6
NILF marg	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.9	3.4
NILF	2.4	2.8	0.0	0.1	0.4	4.6	10.3
Total	46.3	31.2	2.3	1.0	5.0	14.2	100.0
WK AGE COUPLE FAM WITH DEP CHILD							
Emp FT	24.2	34.5	0.9	1.1	7.6	16.2	84.5
Emp PT	1.3	2.5	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.5	6.2
Unemp FT	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.8	2.8
Unemp PT	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4
NILF marg	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.8	1.9
NILF	1.4	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.6	4.1
Total	28.4	39.0	1.3	1.3	9.0	21.0	100.0

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Husbands in couple families, cross-tabulated against wife's labour force status. Note that population includes same-sex couples and terminology of 'husband' and 'wife' is equivalent to 'partners' and is used for comparability with ABS terminology.

Note: Dep child=dependent children. Wk age = working age (ie. both partners under 65). Emp FT=employed full-time; Emp PT employed part-time; Unemp FT=unemployed and looking for full-time work; Unemp PT=unemployed and looking for part-time work; NILF marg=not in the labour force, marginally attached; NILF=not in the labour force, not marginally attached.

Table 3.4 shows a similar tabulation to that of the last two panels in Table 3.3 with these finer distinctions drawn. Several key differences between working-age couples without (top panel) and with (bottom panel) dependent children emerge. Comparing those with children to those without we find:

- ◁ a considerably smaller proportion of those with dependent children in full-time work—29 percent to 46 percent—and a greater proportion in part-time work—38 percent to 32 percent.

- ◁ a notable increase in the proportion of wives not in the labour force—30 percent to 19 percent. But within this pattern an important contrast with regards to marginal attachment: those with dependent children are twice as likely to be in this category than those without.
- ◁ the combinations with the husband's status also differed: among couples with dependent children where the husband was employed full-time, only 24 percent of wives worked full-time but among couples without dependent children the comparable figure was 33 per cent.
- ◁ for the husband, there were also differences according to the presence of children: among couples with dependent children a greater proportion of husbands worked full-time—83 to 73 percent.

**Table 3.5: Couple families by detailed hours of work, Australia, 2015  
(percentages)**

Husband/partner hours	Wife/partner hours of work						Total
	1-15	16-24	25-34	35-40	41-49	50+	
<b>NO DEP CHILDREN</b>							
1 to 15	1.2	0.6	0.4	1.5	0.2	0.3	4.2
16 to 24	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.2	0.3	0.5	4.4
25 to 34	1.3	0.6	1.5	2.4	0.7	0.7	7.2
35 to 40	2.8	4.4	7.8	20.3	3.1	3.0	41.6
41 to 49	1.7	1.9	2.3	7.2	1.8	1.4	16.2
50 or more	3.2	2.7	5.7	8.7	2.4	3.7	26.4
Total	11.0	11.1	18.4	41.4	8.5	9.7	100.0
<b>DEP CHILDREN</b>							
1 to 15	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.8
16 to 24	0.1	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.1	1.5
25 to 34	1.1	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.1	0.4	3.9
35 to 40	5.3	9.0	9.1	10.3	2.9	2.4	39.0
41 to 49	3.2	4.9	4.3	6.5	1.3	2.1	22.4
50 or more	6.8	5.5	6.7	8.8	2.6	2.0	32.5
Total	16.8	21.0	21.3	26.8	7.1	7.0	100.0

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Couples where both partners employed.

Before moving on to look at one parent families, it is worth taking a closer look at the pattern of hours worked by employed couples. Table 3.5 compares the two family groupings—those with dependent children and those without—and cross-tabulates the hours of each partner. Several key findings emerge:

- ◁ In couple families with dependent children the husband/partner is more likely to be working longer hours and the wife/partner is more likely to be working shorter hours:

- 54 percent of these husbands work more than 40 hours, compared with 43 percent of husbands in couple families without dependent children;
  - 37 percent of these wives work less than 25 hours, compared with 23 percent of wives in couple families without dependent children.
- ◁ The most common combination for couple families *without* dependent children is both partners working 35 to 40 hours: a figure of 20 percent. By contrast, in couple families *with* dependent children this combination is also the most common, but the figure is just 10 percent.
- ◁ In other words, there is a much greater dispersal of working hour combinations in couple families with dependent children.

### 3.1.2 One parent families: labour force status

In the case of one parent families, just over half (52.5 percent) of these parents are employed, another 6 percent are looking for work, and nearly 40 percent are not in the labour force (see Table 3.6). Sole fathers are more likely to be employed than sole mothers, and sole mothers are more likely to be outside the labour force than sole fathers.

During the last fifteen years this gender difference among sole parents has been weakening. As Figure 3.1 shows, full-time employment among male sole parents has been falling, while full-time employment among female sole parents has been rising. Part of this fall for men is reflected in an increase in unemployed male sole parents looking for full-time work, an increase which seems to have emerged since the GFC.<sup>26</sup>

**Table 3.6: One parent families by labour force status, Australia 2016**

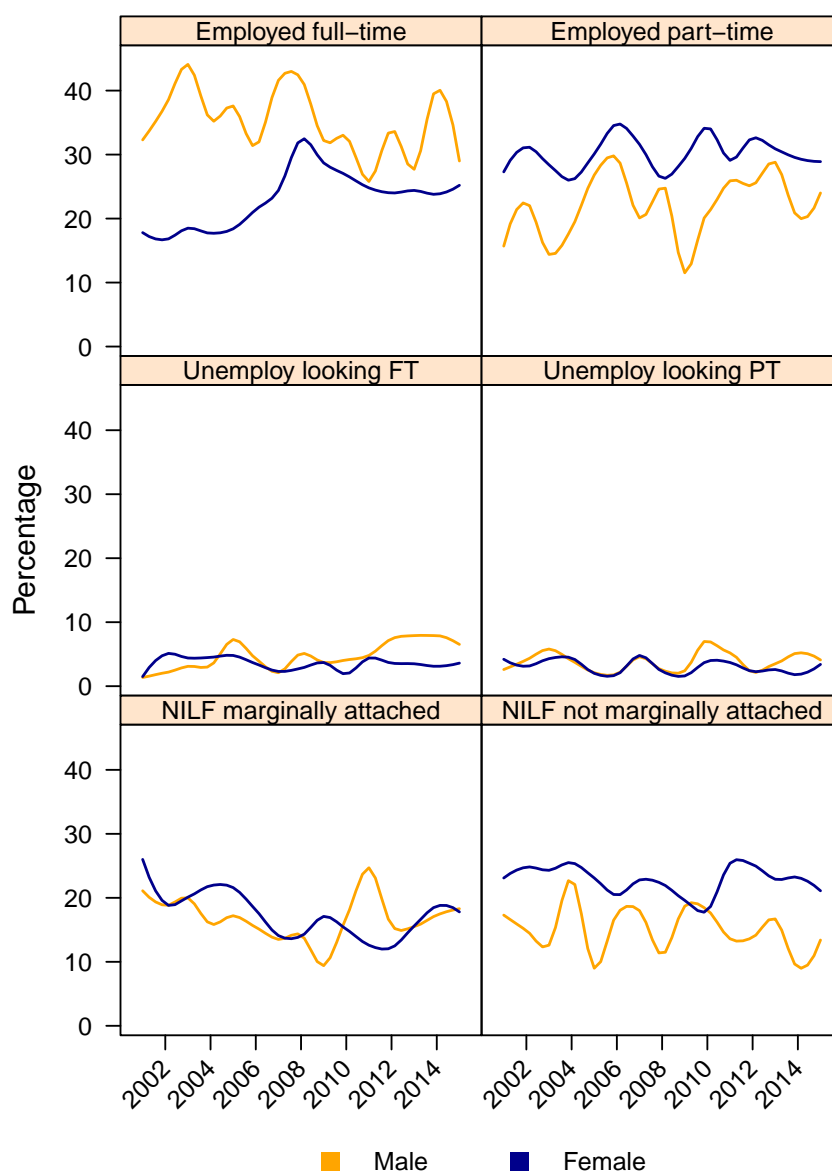
<i>Labour force status</i>	<i>Counts (thousands)</i>			<i>Proportions</i>		
	<i>Single mother</i>	<i>Single father</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Single mother</i>	<i>Single father</i>	<i>Total</i>
Employed	384.7	113.2	497.8	50.3	61.5	52.5
Unemployed	50.3	8.0	58.3	6.6	4.3	6.1
NILF	320.6	57.7	378.3	41.9	31.4	39.9
Not determined	9.3	5.1	14.4	1.2	2.8	1.5
Total	764.9	184.0	948.8	100.0	100.0	100.0

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do003\_201606.xls).

Notes: LFS=Labour Force Status; NILF=not in the labour force; Not det=Not determined.

26. Caution is required in interpreting data for male sole parents because the sample size for this group is small.

**Figure 3.1: Sole parents detailed employment status by sex, Australia 2001 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Sole parents with children aged under 14.

Notes: Data has been less smoothed.

### 3.1.3 Children, dependants and employment

In this section I look at both couple families and one parent families where the parents are employed. Table A6 in the appendix shows these families with the number of children aged under 15, and the number of dependants aged under 25. The percentage breakdown is only for the former, since they have greater relevance for the issues in this report.



The key findings in this table are:

- ◁ of the 5.6 million couple families, about 3 million have both partners employed;
- ◁ of the 950 thousand one parent families, nearly 500 thousand sole parents are employed;
- ◁ among the employed couple families, nearly 43 percent have one or more children aged under 15;
- ◁ among the one parent families, nearly 54 percent have one or more children aged under 15 (though the percentage is slightly less among sole fathers).

The Labour Force Survey also provides information on the ages of dependent children in families, and the hours status of the female parents in those families. The majority of employed female parents whose children were under 15 were working part-time in 2016. Further details are presented in Table 3.7. Here we see that among the 1.4 million employed wives/partners whose children were under 15, some 600 thousand were working full-time, while the other 800 thousand were working part-time. In the case of one parent families, there were just over 210 thousand employed mothers, with about 95 thousand working full-time and nearly 120 thousand working part-time.

Table 3.7 also shows the distribution of children's ages for these data. Among those wives/partners who were employed and had dependent children, the largest proportion (43 percent) had children in the youngest age group (0-4 years) and the hours status showed an interesting—but not unexpected—difference. In the case of wives/partners working part-time, this proportion reached 47 percent, whilst among those working full-time the figure was much lower, at 39 percent.

For one parent families, the distribution of children's ages was quite different, reflecting the absence of another adult to undertake parenting responsibilities. Only one quarter of employed mothers had children in the youngest age group, while a much larger proportion (40 percent) had children in the oldest age group. Again, the full-time workers were even less likely to have younger children (20 percent) than the part-time workers (30 percent).

**Table 3.7: Age of children and dependants by hours status of employed female parents, Australia 2016**

Category	Ages of children under 15					Total
	0-4	5-9	10-14	0-14	15-24	
COUNTS (thousands)						
Wives/partners						
Employed full-time	227.9	176.0	187.3	591.2	197.7	788.9
Employed part-time	374.5	236.1	188.9	799.6	153.2	952.8
Employed total	602.4	412.1	376.2	1,390.7	351.0	1,741.7
Mothers (single parents)						
Employed full-time	19.3	32.0	43.6	94.9	49.9	144.8
Employed part-time	34.5	42.4	40.1	117.0	25.9	142.8
Employed total	53.9	74.3	83.7	211.9	75.8	287.7
PERCENTAGES						
Wives/partners						
Employed full-time	38.5	29.8	31.7	100.0		
Employed part-time	46.8	29.5	23.6	100.0		
Employed total	43.3	29.6	27.1	100.0		
Mothers (single parents)						
Employed full-time	20.3	33.7	45.9	100.0		
Employed part-time	29.5	36.2	34.3	100.0		
Employed total	25.4	35.1	39.5	100.0		

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do007\_201606.xls).

Notes: The unit of analysis in this table is individuals. The population of families shown in this table is for couple families where wife/partner is employed, and one parents families where the mother is employed. Total dep=total families with children or dependants.

### 3.1.4 Hours worked and dependent children

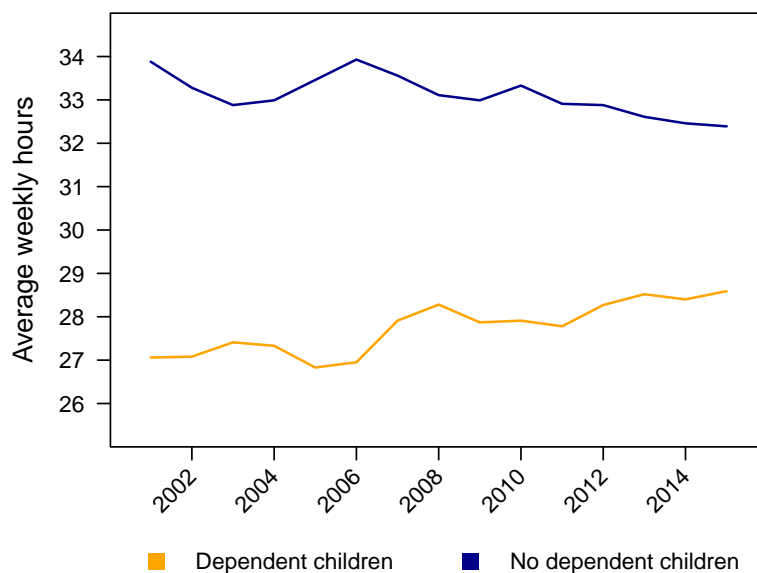
The presence of dependent children in families has an important impact on the hours worked by employed mothers. This was evident earlier in the proportions who worked part-time, and this becomes even more obvious when the hours worked are examined more finely.

Looking first at the average hours worked, women with dependent children worked fewer hours than those without dependent children, though over the last fifteen years this difference has been shrinking (see Figure 3.2). To see where in the hours distribution these differences emerge, Figure 3.3 shows both percentages and indexed numbers. The latter are particularly useful for illustrating change over time. Here we see that the major difference between the two groups of women lies in the 35 or more hours category: some 56 percent of women without dependent children worked 35 hours or more compared with 41 percent of those with dependent children. Over time, though, this gap has been shrinking: in 2001 it was 61 percent to 36 percent. This change is

particularly evident in the bottom panel of Figure 3.3. The proportion of women with dependent children employed between 1 and 15 hours per week has also changed over this period: in 2001 this figure was 26 percent and had fallen to 21 percent by 2015.

The age range for dependent children is quite large—from 0 to 14—so it is useful to also examine hours data for those women who only have dependent children aged 0 to 4. Again, the grouped hours distribution is shown for the period 2001 to 2015 (Figure 3.4) and again suggests that full-time hours have been increasing, particularly since 2011, while at the same time the shortest hours category (1 to 15 hours) has been dropping.

**Figure 3.2: Average hours worked by women by presence of dependent children, Australia 2001 to 2015 (percentages)**

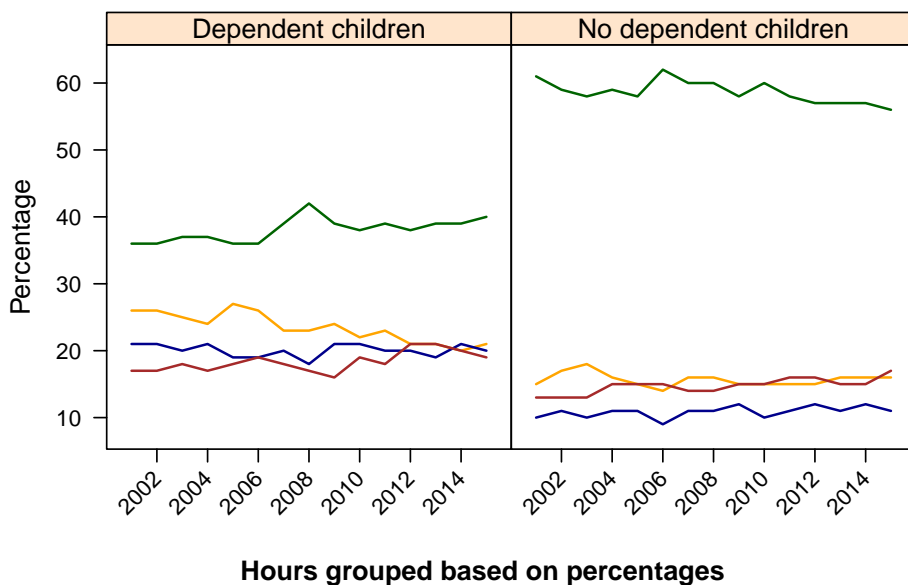


Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Women employed with and without dependent children.

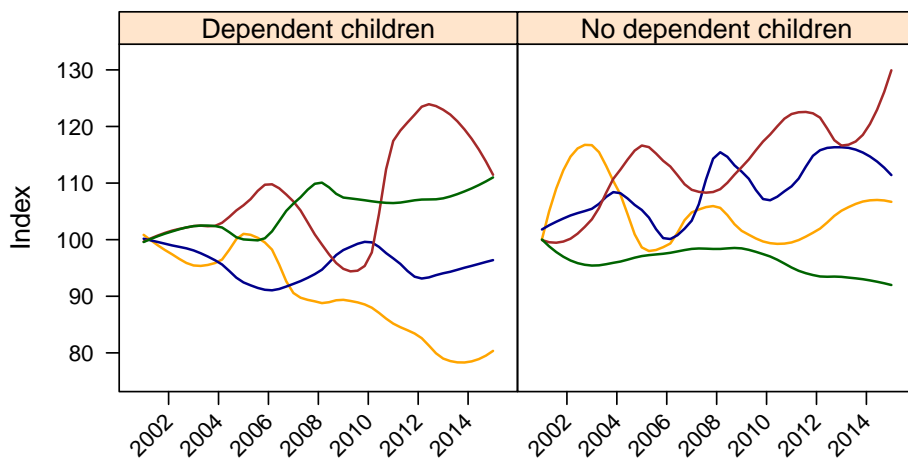
Notes: Average hours is average hours in all jobs worked.

**Figure 3.3: Grouped hours worked by women by presence of dependent children, Australia 2001 to 2015**



**Hours grouped based on percentages**

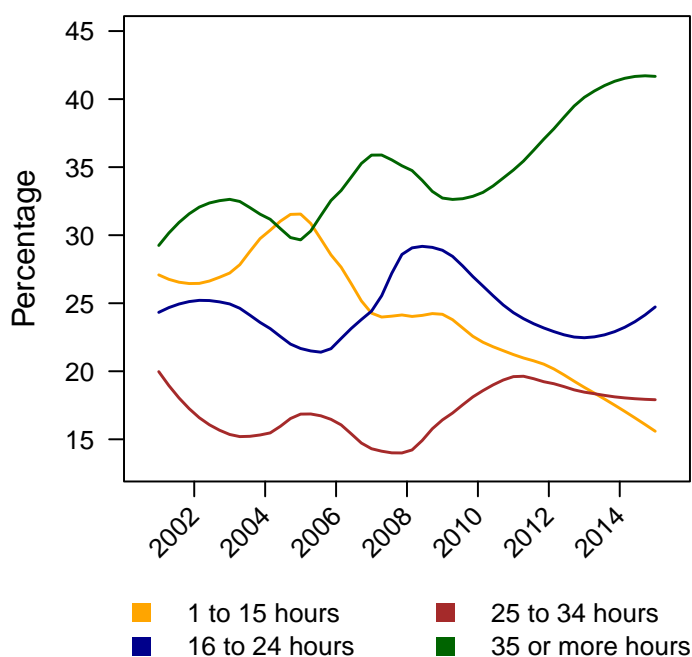
- 1 to 15 hours
- 16 to 24 hours
- 25 to 34 hours
- 35 or more hours



**Hours grouped based on index of 100 in 2001**

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.  
 Population: Women employed with and without dependent children.  
 Notes: Grouped hours in all jobs worked. Indexed data have been loess smoothed.

**Figure 3.4: Grouped hours worked by women by presence of children aged 0 to 4, Australia 2001 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Women employed with children aged 0 to 4.

Notes: Grouped hours in all jobs worked. Percentages have been less smoothed.

## 3.2 PAID WORK AND PARENTING

### 3.2.1 Working arrangements

The ABS has regularly conducted a national childcare survey which contains questions about working arrangements. These are useful for understanding how families organise their work and parenting responsibilities. A strong pattern between child care arrangements and parents' employment, and between the age of children and female employment, was evident in these data.

Looking first at the children, the key findings in 2014 were:

- ◁ in couple families where both parents were employed, 60 percent (1.1 million) of children usually attended child care;
- ◁ in couple families where one parent was employed, 27 percent (310,700) of children usually attended child care;
- ◁ in couple families where neither parent was employed, 19 percent (31,700) of children usually attended child care;

- ◁ in one parent families where the parent was employed, 72 percent of children (237,200) usually attended child care;
- ◁ and in one parent families where the parent was not employed, 43 percent (148,900) of children usually attended child care.

In terms of parents' employment, the age of the youngest child was fundamental to the employment outcomes of female parents. The proportion of these parents in employment rose as the youngest child grew older, increasing from 69 percent when the youngest child was aged under 2 or 3 years, to 89 percent when the youngest child was aged 9 to 12 years. For male parents the situation was quite different: the proportion employed stayed above 90 percent, irrespective of the age of the youngest child in care.

Looking at families where the youngest child was not attending child care reveals a similar pattern. In these families the proportion of male parents who were employed was about 88 percent, irrespective of the age of the youngest child. By contrast, the proportion of female parents in employment in these families also increased considerably once the youngest child reached 4 or 5 years.

As far as working arrangements were concerned, the most commonly used working arrangement used by employed male and female parents to allow them to care for their children was flexible working hours. This was the situation for 30 percent of employed fathers and 40 percent of employed mothers. Equally important for employed mothers was working part-time (39 percent), whereas this counted for little among employed fathers: just 5 percent. Table 3.8 shows the details of these arrangements for the period since 1996.

Commenting on an earlier publication of these data for the period from 1993 to 2002, Charlesworth and Campbell noted in 2004 that there had been a:

steady increase in the use of work arrangements by parents (in families with at least one parent employed) in order to assist in caring for children. The increase was sharper for fathers than for mothers, though mothers remained far more likely to use work arrangements to assist in child care.<sup>27</sup>

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27. Iain Campbell and Sara Charlesworth 2004, *Key Work and Family Trends in Australia*, Background Report, RMIT University: Centre for Applied Social Research, page 37.

**Table 3.8: Work arrangements used by parents to care for child**

<i>Work arrangements</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1999</i>	<i>2002</i>	<i>2005</i>	<i>2008</i>	<i>2011</i>	<i>2014</i>
<b>EMPLOYED MALE PARENT</b>							
Flexible working hours	16	18	22	25	30	29	30
Part-time work	1	2	3	3	5	4	5
Shiftwork	5	5	5	6	6	6	6
Work at home	7	7	9	9	11	12	14
Job sharing	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Other	1	1	2	2	1	2	2
All with work arrangements	26	27	30	34	41	40	42
All with no arrangements	74	73	70	66	58	59	58
All families	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>EMPLOYED FEMALE PARENT</b>							
Flexible working hours	31	37	39	44	42	43	40
Part-time work	29	34	35	35	42	43	39
Shiftwork	6	9	7	8	6	7	6
Work at home	18	15	18	17	18	18	19
Job sharing	4	4	4	4	3	2	2
Other	3	4	3	3	2	2	3
All with work arrangements	69	68	70	74	74	75	72
All with no arrangements	31	32	30	26	26	25	28
All families	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

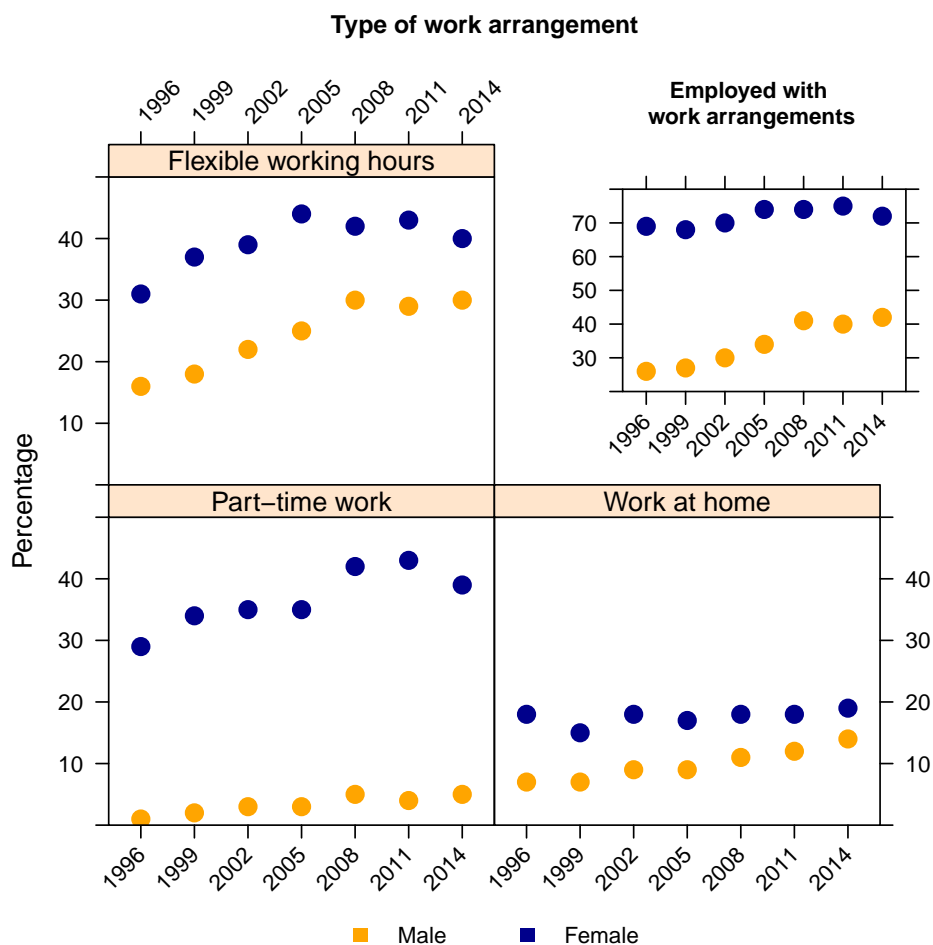
*Source:* ABS, Childhood Education and Care, Australia, June 2014, Cat. No. 4402.0 (44020DO005\_201406.xls).

*Note:* The unit of analysis is families. Summing of rows may not equal the totals shown because parents can use more than one type of work arrangement.

*Population:* Families with employed males or females.

However, soon after this, these increases stalled, as the data in Table 3.8 has just shown. Figure 3.5 outlines these trends quite sharply. The inset (subplot) in this Figure shows that 42 percent of employed fathers used working arrangements, compared with 72 percent of employed mothers. This gap has narrowed over time, mainly due to an increasing use of working arrangements by fathers (from just 26 percent in 1996). But from 2008 onwards, progress has stalled, and figures have plateaued in the low forties. By contrast, nearly three quarters of employed mothers still organise their work to accommodate their child care responsibilities.

**Figure 3.5: Working arrangements for parenting, by sex, Australia 1996 to 2014**



Source: Table 3.8.

Note: Smaller inset plot shows percentage with some kind of arrangement, and main plot shows the percentage using this type of arrangements as proportion of those using arrangements.

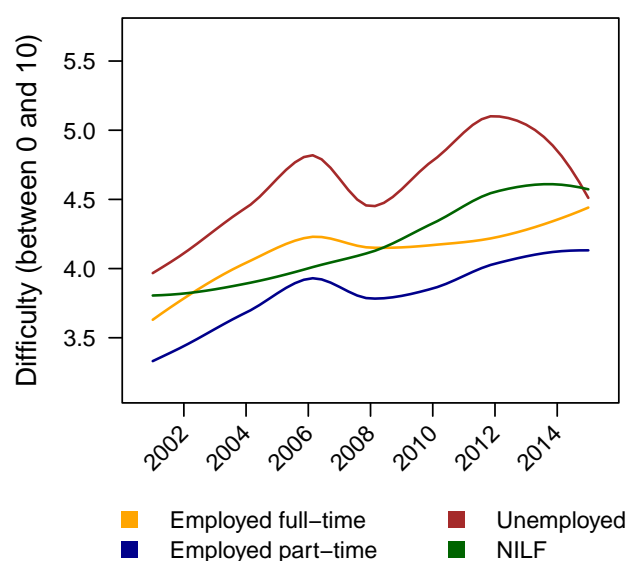
The type of arrangements in place have also changed over time, and these reflect a similar pattern of stalled progress. Figure 3.5 also shows that the use of flexible working hours by both male and female parents began to plateau in 2008, after a steady increase during the late 1990s and early 2000s. For employed mothers, using part-time work to accommodate child care also increased between 1996 and 2008, but has fallen since then. Among employed fathers, however, the proportions using part-time work have remained in single digits over this entire period. For employed mothers, working at home has been largely static for the whole period. The only increase in this arrangement has been for employed fathers, but at 14 percent, this level is still lower than among employed mothers (19 percent).



### 3.2.2 Workplace entitlements

The HILDA survey is valuable in supplementing this ABS childcare data. It contains a range of questions about difficulties parents face in obtaining affordable childcare. Figure 3.6, for example, shows a steady increase in the cost of childcare since 2001, with those parents without labour market earnings faring worst. This suggests that the cost of childcare may be inhibiting entry into employment for these parents.

**Figure 3.6: Difficulties with cost of childcare, Australia 2001 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Respondents who used or thought about using childcare in households with children aged under 15.

Notes: Question asked respondents to answer on a scale from 0 (not a problem at all) to 10 (very much a problem). Data has been loess smoothed.

When it comes to the issue of whether workplace arrangements facilitate parenting responsibilities, the HILDA data provides a useful complement to the ABS data on child care arrangements. These HILDA questions largely overlap with the ABS categories, and the focus is on whether these are workplace *entitlements* to which employees have access.<sup>28</sup> These entitlements consisted of:

- ◁ paid maternity leave;
- ◁ paid paternity leave;

28. The question was phrased as follows: 'Following is a list of conditions and entitlements that employers sometimes provide their employees. For each, please indicate whether you, or other employees working at a similar level to you at your workplace, would be able to use these if needed.'

- ◁ special leave for caring for family members;
- ◁ permanent part-time work;
- ◁ home-based work;
- ◁ flexible start/finish times;
- ◁ child care facilities or subsidised child care expenses.

The child care facilities item was only added to the survey in 2005 and the paternity leave item was added in 2011. Whether employees have access to these entitlements is shown in Table 3.9, broken down by sex.

In 2015 the entitlements with the greatest availability were carer's leave and permanent part-time work, available to about three quarters of employees. Paid maternity leave was available to about two-thirds of employees while paid paternity leave was available to just under 60 percent. Just over half of employees (56 percent) had access to flexible start and finish times. The two least available entitlements were access to home-based work (25 percent) and child care facilities or subsidies (just 9 per cent). Gender differences were not notable, with the exception of permanent part-time work, whose availability was greater for women (82 percent) compared to men (72 percent) and flexible start and finish times, whose availability was greater for men (59 percent) compared to women (52 percent).

An important contrast with the ABS data is apparent here: we saw earlier that employed fathers made very little use of part-time employment to organise their child care, whereas this was one of the major ways in which employed mothers dealt with the issue of child care. Yet the HILDA data suggests the 'formal availability' of part-time work is reasonably high, and certainly not far behind what is available to women. This suggests that other factors may inhibit the take-up of part-time employment by fathers.

In terms of changes over time,<sup>29</sup> access to paid maternity leave grew steadily from 2002 (42 percent) to 2008 (61 percent), but has plateaued since then in the low sixties. Paternity leave has also shown little change since 2011 when the question was first asked. Access to carer's leave grew steadily from 2002 through to 2008, but has actually declined since then. A similar pattern is evident for permanent part-time work. The remaining entitlements—home-based work, flexible start and finish times, and child care support—have all been largely static over this period.

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29. One needs to be cautious with drawing conclusions from trends in the HILDA that show any abrupt change in 2011. That year marked the wave when the sample was topped up with a new intake of respondents.

Table 3.9: Workplace entitlements by sex, Australia 2002 to 2015

Entitlement	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
MALE														
Maternity leave	41	47	50	58	56	55	61	58	59	63	62	62	63	64
Paternity leave										59	59	57	57	61
Carers leave	75	72	74	78	73	76	82	77	78	75	75	75	75	75
Permanent part-time	66	65	66	68	66	68	73	70	69	71	69	69	70	72
Home-based work	19	18	18	24	21	23	26	24	25	25	25	26	27	26
Flexible start and finish	54	53	52	56	55	57	58	57	58	58	56	58	59	59
Child care support				11	8	9	11	9	10	10	9	9	9	9
FEMALE														
Maternity leave	44	48	49	56	56	57	60	60	63	67	65	65	68	66
Paternity leave										57	55	55	57	57
Carers leave	74	74	74	77	76	78	83	80	80	76	75	75	77	74
Permanent part-time	84	83	82	83	81	84	87	84	85	84	83	84	83	82
Home-based work	17	18	17	18	18	20	23	22	22	23	23	22	22	25
Flexible start and finish	52	52	54	53	51	53	55	53	54	56	53	53	52	52
Child care support				10	8	10	10	9	10	10	9	10	10	9
PERSONS														
Maternity leave	42	48	50	57	56	56	61	59	61	65	64	64	65	65
Paternity leave										58	57	56	57	59
Carers leave	74	73	74	77	75	77	82	78	79	76	75	75	76	75
Permanent part-time	75	74	74	76	74	76	81	77	77	77	76	76	77	77
Home-based work	18	18	18	21	20	21	24	23	23	24	24	24	25	25
Flexible start and finish	53	53	53	54	53	55	57	55	56	57	55	56	55	56
Child care support				11	8	9	10	9	10	10	9	9	9	9

Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Employees. Notes: Childcare support = subsidy for childcare costs or work-based childcare facilities. Data on some items was only collected in more recent years, hence the gaps.

Another perspective on flexible working arrangements is provided by the Australian Workplace Relations Study (AWRS), which surveyed enterprises and employees in 2014.<sup>30</sup> Looking first at employers, about half reported that flexible start and finish times were available to their employees. Flexible leave arrangements were available in about 55 percent of enterprises. The requests made by employees for flexible working arrangements was influenced by the size of the enterprise, with some 72.4 percent of large enterprises (200 or more employees) receiving such requests. By contrast, only 37.8 percent of small enterprises (5 to 19 employees) received such requests. Formalising flexible working arrangements can be done through an Individual Flexibility Arrangement (IFA) and the AWRS indicated that in the period since 2012 only 10 percent of enterprises had IFAs in place. When questioned as to why IFAs had not been made in

30. AWRS 2014, Flexible working practices,

<https://www.fwc.gov.au/resources/research/australian-workplace-relations-study/first-findings-report/4-employment-practices/workforce-management-practices/flexible-working-arrangements>.

their enterprises, some 43 percent of employers indicated that they preferred informal (undocumented) arrangements, and another 40 percent indicated that no employees wanted an IFA. The prevalence of the employer preference for informal arrangements was greater in small workplaces (45 percent) compared with the largest workplaces (24.7 percent).

Turning to the employees in the survey, about 28 percent had made requests for flexible working arrangements, and the gender breakdown was significant: 33.6 percent of female employees compared with just 20.6 percent of male employees. The incidence of informal work practices was also uneven across gender and occupation. Some 57.8 percent of female employees had made informal requests compared with 42.6 percent of male employees. In terms of occupation, the groups with the highest proportion of requests came from clerical and administrative workers (29.8 percent) followed by professionals (24.6 percent). All other occupational groups made up less than 12 percent.

Returning to the HILDA data, it is worth examining these entitlements for various sub-groups of employees, particularly since their availability is quite uneven. The difference between small and large enterprises evident in the AWRS results is also a strong feature of the HILDA data. As Figures 3.7 to 3.11 show, various entitlements are far less available to lower paid, lower skilled, casually employed, award-reliant employees working in smaller workplaces.

Consistent with the AWRS findings, the size of the employers makes a considerable difference, with access to leave entitlements highest for employees in large organisations and lowest for those in small organisations (Figure 3.7). Interestingly, when it comes to home-based working, and flexibility around starting and finishing, these differences disappear and all employees fare about the same.

Turning to earnings, it is clear that lower paid workers are much less likely to access these entitlements, particularly those related to leave. As Figure 3.8 shows, there is almost a uniformly linear spread between entitlements and the level of earnings.

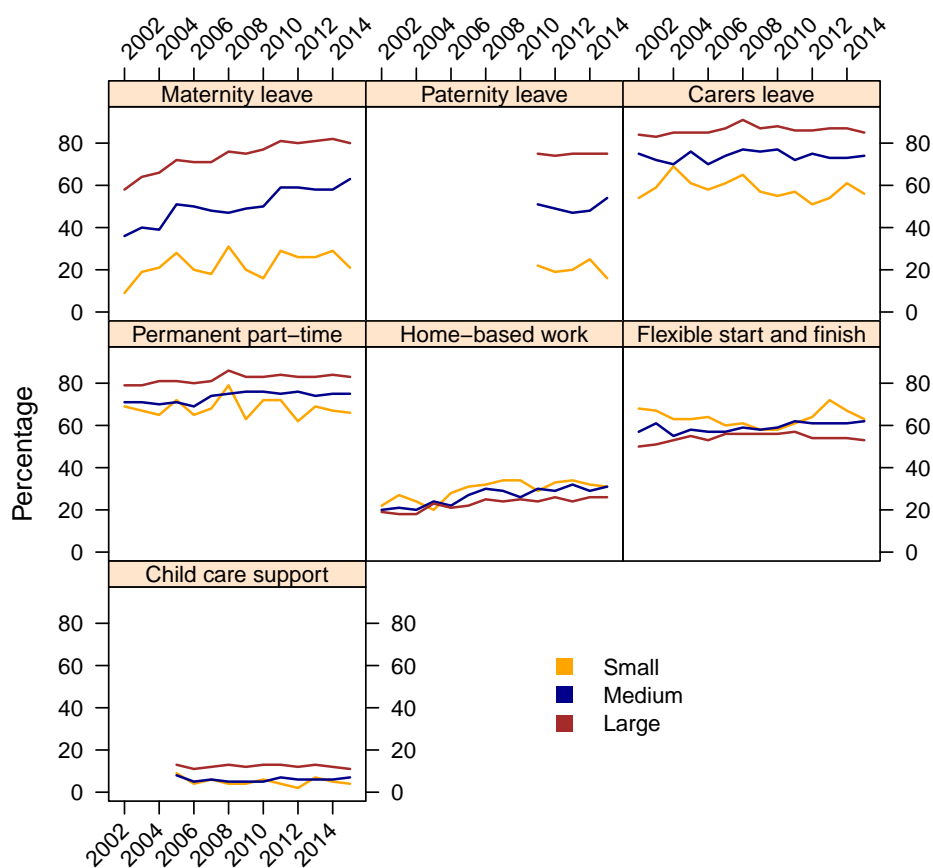
While occupation is closely related to earnings, there are nevertheless some differences between occupational groups when it comes to availability of entitlements (Figure 3.9). In regards to leave, three 'white-collar' occupational groups—managers, professionals and clerical/administrative workers—fare best, while sales workers and labourers fare worst. In terms of start and finish time, flexibility and access to permanent part-time, sales workers appear to fare somewhat better, while machine operators and drivers do worse.

When it comes to industrial coverage, it is clear that employees on enterprise agreements (EBAs) fare much better than those on individual arrangements and

those on the award (Figure 3.10). Only in two areas—flexible start and finish times and home-based work—do those on individual agreements fare best.

Finally, the contract of employment makes a difference: not only do casual employees fare much worse on all entitlements, but the decline in this availability appears to be worse for them with regard to carer's leave and access to permanent part-time work (Figure 3.11).

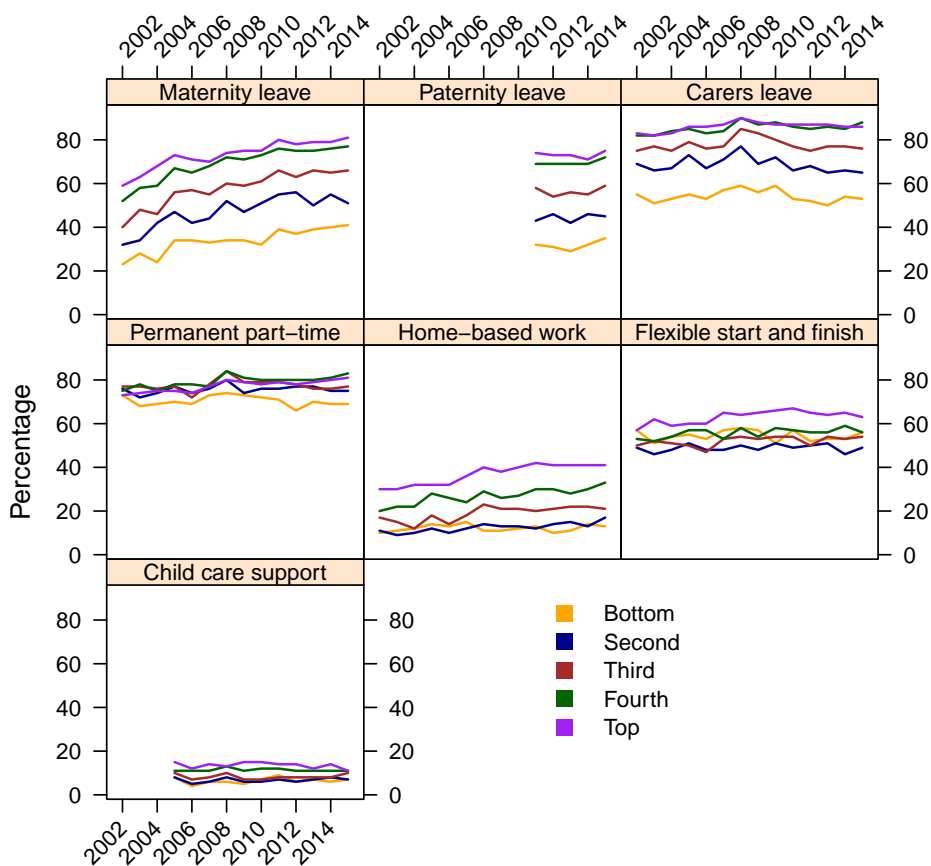
**Figure 3.7: Workplace entitlements by employer size, Australia 2002 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Employees. Notes: Small=less than 20 employees; medium=from 20 to 499 employee; large=500 or more employees.

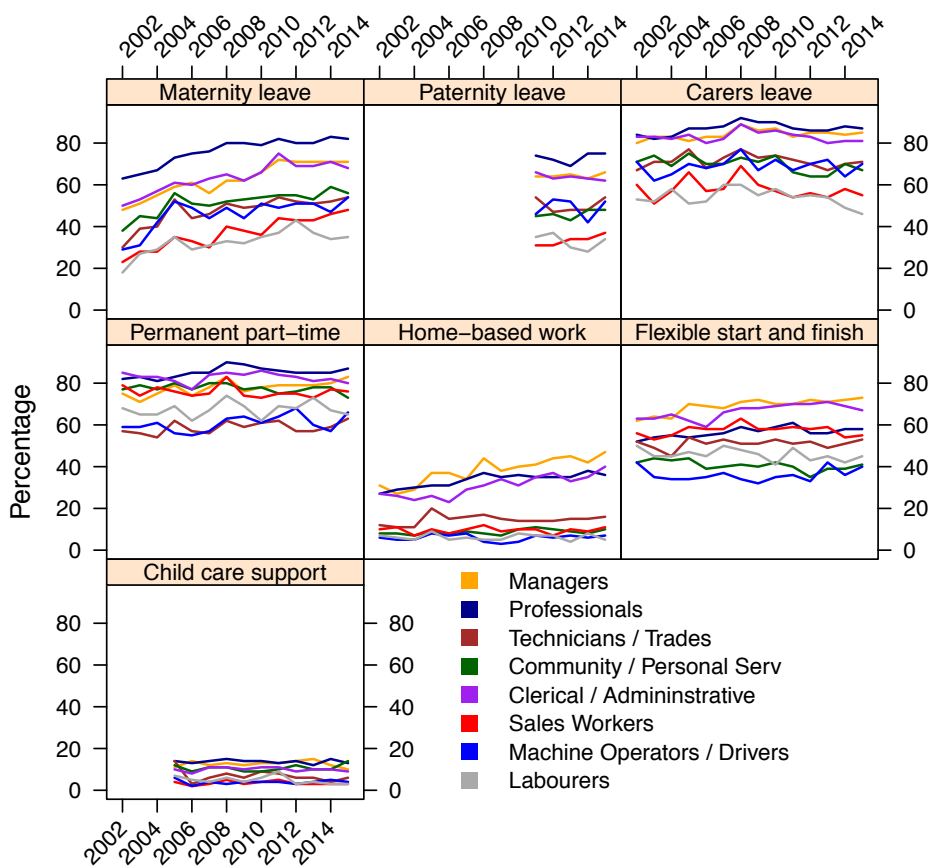
**Figure 3.8: Workplace entitlements by earnings quintile, Australia 2002 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

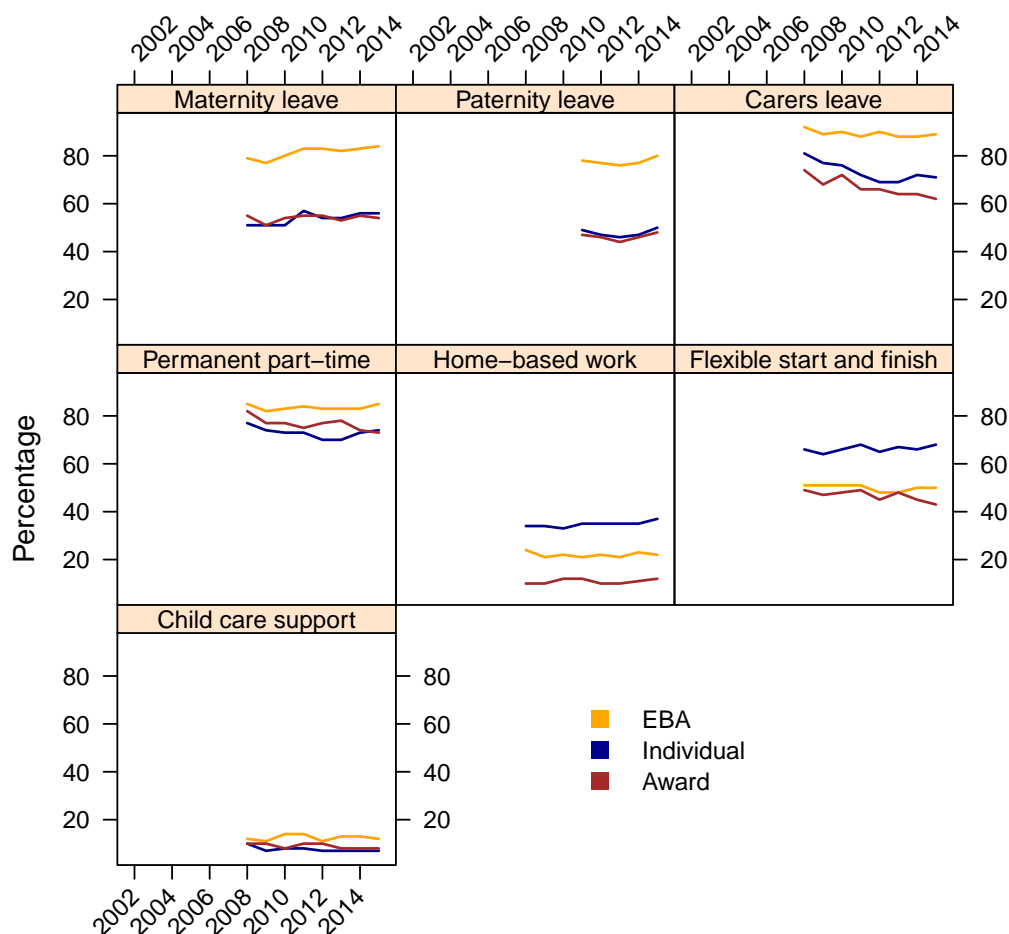
Population: Employees. Notes: Quintiles based on hourly wage and salary earnings.

**Figure 3.9: Workplace entitlements by occupation, Australia 2002 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.  
 Population: Employees. Notes: Occupation based on ANZSCO 2005.

**Figure 3.10: Workplace entitlements by industrial coverage, Australia 2008 to 2015**

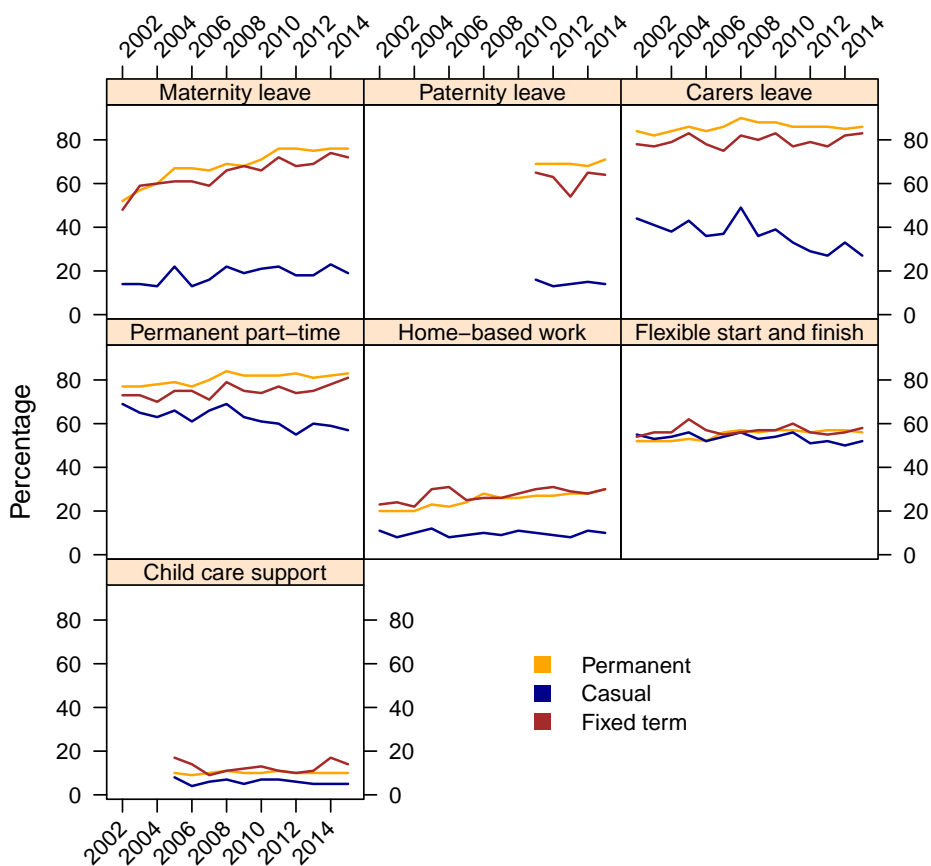


Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Employees. Notes: EBA = enterprise (collective) bargaining agreement; Individual = individual agreement or contract; Award = paid exactly the award. Note that HILDA asks this question in terms of 'how your pay is currently set'.



**Figure 3.11: Workplace entitlements by contract of employment, Australia 2002 to 2015**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Employees. Notes: Permanent=employed on a permanent or ongoing basis; Casual=employed on a casual basis; Fixed term= employed on a fixed-term contract.

### 3.2.3 *A profile of working parents*

The HILDA data allows us to look more closely at the characteristics of employees with dependent children. In 2015 about 33 percent of employees lived in families with dependent children and they differed from other employees in several respects:

- ◁ *age*: employees with dependent children were younger—an average age of 37.1 years compared to 39.3 years;
- ◁ *education*: they were more likely to be tertiary educated—38 percent compared to 31 percent;
- ◁ *occupation*: they were also more likely to be working as managers and professionals (42 percent to 35 percent) and less likely to be working in lower skilled occupations;
- ◁ *earnings*: employees with dependent children had higher hourly earnings than employees without dependent children—26 percent were in the top quintile compared with 17 percent;
- ◁ *industrial coverage*: they were more likely to be on individual agreements than on enterprise agreements or on awards, but these differences were modest.

However, it is worth noting that on many other workplace aspects there were no differences between employees with dependent children and those without. These included industry location, private/public sector, employer size and trade union membership.

As a longitudinal dataset, the HILDA survey also allows us to examine what happens to the same individuals over time and thereby allows us to look at the effect of parenting on working life.

For example, we can look at employment situations, that is, hours status and contract of employment, and examine the before and after situation of employees who moved from *not* having dependent children in one year, to having dependent children in the following year. We can contrast these transitions with those among employees who had no dependent children in either year. It is important to draw this contrast because all employees move through transitions from year to year, so we need to keep this in mind.<sup>31</sup>

These transitions in employment situation are shown in Table 3.10 and suggest that parenting can be costly in terms of job security. Some 82 percent of employees in permanent full-time jobs who became parents retained that situation

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31. This contrast is spread across the entire period of the HILDA survey and may involve multiple situations by the same employee (for example, separating, remarrying and have dependent children again).

afterwards. This compared with 87 percent of those employees who did not become parents. A notable result is the transition for those who previously worked in permanent part-time jobs: of those who became parents only 55 percent retained this status, and 23 percent moved into non-permanent part-time jobs. By contrast, for those who didn't become parents and who worked in permanent part-time jobs, some 64 percent retained that status, and only 15 percent moved into non-permanent part-time jobs.

**Table 3.10: Previous and current employment situation, employees with and without dependent children, Australia, between 2005 and 2015 (percentages)**

<i>Previous situation</i>	<i>Current situation</i>				<i>Total</i>
	<i>Perm FT</i>	<i>Perm PT</i>	<i>Not Perm FT</i>	<i>Not Perm PT</i>	
<b>WITH CHILDREN</b>					
Permanent full-time	82	7	6	4	100
Permanent part-time	18	55	5	23	100
Not permanent full-time	49	5	35	11	100
Not permanent part-time	12	10	14	63	100
Total	65	10	12	13	100
<b>WITHOUT CHILDREN</b>					
Permanent full-time	87	3	8	2	100
Permanent part-time	16	64	4	15	100
Not permanent full-time	42	3	46	10	100
Not permanent part-time	11	12	11	65	100
Total	60	11	13	15	100

*Source:* Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

*Population:* Persons engaged as employees at any time between the years 2005 and 2015. Note that persons can occur multiple times over different years.

*Notes:* Children refers to dependent children aged under 15. The with category is defined as those employees who had dependent children in the current year, but had no dependent children in the previous year. The without category had no dependent children in either year. Not permanent=casual and employees on temporary contracts.

The HILDA survey also administered a self-completion questionnaire where working parents were asked a number of questions about work and family balance. Responses to three of the items, in the form of mean scores on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) are shown in Table 3.11.

**Table 3.11: Effect of working on work and family balancing, by sex and hours status, Australia 2015 (rating 1 to 7)**

<i>Issue</i>	<i>Full-time</i>			<i>Part-time</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Turns down work opportunities	3.20	3.41	3.26	3.44	3.54	3.53
Misses out on home activities	4.38	4.22	4.33	3.71	3.53	3.55
Worry about children while at work	3.51	3.74	3.59	3.63	3.58	3.59

*Source:* Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

*Population:* Parents in paid work (employees).

*Notes:* Numbers are mean scores, on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The full-time and part-time differences are notable: while part-time workers lose out in the workplace—by turning down work opportunities—full-time workers lose out in the home—by missing out on home-based activities. When it comes to worrying about their children while at work, there are no hours differences. The gender split is also notable, with women more likely to turn down work opportunities than men, irrespective of their hours status, but much less likely to miss out on home activities. Finally, when it comes to worrying about their children, female full-timers worry more than their male peers, but male part-timers worry slightly more than their female peers.

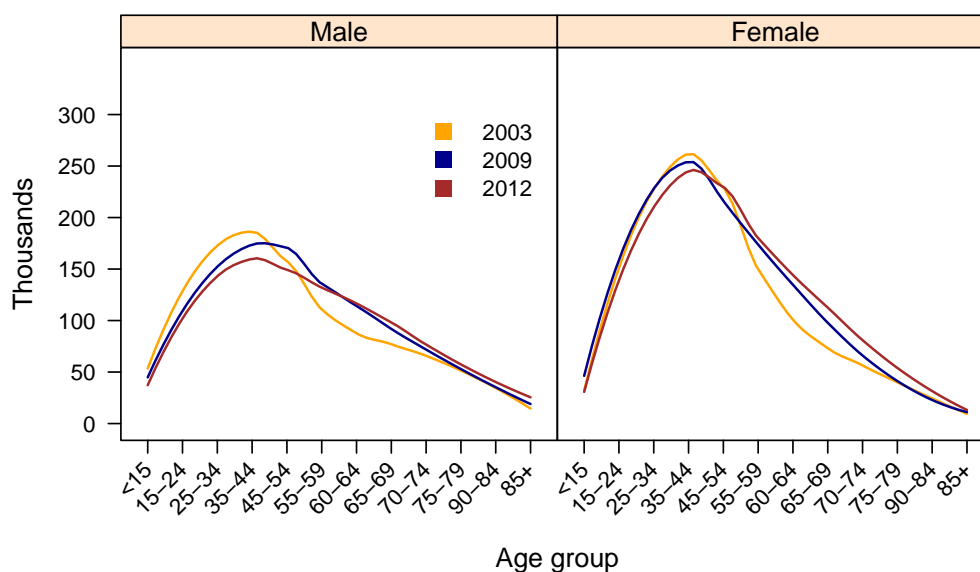
### 3.3 CARERS

#### 3.3.1 Demographic and labour force profile

The ABS survey of Caring in the Community shows that in 2012 there were nearly 2.7 million carers in Australia. This marked an increase from 2.6 million in 2006. The majority of carers were women (56 percent) and numbered 1,510,700 in 2012. The number of male carers was 1,183,100. Both counts and proportions for carer population, by age and sex, are shown in Table A7 and the counts are shown in Figure 3.12.

In Figure 3.12 we can observe that the age of both male and female carers has been increasing over time, particularly since 2003. By 2012, the most common age groups for both sexes were the 45 to 54 year group: 18.7 percent among men; 22 percent among women. For female carers, the 35 to 44 year group were also significant at 17.3 percent. These age groupings are also the same age ranges which coincide with high employment to population ratios (see Table 1.5), which suggests that managing the work and family balance is also likely to be a challenging area among carers as well as parents.

**Figure 3.12: Age profile of carers, by sex, Australia 2003, 2009 and 2012**



Source: ABS, *Caring in the Community, Australia, 2012*, Table 1, (44360DO001\_2012.xls).

One indication that this balance may not have been managed well shows up in the trends for employment to population ratios among carers in the working-age population (those aged 15 to 64 years). These data are summarised in Table 3.12 and show that since 2003, the employment to population ratio for working-age male carers has been falling from, 74.5 percent in 2003 to 72.7 percent in 2009 and to 71.7 percent in 2012. These changes are small, and may reflect sampling variability, but a stronger indication of this trend lies in the data for primary carers, which was only collected in 2009 and 2012. The employment to population ratio for this category, among men, fell from 57 percent to 52.7 percent between these two years.

Among female carers, the employment to population ratio rose in the early 2000s, but has since fallen: from 54.3 percent in 2003, to 61.0 percent in 2009, and then down to 58.2 percent in 2012. Again, these changes are small, and may just reflect sampling variability. While the employment to population ratio among primary carers also showed decline—from 48.8 percent to 46.4 percent—the changes are again small and may not indicate a definite trend.

Thus, while it is difficult to conclude that employment is declining among carers, it certainly does not appear to be increasing. For male carers, particularly middle-aged and mature-aged, their employment prospects may simply mirror those of their non-carer peers. But it may also be the case that maintaining a presence in the workforce has become more difficult over time for carers—both

men and women—and they are failing to share in any increased employment opportunities which have arisen. This is particularly likely to be the case among middle-aged and mature-aged women, whose labour force presence has been increasing steadily in recent years (see the patterns discussed on pages 14 ff.)

**Table 3.12: Carers' employment to population ratios, working-age population, Australia 2003, 2009, 2012 (percentages)**

Carers	Total carers			Primary carers	
	2003	2009	2012	2009	2012
Male	74.5	72.7	71.7	57.0	52.7
Female	54.3	61.0	58.2	48.8	46.4
Persons	63.1	65.9	63.8	51.1	47.9

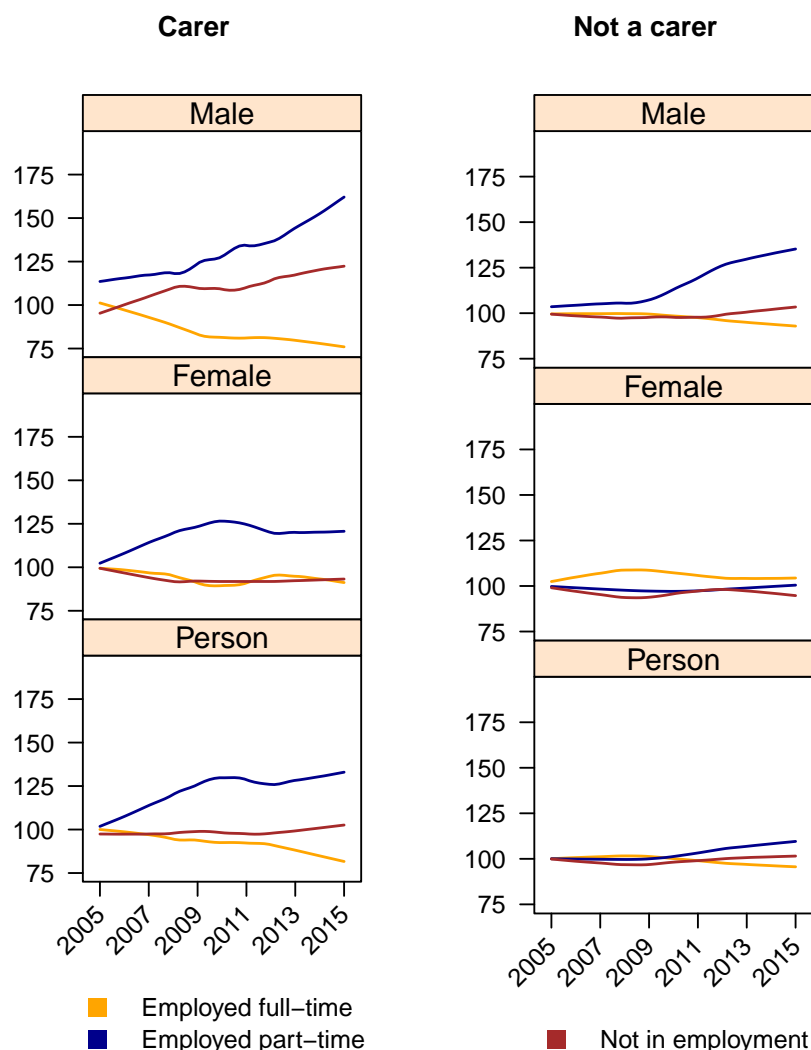
Source: ABS, Caring in the Community, Australia, 2012, Table 3 Carer status, by labour force status, sex and age, (44360DO001\_2012.xls).

Turning to the labour force status of carers, nearly 1.3 million were employed, the majority (836.5 thousand) full-time and the remainder part-time (535.6 thousand). Among male carers, the majority worked full-time (510.6 thousand) while a much smaller minority worked part-time (147.1 thousand). Among female carers, the split was much more even, but with part-time work in the majority: 389.8 thousand (part-time) compared to 325.9 thousand (full-time). The full details are shown in Table A8 in the appendix.

Over recent years the employment prospects for carers appear to have deteriorated, after improving in the early 2000s. Looking at the proportions of carers in various labour force categories Table A9 shows a small improvement in full-time employment between 2003 and 2009 (from 32.6 percent to 34 percent) but then a decline in 2012 (to 31.9 percent). Over the same period, part-time employment among carers has been largely static—at around 20 percent. The fall in employment has shown up as a rise in unemployment among carers (from 3.7 percent in 2009 to 4 percent in 2012) and a rise in the category outside the labour force (from 41.7 to 43.6 percent).

These data, provided by the ABS in its Caring in the Community survey, can be supplemented with data from the HILDA survey. The latter classified carers into two groups, those who resided with the person being cared for, and those who resided elsewhere. The latter, for example, covered persons who might have cared for an aged parent living elsewhere.

**Figure 3.13: Carers' labour force status, Australia  
2005 to 2015 (indexed to 2005)**



Source: Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

Population: Persons of working age (15 to 64 years).

Notes: Not in employment includes both unemployed and not in the labour force. Data has been less smoothed.

In Figure 3.13, these two categories are combined into a single category of carer, and they are compared with other persons who are not carers. The population is persons of working age (15 to 64) and the data are indexed to 2005, thus allowing us to compare rates of change across several labour force status categories. Those unemployed and not in the labour force are combined into a single category: not in employment. These data are consistent with the ABS trends, suggesting that employment has been falling among carers since the mid 2000s, and that this is particularly so among male carers. While the uptake in part-time employment has been notable among male carers—and more so than among male non-carers—it has not compensated for the loss in full-time employment, evident in the higher levels of male carers who are no longer in employment. Among

female carers, the picture is one of much greater stability overall, with the growth in part-time employment also stabilising since 2011.

While the cross-sectional estimates from the ABS are usually more robust than those from HILDA, the correspondence in these overall trends between the two data sources is reassuring. Where the HILDA data is particularly valuable is in its longitudinal design. By following the same panel of individuals over time, one can compare the labour force status of one group of individuals in a previous year with their status in the current year and thereby examine the labour market trajectories followed by various sub-groups. In the case of carers and non-carers, we can compare the labour force status of those individuals who became carers (in the current year) with their labour force status in the previous year when they were not carers. We can contrast these transitions with those of individuals who were not carers in either year. Table 3.13 shows the results of this analysis.

**Table 3.13: Previous and current labour force status, carers and non-carers, Australia, between 2005 and 2015**

<i>Previous LFS</i>	<i>Current labour force status</i>			<i>Total</i>
	<i>Employed full-time</i>	<i>Employed part-time</i>	<i>Not in employment</i>	
<b>CARER</b>				
Employed full-time	84	8	8	100
Employed part-time	12	74	14	100
Not in employment	3	13	84	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>NOT A CARER</b>				
Employed full-time	89	7	4	100
Employed part-time	18	69	13	100
Not in employment	8	17	75	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source:* Unpublished data from HILDA, Release 15.

*Population:* Persons aged 15 to 64.

*Notes:* LFS=labour force status; Carer=those who were carers in current year, but not carers in the previous year. Not a carer=not a carer in either year.

These results suggest that the balance between employment and caring appears comprised. Whereas about 17 percent of employed individuals without caring responsibilities were no longer employed the following year, the equivalent figure for those with caring responsibilities was 22 percent. Moreover, movement into employment for those without caring responsibilities was greater—some 25 percent made the move—while those with caring responsibilities showed less movement—16 percent. Whereas similar numbers of both groups made a move



from full-time employment into part-time, the proportion who moved from full-time employment into the no employment category was twice the figure among carers compared with non-carers (8 percent to 4 percent).

### 3.3.2 *Effects on carers of their caring role*

In its 2009 survey of *Caring in the Community*, the ABS looked at the effects which caring had on primary carers.<sup>32</sup> It found that 21 percent of carers had seen their income decrease since taking on a caring role, and 71 percent of this group reported difficulties meeting everyday living expenses. Another 24 percent of carers reported that their expenses had increased, and within this group some 60 percent reported difficulties with meeting everyday living expenses.

It was notable in these data that the main source of personal cash income for carers was a government pension or allowance (54 percent) while only 30 percent had wage or salary income. Those with such income experienced a lesser financial burden, with 26 percent of this group reporting difficulty with living costs. By contrast 33 percent of those carers on government pensions or allowances reported such difficulties. While undertaking caring responsibilities imposed significant financial costs for many primary carers, those in employment had more of a buffer, by virtue of their higher incomes, than those dependent on government transfers. The importance of retaining employment by workers who take on caring responsibilities is evident in these results. Moreover, the survey also asked those carers who were not in the labour force whether they would like to be working and 21 percent reported that they would.

Looking at those primary carers who were in employment, the ABS survey also examined the effects of caring on working hours. It found that among full-time workers about 32 percent needed time off work while 24 percent of part-timers needed time off work. While this suggests that part-time was more flexible in meeting the needs of carers, a closer look at the part-time workforce among carers also tells a story. Among these part-time workers 37 percent had seen their weekly hours reduced because of their caring responsibilities, and about half of these needed time off work. By contrast, among those part-time workers whose weekly hours remained unchanged (or increased), only about 9 percent needed time off work. This suggests that many carers in part-time employment found that taking time off work to manage their caring role entailed a reduction in their weekly hours of work—a reduction with financial implications.

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32. See ABS, *Caring in the Community, Australia*, 2009, Cat. No. 4436.0, tables 17 and 15.

### 3.3.3 Carers in the workplace

One would expect a reasonably even distribution of carers to be found in the workforce if labour market and workplace outcomes were random. After all, having ageing parents, or being responsible for a person with a disability, are random occurrences within the population. But as we have just seen, this is not the case with employment outcomes, with carers less likely to stay in employment, or gain employment, than is the case for non-carers.

Within the workplace, the differences are even sharper:

- ◁ *employment size*: carers are more likely to be found in the largest organisations: 29 percent work in organisations with 20,000 or more employees compared with a figure of 23 percent among non-carers; while only 13 percent work in the smallest organisations (less than 100 employees) compared with 17 percent for non-carers;
- ◁ *sector*: carers are much more likely to working in the public sector (30 percent) than are non-carers (19 percent).
- ◁ *industry location*: carers were much more likely to be found in the education and training sector and health care and social assistance than non-carers. Some 34 percent of carers worked in these two sectors, compared with a figure of 25 percent among non-carers; on the other hand, carers were less likely to be working in retail trade and accommodation and food services than non-carers (just 11 percent compared with 17 percent).
- ◁ *industrial coverage*: consistent with this industry profile, carers were more likely to be found working under enterprise agreements (41 percent compared with 31 percent for non-carers). Their levels of award coverage were similar (26 percent to 28 percent), so the balance of the difference lay in individual agreements: 33 percent for carers, 42 percent for non-carers.
- ◁ *occupation*: while their occupational profiles are similar, in one area they differ: carers are more likely to work in community and personal service jobs, and less likely to work as technicians and tradesworkers.
- ◁ *trade union membership*: some 31 percent of carers are in trade unions, compared with just 17 percent among non-carers.<sup>33</sup>

Most of these characteristics are correlated. Thus it is no surprise to find that carers are more likely to be found in large, public-sector workplaces with enterprise bargaining agreements and with trade union membership. The gendered nature of the differences is also notable: given that more women take on caring

33. Unpublished HILDA data.

responsibilities, the occupational and industry profiles of carers also reflect these gender divisions within the workforce.

The pattern in these data shows that we are less likely to find as many carers in small and medium size private sector workplaces, where union coverage is lower, and where individual agreements are more common. This may reflect a data censoring problem, in that the carers whom we might expect to find working may not be in employment at all. Alternatively, they might be working in these kinds of workplaces, but not undertaking caring activities because it is too difficult to combine them with the demands of their working life.

## APPENDICES

These appendices contain additional tables referenced in the main text. These tables are all numbered consecutively and begin with the letter A. Some of these tables provide more detail than was appropriate in the main text. Others provide the actual data upon which some of the graphs are based.

These tables are followed by information on the data sources which have been used in the preparation of this report. While all of the ABS data is publicly available at <https://www.abs.gov.au/>, the HILDA unit record files are only available to licensed researchers. The HILDA tables used in this report all use unpublished data based on these unit record files. More information on the HILDA survey is available at <http://melbourneinstitute.unimelb.edu.au/hilda>.

Finally, the last part of these appendices contains a brief account of the author's relevant expertise.

## ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table A1: Population by age and sex, Australia 2000 and 2016 (counts)

Age group	2000			2016			Change 2000 to 2016		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
	0-4	648,118	615,018	1,263,136	804,701	761,628	1,566,329	156,583	146,610
5-9	683,142	648,248	1,331,390	785,601	744,665	1,530,266	102,459	96,417	198,876
10-14	680,034	646,703	1,326,737	740,776	701,874	1,442,650	60,742	55,171	115,913
15-19	690,697	658,054	1,348,751	760,520	724,028	1,484,548	69,823	65,974	135,797
20-24	695,242	665,870	1,361,112	862,464	816,639	1,679,103	167,222	150,769	317,991
25-29	742,348	732,731	1,475,079	893,426	887,711	1,781,137	151,078	154,980	306,058
30-34	710,358	712,112	1,422,470	890,258	894,582	1,784,840	179,900	182,470	362,370
35-39	747,138	749,160	1,496,298	803,442	808,566	1,612,008	56,304	59,406	115,710
40-44	721,592	723,665	1,445,257	802,585	818,156	1,620,741	80,993	94,491	175,484
45-49	670,566	672,070	1,342,636	795,049	814,148	1,609,197	124,483	142,078	266,561
50-54	631,471	613,596	1,245,067	760,975	781,658	1,542,633	129,504	168,062	297,566
55-59	486,910	471,555	958,465	726,328	752,616	1,478,944	239,418	281,061	520,479
60-64	391,716	388,689	780,405	644,915	668,699	1,313,614	253,199	280,010	533,209
65-69	330,029	344,928	674,957	583,778	600,717	1,184,495	253,749	255,789	509,538
70-74	293,923	330,421	624,344	439,239	459,731	898,970	145,316	129,310	274,626
75-79	218,376	286,669	505,045	313,765	340,951	654,716	95,389	54,282	149,671
80-84	117,764	185,896	303,660	203,521	256,573	460,094	85,757	70,677	156,434
85+	78,391	173,837	252,228	179,629	304,962	484,591	101,238	131,125	232,363
Total	9,537,815	9,619,222	19,157,037	11,990,972	12,137,904	24,128,876	2,453,157	2,518,682	4,971,839

Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Cat.No. 3101.0, Sep 2000, Table 7, and Sep 2016, Table 1, (31010do002\_201609.xls).

Table A2: Working age population, by sex, Australia 2000 and 2016

Counts (thousands)	2000			2016			Change 2000 to 2016		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
	Under 15 yrs	2,011.3	1,910	3,921.3	2,331.1	2,208.2	4,539.2	319.8	298.2
Working age	6,488	6,387.5	12,875.5	7,940	7,966.8	15,906.8	1,451.9	1,579.3	3,031.2
65 yrs and older	1,038.5	1,321.8	2,360.2	1,719.9	1,962.9	3,682.9	681.4	641.2	1,322.6
Total	9,537.8	9,619.2	19,157	11,991	12,137.9	24,128.9	2,453.2	2,518.7	4,971.8
Percentages									
Under 15 yrs	21.1	19.9	20.5	19.4	18.2	18.8	-1.6	-1.7	-1.7
Working age	68.0	66.4	67.2	66.2	65.6	65.9	-1.8	-0.8	-1.3
65 yrs and older	10.9	13.7	12.3	14.3	16.2	15.3	3.5	2.4	2.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Within working age									
15-19	10.6	10.3	10.5	9.6	9.1	9.3	-1.1	-1.2	-1.1
20-24	10.7	10.4	10.6	10.9	10.3	10.6	0.1	-0.2	-0.0
25-29	11.4	11.5	11.5	11.3	11.1	11.2	-0.2	-0.3	-0.3
30-34	10.9	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.2	11.2	0.3	0.1	0.2
35-39	11.5	11.7	11.6	10.1	10.1	10.1	-1.4	-1.6	-1.5
40-44	11.1	11.3	11.2	10.1	10.3	10.2	-1.0	-1.1	-1.0
45-49	10.3	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.2	10.1	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3
50-54	9.7	9.6	9.7	9.6	9.8	9.7	-0.1	0.2	0.0
55-59	7.5	7.4	7.4	9.1	9.4	9.3	1.6	2.1	1.9
60-64	6.0	6.1	6.1	8.1	8.4	8.3	2.1	2.3	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: ABS, Australian Demographic Statistics, Cat.No. 3101.0, Sep 2000, Table 7, and Sep 2016, Table 1, (31010do002\_201609.xls).

Notes: Percentages for change 2000 to 2016 are percentage point changes.

Table A3: Employment numbers by age, sex and full-time / part-time, Australia 2000 and 2016 (thousands)

Age group	2000						2016						Change 2000 to 2016					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT
15-19 yrs	142.8	178.6	85.6	239.0	646.0	95.8	53.2	217.1	288.4	654.5	-47.0	-32.4	38.5	49.4	8.5			
20-24 yrs	398.6	99.2	299.1	150.1	947.0	398.0	295.2	224.0	268.5	1,185.8	-0.6	-3.9	124.8	118.4	238.8			
25-29 yrs	550.2	51.0	358.7	132.0	1,091.9	638.3	444.5	111.6	191.9	1,386.3	88.1	85.8	60.6	59.9	294.4			
30-34 yrs	569.9	40.6	267.9	182.2	1,060.6	706.0	380.4	77.8	247.7	1,411.9	136.1	112.5	37.2	65.5	351.3			
35-39 yrs	599.5	38.0	247.1	237.8	1,122.3	651.1	297.7	60.5	271.7	1,281.0	51.6	50.6	22.5	33.9	158.7			
40-44 yrs	588.4	34.9	286.3	225.8	1,135.4	629.1	331.3	66.1	280.0	1,306.6	40.7	45.0	31.2	54.2	171.2			
45-49 yrs	524.0	38.5	284.0	196.9	1,043.4	609.5	353.2	65.2	269.5	1,297.3	85.5	69.2	26.7	72.6	253.9			
50-54 yrs	472.5	39.2	232.3	162.4	906.3	561.0	336.3	70.2	244.6	1,212.1	88.5	104.0	31.0	82.2	305.8			
55-59 yrs	295.2	40.0	108.4	104.9	548.4	474.1	265.4	78.6	223.2	1,041.4	178.9	157.0	38.6	118.3	493.0			
60-64 yrs	140.2	35.3	35.7	47.4	258.7	295.8	145.3	89.7	172.4	703.2	155.6	109.6	54.4	125.0	444.5			
65 or older	58.5	43.1	12.3	27.7	141.7	147.5	47.3	133.0	127.7	455.5	89.0	35.0	89.9	100.0	313.8			
Total	4,339.9	638.5	2,217.3	1,706.0	8,901.7	5,206.3	2,950.0	1,193.8	2,585.7	11,935.7	866.4	732.7	555.3	879.7	3,034.0			

Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2016. (6291001.xls).

Notes: FT = Full-time, PT = Part-time. All figures in thousands of persons. Data are original series, averaged for the year.

Table A4: Distribution across age group, by sex and full-time / part-time, Australia 2000 and 2016 (percentages)

Age group	2000						2016						Change 2000 to 2016					
	Male		Fe- male		Total		Male		Fe- male		Total		Male		Fe- male		Total	
	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT
15-19 yrs	3.3	28.0	3.9	8.0	7.3	14.0	1.8	18.2	11.2	11.2	5.5	-1.5	-2.1	-9.8	-2.8	-1.8		
20-24 yrs	9.2	15.5	13.5	8.0	10.6	8.8	7.6	18.8	10.4	9.9	9.9	-1.6	-3.5	3.3	1.6	-0.7		
25-29 yrs	12.7	8.0	16.2	7.7	12.3	7.7	12.3	9.4	7.4	11.6	11.6	-0.4	-1.1	1.4	-0.3	-0.7		
30-34 yrs	13.1	6.4	12.1	10.7	11.9	10.7	13.6	6.5	9.6	11.8	11.8	0.5	0.8	0.1	-1.1	-0.1		
35-39 yrs	13.8	6.0	11.1	13.9	12.6	13.9	12.5	5.1	10.5	10.7	10.7	-1.3	-1.0	-0.9	-3.4	-1.9		
40-44 yrs	13.6	5.5	12.9	13.2	12.8	13.2	12.1	5.5	10.8	10.9	10.9	-1.5	-1.7	0.0	-2.4	-1.9		
45-49 yrs	12.1	6.0	12.8	11.5	11.7	11.5	11.7	5.5	10.4	10.9	10.9	-0.4	-0.8	-0.5	-1.1	-0.8		
50-54 yrs	10.9	6.1	10.5	6.1	10.2	9.5	10.8	5.9	9.5	10.2	10.2	-0.1	0.9	-0.2	0.0	0.0		
55-59 yrs	6.8	6.3	4.9	6.3	6.2	6.1	9.1	6.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	2.3	4.1	0.3	2.5	2.5		
60-64 yrs	3.2	5.5	1.6	5.5	2.9	2.8	5.7	7.5	6.7	5.9	5.9	2.5	3.3	2.0	3.9	3.0		
65 or older	1.3	6.8	0.6	6.8	1.6	1.6	2.8	11.1	4.9	3.8	3.8	1.5	1.0	4.3	3.3	2.2		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		

Source: ABS, 6291.0.55.001 Labour Force, Australia, Detailed Electronic: Delivery, Jan 2016. (6291001.xls).

Notes: FT = Full-time, PT = Part-time. Change shows percentage point change.



**Table A5: Hours worked (thousands) by age and sex, Australia 2000 and 2017**

Age	2000		2017		Change		Percentage change	
	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT
Males								
15-19 yrs	549.4	197.8	370.5	230.9	-178.9	33.1	-32.6	16.7
20-24 yrs	1,511.9	146.2	1,455.3	345.4	-56.6	199.2	-3.7	136.3
25-29 yrs	2,156.0	76.3	2,353.3	191.7	197.4	115.3	9.2	151.1
30-34 yrs	2,238.2	66.5	2,659.9	156.6	421.7	90.1	18.8	135.5
35-39 yrs	2,436.9	58.5	2,541.4	108.1	104.5	49.6	4.3	84.9
40-44 yrs	2,404.3	65.6	2,460.7	117.6	56.4	52.0	2.3	79.2
45-49 yrs	2,109.6	67.2	2,420.4	112.9	310.8	45.6	14.7	67.9
50-54 yrs	1,892.5	72.0	2,214.3	108.5	321.7	36.5	17.0	50.7
55-59 yrs	1,204.2	42.2	1,897.5	126.2	693.3	84.0	57.6	199.0
60-64 yrs	561.1	47.7	1,150.7	142.3	589.5	94.6	105.1	198.4
65 or older	262.1	53.3	585.0	176.9	322.9	123.6	123.2	231.9
Females								
15-19 yrs	310.6	261.1	175.8	369.9	-134.9	108.7	-43.4	41.6
20-24 yrs	1,070.3	220.3	1,013.3	438.5	-57.0	218.3	-5.3	99.1
25-29 yrs	1,254.0	193.0	1,550.9	328.5	296.8	135.5	23.7	70.2
30-34 yrs	931.2	252.9	1,276.0	388.1	344.8	135.1	37.0	53.4
35-39 yrs	880.4	352.7	1,062.7	450.2	182.3	97.5	20.7	27.6
40-44 yrs	983.9	369.5	1,157.4	481.0	173.5	111.5	17.6	30.2
45-49 yrs	1,013.0	322.3	1,242.3	536.1	229.3	213.8	22.6	66.3
50-54 yrs	813.8	268.4	1,223.4	428.0	409.6	159.6	50.3	59.4
55-59 yrs	393.6	141.3	929.4	400.3	535.9	259.0	136.2	183.2
60-64 yrs	124.7	55.5	532.0	283.0	407.3	227.5	326.5	410.0
65 or older	48.4	28.6	187.9	164.0	139.5	135.4	288.5	472.9

Source: ABS. Employed persons by Age, Hours actually worked in all jobs and Sex, January 1991 onwards, Cat. No 6291.0.55.001. (EM1a.xlsx). Notes: Hours worked are totals for the reference week in that survey.

Table A6: Children and dependants in employed families, Australia 2016

Category	Children under 15			Dependants under 25			Families
	None	One	Two or more	None	One	Two or more	
<b>COUNTS (THOUSANDS)</b>							
Couple families both employed	1,736.5	565.4	736.9	1,423.9	608.7	1,006.3	3,038.8
<b>Total couple families</b>	<b>3,616.0</b>	<b>863.0</b>	<b>1,197.5</b>	<b>3,155.8</b>	<b>940.6</b>	<b>1,580.0</b>	<b>5,676.5</b>
Single father employed	58.6	34.1	20.5	37.6	43.9	31.6	113.2
Single mother employed	172.8	128.1	83.8	97.0	149.7	137.9	384.7
One parent family employed	231.4	162.2	104.3	134.6	193.7	169.5	497.8
<b>Total one parent families</b>	<b>464.0</b>	<b>275.4</b>	<b>209.4</b>	<b>330.0</b>	<b>320.1</b>	<b>298.8</b>	<b>948.8</b>
<b>All families</b>	<b>4,200.3</b>	<b>1,138.5</b>	<b>1,406.9</b>	<b>3,606.0</b>	<b>1,260.7</b>	<b>1,878.8</b>	<b>6,745.6</b>
<b>PERCENTAGES</b>							
Couple families both employed	57.1	18.6	24.2				
<b>Total couple families</b>	<b>63.7</b>	<b>15.2</b>	<b>21.1</b>				
Single father employed	51.8	30.1	18.1				
Single mother employed	44.9	33.3	21.8				
One parent family employed	46.5	32.6	21.0				
<b>Total one parent families</b>	<b>48.9</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>22.1</b>				
<b>All families</b>	<b>62.3</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>20.9</b>				

ABS, Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001 (62240do006\_201606.xls).

Notes: The unit of analysis in this table is families. The population of families shown in this table includes only couple families where both partners work, or one parent families where the parent works.

Each set of families (in the two dependent categories) sum to the 'Families' total.

**Table A7: Age profile of carers, by sex, Australia 2003, 2009 and 2012**

Age groups	Thousands			Percentages		
	2003	2009	2012	2003	2009	2012
<b>MALE</b>						
Under 15 yrs	56.1	43.8	33.8	4.8	3.7	2.9
15-24 yrs	122.3	111.5	113.9	10.4	9.5	9.6
25-34 yrs	140.3	107.3	113.8	11.9	9.1	9.6
35-44 yrs	196.5	173.1	162.0	16.7	14.7	13.7
45-54 yrs	219.3	234.1	221.0	18.7	19.8	18.7
55-59 yrs	106.0	113.0	121.1	9.0	9.6	10.2
60-64 yrs	89.6	115.6	121.5	7.6	9.8	10.3
65-69 yrs	74.8	92.0	102.2	6.4	7.8	8.6
70-74 yrs	64.9	71.3	68.8	5.5	6.0	5.8
75-79 yrs	58.5	53.5	58.4	5.0	4.5	4.9
90-84 yrs	31.7	46.0	41.5	2.7	3.9	3.5
85 yrs or older	14.8	18.5	24.9	1.3	1.6	2.1
Total	1,174.6	1,179.8	1,183.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>FEMALE</b>						
Under 15 yrs	45.5	45.8	39.8	3.3	3.2	2.6
15-24 yrs	123.9	103.7	116.5	9.0	7.1	7.7
25-34 yrs	177.0	151.5	148.7	12.8	10.4	9.8
35-44 yrs	288.3	262.4	261.4	20.9	18.1	17.3
45-54 yrs	301.7	341.7	331.9	21.8	23.5	22.0
55-59 yrs	140.6	173.6	170.0	10.2	12.0	11.3
60-64 yrs	96.5	134.5	158.4	7.0	9.3	10.5
65-69 yrs	77.2	99.7	104.1	5.6	6.9	6.9
70-74 yrs	52.2	65.8	81.7	3.8	4.5	5.4
75-79 yrs	45.4	37.3	56.1	3.3	2.6	3.7
90-84 yrs	27.1	26.0	30.0	2.0	1.8	2.0
85 yrs or older	7.1	10.3	13.5	0.5	0.7	0.9
Total	1,382.3	1,452.3	1,510.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>PERSONS</b>						
Under 15 yrs	101.5	89.6	74.8	4.0	3.4	2.8
15-24 yrs	246.2	215.2	231.2	9.6	8.2	8.6
25-34 yrs	317.2	258.8	261.8	12.4	9.8	9.7
35-44 yrs	484.8	435.5	424.7	19.0	16.5	15.8
45-54 yrs	521.0	575.8	551.6	20.4	21.9	20.5
55-59 yrs	246.6	286.6	290.9	9.6	10.9	10.8
60-64 yrs	186.1	250.1	280.5	7.3	9.5	10.4
65-69 yrs	152.0	191.7	205.1	5.9	7.3	7.6
70-74 yrs	117.1	137.1	151.5	4.6	5.2	5.6
75-79 yrs	103.9	90.9	114.8	4.1	3.5	4.3
90-84 yrs	58.9	72.0	71.8	2.3	2.7	2.7
85 yrs or older	21.9	28.9	38.4	0.9	1.1	1.4
Total	2,557.0	2,632.1	2,694.6	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ABS, Caring in the Community, Australia, 2012, Table 1 Table 1 All persons living in households, carer status, by age and sex, 2003, 2009 and 2012, (44360DO001\_2012.xls).

**Table A8: Carers' labour force status, Australia 2003, 2009, 2012 (thousands)**

<i>Labour force status</i>	<i>Carers 2003</i>	<i>2009</i>			<i>2012</i>		
		<i>Primary</i>	<i>Not primary</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Primary</i>	<i>Not primary</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>MALE</b>							
Full-time	527.0	68.4	464.8	533.2	63.2	446.8	510.6
Part-time	149.3	30.5	94.4	124.9	25.7	120.8	147.1
Total employed	676.3	98.9	559.2	658.1	89.9	568.2	658.1
Unemployed	36.5	6.7	45.2	51.9	10.0	44.7	54.4
NILF	405.7	142.5	283.4	425.9	132.3	304.0	436.3
Total	1,118.5	248.2	887.8	1,136.0	233.1	916.6	1,149.4
<b>FEMALE</b>							
Full-time	273.6	81.2	250.1	331.3	78.4	248.1	325.9
Part-time	348.4	129.8	270.0	399.8	128.5	260.6	389.8
Total employed	622.0	211.0	520.0	731.1	205.0	510.4	714.1
Unemployed	42.5	9.7	31.4	41.2	16.6	33.2	49.5
NILF	672.4	302.5	331.8	634.3	316.1	389.7	704.8
Total	1,336.9	523.2	883.3	1,406.5	536.7	931.7	1,469.4
<b>PERSONS</b>							
Full-time	800.6	149.6	714.8	864.5	140.6	696.6	836.5
Part-time	497.7	160.3	364.4	524.7	155.2	381.4	535.6
Total employed	1,298.4	310.0	1,079.2	1,389.2	295.6	1,078.6	1,372.5
Unemployed	79.0	16.4	76.6	93.1	26.3	77.2	104.2
NILF	1,078.0	445.0	615.2	1,060.2	448.3	692.8	1,143.4
Total	2,455.4	771.4	1,771.1	2,542.5	769.8	1,849.3	2,620.1

Source: ABS, Caring in the Community, Australia, 2012, Table 3 Carer status, by labour force status, sex and age, (44360DO001\_2012.xls).

Population: Carers living in households aged 15 and over.

Notes: NILF=not in the labour force; Primary=Primary carer; Not primary: Carer, but not a primary carer. The distinction between primary and not primary carer was not collected in 2003.

**Table A9: Carers' labour force status, Australia 2003, 2009, 2012 (percentages)**

<i>Labour force status</i>	<i>Carers 2003</i>	<i>2009</i>			<i>2012</i>		
		<i>Primary</i>	<i>Not primary</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Primary</i>	<i>Not primary</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>MALE</b>							
Employed full-time	47.1	27.6	52.4	46.9	27.1	48.7	44.4
Employed part-time	13.3	12.3	10.6	11.0	11.0	13.2	12.8
Unemployed	3.3	2.7	5.1	4.6	4.3	4.9	4.7
NILF	36.3	57.4	31.9	37.5	56.8	33.2	38.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>FEMALE</b>							
Employed full-time	20.5	15.5	28.3	23.6	14.6	26.6	22.2
Employed part-time	26.1	24.8	30.6	28.4	23.9	28.0	26.5
Unemployed	3.2	1.9	3.6	2.9	3.1	3.6	3.4
NILF	50.3	57.8	37.6	45.1	58.9	41.8	48.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>PERSONS</b>							
Employed full-time	32.6	19.4	40.4	34.0	18.3	37.7	31.9
Employed part-time	20.3	20.8	20.6	20.6	20.2	20.6	20.4
Unemployed	3.2	2.1	4.3	3.7	3.4	4.2	4.0
NILF	43.9	57.7	34.7	41.7	58.2	37.5	43.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Source:* ABS, Caring in the Community, Australia, 2012, Table 3 Carer status, by labour force status, sex and age, (44360DO001\_2012.xls).

*Population:* Carers living in households aged 15 and over.

*Notes:* NILF=not in the labour force; Primary=Primary carer; Not primary: Carer, but not a primary carer. The distinction between primary and not primary carer was not collected in 2003.

## DATA SOURCES

### *Australian Bureau of Statistics*

The following ABS data has been utilised in the preparation of this report. In some cases, only extraction of data and re-arrangement of the material has taken place. In other cases, further calculations on the data have taken place, such as summation or averaging of the data. All ABS material is referenced by its title, and its catalogue number and the references can be located at the ABS website by searching on the catalogue number. The references in footnotes to tables and figures give the precise tables from within these publications, and spreadsheets are indicated by their filenames in those footnotes.

ABS, *Australian Demographic Statistics*, Cat. No. 3101.0.

ABS, *Births, Australia* Cat. No. 3301.0.

ABS, *Caring in the Community, Australia*, 2009, Cat. No. 4436.0.

ABS, *Childhood Education and Care, Australia*, June 2014, Cat. No. 4402.0.

ABS, *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 2015*, Cat. No. 4430.0.

ABS, *Employed persons by Age, Hours actually worked in all jobs and Sex*, January 1991 onwards, Cat. No 6291.0.55.001.

ABS, *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (EEH)*, Cat. No. 6306.0.

ABS, *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia (EEBTUM)*, Cat. No. 6310.0

ABS, *Family Characteristics and Transitions, Australia, 2012-13*, Cat. No. 4442.0.

ABS, *Household and Family Projections, Australia, 2011 to 2036*, Cat. No. 3236.0.

ABS, *Labour Force Australia* Cat. No. 6202.0

ABS, *Labour Force, Australia: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families*, June 2016, Cat. No. 6224.0.55.001.

*The HILDA Survey*

The Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey was initiated and is funded by the Australian Government Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs (FaHCSIA) and is managed by the Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research (MIAESR).

Analysis of data from Release 15 of the HILDA confidentialised unit record files have been used in this report. This analysis has been conducted using *Stata*, Release 14.2, and *R*, Version 3.3.2.<sup>34</sup>

The HILDA survey provides one of the best longitudinal datasets in Australia and provides researchers with an extensive range of data items relevant to the labour market. Conducted annually since 2001, it is based on a survey of Australian households carefully sampled to be representative of the Australian population. The survey collects information on the households, and on the individuals living in those households.<sup>35</sup>

Since its inception in 2001 the HILDA survey has provided cross-sectional weights which allow researcher to make reliable estimates of the population for any particular year. In 2011 the ‘ongoing’ sample was ‘refreshed’ with a ‘top-up’ sample which further enhanced its value for cross-sectional analysis. While the HILDA designers note that ‘using a longitudinal survey for cross-sectional purposes is not ideal’,<sup>36</sup> they have taken great care in calibrating their cross-sectional weights with ABS labour force data. Over time, the main differences between HILDA and ABS data have concerned recent migrants. The refreshing of the sample in 2011 helped address this divergence. As the HILDA designers note, those variables which are most likely to exhibit bias based on this longitudinal sample design are variables most strongly associated with migration.

The HILDA dataset provides a large number of weighting variables for both households and individuals. These take account of the longitudinal sample design, and adjust for sample attrition over time. The dataset provides cross-sectional weights, for both ‘enumerated persons’ and ‘responding persons’, and the *responding person cross-sectional weights* have been used throughout this

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34. StataCorp 2015, *Stata: Statistics/Data Analysis*, College Station, Texas, USA, URL: <https://www.stata.com/> and R Core Team 2016, *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*, Vienna, Austria, URL: <https://www.R-project.org/>.

35. For an introduction to the approach behind the HILDA survey see Nicole Watson and Mark Wooden 2002, *The Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey: Wave 1 Survey Methodology*, tech. rep. HILDA Project Technical Paper Series No. 1/02, Melbourne Institute of Applied Economics and Social Research, University of Melbourne.

36. Nicole Watson 2012, *Longitudinal and Cross-sectional Weighting Methodology for the HILDA Survey*, HILDA Project Technical Paper Series 2/12, University of Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, p. 15.

report.<sup>37</sup> As mentioned above, these weights are calibrated against ABS labour force estimates which makes it feasible, if the correct weights are deployed, to use HILDA annual data for cross-sectional estimates of the Australian labour market. However, it needs to be kept in mind that the HILDA samples, from year to year, are not *independent* samples but are largely composed of the same group of respondents (leaving aside the issue of the refreshing of the sample and changes in household composition over time). This makes the use of the correct weighting variables, as well as other aspects of the sample design (based on both clustering and stratification) important methodological considerations when working with the HILDA data<sup>38</sup>

When it comes to comparing—for cross-sectional purposes—ABS Labour Force Survey data with HILDA, the ABS data is more robust than the HILDA data, both because the sample size is considerably larger (some 26,321 employees) and because the ABS survey design is intended to collect independent cross-sectional data.<sup>39</sup> The HILDA data, on the other hand, contains a much larger range of variables, as well as providing a link between individuals and their associated household characteristics. In the case of family friendly working arrangements, the HILDA data contains a vastly greater number of variables relevant to the topic. In addition, the link between individuals and households, allows for more intricate analyses of how work and family/household characteristics are inter-related.

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37. The relevant variables in the dataset are hhwtrp and hhwtrps. Enumerated persons are all those living in the household, including children (who were not interviewed). Responding persons are those aged 15 and over who were interviewed (and who also filled in a self-completion questionnaire for additional information).

38. for more details, see Nicole Watson 2012, *Longitudinal and Cross-sectional Weighting Methodology for the HILDA Survey*, HILDA Project Technical Paper Series 2/12, University of Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research. Clustering refers to the grouping of individuals in various units (such as households or geographical areas). It is an important part of the sample design in surveys. Stratification refers to the division of a population into strata (such as States or industries) as part of the sample design. In the case of HILDA both clustering and stratification were based on geographical divisions and the relevant variables in the HILDA respondent data for clustering are xhhraid (randomised area id) and for stratification hhmsr (major statistical region) for more details, see Clinton Hayes 2008, *HILDA Standard Errors: A Users Guide*, HILDA Project Technical Paper Series 2/08, University of Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research.

39. Technically, the Labour Force Survey has a continuing sample of respondents who rotate out of the survey over a number of months. This allows the ABS to estimate labour market flows. From year to year, however, the ABS labour force samples can be regarded as independent samples.



## GLOSSARY AND ABBREVIATIONS

### *ABS*

Australian Bureau of Statistics

### *AWRS*

Australian Workplace Relations Study. This is the first Australia-wide statistical dataset linking employee data with data from their employer since the 1995 Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (AWIRS). For more details see:

<https://www.fwc.gov.au/resources/research/australian-workplace-relations-study>.

### *Carers*

As used by the ABS, a carer is defined as a person who provides any informal assistance, in terms of help or supervision, to people with disability or older people (aged 65 years and over). Assistance must be ongoing, or likely to be ongoing, for at least six months.

### *Casual*

As used by HILDA, casual refers to the contract of employment between employee and employer and is essentially a residual category, that is, someone who does not have a permanent or ongoing basis for employment nor a fixed-term contract. The ABS does not use the term, preferring instead the category of 'without leave entitlements', meaning no entitlements to holiday and sick leave.

### *Dependency ratio*

The dependency ratio is a measure of the 'independent' population aged 15–64 years in comparison to the 'dependent' population aged under 15 years and 65 years and over. It is expressed as the number of dependents per 100 persons of working age.

### *Dependent population*

Persons aged under 15 years and 65 years and over. Used in the construction of the dependency ratio.

### *Employed*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, people who reported that they had worked in a job, business or farm during the reference week (the full week prior to the date of interview); or that they had a job in the reference week, but were not at work.

*employee*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, persons who worked for a private or public sector employer and received pay for the reference period in the form of wages or salaries, a commission while also receiving a retainer, tips, piece rates or payments in kind. Persons who operated their own incorporated enterprises with or without hiring employees are also included as employees.

*Employment rate*

A short-hand synonym for the employment to population ratio.

*Employment to population ratio*

For any group, the number of employed persons expressed as a percentage of the civilian population in the same group.

*Family*

Two or more persons, one of whom is at least 15 years of age, who are related by blood, marriage (registered or de facto), adoption, step or fostering; and who are usually resident in the same household. The basis of a family is formed by identifying the presence of a couple relationship, lone parent-child relationship or other blood relationship. Some households will, therefore, contain more than one family.

*Fertility rate*

The number of births per woman. For age breakdowns, the number of births per thousand women.

*Fixed-term*

As used by HILDA, an employee on a fixed term contract, as distinct from both casuals and permanents. The ABS does not use this category because of its leave entitlements definitions, so these workers may fall into either the casual or the permanent category.

*Full-time*

Employment of 35 hours or more per week. This is a measure of hours of work, and is not conceptually related to the permanent or casual status of the person (which is a 'mode of engagement').

*Global Financial Crisis*

The recessionary period caused by financial turmoil in world markets, induced initially by the collapse of the housing market in the United States, but compounded by heavily indebted households and property booms elsewhere in the world. The term 'Global Financial Crisis' is commonly used in Australia, and is often abbreviated to the 'GFC', but the period is referred to as the 'Great Recession' in the United States. In Australia, the period lasted from 2008 to 2009.

*HILDA*

Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia. The key longitudinal survey of Australian households for labour market analysis in

Australia. It is conducted by the Melbourne Institute and funded by the Federal Government. It collecting data annually since 2001. The current release covers the period upto 2015.

*Household*

A group of two or more related or unrelated people who usually reside in the same dwelling, who regard themselves as a household and who make common provision for food or other essentials for living; or a person living in a dwelling who makes provision for his or her own food and other essentials for living without combining with any other person.

*Loess smoothing*

A non-parametric method of smoothing data. It is termed 'locally weighted regression' and aims to summarise the middle of the distribution of the y values for each value of x. Non-parametric means that no assumptions are made about the underlying distribution of the data. With time series data, loess smoothing can be viewed as a way of trending data which has monthly, quarterly or annual volatility. It can also be used to discern patterns in data which may have high sampling variability. (See Williams S. Cleveland 1994, *The Elements of Graphing Data*, Summit, New Jersey: Hobart Press).

*Lone parent*

A lone parent is a person who has no spouse or partner usually resident in the household, but who forms a parent-child relationship with at least one child usually resident in the household. The child may be either dependent or non-dependent. Equivalent to single parent and sole parent.

*Marginally attached*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, persons who were not in the labour force according to the activity criteria, but would have taken up employment if available and if suitable arrangements were in place (eg. child care).

*Not in the labour force*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, persons who were not in the categories employed or unemployed, as defined. They include people who undertook unpaid household duties or other voluntary work only, were retired, voluntarily inactive and those permanently unable to work. Abbreviated to NILF.

*Original data*

Time series data from the ABS which has not been trended. While the trend series data are generally preferred, many of the more details tables are only available as original data. Monthly or quarterly volatility (such as rotation of the labour force sample) makes analysing adjacent time series changes problematic so caution is always warranted when using these data. In this report, when only original data are available, loess smoothing is sometimes used to produce a trend in the time series plots shown. In

the case of tables, averaging across years is sometimes used for the same reason.

*Part-time*

Employment of less than 35 hours per week. This is a measure of hours of work, and is not conceptually related to the permanent or casual status of the person (which is a 'mode of engagement').

*Permanent*

As used by HILDA, an employee who has been employed on a permanent or ongoing basis. The ABS does not use the term, preferring instead the category of 'with leave entitlements', meaning entitlements to holiday and sick leave.

*Persons with a disability*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, a person has a disability if they report they have a limitation, restriction or impairment, which has lasted, or is likely to last, for at least six months and restricts everyday activities.

*Trend data*

Time series data from the ABS which has been trended to remove monthly or quarterly volatility. The ABS recommends use of trend data when available.

*Underemployment*

As used by the ABS, underemployment is the underutilisation of the productive capacity of the employed population. The underemployed are those in the employed population who are willing and available to work more. This includes people employed part time who wanted to work more hours and were available to start work with more hours, either in the reference week or in the four weeks subsequent to the survey; or people who are usually employed full time but who actually worked part time hours in the reference week for economic reasons.

*Unemployed*

As used by the ABS in its surveys, persons aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, and had actively looked for full-time or part-time work at any time in the four weeks up to the end of the reference week were available for work in the reference week.

*Unit of analysis*

The relevant units to which the data refer. In most cases, the units are individual persons, but in some cases, the units refer to combined categories, such as households or families.

*Working-age population*

The 'strict' definition of the working-age population in ABS population estimates are those persons aged from 15 to 64. Increasingly, people work beyond the traditional retirement age of 65.

## ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

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