

2A: Migrants' perception of the settlement experience (LSIA)

This section looks closely at how satisfied migrants feel with life in Australia using data from Waves 1 to 3 of the LSIA 1 data set. Examining recently arrived migrant satisfaction levels provides some indication about how they are settling in socially. Satisfaction with life in Australia was measured on a five point Likert scale ranging from '1 – Very Satisfied' to '5 – Very dissatisfied'. This measure was transformed into a binary variable with 1 indicating that the immigrants were either 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied' and 0 indicating all other options including those with no opinion. Several independent variables were selected to see how they were associated with life satisfaction. These included demographic variables (age, gender, marital status, education, country of birth), visa category, relationship to primary applicant, main activity, satisfaction with life in a former country, total assets that the migrants brought to Australia, whether migrants had applied for Australian citizenship and the time since arrival.⁵

Logistic regression techniques were then used to separate the effects of potentially confounding factors, so that the influence of each variable, all other things being equal, could be modelled. For example this sort of analysis allows the researcher to answer the question: Is it year of arrival, country of birth, visa category or the cash they arrived with that makes a migrant more satisfied with life in Australia? The results are presented in Table 2A.1.

There was significant variation in the level of satisfaction according to the visa category and country of birth. Those coming to Australia on a humanitarian visa appear to be more satisfied with life in Australia compared to those belonging to all other visa categories. It appears that those coming to Australia on the Concessional Family Visa were the least satisfied. Migrants born in the UK were amongst the most satisfied with life in Australia. Likewise those born in Oceania, Western and Central Europe, North, Central and South America and Africa were also more likely to be satisfied compared to those coming from the rest of the world. Those coming from China were on average the least satisfied; these migrants were four times more likely to be dissatisfied than those coming from the UK.

The demographic variables of gender and marital status were not associated with satisfaction with life in Australia. Importantly, however, primary applicants were slightly more likely to feel satisfied than their partners. Older applicants were also more likely to feel satisfied.

The human capital variables of education qualifications and employment were both associated with satisfaction with life in Australia. Those with a higher

⁵ Logistic regression measures were used to model satisfaction with life in Australia. Data was modelled using SAS 8.2.

degree or with trade or technical qualification were less likely to be satisfied compared to migrants whose highest qualification was twelve years of schooling. Those who were wage or salary earners or who owned their own businesses were more likely to report being satisfied compared to migrants who were engaged in other activities including the unemployed, students, and those performing home duties.

Migrants who came to Australia with more assets were also more likely to feel satisfied with life in Australia. No doubt being financially better off gives migrants a preferred start. Migrants who had applied for Australian citizenship were also more likely to feel satisfied with life in Australia. However this result was only marginally significant (p -value=0.05), and, of course, feeling satisfied with life in Australia may be a reason to apply for Australian citizenship.

Overall, after taking all other variables into consideration, migrants tended to feel slightly less satisfied with life in Australia over time. This suggests that some initial hopes have been abandoned or remain unfulfilled after a sustained period of adjustment. Satisfaction affects quality of life which in turn impacts upon the social wellbeing of individuals and the communities in which they live. For this reason, this issue of migrant satisfaction with life in Australia is explored more fully in the following section.

Table 2A. 1: Satisfaction with life in Australia (LSIA 1 Waves 1 to 3)

		<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Visa Category	Intercept	1.30	0.95	1.77	1.67	0.096
	Preferential Family	0.83	0.71	0.97	-2.39	0.017
	Concessional Family	0.67	0.57	0.79	-4.74	<0.001
	Business Skills & Employer Nomination	0.81	0.66	0.99	-2.03	0.042
	Independent	0.69	0.58	0.82	-4.19	<0.001
Country of birth	Humanitarian (referencing category)					
	Oceania	0.78	0.57	1.08	-1.48	0.138
	Southern Europe	0.50	0.41	0.62	-6.31	<0.001
	Western Europe	0.82	0.61	1.09	-1.38	0.168
	Northern Europe	1.15	0.75	1.76	0.63	0.528
	Eastern Europe	0.57	0.45	0.73	-4.47	<0.001
	Russia and other Baltic states	0.38	0.29	0.50	-6.85	<0.001
	Middle east and north Africa	0.71	0.58	0.87	-3.27	0.001
	Southeast Asia	0.61	0.50	0.73	-5.24	<0.001
	Northeast Asia	0.25	0.20	0.30	-12.94	<0.001
	Southern Asia	0.46	0.37	0.56	-7.35	<0.001
	North America	1.06	0.77	1.45	0.36	0.716
	Central and South America	0.82	0.64	1.04	-1.64	0.102
	Africa (excludes North Africa)	0.86	0.70	1.07	-1.35	0.178
	UK (referencing category)					
Age	Age (years)	1.01	1.00	1.01	3.63	0.000
Gender	Female	1.01	0.91	1.13	0.20	0.843
	Male (referencing category)					
Marital status	Never married	1.04	0.91	1.19	0.60	0.546
	Other(separated/divorced/widowed)	0.98	0.79	1.21	-0.17	0.863
	Married (referencing category)					
Relationship to primary applicant	Primary applicant	1.17	1.32	1.03	2.36	0.018
	Spouse/Defacto (referencing category)					
Main activity (wave 1)	Own business	0.96	0.74	1.25	-0.27	0.786
	Unemployed	0.68	0.59	0.78	-5.53	<0.001
	Student	0.73	0.63	0.85	-4.00	<0.001
	Home duties	0.76	0.66	0.89	-3.45	0.001
	Other	0.73	0.59	0.90	-2.99	0.003
	Wage & salary (referencing category)					
Satisfaction with life in former country	Satisfied	1.18	1.07	1.30	3.43	0.001
	Not satisfied (referencing category)					
Highest qualification	Higher degree	0.64	0.56	0.74	-6.02	<0.001
	Trade/technical	0.84	0.73	0.97	-2.37	0.018
	Other	1.14	0.98	1.31	1.69	0.090
	12+ years of School (referencing category)					
Time since arrival	Time since arrival (years)	0.93	0.90	0.97	-3.71	0.000
Total assets	Total assets (\$'000)	1.00	1.00	1.00	3.06	0.002
Australian citizen (wave 1-3)	Yes or applied	1.12	1.00	1.25	1.92	0.054
	No (referencing category)					

Source: LSIA

3A: Human Capital Data Tables

3A.1. Employment, workplace skills, education and welfare

Qualifications and occupational status

Occupational status is referenced by the ABS Census according to one of five categories. With respect to the highest ranking occupational category (managerial, administrative and professional workers), greatest representations (in terms of the percentage of workers in that category within Australia) are among migrants from the UK and other North Western European countries; Asian countries excluding China, Viet Nam and the Philippines; and the Americas. Census data do not of course indicate to what extent 'managers' encompass owner-managers of small businesses. This proportion could be substantial given that small business has traditionally been an important entry point to the Australian economy for migrants. Birthplace regions with lowest representations in the top occupational category were South and South Eastern Europe and the Philippines.

When high status managerial jobs were examined on a State/Territory basis, many migrant groups were seen to have levels of representation well in excess of that for the Australia-born (Table 3A.1.1). Migrants from the USA, Canada, Japan and India were particularly prominent. Interestingly, patterns of birthplace representation in high status jobs varied between Australian States and Territories but, in a sense, this may not matter greatly because high figures were recorded by at least some groups in all states and territories, thereby suggesting that some demand for highly qualified labour is met.

Table 3A.1. 1: Proportion of migrants in high status managerial, administrative and professional positions by states and territories, 1996 (per cent)

ACT	NSW	NT	Qld
South Africa (56)	Zimbabwe (46.9)	Malaysia (35.1)	Latvia (42.2)
India (56)	Afghanistan (48.7)	Ireland (38.7)	Kenya (42.9)
Canada (59)	Canada (48.7)	India (47.1)	Russia (44)
USA (61.8)	Malaysia (50)	Sri Lanka (54.5)	Iran (46.1)
Japan (64.2)	USA (55.1)	USA (55.4)	USA (47.4)
Australia-born 37.9	27.8	23.6	24.1
Overseas-born 41.0	28.2	27.9	25.5
SA	Tas	Vic	WA
Singapore (45.6)	Northern Ireland (51.8)	Canada (47.5)	Latvia (39.6)
Malaysia (50)	Canada (52.5)	Japan (47.8)	Taiwan (43.5)
USA (50.2)	South Africa (56.9)	Lithuania (48.2)	Canada (45.4)
Japan (57.9)	India (59.2)	Malaysia (53.4)	USA (46)
Russia (60.4)	USA (60.3)	USA (53.4)	Kenya (47.4)
Australia-born 26.5	24.9	28.7	25.3
Overseas-born 26.9	39.6	26.6	25.9

Source: *Atlas of the Australian People* (1999). The figures are percentages.

At the other end of the scale of occupation status (low skilled and clerical workers and labourers), the most prominent birthplace groups within Australia were the Philippines, Viet Nam, South and South Eastern Europe, and North Africa and the Middle East. The fact that this occupational profile tends to parallel migrant groups with low levels of university and college education appears noteworthy. Notwithstanding this, there appears to be an anomaly in case of Viet Nam (and, to a lesser extent, North Africa and the Middle East) which had strong representation among both those with high formal qualifications and jobs of low occupational status. This suggests either considerable variability within the category of Viet Nam-born migrants in terms of their labour force experience and lack of career choices or significant under-use of formal qualifications. Whether under-use might be related to lack of recognition of qualifications or language difficulties – or both – can only be speculated upon.

In terms of low status jobs at the State/Territory level, migrants from the Balkans, Viet Nam, Laos, Cambodia and some Pacific Islands tended to be prominent (Table 3A.1.2). Given the relatively low possession of formal qualifications by some members of these groups together with a recognised level of residential clustering, some groups might be in danger of becoming marginalised. The composition and condition of groups with low status jobs warrant monitoring over time.

Table 3A.1. 2: Proportion of migrants in low status low skilled positions by States/Territories, 1996 (per cent)

ACT	NSW	NT	Qld
Laos (32.8)	Western Samoa (32.2)	Vietnam (24.9)	Laos (39.6)
Lebanon (34.7)	Cook Islands (32.3)	China (28.8)	Cambodia (41)
Serbia-Montenegro (36.3)	Tonga (33.8)	Indonesia (35)	El Salvador (41.4)
Macedonia (41.4)	Macedonia (37.2)	Philippines (36.6)	Bosnia-Herzegovina (43.3)
Bosnia-Herzegovina (44.2)	El Salvador (37.3)	Thailand (38.9)	Philippines (44.7)
Australia-born 13.2	17.1	19.9	19.9
Overseas-born 13.3	18.0	16.6	18.8
SA	Tas	Vic	WA
Bosnia-Herzegovina (33.9)	Yugoslavia (17)	Afghanistan (33.6)	Cambodia (38.7)
Serbia-Montenegro (34.7)	Poland (18.4)	Macedonia (35.4)	Philippines (38.9)
Cambodia (40.2)	Italy (18.9)	Iraq (38.3)	Bosnia-Herzegovina (41)
Philippines (42)	Greece (23.7)	El Salvador (41)	Macedonia (49.3)
El Salvador (49.7)	Philippines (31.9)	Tonga (42)	El Salvador (56.3)
Australia-born 18.7	19.7	17.3	18.1
Overseas-born 17.8	12.4	18.3	16.6

Source: *Atlas of the Australian People* (1999). The figures are percentages.

Labour force comparisons

Business migrants on temporary visas (83%) and permanent visa holders (79%) had the highest rates of employment and also high participation rates (88% and 82% respectively) (Table 3A.1.3). Skilled migrants on permanent visas had the lowest rates of unemployment (4.2%) and persons who had been granted humanitarian visas the highest (11.6%) (Table 3A.1.3).

Table 3A.1. 3: Labour force status by type of visa for most recent arrivals ⁶, 2004

<i>Type of visa on most recent arrival to live in Australia</i>	<i>Employed per cent</i>	<i>Unemployment rate per cent</i>	<i>Participation rate per cent</i>	<i>Total '000</i>	<i>Per cent changed major occupation grp</i>
Temporary visa	69.3	4.7	72.7	337.3	45.8
Business	82.7	6.2	88.2	42.3	32.9
Student	80.8	2.3	82.9	72.5	49.0
Other	62.9	5.3	66.4	222.6	48.1
Permanent visa	62.6	6.6	67.0	681.8	39.6
Skilled stream	78.9	4.2	82.4	290.3	41.4
Business skills	74.6	5.8	79.1	77.5	42.3
General skills	80.5	3.7	83.5	212.8	41.0
Sponsored	80.3	4.9	84.4	99.3	46.3
Other	80.6	2.5	82.8	113.5	36.7
Family stream	49.8	8.6	54.5	315.5	41.0
Humanitarian	51.4	11.6	58.3	51.9	45.4
Other	57.3	12.0	65.1	24.1	48.5
Status not determined	65.0	6.6	69.7	117.0	
Total ^(a)	66.3	5.6	70.2	1362.6	42.2

Note (a) Includes persons born in New Zealand or citizens of New Zealand before migration
Source: after ABS 2004e, Labour Force Statistics and Other Characteristics of Migrants Nov 2004:9

By comparison with other visa types and with reference to data from the LSIAs, humanitarian and refugee entrants were least likely to have jobs at the end of the two series of interviews. At the same time, proportions of humanitarian entrants and refugees who were attending courses (including ESL ones) or studying were higher than for other entrants. For example, 35 per cent of refugees and 29 per cent of special humanitarian entrants interviewed for the second wave of LSIA 2 were attending courses compared with around four per cent of skilled migrants (Table 3A.1.4).

⁶ Data is available by gender. Employment status can be dissected according to whether full time or part time.

Table 3A.1. 4: Employment status of primary applicant migrants by visa categories, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>Presently in a job/ business</i>	<i>Looking for work</i>	<i>Studying</i>
LSIA 1 (Wave 3)			
Preferential Family	44	10	7
Concessional Family	78	10	6
Business Skills & Employer Nomination	90	2	1
Independent	80	4	5
Humanitarian	38	23	11
LSIA 2 (Wave 2)			
Spouse	54	9	6
Prospective spouse	58	6	10
Parent	8	3	1
Other pref. relative	50	9	30
Skilled – sponsor	82	5	4
Skilled – employed	99	0	0
Business	79	0	4
Skilled – independent	84	6	4
Refugee	22	17	35
Special humanitarian	11	11	29

Source: LSIA

Although the unemployment rate at the time of the 2001 Census was slightly higher than previously identified for 2004 – the national average in 2001 was six per cent – unemployment in 2001 was still relatively low across all birthplace groups. Only two major birthplace groups had unemployment levels above the then national average; Viet Nam (10%) and North Africa and the Middle East (7%) (Table 3A.1.5). Unemployment data when further analysed by country (as opposed to global region) of birth and gender revealed that, in addition to the Viet Nam-born (where there is relatively high unemployment for both males and females), there were relatively high unemployment rates for both males and female born in Indonesia, and for males born in Lebanon and Turkey.

Table 3A.1. 5: Human capital characteristics of birthplace groups, 2001 (per cent)

	<i>Americas</i>	<i>China (excl Taiwan)</i>	<i>Germany</i>	<i>Greece</i>	<i>Italy</i>	<i>NE Asia (excl China)</i>	<i>New Zealand</i>	<i>N Africa & Middle East</i>
<i>Educational training</i>								
Degree/diploma	33	29	21	4	6	31	17	18
Skilled/basic vocational	12	6	25	8	12	5	17	9
<i>Employment</i>								
Employed	61	46	47	35	37	45	68	43
Unemployed	6	6	3	2	2	6	6	7
Not in labour force	33	48	50	63	61	49	26	50
<i>English proficiency</i>								
Speaks very well/well	82	58	97	65	73	76	96	80
<i>Occupation</i>								
Manager/Admin./Prof.	36	28	34	13	20	37	25	25
Associate Professional	12	14	14	16	12	15	12	15
High skill/trade/clerical	12	17	18	17	22	10	16	15
Intermediate skill	23	22	21	26	22	23	29	23
Low skill/clerical/labourer	18	19	13	28	24	15	18	22

Source: 2001 Census (1% CURF)

Table 3A.1.5 (continued): Human capital characteristics of birthplace groups, 2001 (per cent)

	<i>NW Europe</i>	<i>Oceania</i>	<i>Philippines</i>	<i>SE Asia</i>	<i>South & Central Asia</i>	<i>S & SE Europe</i>	<i>Sub- Saharan Africa</i>	<i>UK</i>	<i>Viet Nam</i>
<i>Educational training</i>									
Degree/diploma	33	19	35	33	41	15	33	21	16
Skilled/basic vocational	35	11	10	6	9	16	13	19	5
<i>Employment</i>									
Employed	50	64	62	54	60	44	63	55	52
Unemployed	4	6	4	5	6	4	6	3	10
Not in labour force	46	30	34	41	34	52	31	42	38
<i>English proficiency</i>									
Speaks very well/well	96	93	96	84	91	79	94	94	57
<i>Occupation</i>									
Manager/Admin./Prof.	33	25	19	35	36	20	40	32	23
Associate Professional	14	9	8	11	12	8	14	14	9
High skill/trade/clerical	20	13	10	10	9	20	12	17	15
Intermediate skill	22	32	32	23	26	27	21	23	28
Low skill/clerical/labourer	11	21	31	21	17	25	13	14	25

Source: 2001 Census (1% CURF)

LSIA trends in migrant qualifications and employment status

LSIAs 1 and 2 permit the educational qualifications of more recent migrants to be tracked (Table 3A.1.6). Levels of primary applicants with degrees at time of arrival were higher for the second cohort by comparison with the first one. Overall, the proportion of primary applicants with any sort of qualification increased with the second cohort (from 61% to 71%). A similar increase in qualifications characterised spouses of primary applicants; the proportion with qualifications rose from just over half (52%) to two-thirds (67%). In short, recent migrants have increasingly contributed to human capital in Australia by adding significantly to the pool of persons with qualifications.

Table 3A.1. 6: Qualifications of recent migrants, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>LSIA 1</i>		<i>LSIA 2</i>	
	<i>Primary applicant</i>	<i>Spouse</i>	<i>Primary Applicant</i>	<i>Spouse</i>
Higher degree	7.0	6.9	14.1	11.2
Postgraduate diploma	4.9	4.9	5.4	4.4
Bachelors degree	20.8	17.6	23.7	23.8
Technical/professional diploma/certificate	21.4	18.5	20.6	22.9
Trade	7.2	3.8	6.7	4.5
12 or more years schooling	16.1	20.3	15.2	18.0
10-11 years schooling	9.3	11.2	5.9	4.1
7-9 years schooling	7.6	7.8	3.7	2.3
6 or fewer years schooling	4.9	5.8	3.7	2.3
Other	0.7	3.2	0.4	3.8

Source: LSIA

Predictably, not all qualifications held by migrants can be put to most effective use immediately upon arrival in Australia. A seemingly low 37 per cent of LSIA 1 and 53 per cent of LSIA 2 primary applicants had jobs at the time of their first interviews (five to six months after arrival) (Table 3A.1.7). However, it should be noted that migrants in some categories (for example, humanitarian entrants) did not have any qualifications at the time of entry while others (such as those issued with family reunion visas) might have been retired or otherwise out of the labour force. Importantly, the proportion in work increased with each wave of interviews, reaching 59 and 64 per cent for the final interviews for LSIAs 1 and 2 respectively. Proportions studying fell over the course of interviews for each cohort (from 15% to 5%) – as did proportions looking for work (22% to 10%) – reflecting the fact that some migrants were undertaking short-term English-language courses at the time of initial interviews. The same overall trends obtained for both primary applicants and their spouses, indicating that some success in finding jobs was widespread.

Table 3A.1. 7: Employment status of recent migrants, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>Primary Applicant</i>			<i>Spouse</i>		
	<i>Presently in a job/business</i>	<i>Looking for work</i>	<i>Studying</i>	<i>Presently in a job/business</i>	<i>Looking for work</i>	<i>Studying</i>
LSIA 1						
Wave 1	36.7	22.4	14.9	19.4	17.2	16.1
Wave 2	52.5	13.1	11.8	33.4	9.6	13.5
Wave 3	59.0	9.9	5.2	41.3	7.4	5.6
LSIA 2						
Wave 1	52.7	10.9	14.0	38.2	9.7	15.6
Wave 2	63.7	7.2	7.0	47.3	3.0	10.1

Source: LSIA

Finding a job does not mean that qualifications are used to best effect. When initially interviewed for LSIA 1, primary applicant business migrants were most likely to use their qualifications at least often if not very often (84% said that they did) and humanitarian refugees least likely (only 15% did so) (Table 3A.1.8). Nevertheless, the longer migrants were in the workforce the more, generally speaking, they were able to use their qualifications. This suggests that, with growing familiarity, employee skills could be better matched to workplace tasks.

Table 3A.1. 8: Percentage of recent primary applicant migrants using qualifications 'very often' or 'often' by visa category, LSIA

	<i>Wave 1</i>	<i>Wave 2</i>	<i>Wave 3</i>
LSIA 1			
Preferential Family	31	35	43
Concessional Family	45	47	51
Business Skills & Employer Nomination	84	74	70
Independent	63	67	66
Humanitarian	15	18	26
LSIA 2	<i>Wave 1</i>	<i>Wave 2</i>	
Spouse	43	56	
Prospective marriage partner	44	36	
Parent	31	39	
Other preferential relative	38	50	
Skilled – sponsor	57	66	
Skilled – employee nomination	92	94	
Business	68	79	
Skills – independent	75	77	

Source: LSIA

Proficiency in English

Levels of proficiency in English vary significantly according to place of birth (Table 3A.1.9). The proportion of migrants who spoke English well (if not very well) was predictably high for those born in England and in other parts of the UK. It was also high for migrants from some countries where English was not mainly spoken, specifically those from North Western Europe. This highlights the fact that many of these migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds have been in Australia for many years and, as a result, have become proficient in the use of English. High levels of proficiency in English were also evident for some more recently arrived migrant groups including those from the Philippines, Sub-Saharan Africa, Oceania, and South and Central Asia. Over 90 per cent of migrants from these regions spoke English well. Clearly, for these migrant groups, language is not a barrier to the development of human and social capital and successful integration into Australian society.

The major birthplace groups with language difficulties (in the sense of not speaking English well if at all) were from various parts of Asia including Viet Nam, China (excluding Taiwan and SARs) and South Korea where around one in three did not speak English well. Migrants from Turkey, the Former Yugoslav Republic (FYR) of Macedonia, Lebanon and Croatia had problems speaking English to even greater degrees. Difficulties with the English language are not however confined to these areas or to recently arrived migrants. In some long-established groups, between one-fifth and one-third of ethnic populations speak English not well if at all; this included migrants from Greece or with Greek ancestry (32%) and Italy or with Italian ancestry (22%).

Table 3A.1. 9: Persons speaking English not well or not at all, 2001

<i>Country</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Australia	0.7	Macedonia (FYR ^(a) of)	27.0
Canada	0.3	Malaysia	5.2
China (excl. SARs ^(b) & Taiwan)	38.5	Malta	6.4
Croatia	19.6	Netherlands	1.1
Egypt	8.3	New Zealand	0.5
Fiji	3.0	Philippines	2.5
France	4.3	Poland	12.3
Germany	1.6	Singapore	2.3
Greece	31.6	South Africa	0.2
Hong Kong (SAR)	14.4	Sri Lanka	3.3
India	3.0	Turkey	31.2
Indonesia	9.1	UK	0.1
Ireland	0.1	USA	0.4
Italy	22.0	Viet Nam	42.0
Korea, Republic of (South)	33.7	Yugoslavia, Fed. Republic of	17.4
Lebanon	22.2	Born elsewhere	14.7

Notes (a) FYR = Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

(b) SARs = Special Administrative Regions of Hong Kong and Macau

Source: 2001 Census (1% CURF)

English proficiency among people who speak languages other than English at home also varies with age (Table 3A.1.10). Although a large majority of persons of working age (25-64 years) spoke English at least well if not very well at the time of the 2001 Census, a significant proportion (17%) was not proficient in English (ABS 2006c). Of the total Australian population aged 65 years or more, the proportion not speaking English well, if at all, increased to 40 per cent. For persons born in Australia, the proportion of older people not proficient in English was, at 19 per cent, still relatively high.

Table 3A.1. 10: Proficiency in English among people speaking other than English at home, 2001

	<i>Age groups (years)</i>				
	<i>Units</i>	<i>0-24</i>	<i>25-64</i>	<i>65 & over</i>	<i>Total</i>
Total population speaking other than English at home					
Speaks English well/very well	%	88.1	83.0	59.9	81.6
Does not speak English well	%	8.4	15.1	29.5	14.9
Does not speak English at all	%	3.5	1.9	10.7	3.5
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Persons ^(a)	'000	860.4	1,602.0	354.0	2,816.5
Australia-born population speaking other than English at home					
Speaks English well/very well	%	86.7	96.7	81.3	90.5
Does not speak English well	%	8.6	2.9	14.2	6.5
Does not speak English at all	%	4.6	0.4	4.5	3.0
Total	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Persons ^(b)	'000	493.4	305.7	9.87	809.0

Notes (a) Includes 45,000 people who did not state how well they spoke English.

(b) Includes 20,000 people who did not state how well they spoke English

Source: ABS 2006c, *Year Book Australia 2006*:147

Linguistic diversity

One in five Australians has some capacity to speak languages other than English. This is some indication of the linguistic resource provided by migrants (refer to Table 3A.1.11). Chinese languages (Cantonese and Mandarin) are most widely spoken (2% of the population), followed by Italian (1.9%), Greek (1.4%), Arabic (including Lebanese) (1.1%), and Vietnamese (0.9%).

Greater linguistic diversity is causing educators and trainers to face different and more numerous challenges. Looking at enrolment numbers for students from a range of language backgrounds other than English might be one way of appreciating the increasing complexity of these challenges. Only limited data relating to language background of learners, clients and staff could be sourced and this was for schools and TAFE in NSW (NSW DET 2003, 2004) (Table 3A.1.12). Whilst data for other states might well be compiled, NSW is arguably the benchmark state with respect to ethnic diversity, particularly over more recent decades.

Table 3A.1. 11: Languages spoken at home, 2001

<i>Language spoken at home</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Language spoken at home</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Speaks English only	80.0	Korean	0.2
Speaks other language:		Macedonian	0.4
Arabic (including Lebanese)	1.1	Maltese	0.2
Australian Indigenous Languages	0.3	Netherlandic	0.2
Chinese Languages		Persian	0.1
Cantonese	1.2	Polish	0.3
Mandarin	0.8	Portuguese	0.1
Other	0.2	Russian	0.2
Croatian	0.4	Samoan	0.1
French	0.2	Serbian	0.3
German	0.4	Sinhalese	0.1
Greek	1.4	South Slavic nfd	0.1
Hindi	0.3	Spanish	0.5
Hungarian	0.1	Tagalog (Filipino)	0.4
Indonesian	0.2	Tamil	0.1
Italian	1.9	Turkish	0.3
Japanese	0.2	Vietnamese	0.9
Khmer	0.1	Other	1.9

Source: 2001 Census (1% CURF)

Table 3A.1. 12: NSW enrolments of students from language backgrounds other than English, 2001-04 ('000)

<i>Education Provider</i>	<i>2001</i>	<i>2002</i>	<i>2003</i>	<i>2004</i>
NSW public schools	182.9	190.8	190.1	199.5
TAFE NSW (a) ⁷	60.3	92.7	91.1	86.3
Adult and Community Education	27.1	32.8	31.2	na
Adult Migrant English Service	15.1	16.1	15.7	25.3 ⁸
Community Languages Board of NSW	34.1	32.4	32.0	32.0

Source: NSW Dept of Education & Training 2003, 2004

⁷ Apparent discrepancy between data in the TAFE NSW enrolments has been attributed to changes in questions asked to elicit number of students from language backgrounds other than English

⁸ Increased enrolments in AMES in 2004 reflect the addition of Southern Sydney and Illawarra region to AMES's service provision

Student enrolments in NSW schools for people with language backgrounds other than English continued to rise during the earlier part of this decade (by greater than 9% overall from 2001 to almost 200,000 pupils in 2004) with potential for concomitant flow-on effects in tertiary education enrolments in the future. Enrolments with most other education providers – TAFE, ACE, AMES and Community Language board of NSW – generally rose until 2002 (to 174,000) but seem to have plateaued since then.

Affirmative action is argued as necessary to promote, and in some instances restore, more socially cohesive understandings of cultural diversity in Australia. This might be especially important with respect to education and training because effective and inclusive education is beneficial not only for persons from minority groups but also for promoting widespread tolerance and cultural diversity (Australian Council of Deans Incorporated 2002). One way that this has been tackled in NSW has been to set recruitment targets in schools and TAFE for staff from racial, ethnic and ethno-religious minority groups and those whose first language spoken as a child was not English. Based on their estimated representation in the NSW working age population, the yardstick was set in 2004 at 19 per cent (NSW DET 2004). Available recruitment data for three years to 2003 suggest that progress has been made in a number of areas (Table 3A.1.13). Nevertheless, there is still some way to go before targets are achieved in TAFE NSW for people from racial, ethnic and ethno-religious minority group: only 10 per cent were represented in staff recruitments in 2001-03.

Table 3A.1. 13: NSW recruitment data for schools and TAFE, 2001-03

	<i>2001</i>	<i>2002</i>	<i>2003</i>	<i>Total</i>
Schools				
Total number of staff recruited	10,044	6,520	6,044	22,338
People from racial, ethnic and ethno-religious minority groups	12%	11%	15%	16.2%
People whose first language spoken as a child was not English	13%	9%	12%	17.5%
TAFE NSW				
Total number of staff recruited	1,078	1,331	1,346	3,755
People from racial, ethnic and ethno-religious minority groups	12%	7%	11%	10.3%
People whose first language spoken as a child was not English	20%	18%	18%	17.2%

Source: after NSW DET 2004

3A.2 Physical and mental health

Sub-group variations

Pre-migration screening no doubt contributed to persons born overseas overall having lower rates of many long-term health conditions. For instance, people who reported that they suffered from asthma were more likely to have been born in Australia (11.2%) than elsewhere (Table 3A.2.1). Certain other health risk factors and diseases are, however, more prevalent among some country-of-birth groups. Heart, stroke and vascular diseases were more than twice as likely to be reported by people from European countries (between 6.4% and 8.6%) than by the Australia-born (3.0%) or by persons born elsewhere. Persons from Southern and Eastern Europe (28.8%) and the United Kingdom (28.2%) reported suffering from arthritis at twice the rate of the Australian born (14.2%); other North-West Europeans also reported high incidences (24.0%). Southern and Eastern Europeans had high levels of diabetes (10.1%) by comparison with the Australia-born (3.0%) and other countries (for example, the second highest reporting at 6.4% was for persons born in North Africa and the Middle East).

Table 3A.2. 1: Selected long-term health conditions by place of birth, 2004-05 (per cent)

<i>Population characteristics</i>	<i>Arthritis</i>	<i>Asthma</i>	<i>Diabetes mellitus</i>	<i>Heart, stroke & vascular disease</i>	<i>Malignant neoplasm</i>
Place of birth					
Australia	14.2	11.2	3.0	3.4	1.8
Other Oceania	13.5	9.8	4.6	3.2	0.7
United Kingdom	28.2	9.2	5.5	7.6	2.4
Other N & W Europe	24.0	7.7	4.6	8.6	1.9
S & E Europe	28.8	5.2	10.1	6.4	1.2
N Africa & M. East	13.6	4.7	6.4	3.6	np
South East Asia	9.4	7.3	4.3	2.9	1.0
All other countries	10.1	4.6	3.6	2.9	1.0

(Source: ABS 2006d)

Persons born overseas overall have lower rates of profound or severe core-activity limitations and disabilities (5.6% and 16.7% respectively) than the Australia-born (6.5% and 21.0% respectively) (Table 3A.2.2). Exceptions with respect to disability were for those born in the UK other than England and Scotland (22.9%) and in Greece (21.9%); lowest rates were for those born in North-East Asia (6.6%). Recently arrived migrants were less likely to have a disability or a long-term health condition (19% compared with 40% of the total adult population) (ABS 2004a: 52).

Table 3A.2. 2: Disability rates by place of birth, 2003

<i>Country of birth</i>	<i>Profound/severe core activity limitation rate %</i>	<i>Disability rate %</i>	<i>All persons '000</i>
Oceania and Antarctica			
Australia	6.5	21.0	15,251.6
New Zealand	6.5	19.3	378.7
Other Oceania and Antarctica	3.7	13.0	118.5
Northern and Western Europe			
England	5.3	17.5	924.6
Scotland	5.3	18.6	127.0
Other United Kingdom	9.9	22.9	133.4
Germany	4.7	17.1	127.9
Netherlands	4.9	16.0	93.9
Other Northern and Western Europe	4.7	14.7	72.4
Southern and Eastern Europe			
Italy	6.1	17.3	226.7
Greece	4.9	21.9	123.8
Other Southern and Eastern Europe	6.0	18.8	443.3
North Africa and the Middle East	7.7	19.8	269.6
South East Asia	4.1	11.9	559.7
North East Asia	3.0	6.6	325.9
Southern and Central Asia	4.6	14.3	265.5
Americas	5.0	14.6	148.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	4.8	12.9	202.5
Not known	8.6	21.0	17.8
Total overseas born	5.6	16.7	4,559.5
Total	6.3	20.0	19,811.1

(Source: ABS 2003c)

The better health of migrants resulting from pre-migration screening is reflected in lower hospitalisation rates, with total separation rates for Australia-born persons in 2004-05 24 per cent higher (at 352.7 per 1,000 population) than for the overseas-born population (285.2) (Table 3A.2.3). However, these rates vary greatly by country-of-birth. For example, patients in hospitals who were born in Egypt had the highest rates of hospitalisation in 2004-05 (394.2); the rate for all countries in the Middle East and North Africa region was 358.2. Hospitalised patients born in China had the lowest rates (203.2), contributing to the lowest global regional rate of 215.1 for persons from North-East Asia.

Overseas-born persons requiring hospitalisation – particularly those born in Egypt (83.0%), Viet Nam (80.1%) and the Philippines (79.0%) – are more likely to use public sector hospitals (67.4% did so in 2004-05) than patients born in Australia (59.4%). Private hospitals were used by persons requiring hospitalisation and who were born in South Africa (48.5%), Hong Kong and Macau (47.7%) and the USA (45.8%) more than the Australia-born (40.6%).

Table 3A.2. 3: Use of public and private hospitals in Australia by country of birth, 2004-05

	<i>Public hospitals Separations per 1,000 population</i>	<i>Private Hospitals</i>	<i>All hospitals</i>	<i>Public hospitals % use</i>	<i>Private Hospitals % use</i>
Australia	209.4	143.3	352.7	59.4	40.6
New Zealand	186.1	87.9	274.0	67.9	32.1
Fiji	296.1	85.8	381.9	77.5	22.5
Other Oceania	449.5	120.8	570.3	78.8	21.2
Oceania (total)	209.5	141.4	350.9	59.7	40.3
UK & Ireland	169.8	106.5	276.3	61.5	38.5
Germany	185.5	103.5	289.0	64.2	35.8
Netherlands	171.0	110.6	281.6	60.7	39.3
Other North-West Europe	197.7	113.8	311.5	63.5	36.5
North-West Europe (total)	173.2	106.4	279.6	61.9	38.1
Italy	222.8	117.7	340.5	65.4	34.6
Croatia	202.8	75.4	278.2	72.9	27.1
Greece	235.2	87.9	323.1	72.8	27.2
Poland	186.9	93.9	280.8	66.6	33.4
Other Southern & Eastern Europe	212.0	81.7	293.7	72.2	27.8
Southern & Eastern Europe (total)	217.3	92.0	309.3	70.3	29.7
Lebanon	238.9	104.8	343.7	69.5	30.5
Egypt	327.3	66.9	394.2	83.0	17.0
Other Middle East & North Africa	275.6	65.3	340.9	80.8	19.2
Middle East and North Africa (total)	282.9	75.3	358.2	79.0	21.0
Vietnam	181.3	45.1	226.4	80.1	19.9
Philippines	193.8	51.5	245.3	79.0	21.0
Other South-East Asia	155.1	88.0	243.1	63.8	36.2
South-East Asia (total)	170.9	67.8	238.7	71.6	28.4
China	135.4	67.8	203.2	66.6	33.4
Hong Kong & Macau	142.2	129.6	271.8	52.3	47.7
Other North-East Asia	127.0	94.2	221.2	57.4	42.6
North-East Asia (total)	132.7	82.4	215.1	61.7	38.3
India	165.0	88.3	253.3	65.1	34.9
Sri Lanka	189.5	105.6	295.1	64.2	35.8
Other Southern & Central Asia	225.0	79.2	304.2	74.0	26.0
Southern & Central Asia (total)	184.6	91.6	276.2	66.8	33.2
USA	176.4	149.2	325.6	54.2	45.8
Chile	222.1	69.6	291.7	76.1	23.9
Other America	185.6	103.1	288.7	64.3	35.7
The Americas (total)	190.1	114.1	304.2	62.5	37.5
South Africa	136.3	128.4	264.7	51.5	48.5
Other Sub-Saharan Africa	228.6	109.7	338.3	67.6	32.4
Sub-Saharan Africa (total)	175.4	119.9	295.3	59.4	40.6
Overseas Total	192.1	93.1	285.2	67.4	32.6
Total	209.6	133.2	342.8	61.1	38.9

Source: after AIHW 2006

Mental health

In addition to being less likely to be hospitalised, overseas born people seemingly have, overall, lower rates of mental and behavioural problems. At the time of the 2001 National Health Survey (NHS), 9.8 per cent of the Australia-born had such problems compared with 9.0 per cent of those born overseas (ABS 2001). The NHS 2004-05 data were presented such that similar comparisons cannot be made. Rather, data were reported according to country of birth, recency of arrival and language spoken at home (Table 3A.2.4). In 2004-05, overseas-born persons who arrived prior to 1996 (9.8%) or who spoke English as their main language at home (10.0%) were more likely to suffer from mental and behavioural problems than either the Australia-born (8.8%), more recent arrivals (4.6%) or those who mainly spoke other than English at home (7.9%). Persons born in the United Kingdom, many of whom would be long-term migrants speaking English at home, also had comparatively high rates (9.5%). Furthermore, there were stand-out results for North Africa and the Middle East and Southern and Eastern Europe with 11.1 per cent and 10.4 per cent of persons born in these regions respectively having mental and behavioural problems. These results might be associated with migrants fleeing chaos or war.

Table 3A.2. 4: Mental and behavioural problems according to place of birth, 2004-05 (per cent)

<i>Population characteristics</i>	<i>Mental & behavioural problems</i>
Place of birth	
Australia	8.8
Other Oceania	6.9
United Kingdom	9.5
Other Northern & Western Europe	7.6
Southern & Eastern Europe	10.4
North Africa & the Middle East	11.1
South East Asia	7.8
All other countries	7.0
Born overseas	
Arrived before 1996	9.8
Arrived 1996-2005	4.6
Main language spoken at home	
English	10.0
Other than English	7.9

Source: ABS 2006d

The 2001 NHS pointed to persons born overseas overall having similar levels of psychological distress as the Australian born (Tables 3A.2.5 and 3A.2.6). However, greater proportions of migrants who spoke languages other than English at home had high (or very high) levels of psychological distress (16.5% compared with 11.9% for migrants who spoke English only and 12.4%

for the Australia-born). Whether not being proficient in English was one reason for such distress or whether other factors relating to personal safety in source countries were more influential can only be speculated upon.

Table 3A.2. 5: Psychological distress according to place of birth, 2001

<i>Level of psychological distress (a)</i>		<i>Place of birth</i>		<i>Total</i>
		<i>Australia</i>	<i>Born overseas</i>	
Low (10-15)	'000	6,552.1	2,574.3	9,126.4
	%	64.1	65.0	64.3
Moderate (16-21)	'000	2,406.4	859.6	3,265.9
	%	23.5	21.7	23.0
High (22-29)	'000	921.0	362.7	1,283.7
	%	9.0	9.2	9.0
Very high (30-50)	'000	343.0	165.7	508.7
	%	3.4	4.2	3.6
Total	'000	10,222.5	3,962.3	14,184.7

(a) As measured by the Kessler 10 Scale
Source: ABS 2001

Table 3A.2. 6: Psychological distress according to main language spoken at home, 2001 ('000 and per cent)

<i>Level of psychological distress (a)</i>		<i>Main language spoken at home</i>		<i>Total</i>
		<i>English only</i>	<i>Languages other than English</i>	
Low (10-15)	'000	7,772.7	1,353.7	9,126.4
	%	65.1	60.1	64.3
Moderate (16-21)	'000	2,736.3	529.6	3,265.9
	%	22.9	23.5	23.0
High (22-29)	'000	1036.6	247.1	1,283.7
	%	8.7	11.0	9.0
Very high (30-50)	'000	385.1	123.5	508.7
	%	3.2	5.5	3.6
Total	'000	11930.7	2,254.0	14,184.7

(a) As measured by the Kessler 10 Scale
Source: ABS 2001

Given this information, it might well be imagined that persons born overseas who were not proficient in spoken English might acknowledge having experienced personal stressors to a greater extent than others. Results from Australia's first General Social Survey (GSS) conducted in 2002 (ABS 2003a) suggest otherwise with persons born overseas but *not* in the main English speaking countries (54.8%) less likely than others to say they had experienced stressors in the preceding 12 months (the average for all persons was 42.6%) (Table 3A.2.7). Of course, personal assessment of what constitutes a stressful experience is most likely adjudged according to previous life events.

Table 3A.2. 7: Personal stressors by place of birth and proficiency in spoken English, 2002 (per cent)

<i>Personal stressors</i>	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in main English-speaking countries</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>		<i>All persons</i>
			<i>Proficient in spoken English</i>	<i>Not proficient in spoken English</i>	
Stressors experienced in last 12 months:					
At least one stressor	59.3	58.8	49.1	45.2	57.4
No stressors	40.7	41.2	50.9	54.8	42.6

Source: ABS 2003a

Impact of non-English speaking backgrounds

Self assessed health status presents another set of contrasting results. At the time of the 2002 GSS, persons not proficient in English were significantly more likely to indicate that their health status was fair if not poor than other migrants or the Australia-born. In fact, there were only marginal differences in self-assessed health status for all birthplace groups who came from the main English-speaking countries (including Australia) or who were proficient in spoken English; only between 14.4 per cent and 15.8 per cent said their health was fair or poor (Table 3A.2.8). Conversely, 40.5 per cent of persons born overseas and not proficient in spoken English self-assessed their health as fair or poor. Lack of ability to effectively communicate in English seemingly has wide-ranging implications with respect to perceptions about health.

Table 3A.2. 8: Self assessed health status by place of birth and proficiency in spoken English, 2002 (per cent)

<i>Self-assessed health status</i>	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in main English-speaking countries</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>		<i>All persons</i>
			<i>Proficient in spoken English</i>	<i>Not proficient in spoken English</i>	
Excellent/Very good	60.8	61.6	56.6	27.0	59.2
Good	24.2	24.1	27.6	32.5	24.9
Fair/Poor	15.0	14.4	15.8	40.5	15.9

Source: ABS 2003a

Poor or fair health might be associated with having core-activity limitations or ones that limit participation in schooling or employment activities. Disability or long-term health conditions in 2002 reported from the GSS according to place of birth and proficiency in English suggests this might be the case (Table 3A.2.9), with comparatively high proportions of migrants not proficient in English having limitations in these respects (20.7% and 9.0% respectively), significantly more than for the total population (12.5% and 5.3% respectively).

Table 3A.2. 9: Disability or long-term health condition by place of birth and proficiency in spoken English, 2003 (per cent)

<i>Disability or long-term health condition</i>	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in main English-speaking countries</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>		<i>All persons</i>
			<i>Proficient in spoken English</i>	<i>Not proficient in spoken English</i>	
Has core-activity limitation	12.6	13.6	9.2	20.7	12.5
Has a schooling/employment limitation only	5.4	4.9	4.2	9.0	5.3
Has no specific limitation or restriction	21.8	24.4	19.8	25.8	21.9
Has no disability or long-term health condition	60.3	57.2	66.9	44.5	60.3

Source: ABS 2003a

Long-term health conditions – with the exception of diabetes – were generally more likely to be experienced by persons whose main language spoken at home was English (including Australians) (Table 3A.2.10). More recent migrants (those who arrived after 1996) were less likely to have a disability or a long-term health condition. Clearly ability to effectively communicate in English seemingly has wide-ranging implications with respect to perceptions about health.

Table 3A.2. 10: Selected long-term health conditions by recency of arrival and language spoken at home, 2004-05 (per cent)

<i>Population characteristics</i>	<i>Arthritis</i>	<i>Asthma</i>	<i>Diabetes mellitus</i>	<i>Heart, stroke & vascular disease</i>	<i>Malignant neoplasm</i>
Born overseas					
Arrived before 1996	23.6	7.5	6.7	6.5	1.5
Arrived 1996-2005	5.3	5.4	1.6	0.8	0.6
Main language spoken at home					
English	20.4	10.4	4.4	5.0	2.4
Other than English	17.4	4.3	7.1	4.6	0.9

Source: ABS 2006d

Some of these results appear to be at odds with what might be expected of the 'healthy migrant effect'. Of course, core activities relate to not only self-care or mobility capabilities but also to communication (ABS 2003a). Low proficiency levels in English inhibit interaction and communication. In addition, the stress and disruption of moving, and leaving friends, family and familiar language and conditions behind can be related to significant psychological distress. Furthermore, some migrants who escaped countries of chaos or

persecution and who had low levels of English proficiency have been found to experience especially high levels of psychological distress. It should also be remembered that there are variations in pre-migration screening criteria between visa categories. Humanitarian and preferential family visa entrants, particularly the former, can be exempted from meeting certain health requirements. Moreover, many persons issued with these types of visas might not be proficient in spoken English.

3A.3 Leisure and recreation

In 2003, the ABS surveyed participation by children aged 4-15 years in cultural and leisure activities, including sporting activities (refer to Tables 3A.3.1 to Table 3A.3.3) and their participation in computer and internet activities (Table 3A.3.4). Results for participation in organised sport and selected leisure activities produced some striking differences according to country-of-birth and birthplace of parents. In particular, children born in other than the main English-speaking countries were significantly less likely to participate in sporting and leisure activities than other migrant children or the Australia-born. Furthermore, children who had non English-speaking migrant heritages (with *parents* born in other than the main English-speaking countries) were similarly less active in these respects.

Generally speaking, children with non-English-speaking backgrounds tended to favour (by comparison with others) more 'cultural', passive or individual activity types (such as playing musical instruments, reading or watching television) rather than active pastimes such as skateboarding, board riding and bicycling and also arts and craft leisure activities.

Table 3A.3. 1: Participation rates for children in selected organised cultural activities, 2003 (per cent)

	<i>Playing a musical instrument</i>	<i>Singing</i>	<i>Dancing</i>	<i>Drama</i>	<i>Total</i>
Country of birth					
Born in Australia	16.6	4.6	12.5	4.1	29.3
Born overseas					
Born in MESC	20.6	6.7	11.5	9.6	33.9
Born in other countries	20.8	4.4	11.1	3.6	30.0
Birthplace of parents					
One-parent families					
Parent born in Australia	10.7	5.0	11.6	3.9	24.5
Parent born in MESC	16.8	3.4	10.7	9.8	31.0
Parent born in other	11.5	2.5	7.4	2.6	17.9
Couple families					
Both parents born in Australia	16.7	4.8	13.2	4.2	30.1
Both parents born in MESC	20.5	6.4	13.3	7.2	32.4
Both parents born in other	22.3	3.0	7.0	2.8	28.1
Other	20.3	4.5	15.1	4.4	34.4

Source: ABS 2004e:16

Table 3A.3. 2: Participation by children in organised sport, 2003

	<i>Number ('000)</i>			<i>Participation rate (per cent)</i>		
	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Persons</i>
Country of birth						
Born in Australia	883.7	666.0	1,549.7	69.4	55.1	62.4
Born overseas						
Born in main English speaking countries	24.8	20.1	44.9	66.5	57.1	62.0
Born in other countries	23.3	12.4	35.8	50.1	26.8	38.4
Birthplace of parents						
One-parent families						
Parent born in Australia	132.4	95.3	227.7	59.5	44.1	51.9
Parent born in MESC	17.9	12.3	30.2	55.9	44.7	50.8
Parent born in other	12.4	8.7	21.1	35.7	25.3	30.5
Couple families						
Both parents born in Australia	495.7	387.3	883.1	75.7	62.6	69.3
Both parents born in MESC	38.5	30.4	68.9	75.6	62.2	69.1
Both parents born in other	65.8	40.2	106.0	50.0	32.4	41.5
Other	161.6	117.6	279.2	74.1	56.6	65.5

Source: ABS 2004e: 21

**Table 3A.3. 3: Participation rates by children in selected leisure activities, 2003
(per cent)**

	<i>Skate-boarding or board-riding</i>	<i>Bike riding</i>	<i>Watch TV or videos</i>	<i>Playing electronic/computer games</i>	<i>Art and craft</i>	<i>Reading for pleasure</i>
Country of birth						
Born in Australia	23.1	62.9	98.3	78.0	49.8	74.7
Born overseas						
Born in MESC	26.1	58.1	98.9	72.1	52.7	76.5
Born in other countries	12.9	45.2	97.6	64.7	39.9	78.0
Birthplace of parents						
One-parent families						
Parent born in Australia	28.2	64.0	97.5	68.7	48.2	70.7
Parent born in MESC	29.5	61.5	96.6	74.1	53.2	69.6
Parent born in other	16.4	46.4	97.8	66.4	31.5	71.6
Couple families						
Both parents born in Australia	23.7	66.7	98.5	72.0	52.0	75.3
Both parents born in MESC	23.3	61.2	98.7	69.2	54.9	77.7
Both parents born in other	13.9	45.6	98.1	68.0	37.3	75.5
Other	20.2	59.2	98.3	70.6	51.5	77.8

Source: ABS 2004e: 30

Children born overseas are more likely to access the internet than ones born in Australia although both groups use computers to a similar extent (Table 3A.3.4). The overseas-born quite likely use the internet for keeping in touch with dispersed family and friends. Interestingly, those children least likely to access the internet were in families where parents were born in other than the main English-speaking countries. This could include Australia-born children of earlier migrants, perhaps of lower socio-economic status, who might not keep touch with family and friends left behind to the same extent as more recent immigrants.

Table 3A.3. 4: Participation by children in computer and internet activities, 2003

	Number ('000)			Participation rate (per cent)		
	Access internet	Used computer but not internet	Total	Access internet	Used computer but not internet	Total
Country of birth						
Born in Australia	1,576.8	784.5	2,361.3	63.5	31.6	95.1
Born overseas						
Born in MESC	52.6	17.3	70.0	72.6	23.9	96.5
Born in other countries	63.9	22.3	86.2	68.6	24.0	92.6
Birthplace of parents						
One-parent families						
Parent born in Australia	260.7	155.5	416.1	59.4	35.5	94.9
Parent born in MESC	36.6	21.0	57.6	61.5	35.3	96.9
Parent born in other	35.5	24.2	59.6	51.2	34.9	86.1
Couple families						
Both parents born in Australia	849.7	376.4	1,226.1	66.7	29.6	96.3
Both parents born in MESC	71.5	25.0	96.5	71.6	25.1	96.7
Both parents born in other	138.3	88.5	226.8	54.1	34.6	88.7
Other	283.3	127.2	410.5	66.5	29.8	96.3

Source: ABS 2004e: 37

Influences of recency of arrival and languages spoken

Leisure activities for persons aged 15 years or over were analysed by global region of birth using CURF data from the most recent (1997) ABS Time Use Survey (TUS). These somewhat dated data showed that the leisure time of migrants was largely influenced by year of arrival rather than country of birth. Although migrants spent more time in leisure pursuits than the Australia-born population in the first couple of years after migration, during the long-term settlement process that followed, leisure time was lost before being gradually recovered. It was only after migrants had lived in Australia for 16 years that the same level of leisure time was achieved as that enjoyed by the Australia-born.

Persons from linguistically diverse homes spent less time in sport, games, communicating and travelling for leisure than others. Women in homes where languages other than English were spoken had about 50 minutes per day less leisure time – including less time for reading – than men from the same linguistic background; for those born in Australia, the gender leisure gap was 25 minutes.

Adult attendance at cultural venues and events

Attendance rates by adults (people aged 18 years and over) at cultural venues and events have been compiled from the GSS (Table 3A.3.5). These results showed that the Australia-born, on the one hand, were more likely to attend most forms of popular performing arts and the cinema than those born

overseas. On the other hand, they were less likely than those born elsewhere to attend more 'highbrow' venues including art galleries, museums, libraries and settings for classical performances. Nevertheless, overall differences in attendance rates between those born locally and overseas were marginal.

The most noteworthy feature was, however, the different attendance patterns for those born in other than the main English-speaking countries. For the great majority of venues and events, their attendance levels were lower than those born in the main English speaking countries including Australia. Exceptions were for attendance at venues and events such as botanic gardens, classical music concerts and dance performances where appreciation is not dependent on proficiency in any particular language. Furthermore, those from non-English speaking backgrounds were least likely to have had outings to at least one venue in the 12 months preceding the survey.

Table 3A.3. 5: Adult attendance rates at cultural venues and events 2002 (per cent)

	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in MESC</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>	<i>Total born overseas</i>	<i>Total</i>
Art galleries	24.8	29.0	22.6	25.1	24.9
Museums	24.9	29.6	22.6	25.3	25.0
Zoological parks/aquariums	39.9	46.2	36.7	40.4	40.0
Botanic gardens	40.4	48.1	42.8	44.9	41.6
Libraries	41.5	49.3	40.4	43.9	42.1
Classical music concerts	8.1	11.5	10.8	11.1	9.0
Popular music concerts	27.8	28.5	19.5	23.0	26.4
Theatre performances	18.9	21.3	12.1	15.7	18.0
Dance performances	10.5	12.6	11.6	12.0	10.9
Musicals and operas	19.8	20.5	12.7	15.7	18.7
Other performing arts	20.5	23.5	17.9	20.1	20.4
Cinemas	71.7	75.9	58.5	65.3	69.9
At least one venue or event	89.3	91.0	81.8	85.4	88.2

Source: ABS 2002a: 20

As spectators to sport, the Australia-born group was most active and those born in other than main English-speaking countries the least (Table 3A.3.6). These results were similar to but more pronounced than for attendance patterns at culture and leisure activities. Lifetime or at least long-term affiliations and loyalties attributed to supporters who attend large drawcard events such as various codes of football possibly influenced results. Many traditional Australian sporting events might not have appeal to those born overseas, particularly if sporting cultures and languages are also significantly different.

*Adults as sports spectators***Table 3A.3. 6: Attendance by adults at sport and physical activities, 2002**

Country of birth	Number ('000)			Participation rate (per cent)		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Born in Australia	3,091.9	2,471.2	5,563.0	60.6	45.7	53.0
Born overseas						
Born in MESC	431.7	289.7	721.4	53.5	38.7	46.4
Born in other countries	493.0	218.0	711.1	38.8	18.5	29.1

Source: ABS 2003c: 11

Adult participation in physical activities

With respect to participation in sporting events or other physical activities, similar patterns for adults to those previously discussed for children were apparent (Table 3A.3.7). Specifically, those born overseas in other than main English-speaking countries were significantly less likely to participate than others. Again an outstanding feature was the reduced level of activity by males as well as females born in those countries.

Table 3A.3. 7: Participation by adults in sport and physical activities, 2002

Country of birth	Number ('000)			Participation rate (per cent)		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Female s	Person s
Born in Australia	3,394.4	3,363.3	6,757.7	66.6	62.2	64.4
Born overseas	1270.4	1028.3	2298.6	62.4	55.2	58.9
Born in MESC	581.4	489.9	1,071.3	72.1	65.5	68.9
Born in other countries	689.0	538.4	1,227.3	54.2	45.8	50.2

Source: ABS 2003b: 11

4A: Social Capital Data Tables

4A.1 Community life and civil society

Community support issues

Because social capital can manifest itself in the links which emerge between individuals and organisations in society generally, it might be imagined that ethnic organisations of many sorts play a role in helping migrants adjust to a new land. It is instructive, therefore, to look at both the level of contact which migrants had with ethnic and community organisations in Australia and the degree to which these organisations provided help.

Results from the LSIA show that at a national level there was minimal contact between migrants and ethnic clubs or voluntary welfare agencies on arrival in Australia (Table 4A.1.1). There was slightly more contact with churches and religious organisations than clubs or agencies but the extent of this was limited to about one in six migrants.

Table 4A.1. 1: Contact by primary applicants on arrival in Australia, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>LSIA 1 (Wave 1)</i>	<i>LSIA 2 (Wave 1)</i>
Ethnic Club	6.3	1.8
Voluntary Welfare Agency	4.7	1.2
Church/Religious Organisation	15.6	14.5

Source: LSIA

After arrival, new migrants drew more on informal social links with relatives (in about two out of three cases) and friends (the main source of help for 40% of primary applicants) already resident in Australia (Table 4A.1.2). The limited extent to which ethnic and community organisations provided help after arrival suggests low measures of social capital in the middle ground between formal government structures and the core environment of family and friends.

Table 4A.1. 2: Sources of help for primary applicants after arrival, LSIA

	<i>Percentage</i>
Ethnic Club	2.8
Voluntary Welfare Agency	3.6
Church/Religious Organisation	5.5
Relatives in Australia	65.0
Friends in Australia	40.3

Source: LSIA Wave 1

Although the national overview showed minimal contact between migrants and ethnic organisations, variations between states and territories were apparent (Table 4A.1.3). Higher levels of contact between migrants and ethnic clubs in South Australia led to greater degrees of help from that particular source in that state by comparison with elsewhere (but still extending to only about one in twenty households).

**Table 4A.1. 3: Extent of contact, by states and territories
(per cent primary applicants)**

	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>Australia</i>
LSIA 1									
Ethnic club	5	6	5	5	9	5	8	6	6
Church/Religious organisation	15	16	26	9	12	21	17	19	16
Voluntary welfare agency	5	5	0	3	4	1	5	4	5
LSIA 2									
Ethnic club	4	1	5	6	0	1	1	2	2
Church/Religious organisation	12	15	19	21	12	14	11	15	15
Voluntary welfare agency	5	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1

Source: LSIA 1 Wave 1 and LSIA 2 Wave 1

In all States and Territories, most help was provided by friends or relatives (Table 4A.1.4). Victoria, NSW and the ACT were strongest in terms of help from relatives; friends were more important in South Australia and the ACT than elsewhere. In short, there was no state or territory where, overall, ethnic or other formal organisations appeared to play a significant role in helping migrants on arrival. Of course, regional results do not permit interrogation at the level of SLA where significant help and support from community organisations might have occurred. For instance a distinguishing feature of Shepparton, not captured by any quantitative data set, was the extraordinary level of support between established and new and emergent migrant communities.

**Table 4A.1. 4: Sources of help, by states and territories
(per cent primary applicants)**

	<i>ACT</i>	<i>NSW</i>	<i>NT</i>	<i>Qld</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Tas</i>	<i>Vic</i>	<i>WA</i>	<i>Australia</i>
Ethnic club	1	2	5	3	5	0	4	2	3
Voluntary welfare agency	3	4	0	3	4	1	4	3	4
Church/Religious organisation	4	5	11	5	5	4	6	7	6
Relatives in Australia	68	66	39	61	51	57	71	593	65
Friends in Australia	45	39	34	41	44	36	41	42	40

Note: Only data for LSIA 1 are presented because strictly comparable data are not available for LSIA 2 because the emphasis in the questions changed from migrating units to individual respondents.
Source: LSIA 1 Wave 3.

Although formal organisations did not register as a major source of help, there were certain birthplace groups for which usage levels were comparatively high. From 16 down to 12 per cent of primary applicants from the Russian Federation, Iraq, Burma, and Somalia went to voluntary welfare agencies; and similar proportions of migrants from South Korea, Iran, Iraq, the Russian Federation, Ethiopia, Egypt and Burma used churches and religious organisations. In reality, though, the number of migrants from some of these birthplace groups was relatively small.

Humanitarian migrants used formal organisations the most although still only to a level that involved about one in eight migrants (Table 4A.1.5). Interestingly, a relatively significant proportion of business migrants (almost 12%) received help from churches and religious organisations. Conversely, this group – alongside independent migrants – made least use of relatives. These two groups, however, had the highest levels of help from friends, suggesting the existence of networks within business communities and robust levels of integration into the host society.

**Table 4A.1. 5: Sources of help for migrants in different visa categories
(per cent)**

<i>Visa category</i>	<i>Ethnic clubs</i>	<i>Voluntary welfare agencies</i>	<i>Churches and religious organisations</i>	<i>Relative s</i>	<i>Friends</i>
Preferential Family	2.3	0.9	3.8	74.1	31.9
Concessional Family	3.0	2.6	6.6	86.9	39.8
Business Skills & Employer Nomination	3.5	0.5	11.7	21.3	60.2
Independent	1.8	6.4	3.3	29.5	67.6
Humanitarian	6.2	13.0	13.0	69.4	36.5

Source: LSIA

Table 4A.1. 6: Citizenship rates, overseas-born people resident in Australia for two years or more, by selected birthplace, 2001

	<i>Persons '000</i>	<i>Citizenship rate %</i>	<i>Standardised citizenship rate %⁹</i>
Philippines	90.4	90.4	92.1
Viet Nam	141.8	95.3	91.5
China (excl. SARs and Taiwan Prov.)	114.2	80.3	90.1
Greece	108.3	97.1	89.2
Italy	204.6	79.5	65.2
United Kingdom	951.5	65.6	64.3
Germany	100.5	76.5	59.7
Netherlands	78.7	78.3	55.5
New Zealand	281.5	37.7	45.3
All overseas born (where birthplace could be determined)	3,560.3	74.4	74.4

Source: ABS 2006c: 146

Table 4A.1. 7: Former nationality, people granted Australian citizenship 2003-04

<i>Country of former nationality or citizenship</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
United Kingdom	17,201	19.8
New Zealand	13,052	15.0
China (includes Hong Kong & Macau SARs but excludes Taiwan)	7,072	8.1
South Africa	4,098	5.6
India	3,638	4.2
Philippines	3,019	3.5
Viet Nam	2,215	2.5
Malaysia	1,846	2.1
Fiji	1,582	1.8
Sri Lanka	1,582	1.8
Bosnia-Hertzevina	1,490	1.7
United States	1,409	1.6
Iraq	1,271	1.5
Taiwan	1,259	1.4
Lebanon	1,058	1.2
Serbia and Montenegro	984	1.1
Korea (Republic of)	943	1.1
Ireland	905	1.0
Indonesia	897	1.0
Pakistan	874	1.0
Other/not stated	19,817	23.0
Total	87,049	100.0

Source: ABS 2006c: 146

⁹ The rates of citizenship that would be expected if a given overseas-born population had the same age and period of residence profile as the total overseas-born population

4A.2 Social networks

Fertility

Fertility rates vary significantly according to country-of-birth (Tables 4A2.1 and 4A.2.2). The most prolific child-bearers in 2004, in terms of total fertility rate, were those who were born in Syria (3.72), Lebanon (3.66) and Pakistan (3B5); least fertile women were born in Hong Kong (0.69), Serbia and Montenegro (1.08) and Singapore (1.08).

Table 4A.2. 1: Fertility rates of Australian women by global region of birth, 2004

	<i>Average births '000</i>	<i>Estimated resident female population (ERFP) '000</i>	<i>Average births % of ERFP</i>	<i>Total fertility rate '000</i>
<i>Global region of birth of mother</i>				
Oceania & Antarctic	202.9	3,958.4	80.5	1.757
North-West Europe	11.8	287.2	4.7	1.623
Southern and Eastern Europe	4.4	130.4	1.7	1.558
North Africa and the Middle East	5.9	73.9	2.3	2.900
South-East Asia	11.7	229.5	4.6	1.693
North-East Asia	5.2	130.4	2.1	1.314
Southern and Central Asia	4.0	66.3	1.6	1.957
Americas	3.1	57.1	1.2	1.800
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.0	55.5	1.2	1.837
Country not stated	0.3		0.1	
Australia	192.7	3,779.7	76.4	1.750
Total overseas born	59.1	1,209.1	23.4	1.767
Total	252.1	4,988.8	100.0	1.762

Source: after ABS 2005b:36-7

International comparisons add a further dimension to discussions on fertility rates. Many women born overseas adopt similar fertility levels to the Australia-born although, of course, there are exceptions. One exception is women born in Lebanon who, in 2004, had much higher levels of fertility in Australia (TFR of 3.7) than women in Lebanon (2.2 TFR in 2000; ABS 2002b). Other women born in countries such as Viet Nam continue to have similar levels of fertility in Australia (2.1 TFR) to women in their native country (2.2 TFR in 2000)¹⁰.

¹⁰ Recent international Total Fertility Rates can be sourced by registered users from United Nations Statistical Division web site

Table 4A.2. 2: Fertility rates for Australian women for selected countries of birth (2004)

	<i>Average Births</i>	<i>Age-specific fertility rate</i>								<i>Median age of mother</i>
		<i>15-19</i>	<i>20-24</i>	<i>25-29</i>	<i>30-34</i>	<i>35-39</i>	<i>40-44</i>	<i>45 & over</i>	<i>TFR</i>	
Oceania & Antarctica										
Australia	192.7	17.0	54.9	103.9	111.6	52.9	9.2	0.4	1.75	30.3
New Zealand	6.9	27.4	72.3	94.1	95.6	54.2	11.0	0.8	1.78	30.5
North-West Europe										
Germany	0.7	7.9	42.1	85.1	127.1	69.0	12.6	0.4	1.72	33.9
Ireland	0.6	4.2	23.3	42.2	103.4	73.9	14.8	1.0	1.31	34.0
United Kingdom	9.1	11.1	44.9	91.1	114.6	57.5	10.4	0.5	1.65	33.6
Southern & Eastern Europe										
Croatia	0.4	6.9	59.1	147.0	102.5	48.3	10.6	0.4	1.87	33.5
FYR of Macedonia	0.5	20.6	98.1	143.9	93.2	26.9	6.1	0.5	1.95	28.9
Greece	0.3	1.0	29.6	97.4	93.6	40.3	8.2	0.1	1.35	34.1
Italy	0.4	3.6	28.5	98.0	121.7	47.2	8.2	0.6	1.54	34.8
Poland	0.4	4.7	31.4	81.7	102.9	42.6	7.4	0.2	1.36	30.6
Serbia & Montenegro	0.4	4.2	36.1	74.4	65.6	29.1	5.6	0.4	1.08	32.1
North Africa & the Middle East										
Lebanon	2.3	88.7	217.3	211.1	136.0	63.6	14.1	0.7	3.66	28.9
Syria	.03	50.8	254.9	192.4	144.3	79.8	22.0	-	3.72	29.2
Turkey	0.7	37.7	141.5	136.3	93.3	40.9	7.1	0.5	2.29	30.1
South-East Asia										
Cambodia	0.7	21.9	94.4	144.4	119.8	58.5	15.5	0.9	2.28	30.0
Indonesia	1.0	5.0	17.6	84.6	112.5	57.2	13.1	0.5	1.45	30.2
Malaysia	1.1	2.7	9.8	51.4	118.3	65.1	10.3	0.7	1.29	32.6
Philippines	2.5	16.2	63.5	111.8	107.1	56.1	13.2	0.6	1.84	31.5
Singapore	0.4	2.6	7.8	41.5	92.7	58.2	11.3	1.3	1.08	32.7
Thailand	0.7	25.4	52.4	63.9	77.1	52.5	15.7	0.8	1.44	30.4
Viet Nam	4.6	18.2	73.6	123.1	121.7	65.6	14.2	0.9	2.09	30.9
North-East Asia										
China	3.0	3.0	28.4	101.0	114.1	68.4	19.4	0.9	1.68	32.9
Hong Kong	0.4	2.0	2.5	18.8	64.1	43.3	7.1	0.4	0.69	33.1
Japan	0.8	1.4	15.2	63.6	107.1	79.5	20.4	1.9	1.45	33.1
Korea, Republic of	0.7	2.0	11.5	79.9	109.6	51.5	8.2	-	1.31	31.6
Southern & Central Asia										
India	1.8	3.9	52.0	122.8	108.5	45.3	7.8	0.7	1.71	30.2
Pakistan	.05	12.8	139.3	225.9	170.9	80.7	20.1	-	3.25	29.0
Sri Lanka	0.9	3.8	27.4	106.0	137.6	62.6	11.8	0.3	1.75	32.3
Americas										
Canada	0.6	4.9	30.7	85.5	132.9	86.5	19.0	0.8	1.80	32.7
United States	1.0	7.1	39.7	96.8	129.7	86.3	21.0	1.0	1.91	33.1
Sub-Saharan Africa										
South Africa	1.4	4.6	27.1	88.1	131.0	53.7	8.6	0.3	1.57	32.0
Total Overseas born	59.1	13.5	53.0	101.7	113.5	59.1	12.0	0.6	1.77	31.7
Total	252.1	16.6	54.6	103.6	112.2	54.8	10.1	0.5	1.76	30.6

Source: after ABS 2005b:36-55

Transport and wellbeing

Persons born overseas not proficient in spoken English were significantly less likely than others to have access to motor vehicles (only 54% had access by comparison with 85% of the total population) (Table 4A.2.3). Furthermore, 12 per cent of persons who were not proficient in spoken English could not get, or at least often had difficulty in getting, to places where they needed to go; this level of difficulty applied to less than 4 per cent for the total Australian population. Of course, not having access to motor vehicles in the first instance not only adversely affects those individuals but also eliminates the opportunity of offering this important form of assistance to others.

Table 4A.2. 3: Access to transport (per cent persons)

	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in MESC</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>		<i>All persons</i>
			<i>Proficient in spoken English</i>	<i>Not proficient in spoken English</i>	
Has access to motor vehicle/s to drive	86.9	85.5	81.7	54.0	85.0
Difficulty with transport:					
Can easily get to the places needed	85.3	85.7	82.3	66.0	84.3
Cannot, or often has difficulty, getting to the places needed	3.5	3.8	3.6	12.0	3.8

Source: ABS 2003c

4A.3 Culture and diversity

Table 4A.3. 1: Attitudes to immigration levels, 1995-2003 (per cent)

	1995	1996	1998	2001	2003
Increase	11	8	13	25	26
Same	27	28	38	37	31
Decrease	58	58	47	36	38
Don't know/Cant choose	4	1	2	2	5
n	(2,438)	(1,795)	(1,897)	(2,010)	(2,064)

Source: after Goot & Watson 2005:184

Table 4A.3. 2: Attitudes to maintaining ethnic distinctiveness, 1995-2003 per cent agree

	1995	2003
Agree that it is impossible for people who do not share Australian customs and traditions to be fully Australian	41	42
Agree that ethnic minorities should be given government assistance to preserve their customs and traditions	16	16
It is better for society if groups:		
Maintain distinct traditions / customs	12	16
Adapt and blend into the larger society	73	71
N	(2,438)	(2,128)

Source: after Goot & Watson 2005:185

Table 4A.3. 3: Impact of immigrants, 1995-2003, per cent agree

	1995	1996	1998	2001	2003
Immigrants make Australia open to new ideas and cultures	86	78	78	73	74
Immigrants are generally good for Australia's economy	63	49	55	52	69
Immigrants take jobs away from people who were born in Australia	36	40	36	34	25
Immigrants increase crime rates	31	51	46	45	34
N	(2,438)	(1,795)	(1,897)	(2,010)	(2,160)

Source: after Goot & Watson 2005:186

Table 4A.3. 4: What it takes to be truly Australian, 1995-2003, per cent agree

	1995	1996	1998	2001	2003
Speak English	86	90	88	89	92
Feel Australian	93	89	88	88	91
Have Australian citizenship	87	88	90	87	89
Respect Australian political institutions/law	93	91	90	90	89
Life mostly in Australia	60	67	67	66	68
Born in Australia	55	57	54	56	68
Be Christian	31	35	29	32	36
n	(2,438)	(1,795)	(2,311)	(2,010)	(2,125)

Source: after Goot & Watson 2005:186

LSIA results

Impressions about various aspects of Australian life as perceived by recent migrants interviewed for the LSIA are presented in Table 4A.3.5. With respect to religious tolerance in Australia, almost half of Australia's migrant intake interviewed in the LSIA thought that there was 'a lot'; around a third said there was 'some'. In the second waves of interviews, 13 per cent of LSIA 1 and only 8 per cent of LSIA 2 respondents indicated that they thought there was 'little' religious tolerance. In some senses, the obverse of tolerance is discrimination. Australia of course has stringent anti-discrimination legislation. In the field of religion, at least, this legislation seems to be effective in that only a tiny minority of migrants (1-2%) perceived 'a lot' of religious discrimination.

Table 4A.3. 5: Impressions of aspects of Australian life, LSIA 1 and 2 (per cent)

	LSIA 1 Wave 2		LSIA 1 Wave 3		LSIA 2 Wave 2	
	Primary applicant	Spouse	Primary applicant	Spouse	Primary applicant	Spouse
Responding who thought there was "a lot" of:						
Religious tolerance	43	47	44	47	50	49
Contact between different cultures/nationalities	46	41	38	32	53	47
Tolerance towards different races/cultures/nationalities	37	40	31	34	44	43
Racial discrimination	6	4	7	6	4	2
Religious discrimination	2	1	2	1	2	1
People's ability to influence government decisions	65	63	65	66	69	71

Source: LSIA

The tolerance which characterised religious beliefs also extended to tolerance towards different races, cultures and nationalities but to a lesser degree: only about one in three thought there was 'a lot' of tolerance in these respects. Furthermore, there was little evidence of major racial discrimination. For instance, only about 6 per cent of earlier interviewees thought there was 'a lot' of racial discrimination. For all results discussed here, more positive views about tolerance were recorded in LSIA 2 in comparison with LSIA 1. This suggests that conditions in Australia had changed – perhaps due to a less

pronounced effect of ‘Hansonism’ – or the nature of the migrants had changed, or both.

With respect to amounts of contact between different cultures and nationalities in Australia, about half of second wave interviewees thought that there was ‘a lot’. When the response ‘some contact’ is included, the proportions with positive perceptions rose to at least 80 per cent. This clearly presents Australia as an inclusive society. However, the proportion feeling that there was a lot of contact decreased between the second and third waves for LSIA 1. Nevertheless, as with other impressions, LSIA 2 responses overall were more favourable than those in LSIA 1.

Some differing views towards tolerance levels were apparent according to visa categories (Table 4A.3.6). Refugee and special humanitarian entrants in LSIA 2 were least likely to perceive that there was a lot of religious tolerance. Despite this, few felt that there was a lot of religious discrimination in Australia. These visa entrants were more likely than any other category to think that there was a lot of tolerance towards different races, cultures and nationalities.

Obviously, impressions of Australia are formed within a cultural and experiential context. This is likely to involve at least implicit comparisons to places with which migrants are familiar. This then shapes their frame of reference. It is interesting, therefore, to look at impressions of Australia reported by different birthplace groups (refer to Table 4A.3.7). Of course, birthplace does not necessarily indicate the countries in which migrants have lived prior to immigrating to Australia. Nor does it necessarily reflect immediate prior experience. Despite this, there were marked differences between some birthplace categories.

For example, the most positive views about there being a lot of tolerance towards different races, cultures and nationalities were held by migrants from South-East and Eastern Europe. Least positive views were held by migrants from North America, the UK and Ireland, Oceania, China and mainland South-East Asia, with levels only two-thirds of those found in Eastern Europe. Of interest is the geographic and apparent linguistic diversity of those holding the least positive views. Migrants from China stood out as having a relatively low proportion (36%) perceiving a lot of contact between different cultures and nationalities. In all other cases, approximately half or more of the migrants thought there was a lot of contact. The figure was particularly high for arrivals from Southern Europe (76%).

Table 4A.3. 6: Impressions of Australia held by migrants in different visa categories, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>Respondents who thought there was "a lot" of:</i>						<i>Well or moderately well rewarded for work</i>	<i>Excellent or good educational opportunities</i>
	<i>Crime</i>	<i>Religious tolerance</i>	<i>Contact between different cultures/nationalities</i>	<i>Tolerance towards different races/cultures/nationalities</i>	<i>Racial discrimination</i>	<i>Religious discrimination</i>		
LSIA 1 Wave 3								
Preferential Family	30	40	37	28	8	3	85	89
Concessional Family	23	46	43	31	7	2	86	94
Business Skills & Employer Nomination	12	53	43	39	8	1	85	92
Independent	17	44	41	33	8	1	90	90
Humanitarian	34	56	37	41	4	2	77	93
LSIA 2 Wave 2								
Spouse	14	36	37	41	5	4	84	91
Prospective spouse	11	38	33	45	3	1	82	92
Parent	12	25	29	55	2	1	61	86
Other preferential relative	12	39	40	35	4	5	79	90
Skilled – sponsor	17	35	29	45	4	2	91	96
Skilled – employee nominated	7	34	30	46	8	3	84	94
Business	7	27	41	52	2	0	88	98
Skilled – independent	13	44	35	43	4	1	90	94
Refugee	17	18	30	54	5	3	73	97
Special humanitarian	22	16	31	58	4	4	61	96

Source: LSIA

Table 4A.3. 7: Impressions of Australia held by migrants from different birthplace regions, LSIA (per cent)

	<i>Respondents who thought there was "a lot" of:</i>						<i>Well or moderately well rewarded for work</i>	<i>Excellent or good educational opportunities</i>
	<i>Crime</i>	<i>Religious tolerance</i>	<i>Contact between different cultures/nationalities</i>	<i>Tolerance towards different races/cultures/nationalities</i>	<i>Racial discrimination</i>	<i>Religious discrimination</i>		
Oceania	25	42	51	39	2	2	90	93
UK & Ireland	21	35	56	37	9	2	86	92
Western Europe	15	46	52	41	5	2	83	92
Northern Europe	26	42	48	47	5	3	84	92
Southern Europe	11	61	76	56	3	0	85	90
South Eastern Europe	25	75	66	64	2	2	71	94
Eastern Europe	6	68	68	66	0	0	82	88
North Africa & Middle East	18	64	49	45	3	2	73	92
Mainland SE Asia	13	43	52	38	2	3	77	88
Maritime SE Asia	11	49	57	49	3	1	95	95
Chinese Asia	6	43	36	38	3	5	78	93
Japan & the Koreas	11	38	56	42	2	3	70	92
Southern Asia	13	55	58	47	3	3	91	95
Central Asia	7	59	67	59	10	6	72	96
North America	12	37	47	23	6	3	92	86
South America	2	61	65	47	13	3	96	94
Central America/Caribbean	8	49	59	41	4	0	92	92

Source: LSIA

Recent migrant views about multiculturalism policies

There were high levels of awareness of Australia's multiculturalism policy among migrants taking part in the LSIA: at the time of final interviews about three out of four respondents were aware of it. Migrant attitudes about specific aspects of the policy were probed in the last interview wave for LSIA 1. This found that three-quarters of respondents saw multiculturalism as helping migrants to maintain their culture, language and traditions (Table 4A.3.8). There was a similar level of agreement with the statement that multicultural policies help migrants to become Australian citizens. Furthermore, two-thirds felt that multicultural policies helped migrants integrate into Australian society and almost the same proportion agreed that such policies recognised cultural and linguistic skills. A majority were of the opinion that the policies provided migrants with settlement assistance, supported immigration and cultural diversity, and unified Australia. Overall, then, there is both awareness and appreciation of the nature of multiculturalism. Results also pointed to a perception among migrants that multicultural policies were important and should continue to enjoy government support.

Table 4A.3. 8: Extent of agreement with statements about Australia's multicultural policies, LSIA 1 Wave 3 (per cent)

	<i>Primary applicant</i>	<i>Spouse</i>
Agree that Australia's multicultural policies:		
Help migrants to maintain their culture, languages, traditions	75	76
Help migrants to integrate into Australian society	66	66
Provide migrants with settlement assistance	60	59
Help migrants have contact with native-born Australians	48	44
Assist migrants to become Australian citizens	78	74
Support immigration	60	62
Support cultural diversity and unify Australia	61	57
Recognise cultural and linguistic skills	64	62
Disagree that Australia's multicultural policies:		
Are not necessary because they divide the Australian community	75	74

Source: LSIA

4A.4 Crime and justice

Table 4A.4. 1: Victims of crime by country of birth, 2005 (per cent)

	<i>Country of Birth</i>			
	<i>Born in Australia</i>		<i>Born Overseas</i>	
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Robbery	80.8	87.7	19.2 ^(a)	12.3 ^(b)
Assault	80.7	81.4	19.3	18.6

Notes (a) relative standard error between 25 and 50%; used with caution
 (b) relative standard error over 50%, too unreliable for general use
 Source: ABS 2006e

Table 4A.4. 2: Feelings of safety (2005) (per cent)

	<i>Country of Birth</i>	
	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born Overseas</i>
Feel safe or very safe	73.8	68.2
Feel neither safe or unsafe	14.6	16.9
Feel unsafe or very unsafe	8.0	9.1
Never home alone after dark	3.6	5.8

Source: ABS 2006e

Table 4A.4. 3: Crime and safety (per cent persons)

	<i>Born in Australia</i>	<i>Born in main English-speaking countries</i>	<i>Born in other countries</i>		<i>All persons</i>
			<i>Proficient in spoken English</i>	<i>Not proficient in spoken English</i>	
Feelings of safety at home alone after dark:					
Very safe/Safe	83.1	82.0	78.5	60.1	81.6
Very unsafe/Unsafe	7.7	6.7	11.1	18.2	8.4
Victim of physical or threatened violence in last 12 months	10.1	7.8	5.8	4.0	9.0
Victim of actual or attempted break in, in last 12 months	11.2	12.8	12.1	10.7	11.5

Source: ABS 2003c

LSIA-sourced perceptions of crime levels

The LSIA provides some important insights into how migrants perceive crime in Australia. Within the survey, migrants were asked for their impressions about the extent of crime in Australia. LSIA 1 respondents (arguably) did not see crime as a major problem although escalations in crime levels were perceived over time, increasing from about one in five to one in four migrants thinking that there was 'a lot' of crime. Conversely, assessments of levels of crime had lessened by the time the second wave of LSIA 2 migrants were surveyed when only about one in seven thought there was a lot of crime.

Humanitarian entrants interviewed for LSIA 1 were about three times more likely to think that there was a lot of crime by comparison with skilled business migrants. These results suggest perceptions about crime might be related to socio-economic profile of neighbourhoods in which migrants lived rather than their migrant status *per se* (Mukherjee 1999b). However, for LSIA 2 respondents, while humanitarian visa holders were still more likely than others to think there was a lot of crime (about 22% did so), comparatively large proportions of skilled sponsored (17%) and skilled independent (13%) migrants also thought crime levels were high. Business migrants were still least likely to have impressions that there was a lot of crime (7%).

There were also marked differences in crime level perceptions between some birthplace groups. Migrants from Northern Europe, South Eastern Europe, Oceania and the UK and Ireland held the most negative views. The groups least likely to think that there was a lot of crime in Australia (at about one-third of the level of the Northern Europeans) were those from Eastern Europe, China, Central Asia and Latin America – largely non-English speaking countries – and also from Sub-Saharan Africa (including South Africa). These results suggest that perceptions about what constitutes a lot of crime might be based largely on previous experiences prior to settlement in Australia, as well place of residence upon arrival – given the wide variation in crime rates across urban and rural communities (Hogg and Carrington, 2006).