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## A CENTURY OF POPULATION CHANGE IN AUSTRALIA

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He is the author of over two hundred books, articles in scholarly journals and a large number of conference papers and reports.

In 1987 Professor Hugo was elected a fellow of the Academy of Social Sciences and president of the Australian Population Association and was a member of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population. He was a member of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population.

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## INTRODUCTION

In 1901 Australia's population numbered 3,788,123. Of these people in their lifetime the national population has increased more than population, however, has not been restricted to increasing number. The spatial distribution of the Australian population was transformed to be more gradual and less sudden than economic, social and political. However, they are just as important in influencing Australian social shifts and indicated just how substantial and striking the changes. The present article, a companion to the chapter, [Population](#), summarises composition and spatial distribution which have occurred since the 1908. It draws upon ABS data collections over the last century, especially on population and housing, registration statistics, international migration statistics from national surveys. Over the years there have been major changes collected and disseminated but also in the questions asked, and covered (1990).

Australian Year Books published over the last century represent an excellent record of which have occurred not only in the nation's demography but also in its social structure. They chart the transition from a predominantly Anglo-Celtic to a more diverse male breadwinner families to a greater diversity of family and household types. In 1911 41.3% lived in rural areas to one where 14% lived in such areas, and agriculture fell from 30.2% in 1911 to 4.3% in 1996 and those in manufacturing fell from 28.0% in 1954 but then fell to 12.5% in 1998-99. Australia has gone from 100 men to every 100 women but now there are 99, in which 25.0% of women have children to 54.4% and from when women had 3.8 children on average to an average of 1.8. These changes have been a cause and consequence of the social, economic and demographic changes in Australia over the last century.

## Population size and growth

At the turn of the century Australia's population of 19,080,800 ranked 19th in the world by population. The population is currently growing at 1.2% per annum, which the world's population is increasing and well above those of other countries as indicated.

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Country/region

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World

World

Less Developed Countries

More Developed Countries

Europe and the New Independent States

North America

ESCAP Region

Indonesia

Australia

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Source: McDevitt 1999; Population Reference Bureau 1999 and 2000; ESCAP 1999.

The national population increased steadily in the first half century graph 5.3 shows, it increased more steeply after World War II.

However, a different picture emerges if we examine changes in the C4.2 where the fluctuations are in contrast to the steady increases and the Great Depression of the 1930s stand out as periods of low century has been an era of sustained growth, albeit with rates high second.

C4.2 AUSTRALIA, Rate of Population Growth per An



Source: CS CS 1912; ABS 1986; ABS Australian Demographic Statistics

At the time of arrival of the first European settlers it was thought that Australia. It took 70 years for the population to reach a million, and subsequent speeding up of the rate at which millions were added during the Depression and World War II. The progression over the post-war period over 19 million at the end of the twentieth century has seen millions

months and 5 years and seven months. (See also the article [Million](#)

### C4.3 POPULATION GROWTH SINCE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT, 1788 to 1999

Population	Year and month attained	
	Year	Month
One million	1858	n.a.
Two million	1877	n.a.
Three million	1889	n.a.
Four million	1905	n.a.
Five million	1918	n.a.
Six million	1925	n.a.
Seven million	1939	n.a.
Eight million	1949	November
Nine million	1954	August
Ten million	1959	March
Eleven million	1963	December
Eleven million	1963	October
Twelve million	1968	June
Thirteen million	1972	September
Thirteen million	1971	March
Fourteen million	1976	March
Fifteen million	1981	October
Sixteen million	1986	August
Seventeen million	1990	February
Eighteen million	1995	March
Nineteen million	1999	August

Source: Year Book Australia (1301.0), various issues; Australian Demographic Sta

National population growth can be disaggregated into natural increase and migration (immigrants minus emigrants). Graph C4.4, and the chart show that migration has been a much more volatile element in population change than natural increase, with large losses in the two wars and Depression and high levels of gain before and after War II.

[the Twenty-first Century \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Measuring education in Australian Censuses - 1911 to 2001 \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Australian schools: participation and funding 1901 to 2000 \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Crime and safety \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Crime in twentieth century Australia \(Feature Article\)](#)

[A sporting life! \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Accounting for audiences in Australian museums \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Public funding of the arts in Australia - 1900 to 2000 \(Feature Article\)](#)

[The evolution of Australian industry \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Management of Australia's inland waters.](#)

Developing a reliable water resource in the early 1900s.  
(Feature Article)

Agriculture, the early years  
(Feature Article)

Agricultural inventions  
(Feature Article)

Thinking 'green' in 1901 (Feature Article)

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Manufacturing from settlement to the start of the new century  
(Feature Article)

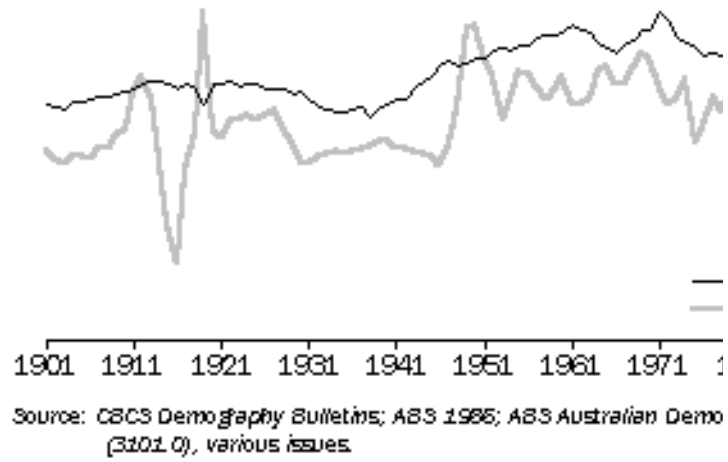
The Australian Housing Stock: 1911 and 1996  
(Feature Article)

The changing face of the retail industry: 1948 to 1992 (Feature Article)

A history of road fatalities in Australia  
(Feature Article)

Australia's motor vehicle

#### C4.4 NATURAL INCREASE AND NET MIGRATION, Austr



The graph shows how significantly different the second half century has been from the first. Net migration has been important in post-war population growth. Net migration increased steeply in the early post-war years, peaking in the early 1960s. It has since been between 120,000 and 140,000. In the last two decades the annual rate of population growth in Australia has varied between 17.8% (1993) and 19.8% (1998). In the population added to Australia's population it is estimated that some 47% were from net migration.<sup>1</sup> To understand the effects of natural increase and net migration, we need to look at the processes of population change - mortality, fertility and migration.

### Mortality

No achievement of Australia's twentieth century could have been more significant than the increase in life expectancy. At the time of Federation people could expect to live to 58.84 years of age whereas now they can look forward to 23 years more life.<sup>2</sup> Graph C4.5 shows the pattern of life expectancy in the century; it is interesting that the gap between males and females has widened to 10.5 years in the 1960s before converging to 5.3 years in 1998.

[fleet since the 1920s \(Feature Article\)](#)

[History of communications in Australia \(Feature Article\)](#)

[The pace of change in science and innovation \(Feature Article\)](#)

[1901 in retrospect \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Accrual-based Government Finance Statistics \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Taxation during the first 100 years of Federation \(Feature Article\)](#)

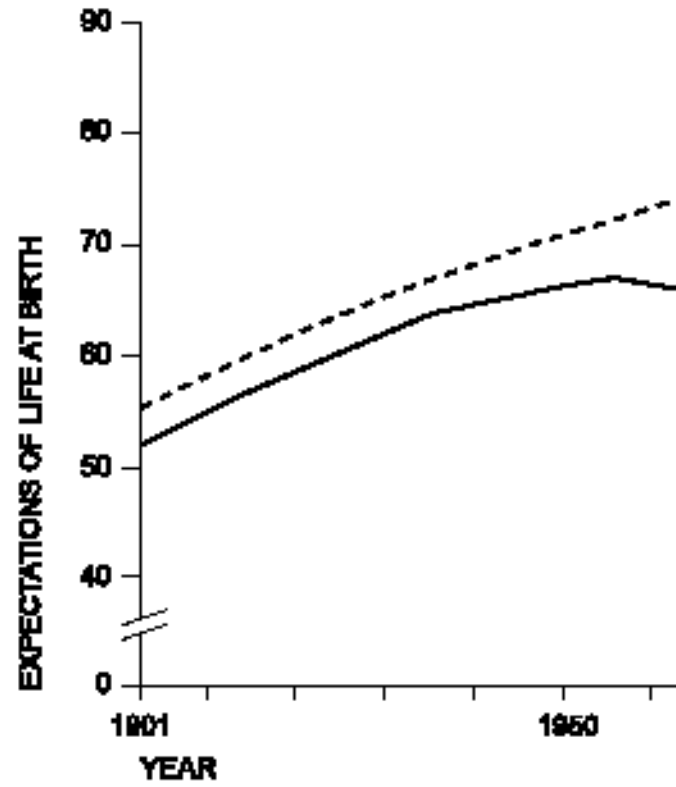
[Prices in Australia at the beginning and end of the 20th century \(Feature Article\)](#)

[Price indexes and The New Tax System \(Feature Article\)](#)

[History of national accounts in Australia \(Feature Article\)](#)

[A century of](#)

#### C4.5 EXPECTATIONS OF LIFE AT BIRTH, A



Source: Hugo 1986; ABS Deaths, Australia (3302.0), vari

Genetic differences account for only around two years of the difference in life expectancy between different patterns of lifestyle. The widening of the gap in life expectancy with a substantial shift which occurred in the causes of death. At the beginning of the century, most deaths occurring in Australia were caused by infectious disease. However, there was a significant increase throughout the century in the proportion of deaths due to

[Australia's balance of payments performance \(Feature Article\)](#)

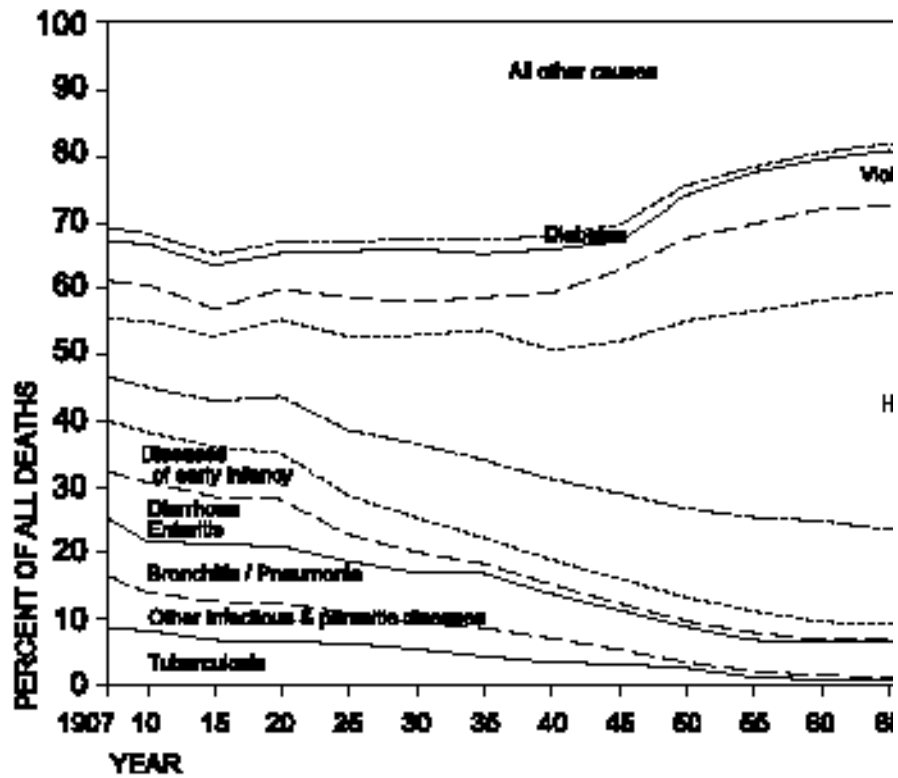
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[MEDIA ALERT - Now compared to Then: 2001 YEAR BOOK AUSTRALIA is essential for your Centenary of Federation and Australia Day coverage \(Media Release\)](#)

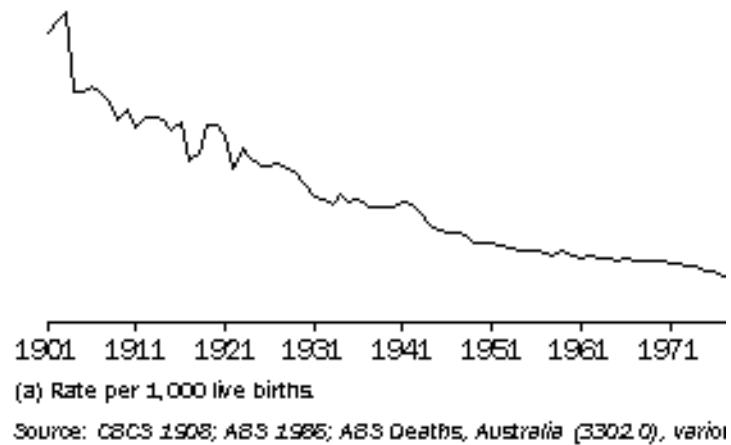
## C4.6 CUMULATIVE CAUSE OF DEATH RATIOS, A



Source: CBCS Year Book of the Commonwealth of Australia, v Bulletins; ABS Causes of Death, Australia (3302.0), various is

Lifestyle effects such as the effects of diet, smoking, drinking, driving causes of death than in deaths caused by infectious disease. Cancer one in five deaths in 1901 and now account for more than two-thir

This transformation has been a function of many things - improved improved therapeutic measures, advances in drug therapy etc. The disease in the last thirty years is evident in graph C4.6. This has been smoking, increased action-oriented leisure, improved diets) as well intensive care units, heart bypass surgery, better detection of heart effect of improving the life expectancy among the older population the bulk of improvement in Australian life expectancy had come a and, to a lesser extent, maternal mortality. In 1901 more than 1 in 1000 reached their first birthday. Graph 4.7, however, shows how this was so that by 1999 the Infant Mortality Rate had fallen from 103.6 in 19



Perhaps there is no better indicator of the massive improvements Australians over the last century than the fact that at the time of Federation babies born died before their first birthday, while at the centenary the vast majority of babies born survived. The causes of this change are many - improvements in pre-natal and post-natal care, fertility, development of techniques to deal with prematurity, drug therapy, sanitation, improved birth conditions etc.

The improvements in infant mortality were a major cause of increased life expectancy. However, improvements in life expectancy at older ages were not as great. For example, the life expectancy of Australians over age 50 changed little over that period, improving only 1.5 years between 1870 and 1970 (Hugo 1986, 21). However, between 1970-72 life expectancy increased by 1.5 years for men and 4.87 years for women. This was largely a result of the reduction in deaths from heart disease. What this meant was that there has been in Australia an unexpected increase in the size of our elderly population. Moreover, service providers have been dealing with an elderly population that has been confronted with a situation in which there are an unexpected number of survivors but the survivors may be 'sicker' on average than in the past. The improvements in medicine etc., who previously would have died, are now surviving. Accordingly, the incidence of illness and disability among the elderly has increased.

Hence table C4.8 indicates that the incidence of disability and handicap among the elderly has increased in Australia between 1981 and 1998.

#### C4.8 PROPORTION OF POPULATION WITH DISABILITY AND HANDICAP

	1981	1998
Age group (years)	%	%
65-69	33.1	40.5
70-74	38.5	45.5



75 and over

53.1

**All people**

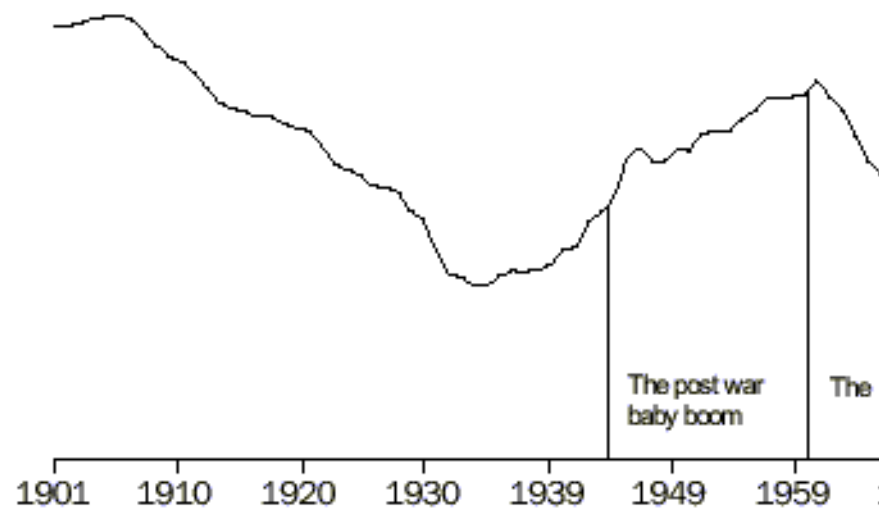
**13.2**

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999a, 18.

## Fertility

The twentieth century both began and ended with widespread co. Australia.

**C4.9 TOTAL FERTILITY RATE, Australia—**



(a) Average number of babies per woman according to the age-specific

Source: CBCS Demography Bulletins; ABS Births, Australia (3301.0), v

As graph 4.9 shows, the Total Fertility Rate<sup>5</sup> (TFR) was close to 4 in more than a third over the previous thirty years, and such was the South Wales government appointed a Royal Commission on the D main statistical evidence examined by the committee was an essa century later McDonald (2000, p. 19) wrote "Given the pace of ferti should be seriously addressing the full range of policy measures".

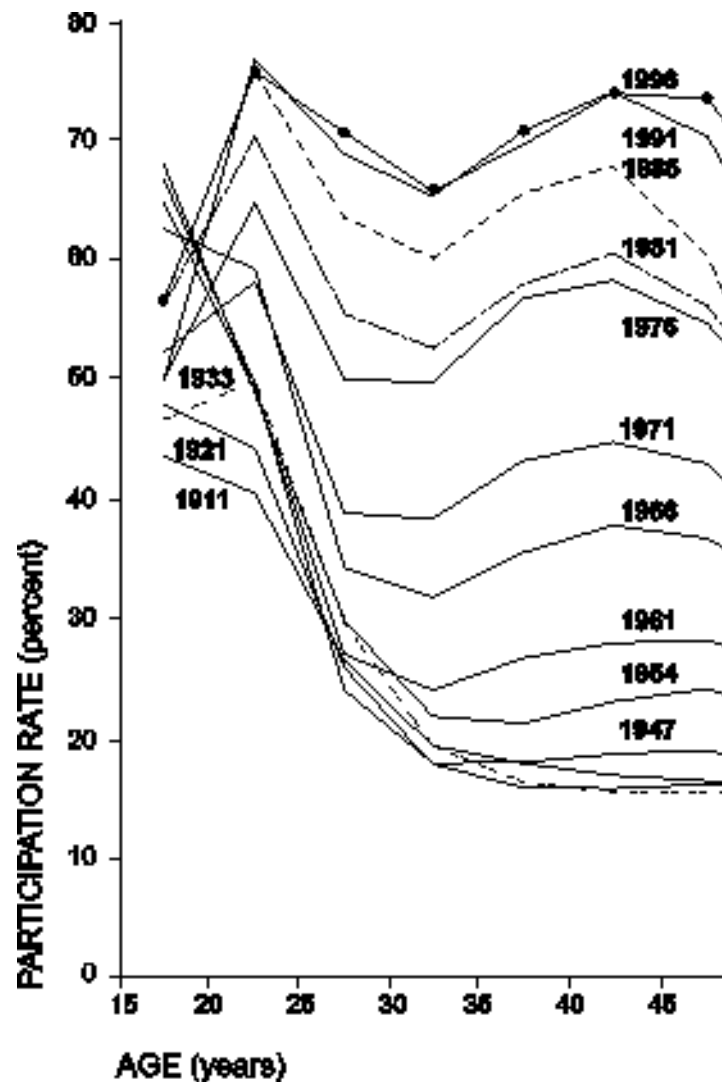
The long term fertility decline which began in most European and continued in the early part of the century and bottomed out in the women reached replacement levels of fertility<sup>6</sup> due to postponeme marriage. Low fertility continued throughout World War II, but th at 3.6 in 1961. This was a result initially of a catch-up factor among during the Depression and war, but it was sustained by near unive marriage, low unemployment, availability of housing, reduced infe created a baby boom bulge in the Australian age pyramid which h

demography of the nation but on the society and economy more v

The year 1961 heralded a major change in Australian society with t which for the first time gave Australian women almost total contrc when they had them. Australian fertility also began to fall precipitc to a major shift in the role of women within the society which saw and pursue education than had been the case previously. Associat marriage, increased divorce and increased de facto partnering. Th influencing the role of women such as the removal of gender differ developments toward equal opportunity.

The dramatic shift in the role of women in post-war Australia is ev how female participation in the workforce outside of the home ch censuses.

#### C4.10 FEMALE LABOUR PARTICIPATION RATES, By



Source: Australian Censuses 191

Since then, however, each post-war census until 1991 saw an upwa

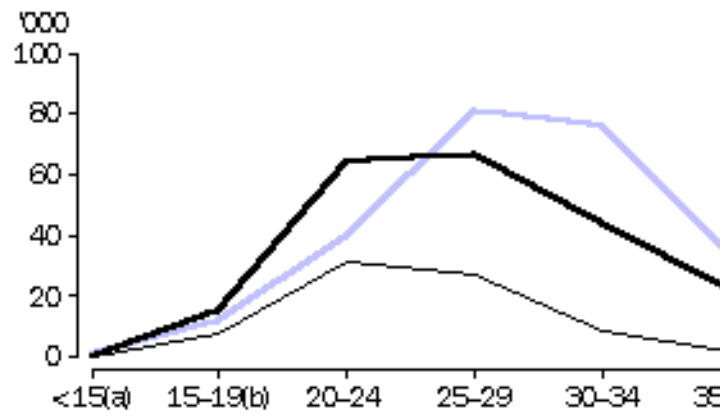
groups, especially in the childbearing age years. Only between 1991 and 1995 this undoubtedly was due to some discouraged worker effects. Since 1995 the increase in participation in the upper years of secondary school are due to young women over the post-war period.

Indeed their levels of participation passed those of males in the mid-1990s. C4.11 are both a cause and consequence of low fertility in Australia. The high incidence of abortion since the liberalisation of abortion laws in the 1970s times there has been a consistent pattern of around one in five pregnancies. It is apparent that abortion is being used as a form of contraceptive for a large proportion of women. There is thus a need for improvement in birth control education (see that 66.7% of Australian women aged between 18 and 49 were taking the pill in 1995-30).

Surveys indicate that Australian women on average preferred to have two children in the early 1970s and stabilised around 1.8 in the late 1970s and 1980s. In other countries however, fertility continues to fall, so that in Japan, Southern Europe and in most European countries the TFR has fallen below 1.4 (McDonald 2000). The 1990s has attracted a great deal of attention since the TFR has fallen to 1.2, a fall of 7.9%. Some have suggested that this may mean that Australia has reached a point which will see a decline of fertility toward those currently experiencing in other countries (see McDonald and Kippen 1999). This is despite the fact that Australian young women say that they want two children. There are institutional elements in Australia which act as barriers which prevent them achieving this. McDonald (2000) argues that the desired fertility because of the high cost of children, the risk of marital breakdown and the uneven nature of gender equity in contemporary Australia. He argues that the policy of at-home mothers and mothers who work full-time, but penalises them for doing so between work and home.

It is not only with respect to the numbers of children that Australia has changed since the post-war period. Graph 4.12 shows the shift which has occurred in the age structure of children.

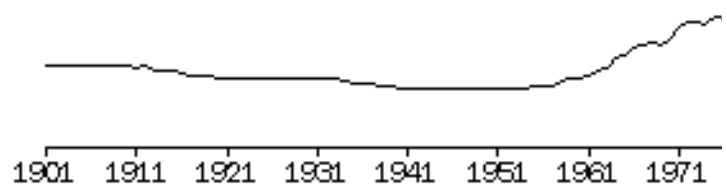
**C4.12 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN HAVING BABIES  
1978 and 1998**



(a) Includes those aged 15 in 1998. (b) Figure is for those aged 16-19 in 1998.  
Source: CBCS 1960; ABS 1980; ABS 1998b.

There has been a significant increase in the age of childbearing as well as in the workforce before having children. With the fall in fertility rates and the number of children in families, with an increasing concentration of women in the workforce, there have been some important shifts in the proportion of Australian women who reach post-childbearing ages. Merlo and Rowland (2000) have estimated that around Federation were childless, but this fell to below 10% for the first time in 1998. While it is anticipated that around 20% of women currently in the workforce will be childless by 2020.

**C4.13 EX-NUPTIAL BIRTHS AS A PROPORTION OF ALL BIRTHS  
1901 to 1998**



Source: CBCS Demography Bulletins; ABS Births, Australia (3301.0), v. 1998

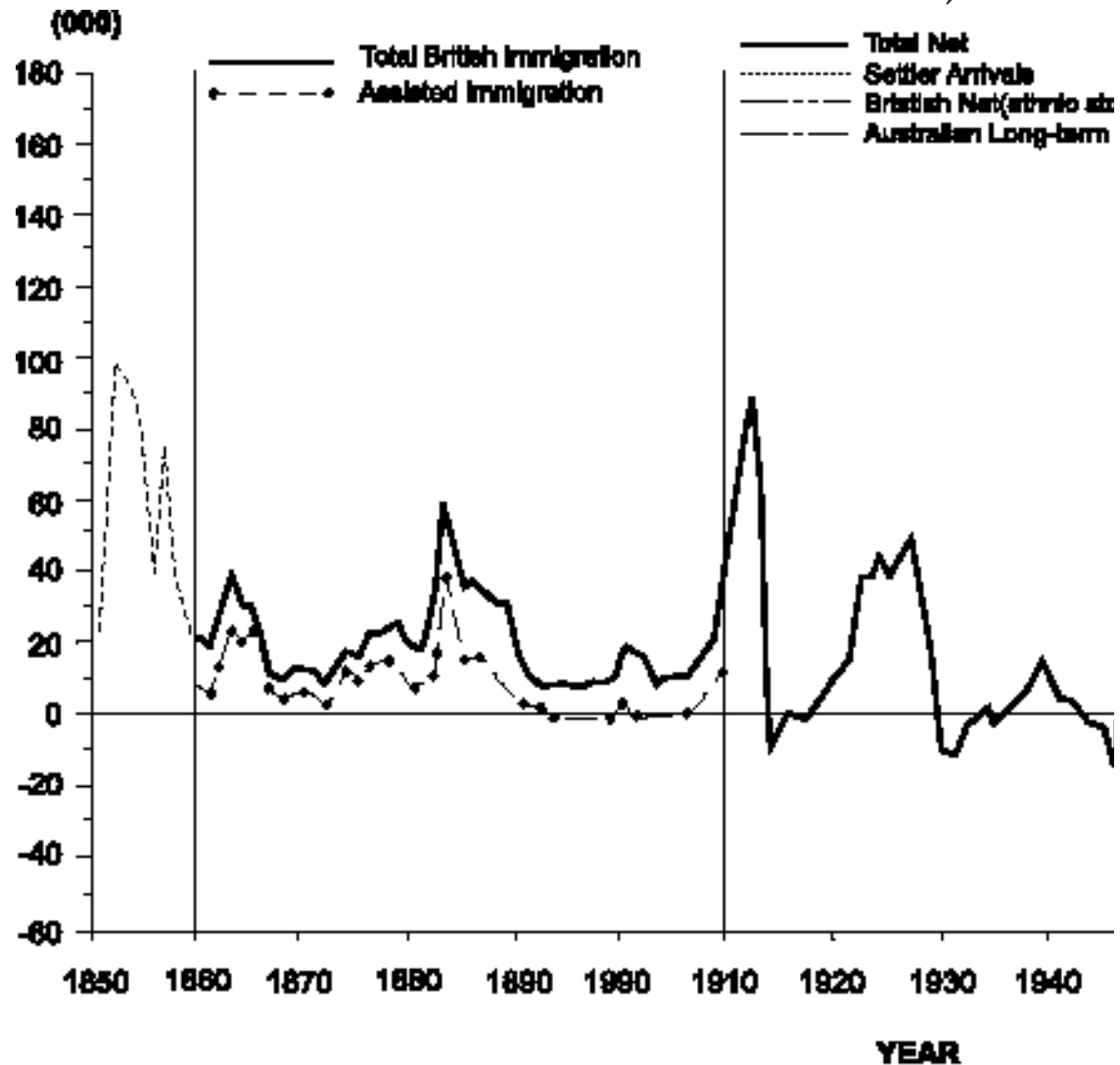
There has been a shift through the century with an increasing proportion of births occurring outside of marriage, as graph C4.13 indicates.

## International migration

In 1901, 22.8% of Australians were born overseas; the proportion was 28.8% in 1998.

apparent lack of change belies the fact that international migration the growth of the national population over the last century, but it population and impinged on almost all aspects of life. The trajectory Australia is depicted in graph C4.14; it is apparent that the end of the level of movement.

C4.14 ANNUAL MIGRATION, Australia



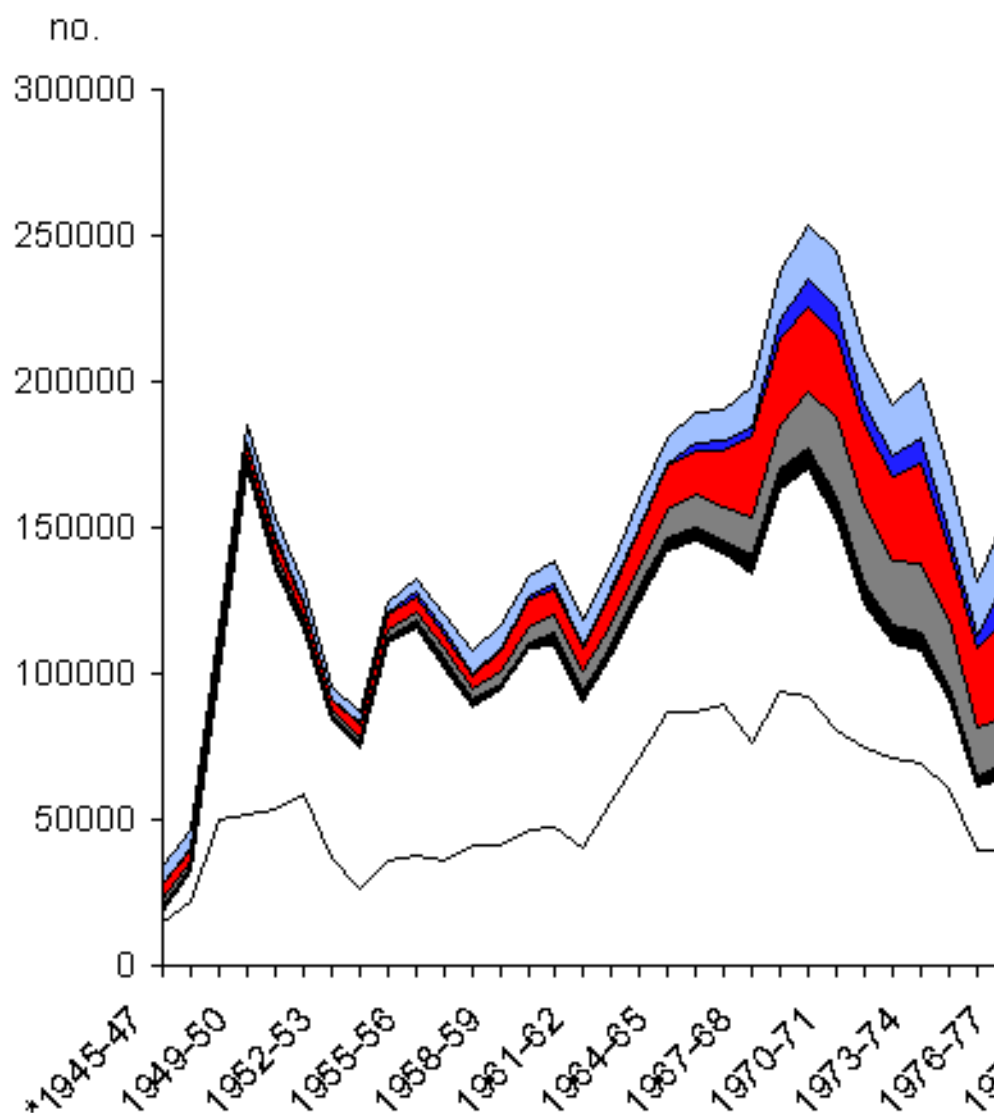
Source: Price 1979; Hugo 1986; ABS Overseas Arrivals and Depart

The last fifty years have seen an unprecedentedly high and sustain However, it is not only with respect to scale that there was a paran century. One of the first acts of the new Commonwealth in 1901 w Policy (Price 1975) which ensured that Australia's immigrants sho predominantly Anglo-Celtic. In the immediate post-World War II j but also an inability to attract sufficient immigrants from the Briti 'Displaced Persons' (DPs) from Eastern Europe, saw a change in po DPs and, despite concerns that such numbers of non-Anglo-Celtic adjust, they were enormously successful. This then led to settlers k and Northern Europe, then in the 1950s from Southern Europe an and the Middle East. Over these decades the White Australia Polic mid-1970s it was totally abolished. Thereafter settlers were attracte

especially Asia.

Accordingly, as graph C4.15 shows, the post-war period has seen a stream of settlers coming to Australia.

### C4.15 SETTLER ARRIVALS BY REGION OF LAST RESIDENCE



(a) The first marker shown related to the period July 1945 to June 1947. The Source: DIMA Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics, various issues;

The United Kingdom remained the largest single source country of settlers until the late 1960s when many were from elsewhere in Europe, but with the Immigration Restriction Policy there was a diversification of origins. Hence the twentieth century population shifted from an overwhelmingly Anglo-Celtic, homogeneous population in the United Kingdom or Ireland, to one of the world's most multicultural. More than 50% of those born elsewhere. Moreover, 19% were Australia-born persons and 8% had at least one parent born in a country in which English is not the first language. While the country remains Christian, the proportion of the population that is non-Christian has increased substantially, as has the proportion of the population with

**Birthplace(b)**

- Australia
- New Zealand
- Europe
- UK and Ireland
- Other
- Asia
- Other
- Total

**Religious affiliation(c)**

- Christian
- Anglican
- Catholic
- Other
- Anglican
- Jewish
- Other affiliation
- No affiliation
- Total

**Total population****Indigenous population**

(a) Excludes overseas visitors.

(b) As defined and classified in 1901. Not known categories have been prorated a

(c) Excludes people whose religious affiliation was not known.

Source: ABS 2000b, 7.

The impact of immigration on post-war population growth in Australia was 11,501,442 people between 1947 and 1999, some 7 million can be attributed to their children and grandchildren (Kippen and McDonald, forthcoming). The impact has been much more than numerical. The element of heterogeneity in the Australian population has been demonstrated by Price (1997), who estimated the ethnic strength<sup>7</sup> of various groups. His estimates shown in table 4.1. The population has increased from 0.3% in 1947 to 6.4% in 1999 and is expected to increase further.

2030 if trends in the late 1990s are continued. Immigration has impacted Australian life and society.

#### C4.17 ETHNIC STRENGTH, Australia - 1947, 1

	1947
	%
Anglo-Celtics	89.8
West European	5.6
East European	0.4
South European	1.5
West Asian (Middle East)	1.5
Jewish	n.a.
South Asian	0.1
South East Asian	-
East Asian	0.2
African	-
Latin American	1.0
Pacific Islander	0.1
Aboriginal/Torres Strait Islander	0.8
Total	100.0

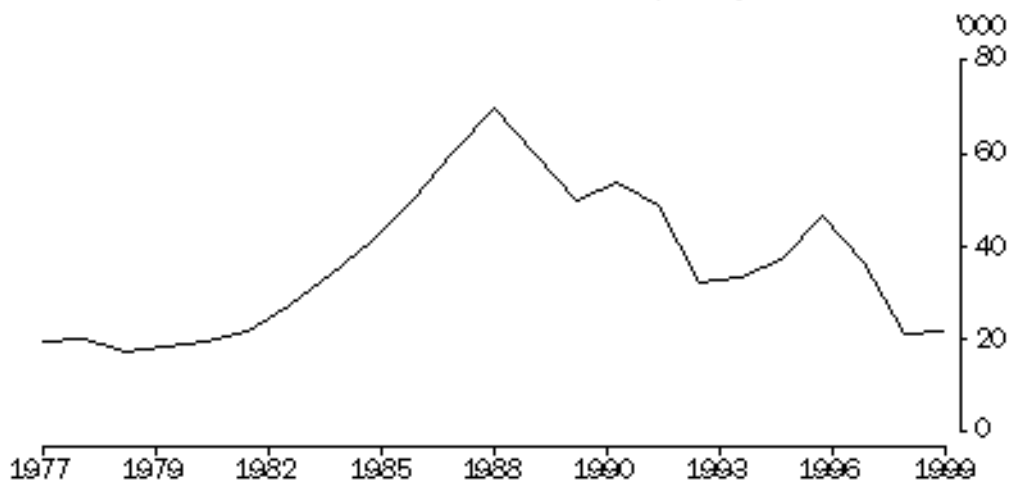
(a) Projection based on assumed 80,000 net migration per annum.

Source: Price 1989, 62; unpublished estimates of Charles Price.

For most of the twentieth century the dominant paradigm in Australia was one of permanent settlement. Motives of government immigration were demographic and expanding the labour force imperatives for most of the 1970s to a more complex mix of the need to fill skill gaps, family movement. Graphs C4.18a to C4.18d show that the relative size of immigration fluctuated, especially in the balance between those settling in Australia and those gaining eligibility in the skill category.



**C4.18a TRENDS IN INTAKE BY TYPE OF SETTLER, Family—1977 to 1999**



Source: DIMA Immigration Update, various issues.

**C4.18b TRENDS IN INTAKE BY TYPE OF SETTLER, Humanitarian—1977 to 1999**



Source: DIMA Immigration Update, various issues.

**C4.18c TRENDS IN INTAKE BY TYPE OF SETTLER, Family—1977 to 1999**



Source: DIMA Immigration Update, various issues.

**C4.18d TRENDS IN INTAKE BY TYPE OF SETTLER, Humanitarian—1977 to 1999**



Source: DIMA Immigration Update, various issues.

It could be argued that during the 1990s Australia moved into a different demographic under the influence of widespread globalisation forces. This has seen a complex pattern, of international population movement influenced by globalisation, reflected in trends in the three types of in-movement recognised by the Department of Multicultural Affairs<sup>8</sup> between 1982-83 and 1998-99. Table C4.19 indicates that permanent arrivals has remained relatively stable, there has been a significant increase in short term movements.

**C4.19 POPULATION MOVEMENT INTO AND OUT OF AUSTRALIA**

	1982-83
	no.
<b>ARRIVALS</b>	
Permanent	83,010
Long-term Residents	48,990

Visitors	30,740
Total	79,730
Short-term	
Residents	1,240,800
Visitors	930,400
Total	2,171,200

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**DEPARTURES**

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Permanent	24,830
Long-term	
Residents	47,020
Visitors	25,440
Total	72,460
Short-term	
Residents	1,259,100
Visitors	907,500
Total	2,166,600

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Source: Bureau of Immigration and Population Research 1993; DIMA 1999a.

Over recent times there has been a proliferation of new visa types, especially those involving temporary movement for work. Some of these are new term categories. Graphs C4.20a to C4.20d show the growth in numbers in these categories.

**C4.20a LONG TERM MIGRATION TO AUSTRALIA BY CATEGORY OF VISAS GRANTED OFFSHORE, Year ended 30 June—1987 to 1995**



(a) Number of student visas granted offshore.

Source: DIMA Population Flows: Immigration Aspects, various issues.

**C4.20b LONG TERM MIGRATION TO AUSTRALIA BY CATEGORY, Working Holiday Makers, Year ended 30 June—1987 to 1996**



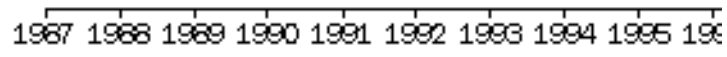
(a) Number of working holiday visas granted offshore.  
 Note: Data up to and including 1988-89 comprise total working holiday visas.  
 Source: DIMA Population Flows: Immigration Aspects, various issues.

**C4.20c LONG TERM MIGRATION TO AUSTRALIA BY CATEGORY, Visitors, Year ended 30 June—1987 to 1996**



(a) Number of visaed visitor arrivals.  
 Source: DIMA Population Flows: Immigration Aspects, various issues.

**C4.20d LONG TERM MIGRATION TO AUSTRALIA BY CATEGORY, Business Entrants, Year ended 30 June—1987 to 1996**



(a) Data not available prior to 1995-96. (b) Number of temporary entrants.  
 Source: DIMA Population Flows: Immigration Aspects, various issues.

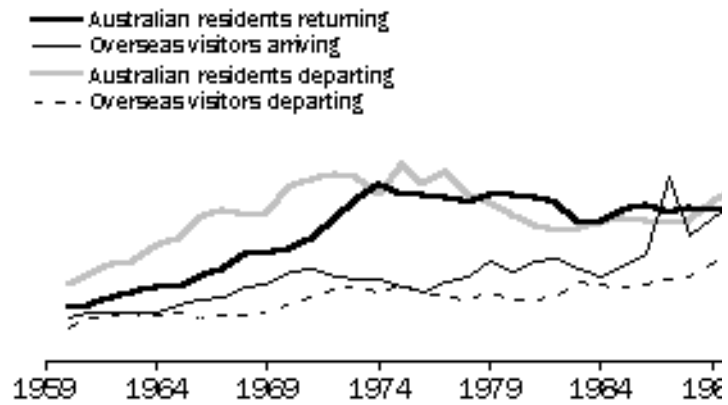
The growth in students from overseas coming to study in Australia was interrupted by the economic crisis in Asia in 1997 saw a small downturn. The Working Holiday Makers category saw a large number of arrivals each year to the overseas student visa category. The Business Entrants category has been in the category of Temporary Business Entrants introduced in 1996.

of short term workers in Australia. Kinnaird (1999) has estimated that there are 1.5 million people in Australia temporarily who had work rights.

There has been a spectacular growth in short term movement, pre- and post- 1998. Tourism has become one of the nation's major industries (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 1998). At any point in time Australia's resident population is augmented by a large number of foreigners visiting the country (e.g. on 30 June 1999 there were 1.6 million overseas visitors in the population).

Australia has long had an emphasis on attracting permanent settlement rather than temporary and contract workers. During the 1960s Australia's migration solution to the problem contrasted sharply with Germany and France when it opted to concentrate on attracting permanent settlers rather than contract workers. However, in recent years a shift in policy has been recognised that, in the context of globalised labour markets, it should allow non-permanent entry of workers in certain groups. Nevertheless, entry has been restricted to people with specific skills in unskilled and low-skilled areas and has been restricted to people with specific skills. Hence there has been an increase in people coming to Australia as well as leaving, but the net gain has been from people being able to work in the country.

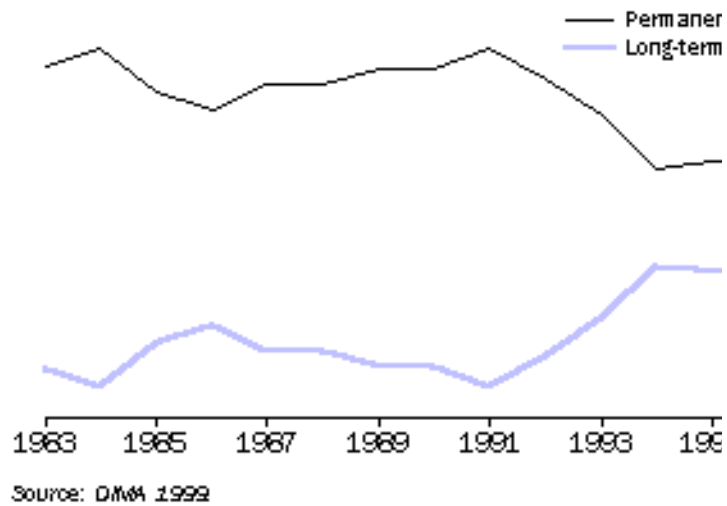
**C4.21 LONG TERM ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES, Australia  
30 June—1960 to 1999**



Source: DIMA, *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics and Immigration Issues*.

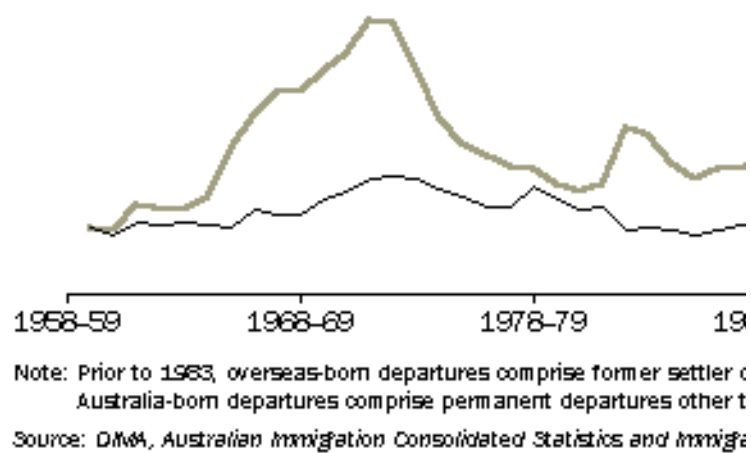
The significance of people coming to work in Australia temporarily is highlighted by the long term entrants in Australia shown in graph C4.21. This has had a major impact on the overall net migration gains in Australia. It will be noted from graph C4.21 that Australia's net migration gain in recent years has been from an excess of arrivals over departures, and a reducing proportion has been from an excess of

**C4.22 NET PERMANENT AND LONG TERM MOVEMENT, A**



There is a tendency for Australia to be categorised as a purely immigrant country with significant emigration. The ratio of permanent emigration to permanent immigration was 14% and 52% since 1968, but the ratio has been comparatively high since 1990, there has been a close relationship between immigration and emigration, with the former leading the latter with a small time lag. This is because, as graph C4.23 in part of emigration over the years.

**C4.23 PERMANENT DEPARTURES OF AUSTRALIA-BORN AND OVERSEAS-BORN PERSONS, Australia—1959-60 to 1994**



The return migration effect has been understated in the data since return migrants and their dependent children of overseas-born returnees. In 1994 (35,181) reached the highest level since 1973-74 and the proportion of return migrants to total permanent departures was the highest ever recorded, indicating an increasing trend for the Australia-born population. From graph C4.23 that there has been an upward trend in the number of permanent departures in the 1990s, which is indicative of a greater tendency for return migration to overseas on a permanent basis associated with the globalisation of migration.

In recent times undocumented migration to Australia has come up

is of two types:

- overstaying whereby non-citizens enter Australia legally but overstayed their visas.
- clandestine entry of non-citizens who do not pass through an immigration check using forged documents.

Much is known in Australia about overstayers since there is a high level of border control. Persons arriving in and departing from the country are required to undergo immigration matching and detection of overstayers.

Table C4.24 shows that through the 1990s around 50,000 overstayers were detected through immigration matching.

#### C4.24 NUMBER OF OVERSTAYERS(a), Australia

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Year

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1999 (December)

1999 (June)

1998 (June)

1996 (December)

1995 (June)

1993 (June)

1992 (April)

1990 (April)

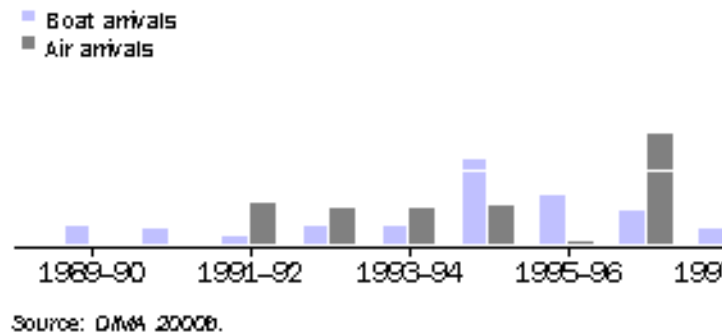
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(a) The introduction of the bridging visa scheme on 1 September 1994 influences the number of overstayers. People who do not have a valid visa, but had come to the Department's attention and were waiting for a decision, were regarded as 'overstayers'. Subsequently these people were not considered as overstayers.

(b) Excludes unauthorised arrivals by air and by boat.

Source: DIMA 2000a.

Turning to the people who enter Australia illegally, it is clear that Australia is an important target for such movements. There are no data on personal entry attempts, but there are on the numbers that have been intercepted and refused entry at Australia's airports (36% more than the 1,550 in 1990).



In the 1998-99, 926 people arrived without authority on 42 boats, a 490% increase in 1997-98. However, in 1999-2000 there has been a significant increase in boat arrivals, with 75 boats and 4,174 boat people being detected. This increase in boat arrivals is a result of boat people being intercepted as part of the refugee exodus from the Middle East. C4.26 shows the escalation of movement that occurred in 1999-2000.

#### C4.26 CLANDESTINE BOAT ARRIVALS DETECTED, Numbers of

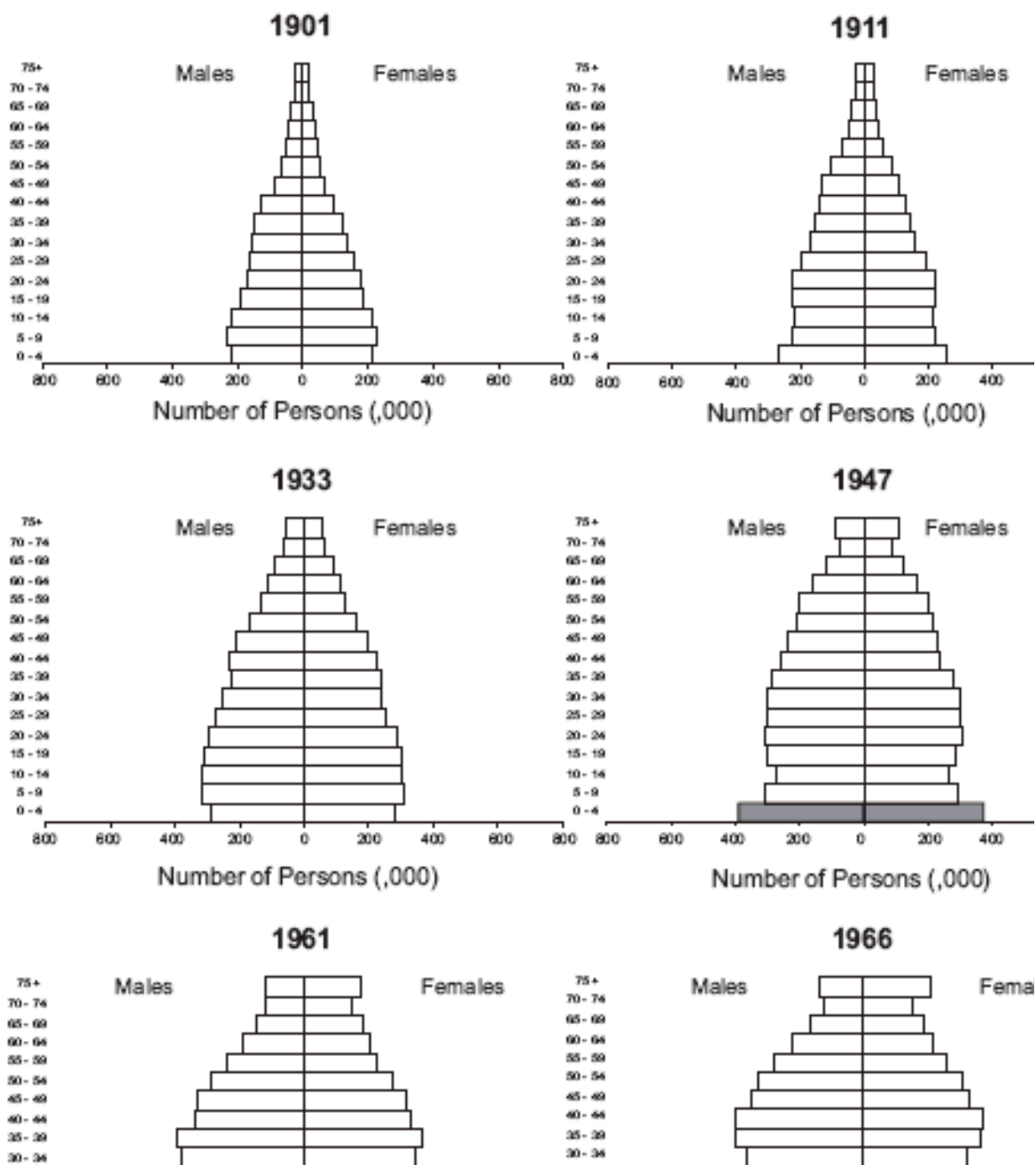
Year	Boats no.	Arrivals no.
1989-90	3	224
1990-91	5	158
1991-92	3	78
1992-93	4	194
1993-94	6	194
1994-95	21	1,071
1995-96	14	589
1996-97	13	365
1997-98	13	157
1998-99	42	926
1999-2000	75	4,174
2000 to 25 July	2	66

The recent movement has involved substantial numbers from the among previously undocumented migrants those from Southern (C apparent that Australia has been increasingly targeted by people s: facilitating movement into North America and Europe.

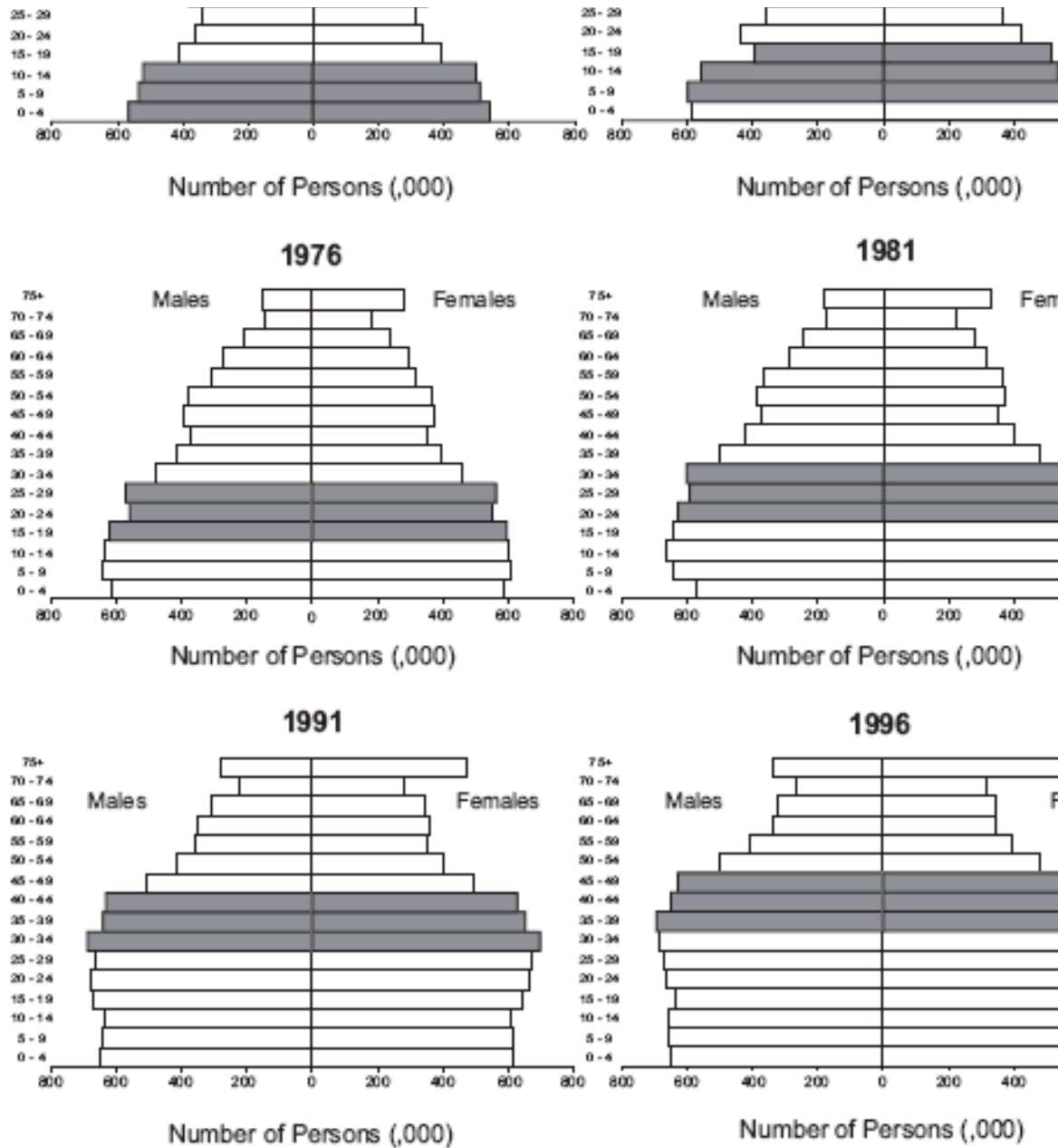
### Age and sex composition

The population of 1901 was not only less than one-fifth the size at and males outnumbered females, whereas the opposite is now the is of major significance in determining the demand for goods and age-sex pyramid depicted in graph C4.27 testifies to these shifts.

**C4.27 AUSTRALIA, Age and Sex Structure of the**







Note: Shaded areas represent the baby boom generation.  
 Source: Australian Censuses 1901-96; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1997.

In 1901 more than a third of Australians (35.1%) were less than 15 years of age (20.7%). On the other hand, the proportion aged 65 years and over was 10.2%. The median age rose from 22.6 years to 34.9 years. However, the structure of the population has changed continuously. Indeed, graph C4.26 shows that the low fertility of the population while the post-war baby boom added a substantial 'youngening' of the population in the early post-war years. Since then, the increase in life expectancy and longevity have produced a progressive ageing. The progress of the Australian age pyramid is shown in the graph. This has had a huge impact on age-specific activities like education, formation of households, nursing, and so on. It has also crossed the threshold of greatly increasing the numbers in the retirement age group.

A less obvious, but nevertheless important, change evident in graph C4.26 is the increase in the number of males and females in Australia. For the first two centuries of European settlement, the population was very small and the number of males and females was very low.

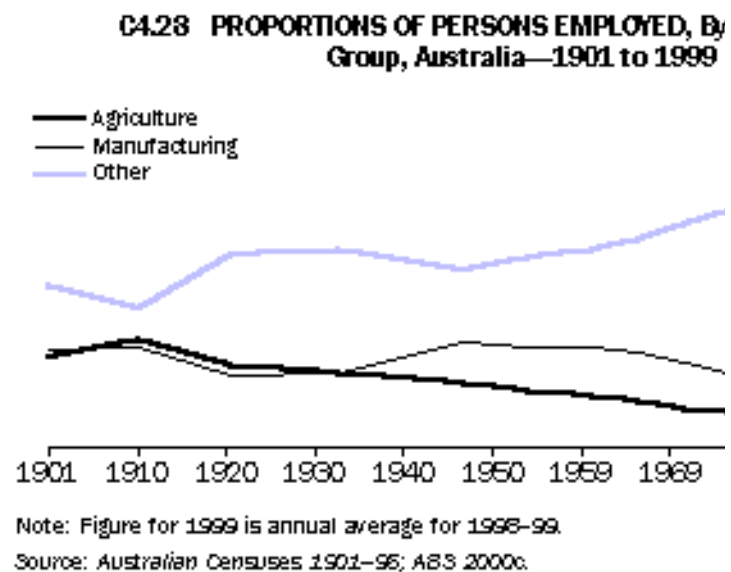
outnumbered females due to the male selectivity of immigration. Accordingly in 1901 there were 110 males in Australia for every 100 females. This gap closed over the century due to:

- an increase in the gap between male and female life expectancy up to 1999
- an increasing proportion of immigrants being made up of women. Immigrant settlers have been outnumbered by females.

Accordingly in the early 1980s the number of females in Australia caught up with males. In 1999 there were 99 males for every 100 females in the country. It will be seen that the predominance of females is much greater in the older ages than in the younger. This is due to female longevity.

### Australians at work

The issue of who works outside the home and the nature of that work has changed over the last century. Graph C4.28 shows that, whereas in 1911 almost a third of Australians worked in the agricultural sector, this had fallen to 4.3% in 1996.



The proportion in manufacturing industry peaked at almost a third (12.5%). Hence, whereas less than a half of Australians worked in the tertiary sector, this sector now accounts for four out of every five workers. Indeed, the tertiary sector can be subdivided between tertiary services<sup>9</sup> and information services. The proportion of employment in tertiary services rose from 38.5% of employment in 1947 to 42.9% in 1996 and the latter from 19

It was shown earlier (graph C4.10) that participation in the workforce has risen substantially for women, especially since World War II. This is underlined by the fact that sex participation rates in the workforce for males and females in 19

## C4.29 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES,

	April 1911	November 19
Age group (years)	%	
15-19	90.0	5
20-24	97.7	8
25-34	98.0	9
35-44	97.3	9
45-54	95.8	8
55-59	92.7	7
60-64	85.8	4
65 and over	55.3	
15 and over	93.0	7

Source: ABS 2000b.

For males it will be noticed that workforce participation is lower in the younger age groups. This is due to increased educational participation, especially among young adults, and to the effects of unemployment, disability and invalidity and other pensions. The latter effects are especially evident in the older age groups. On the other hand, female participation in the workforce is higher in all ages except the youngest. The increases are especially marked in the younger working ages. This is a reflection of the changes in the role of women in Australian society.

The world of work for Australians has changed in many other ways with economic shifts over the years, and graph C4.30 indicates that participation in the workforce has been high since the 1930s, although a secondary peak occurred in the early 1990s.



The increase in part-time work has become a feature of the last few data for the entire century, but in 1966 some 9.8% of all Australians were part-time workers. By 1980 this proportion had almost doubled to 16.4%, and by 1999 it was 21.4%. The increase in part-time work has been accompanied by other changes such as increased working hours, increased working week, less security of job tenure etc.

## Education

Australian colonies were among the earliest to introduce compulsory education, with the first laws passed in the second half of the nineteenth century. However, in 1901, 7.1% of the population were illiterate, and 1.1% could not read.

## C4.31 RATES OF PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

Age group (years)

5 or younger

6-11

12-13

14-15

16-17

18-19

20 and over

All ages

Source: ABS 2000b, 8.

Moreover table C4.31 indicates that all of the children in the mandatory school in 1911. The major change in educational participation, however, was that more Australians remained in education after age 14 for most of the first half of the century. More than half of the 18 and 19 year olds, and the bulk of those aged 20 and over, were students in university, compared with only 2,465 Australians were students in university, compared with

## Households and families

Over the twentieth century the basic unit of social organisation in Australia was the family, although the family itself has undergone significant shifts in structure. The increasing diversity in the Australian family cannot be captured in the 'relationship' question has been asked in each census, it was not until the late 1980s that the number of families was recorded. The number of families was not recorded until relatively recently.

### C4.32 GROWTH OF POPULATION AND HOUSEHOLDS

Census year	Population	Growth(a)	Families (b)
	'000	%	
1911(d)	4,455	..	1,000
1921(d)	5,436	2	1,100
1933(d)	6,630	2	1,200
1947(d)	7,579	1	1,300
1954(d)	8,987	2	1,400
1961(d)	10,508	2	1,500
1966	11,600	2	1,600
1971	12,756	2	1,700
1976	13,550	1	1,800
1981	14,576	1	1,900
1986	15,602	1	2,000
1991	16,850	2	2,100
1996	17,892	1	2,200

(a) Average annual percentage growth since previous census.

(b) Heads of private occupied dwellings.

(c) Population in private occupied dwellings divided by the number of private occupied dwellings.

(d) Full-blood Aboriginals were excluded from censuses in 1911, 1921, 1933, 1947 and 1954. Official results until 1971. At that time the average number of persons in households was 4.5.

Australian average.

Source: Censuses quoted in Boundy 1980, 7; Australian Censuses CBCS 1911, 192

One dimension of change is evident in table C4.32. This indicates in average size, so that by 1996 there was an average 2.64 persons c partly a function of the decline in fertility considered earlier, but a formed new households at a faster rate than the population has gr the century, but at different times the following have been import

- younger people have left home at an early age to set up new house full employment;
- older people have increasingly remained in independent living situ with smaller proportions going to live with their children or enter
- since the 1970s, increasing levels of divorce and separation have le
- of course fluctuations in the economy, the cost of housing and len

The crucial point, however, is that the number of households has: population, and many goods and services are consumed by house

Over the century, however, it is not so much that the size of the Au changed; rather the structure and composition have been transfor quantified for the last three decades, but a number of points can k 1901:

- the male breadwinner model was dominant, with much less than outside the home;
- couple and single person households were less than a quarter of ho predominantly of 'empty nest' older people and young married co
- extension of households was common, especially with elderly pare grandchildren;
- more than a half of families comprised couples with dependent ch whom had only one breadwinner; and
- less than 5% of children were in single parent families, the bulk of

This situation has been transformed as we enter the twenty-first c occurred in the last thirty years. One trend is the increase in non-f person and group households. [11](#). Lone person households have in 1976 to 24.2% in 1999, while group households have increased from families there also has been an increase in diversity, as is evident i the proportion of families which comprise couples and children fr

## C4.33 DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY TYPES

Family type	1976(a)	1981(a)
	%	%
One parent family with dependent children	6.5	8.6
Couple only	28.0	28.7
Couple with dependent children	48.4	46.6
Couple with non-dependent children only	11.1	10.0
Other families	5.9	6.0
Total	100.0	100.0

(a) Excludes caravan park dwellers.

Source: ABS 2000c, 101.

Whereas in 1976, 44.1% of households had children present, this has fallen to 31.7% in 1981, as shown in table C4.33 that single parent families have increased their share of households with children aged 0-14 lived in a single parent family. However, around one-third of children aged 0-14 spend some time in a single parent family situation during the period 1976-1981. The number of single parent families in Australia has increased rapidly during this period while couple families with children increased by only 12.4%.

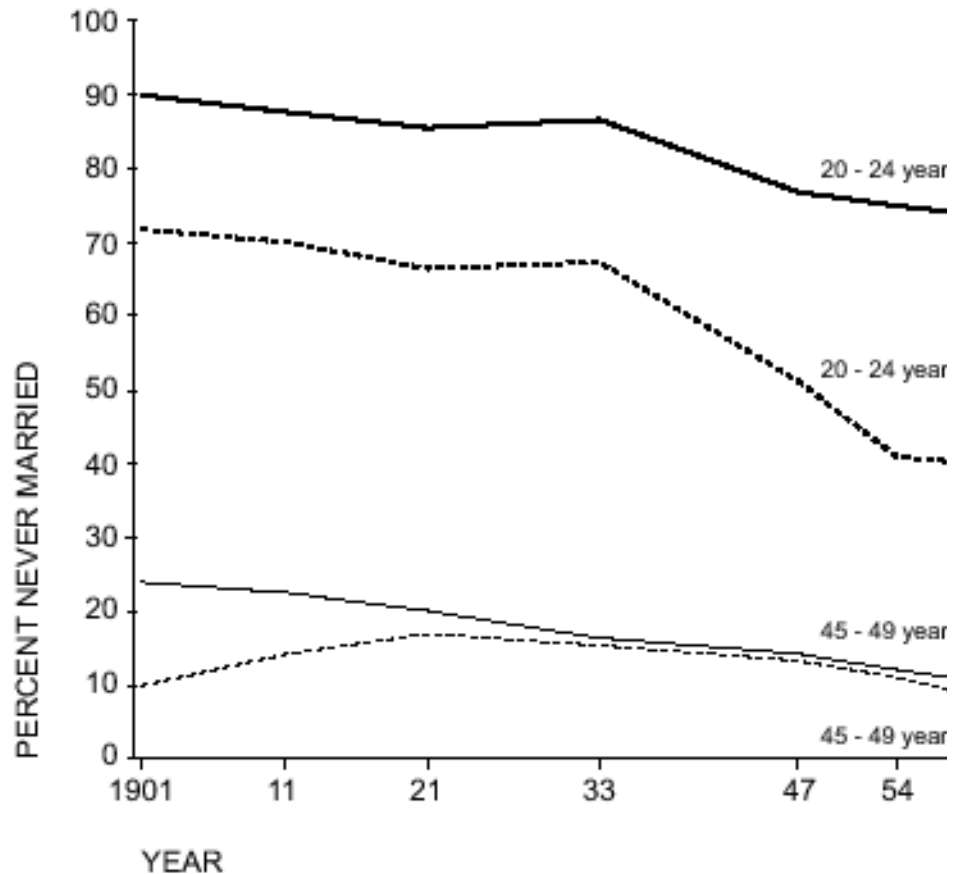
The increased diversity of family situations in which Australian children live has led to the growth of single parent families. A quarter of families with dependent children are now not living with both of their birth parents. Some 4% of families with dependent children are 'other families' including children who have different parents, and 4% of families are stepfather or stepmother. In 53.9% of couple families with children, one parent is not working. It is disturbing to note, too, that in 14.2% of such cases both parents are not working. In single parent families (57.2%) the parent did not work, and in a further 14.2% of such cases both parents are not working.

### Marriage and divorce

Patterns of partnering in Australia have undergone a profound change since the 1950s. The marriage rate (annual number of registered marriages per 1,000 population) has fallen from a peak of 10.5 in 1953 to 6.5 in 1981, as indicated in the chapter's graph 5.34. Marriage rates were high in the post-war period, and fell during times of economic downturn. Since 1981 the marriage rate has declined substantially as a result of changing patterns of partnering and the incidence of other forms of partnering.

McDonald (1982, 186) identified 1900 as an important turning point. In 1900 both age at marriage and proportions marrying were similar to 1901. Thereafter, however, there was a movement toward marriage at an earlier age. The latter is evident in graph C4.34, which shows a decline in the percentage of aged 45-49 who had never married.

**C4.34 PERCENTAGES OF MALES AND FEMALES NEVER MARRIED**  
Australia—1901 to 1998



Source: McDonald 1982; Australian Censuses of 1901, 1911, 1921, 1933, 1947, 1954, 1966, 1976, 1988, 1996, 1998.

Graph C4.34 also indicates trends in the proportion of the 20-24 age group never married in the 1901 census. The decrease in average age at marriage in the early years caused a decrease in the proportions never married. The Depression years saw it increase, but a decrease in the age at marriage, so that by the 1971 census less than 50% of the 20-24 age group remained unmarried. The 1970s saw a sharp reversal of this pattern as the age at marriage rose. Throughout the early post-war years the median age of marriage for females rose from 24 to 26 years, while that of males fell from 26 to 23.8 years. However, thereafter it rose to 28.8 for females and 29.8 for males. This is a function of increased age at marriage in Australian society. Consensual partnering prior to marriage is now common, rising from 10% in the early 1970s to more than half in the early 1990s.

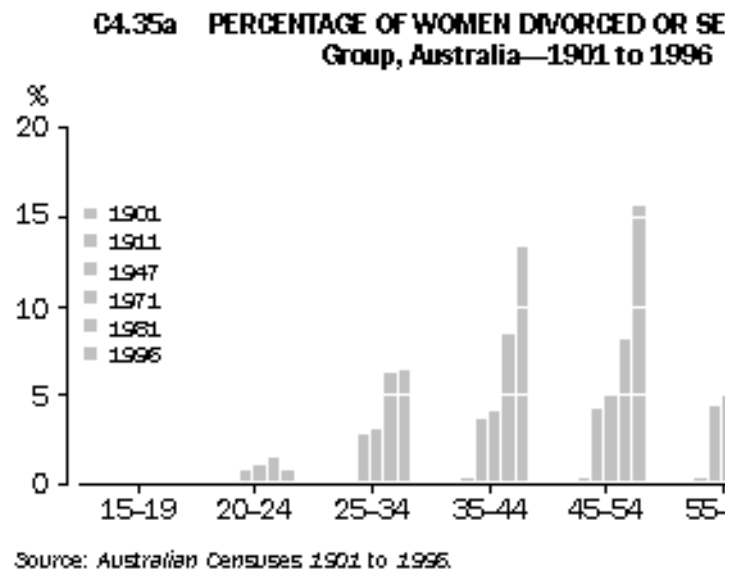
De facto relationships have existed throughout the last century in



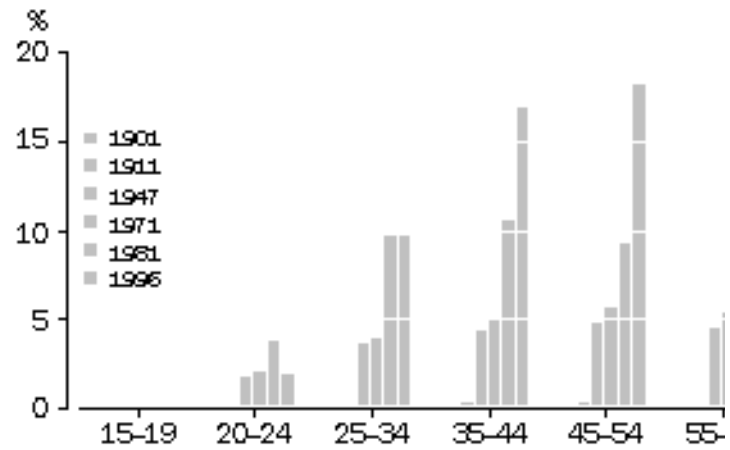
for much of the period partly because at the census people's conjugal status has been a major social change over the last three decades which has led to the acceptance of de facto partnering. The ABS first collected data on de facto couples were in this category; this increased to 8.5% in 1992 and 9.1% in 1996. Relationships are highest in the 25-29 age group and they decline with age. The increase in de facto partnering as well as increased incidence of single parent families, and non-marital births are occurring outside of marriage. In 1951-55, 4% of births were outside of marriage; in the late 1970s, 25% in 1993 and 29% in 1999. The increased diversity in family forms, including increasing incidence of same sex coupling, and this was first recognised in the 1996 census when same sex couples were identified in this category.

Contemporaneous with the recent changes in marriage in Australia, the first three-quarters of the twentieth century divorce remained rare. Following the passage of the Family Law Act of 1975, which took divorce out of the courts and made it possible for divorce to occur if there were irretrievable breakdown of marriage, rates of divorce increased in the post-war period slightly, but spiked in the late 1970s as the backlog of divorce was cleared, before stabilising at a level that is now high. Data on divorces of marriages occurring between 1977 and 1994 showed that 43% of divorces occurred in the 45-54 age group.

The significance of divorce is underlined in graphs C4.35a and C4.35b. Graph C4.35a shows the percentage of Australian women and men at various censuses between 1901 and 1996 who were divorced or separated.



**C4.35b PERCENTAGE OF MEN DIVORCED OR SEPARATED BY AGE GROUP, Australia—1901 to 1996**



Source: Australian Censuses 1901 to 1996.

The graphs show the steep increase in the proportions of each age

The fact that half of Australian marriages end in divorce raises the number of people involved. Currently around a third of Australian registered marriages end in divorce. Others re-partner in de facto relationships rather than formal marriages. In 1996, 37% of adult Australians were living without partners, compared to 19% in 1971. Others re-partner in de facto relationships rather than formal marriages. In 1996, 8% separated and 1.3% widowed. The increase in divorce has contributed to increasing numbers of Australians living alone. In 1996, 37% of adult Australians were living without partners, compared to 19% in 1971.

### The Indigenous population

Australia's indigenous population at the time of initial European settlement is estimated to have been a minimum of 315,000 (Smith 1980) while some have suggested it could have been as high as 750,000. By 1901 their numbers had declined to an estimated 93,333 (NPI 1975). The impact associated with European settlement was reflected in increased mortality rates. The numbers of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders continued to fall until the 1920s when they began to increase slowly; it was only in the 1990s that the numbers began to approach the levels of the time of initial European settlement.

Table C4.36 shows the trajectory of growth of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population over the years.

### C4.36 ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER POPULATION

Aborigines	Torres Strait Islanders	Total Indigenous population
------------	-------------------------	-----------------------------

Census year	no.	no.	no.
1971	106,290	9,663	115,953
1976	144,382	16,533	160,915
1981	144,665	15,232	159,897
1986	206,104	21,541	227,645
1991	238,657	26,721	265,378
1996	314,120	28,744	(a)352,970

Source: Australian censuses of 1971, 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991 and 1996; CBCS 1973.

In 1996 the total counted at the census was 352,970. This represents the total recorded at the 1991 census, and the 227,645 in 1986. There are substantial differences in the Indigenous population. This is partly associated with the marginal living conditions leading to them being missed in censuses. This problem has been addressed through the ABS employing special procedures which undoubtedly improved the proportions of the population being counted. A greater problem remains the extent to which people do or do not identify themselves as Aboriginal. The extent to which people identify oneself as Aboriginal undoubtedly is a major factor in the differences between 1991 and 1996 in the table.

The indigenous population differs from that of the remainder of the population depicted in the chapter's graph 5.8, is significantly younger than the remainder, with less than 15 years in 1996 compared with 22% of the total population. The mortality levels among the group.

The disadvantaged nature of the Indigenous population is reflected in the Indigenous population's mortality and fertility rates are substantially higher than the remainder.

#### **C4.37 CHARACTERISTICS, Indigenous and Non-Indigenous**

Indicator	Units
Life expectancy	
Males	Years
Females	Years
Infant mortality	Rate per 1,000
Total fertility rate	Rate per 1,000
Aged under 30	%
Living in major urban areas	%
16 year old students	%
Bachelor degrees	%

Unemployment rate	%
Employed as labourers	%
Household income per capita	\$
One parent families	%
Renting housing	%

Source: ABS 2000b.

Indigenous people are only half as likely to live in a city with more education is considerably lower and they are more than twice as likely to live in rented accommodation, and double the proportion of the population, and double the proportion of the population live in rented accommodation.

The distribution of the Indigenous population also differs substantially from the total population and an under-representation in the southeast. Table C4.38 shows that there is an over-representation across northern Australia and an under-representation in the southeast.

#### C4.38 DISTRIBUTION, Indigenous and Non-Indigenous

State/Territory	Indigenous population '000
New South Wales	109,925.0
Victoria	22,598.0
Queensland	104,817.0
South Australia	22,051.0
Western Australia	56,205.0
Tasmania	15,205.0
Northern Territory	51,876.0
Australian Capital Territory	3,058.0
Total	386,049.0

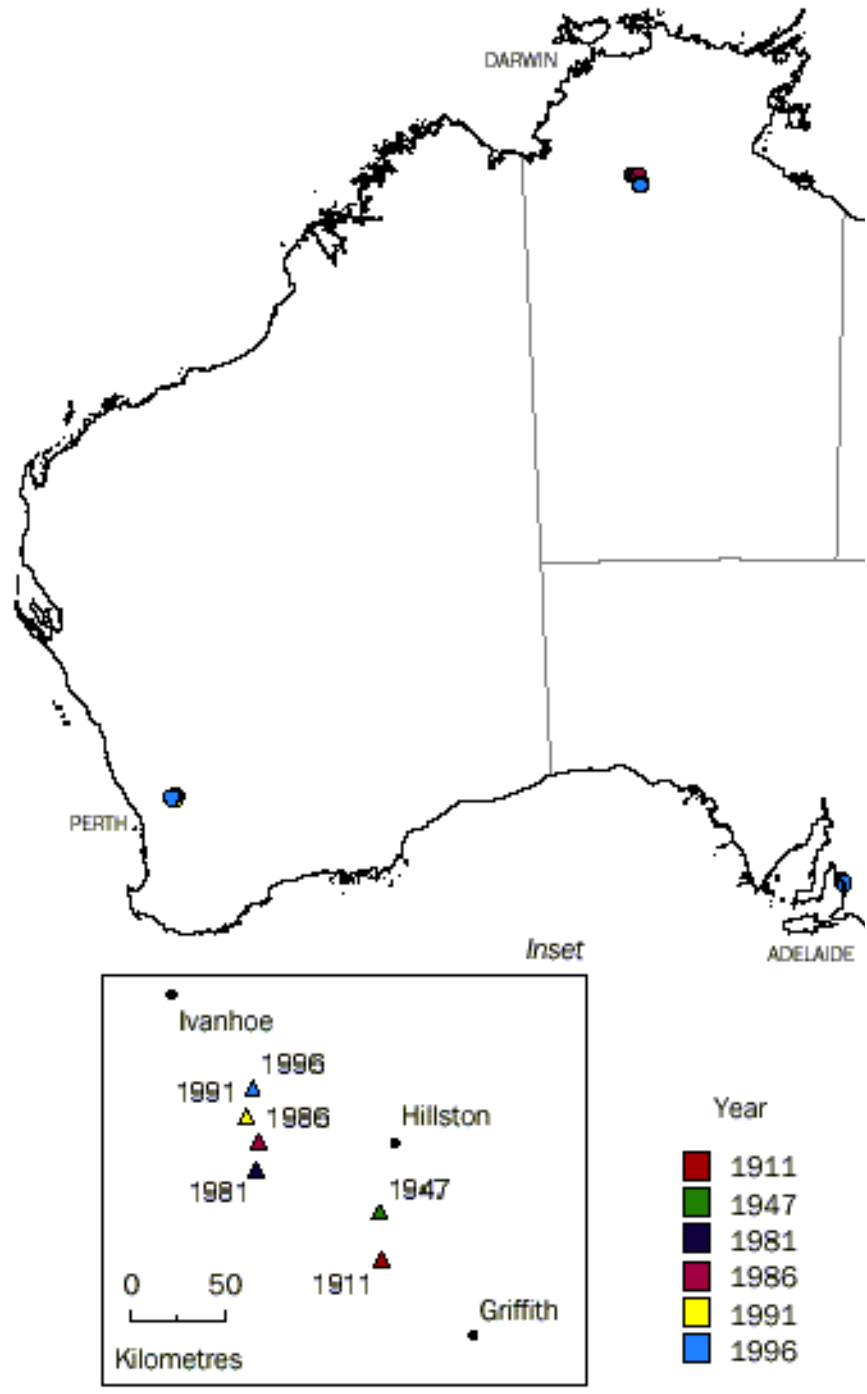
Source: ABS 2000c.

Indeed, the distribution of the indigenous population depicted in Table C4.38 shows a relatively even distribution across the continent while that of the total population is heavily concentrated in the southeast.

### Population distribution

While Australia's population increased more than five fold over the century, the distribution of the population did not change dramatically. Writing in 1947, Taylor (1947, 444) argued that most Australians would continue to live in the coastal belt there were substantial changes in the details of population distribution. Figure C4.39 shows that the geographic centre of gravity <sup>12</sup> of the Australian population has

**C4.39 WEIGHTED POPULATION CENTRES, AUSTRALIA**

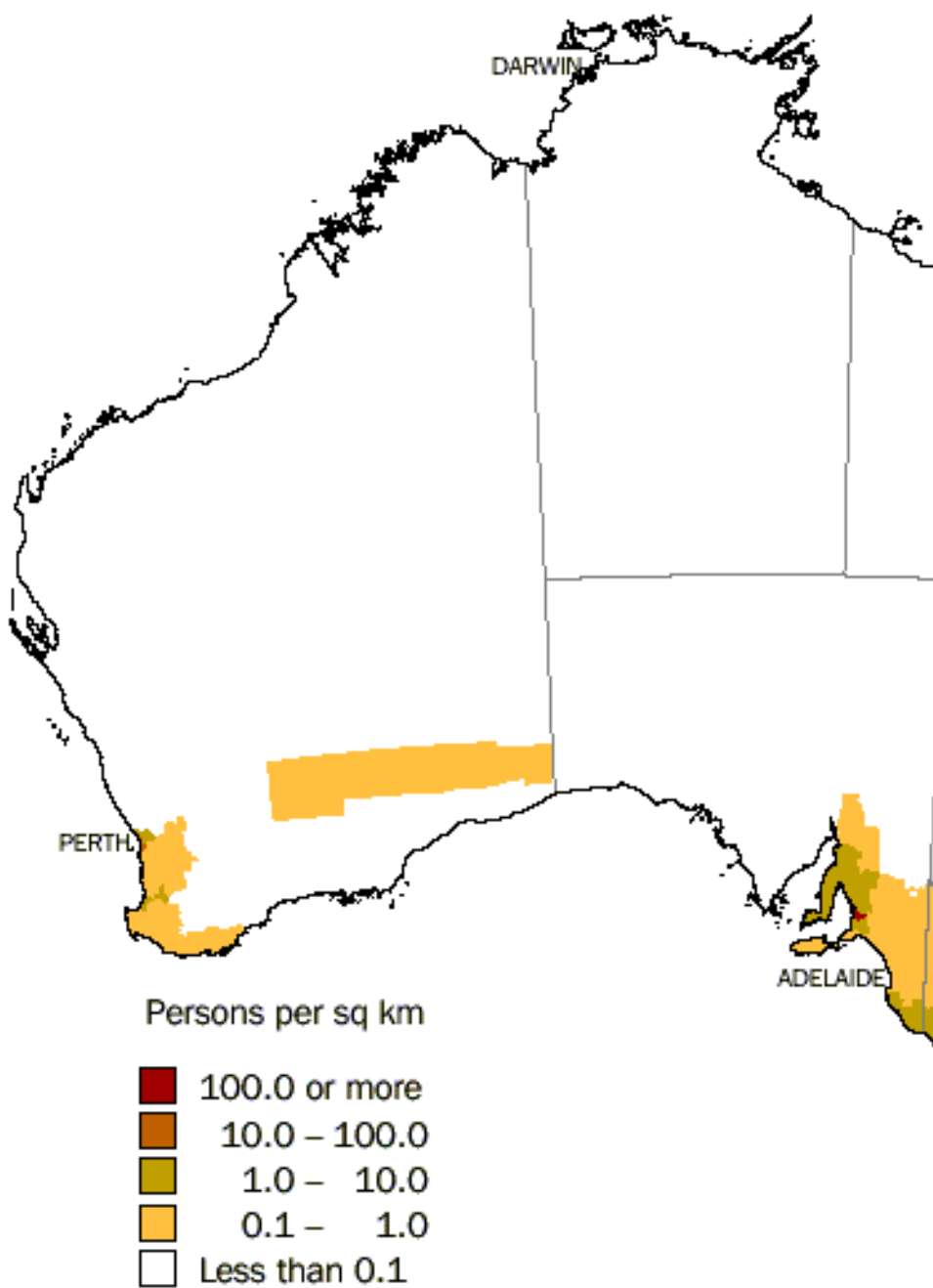


Source: Australian Censuses of 1911, 1947, 1981, 1986, 1991, and 1996.

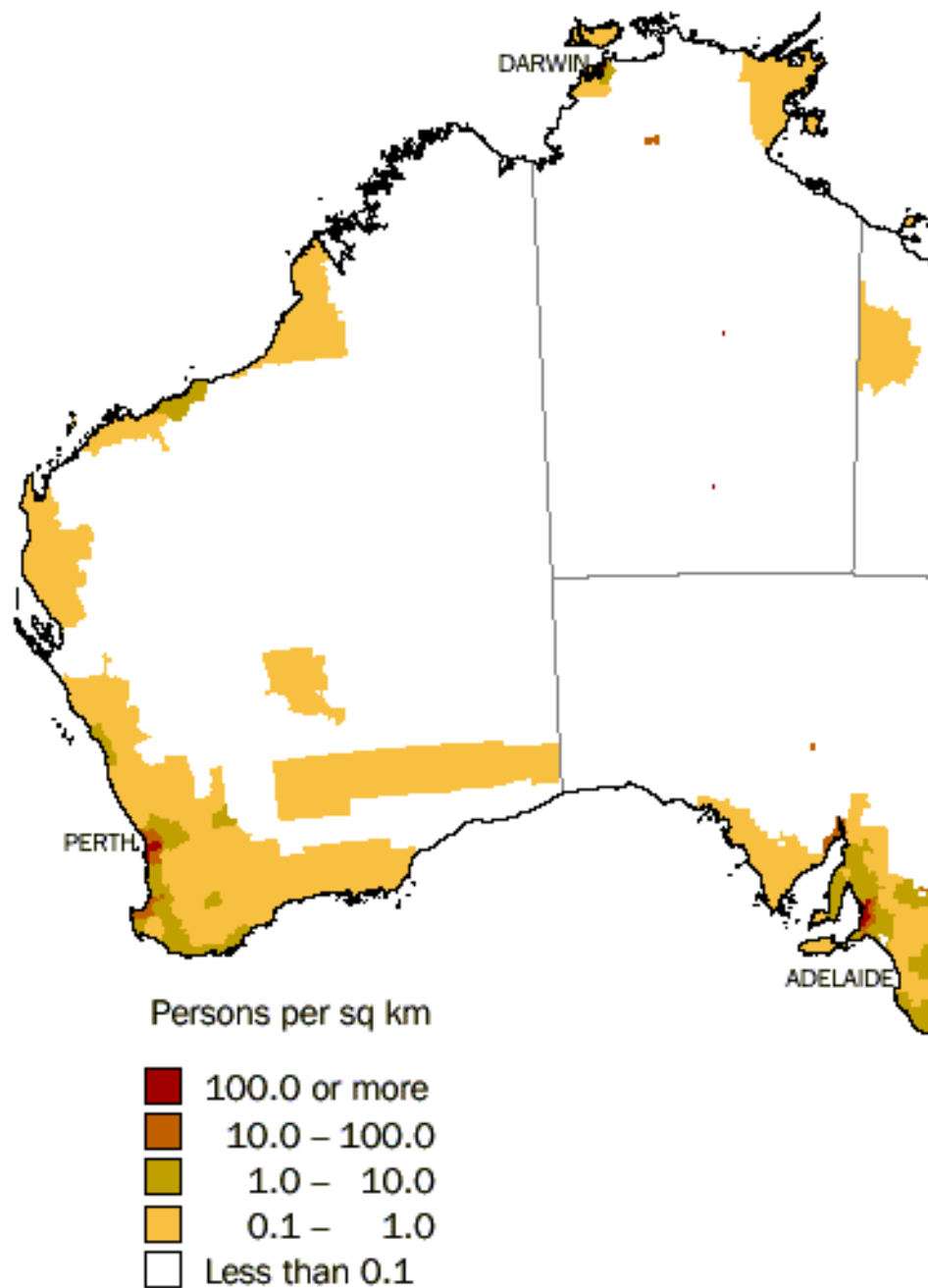
Australia's population at the beginning of the century was highly concentrated in the coastal belt. Figures C4.40a and C4.40b, which show the pattern of population density in 1911 and 1947, respectively, indicate that the most substantial increases in density have occurred in the coastal belt.

and the southeast and southwestern corners of the continent.

### C4.40a POPULATION DENSITY, Australia—



Source: Australian Census of 1901 based on Statistical



Source: Australian Census of 1996 based on Statistical

Indeed, in 1996 some 68.8% of Australians lived within 20 km by road

The distribution of the national population between the various States and Territories has changed over the last century, although the only change in their relative size was Western Australia overtaking South Australia as the fourth largest State. Table C4.41 indicates that in the first half of the century New South Wales population grew while that of Victoria declined.

	1901	1921	1931
	<b>PER CENT</b>		
New South Wales	35.9	38.6	39.3
Victoria	31.8	28.2	27.2
Queensland	13.2	13.9	14.1
South Australia	9.5	9.1	9.1
Western Australia	4.9	6.1	6.1
Tasmania	4.6	3.9	3.9
Northern Territory	0.1	0.1	0.1
Australian Capital Territory	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	<b>MILLION</b>		
<b>Total population</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>6.8</b>

Source: Rowland 1982, 25; ABS 1988; ABS 2000a.

In the post-war period the proportion in New South Wales has declined, as has Victoria also, after increasing its share in the first two post-war decades. The major trend, however, has been a long term, but still continuing, shift toward the north and west. Hence over the century:

- the proportion of the national population living in New South Wales and Victoria in Australia has declined (from 81.8% to 69.1%); and
- the proportion in Queensland, Western Australia, the Australian Capital Territory and Northern Territory has increased from 18.9% to 29.9%.

A major shift in population distribution over the decade relates to the growth of urban and rural areas. Quantifying this is made difficult by shifts in the definition of urban area in Australia as well as the fact that over recent decades there has been a shift between urban and rural areas in Australia (Hugo et al. 1997).

#### **C4.42 URBANISATION, Australia - 1901-1931**



Size of population centre (number of people)	no.
Less than 3,000(a)	..
3,000–9,999	54
10,000–99,999	19
100,000–539,000	4
950,000 or more	0
All population centres	(b)77

Total population

(a) Includes people living in rural areas between population centres.

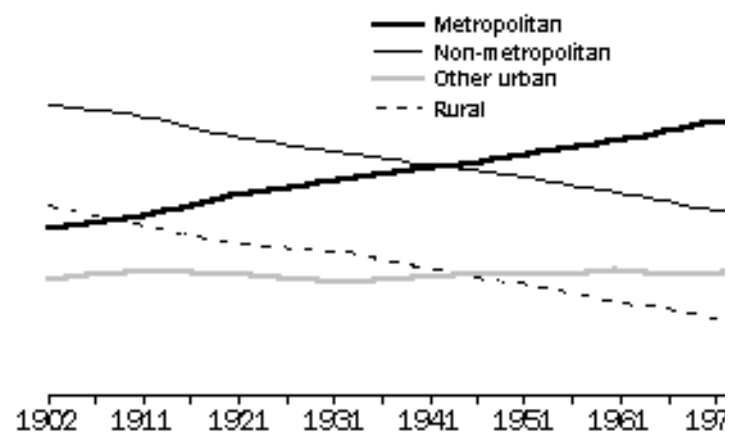
(b) Comprising at least 3,000 people.

Source: ABS 2000b, 7.

Table C4.42 shows that in the early years of the century almost half less than 3,000 people. Over the next century the number of people 64% while those living in larger centres increased almost 10 times a of increasing urbanisation. In 1901 Australia's largest centres of Syd of around half a million persons, compared with 4,041,381 and 3,41 Australians living in major urban areas (those with 100,000 persons over the 1906-96 period.

Graph C4.43 shows the changes which occurred in the proportions metropolitan areas over the twentieth century.

**C4.43 POPULATION DISTRIBUTION, Metropolitan, Non-me and Rural Sectors—1901 to 1996**

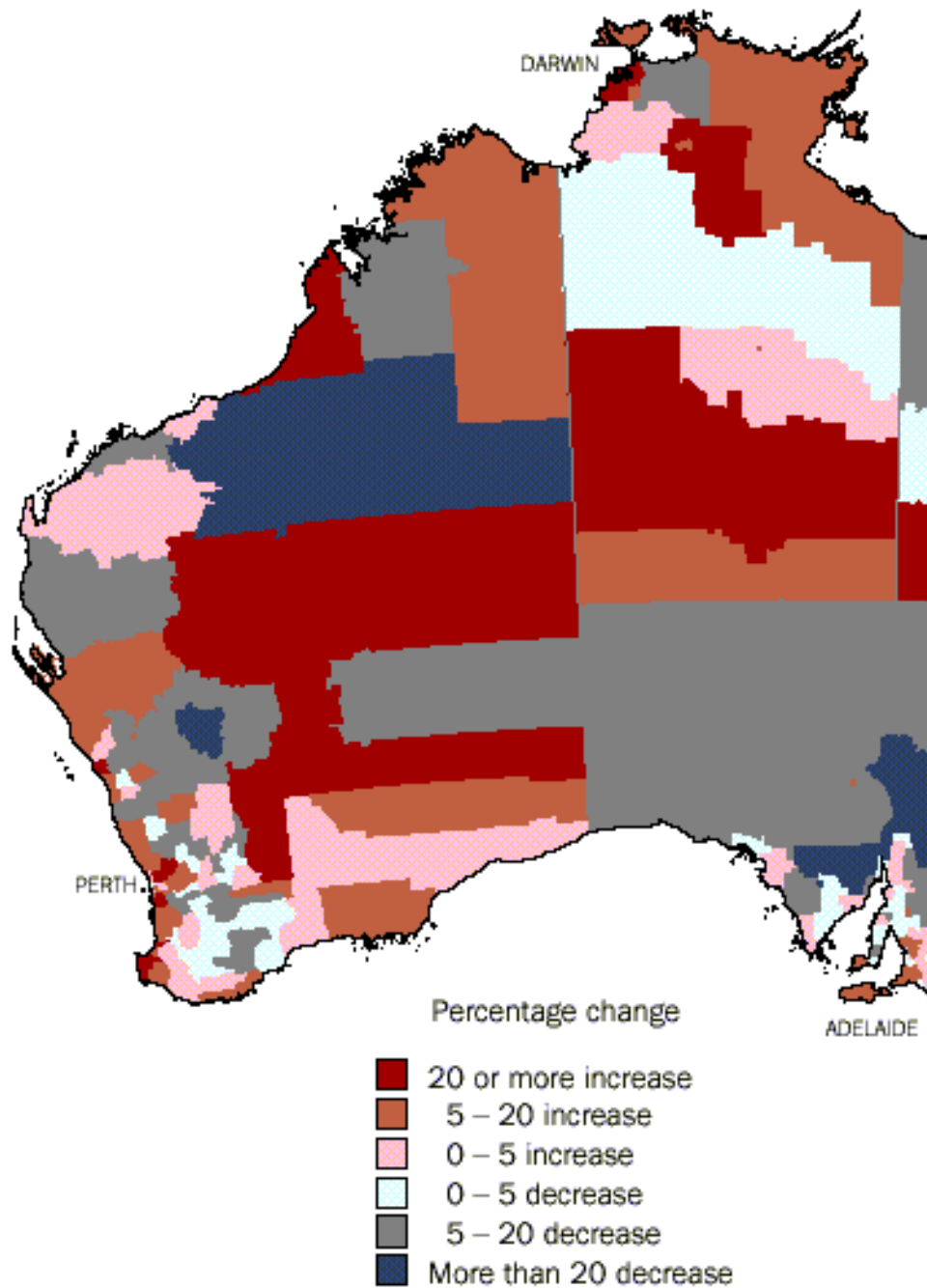


Source: Bowie 1987; Australian Censuses 1906 to 1996.

The long term tendency toward increasing concentration of the Au

a consistent pattern of urban areas increasing their share of the total population. In the 1946 Census 37.4% of Australians lived in rural areas, but by 1961 this proportion had fallen to 13.9% of the population was classified as rural. The pattern was, however, one of a growing dominance of the largest metropolitan areas and a decline in the share of the total national population progressively declined in the metropolitan areas. In 1936, 36%, so that by 1971 nearly two-thirds of all Australians lived in the metropolitan areas. Between 1971 and 1976 the proportion living in rural areas continued to decline, while the metropolitan share of the total national population continued to gain ground was that of the non-metropolitan urban centres. In the subsequent period there has been a relative stability in the proportion of the population living in rural areas, and indeed there has been a consistent decline in the proportion of the population living in the five major metropolitan capitals (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide) from 5

This stabilisation, however, masks considerable variation in population growth. While the population living in country towns increased from 2,887,000 in 1946 (44.1%), that living in rural areas increased by only 25.9% from 1,987,000 in 1946 to 2,500,000 in 1996. There were substantial variations between non-metropolitan areas. The population growth in the 1991-96 intercensal period (map C4.44) shows wide variations between population growth and decline and distinct spatial patterns of growth.



Source: Australian Censuses of 1991 and 2001

Overall, non-metropolitan populations grew slightly faster (6%) than metropolitan areas (5.6%). It will be noted that areas of population growth in regional Australia are concentrated in certain types of areas, namely:

- the areas surrounding metropolitan areas;
- along the well watered east coast and southwest coast;
- some resort and retirement areas;
- some regional centres;
- along the Hume Highway linking Sydney and Melbourne; and

- some relatively remote areas, especially those with growing mining and indigenous populations.

On the other hand, there is also a concentration of the areas experiencing

- above all the dry farming areas of the wheat-sheep belt such as in the central-western New South Wales and Queensland, the southeast, South Australia, and the wheat-sheep belt of Western Australia;
- many pastoral areas in central Australia;
- certain mining areas such as Broken Hill; and
- declining industrial cities such as Whyalla in South Australia.

These patterns point to a pattern of increasing dichotomisation between areas of decline or stability in non-metropolitan Australia.

It is interesting, too, to examine the patterns of population change in relation to the degree of accessibility/remoteness of particular areas. Table 8.20 shows the change in the five accessibility sectors of non-metropolitan Australia. The 'Remote' and 'Very remote' combined, in map 8.20 of the article [Housing and the Strait Islander communities](#) in the Housing chapter.

#### C4.45 AUSTRALIAN NON-METROPOLITAN AREAS, Population Change, 1976-1996

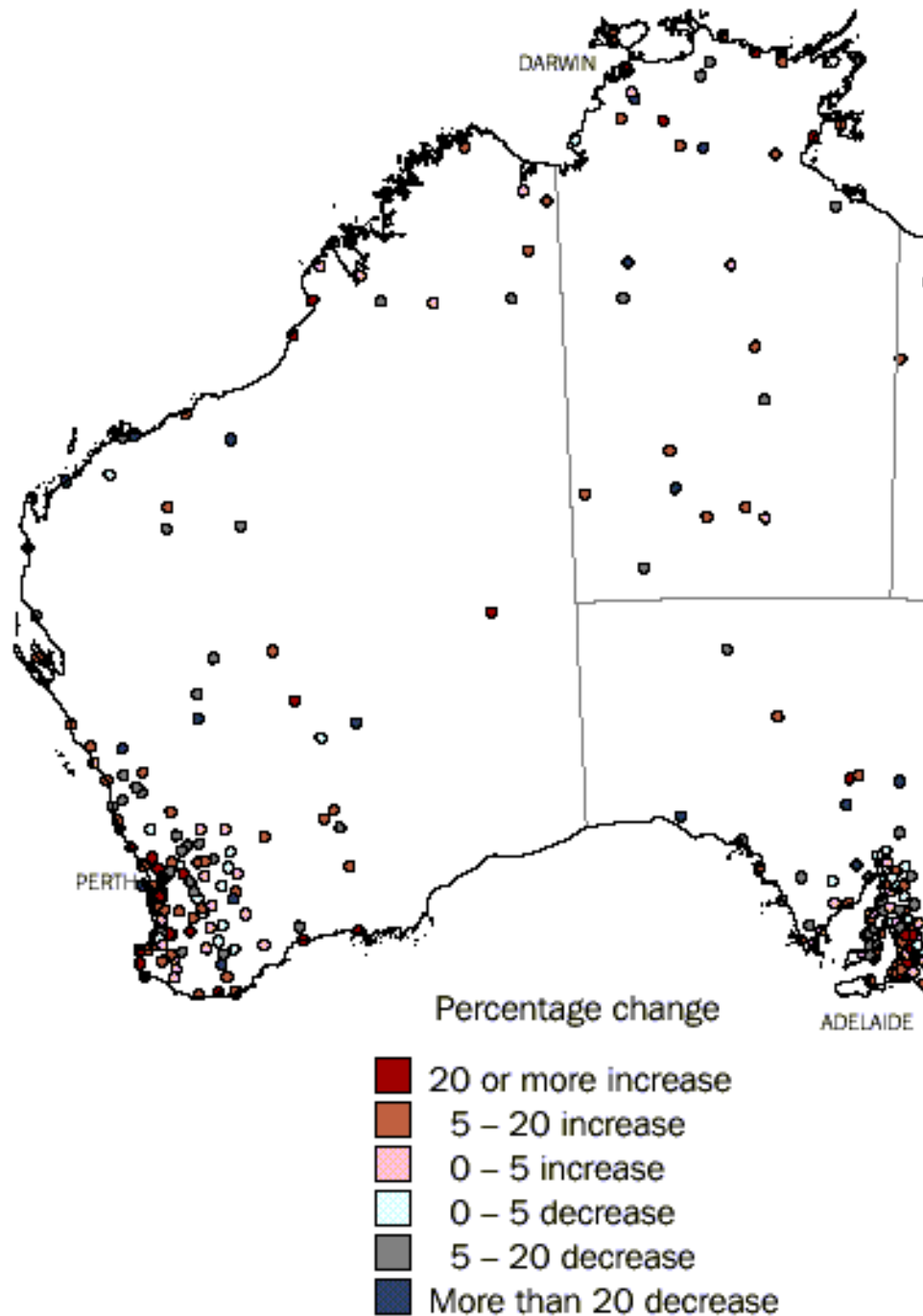
Level of accessibility	Population change, 1976-1996 (%)
Highly accessible	12.1
Accessible	5.8
Moderately accessible	1.2
Remote	-1.8
Very remote	-3.2
Total Australia	2.3

Source: Glover et al. 1999.

This indicates that only in the highly accessible areas close to major cities has there been a significant increase in population growth levels above the national average. There is a decline in the population growth rate in the other areas, away from the large cities, except that the very remote areas had a slight increase. It will also be noted that there is an association between remoteness and population density.

Turning to an examination of population growth trends in country urban areas experiencing growth and decline. Again a clear spatial

#### C4.46 POPULATION GROWTH IN COUNTRY TOWNS



Source: Australian Censuses of 1991 and 1981

Centres with relatively rapid growth are clustered around the nation's eastern and southwestern coasts. On the other hand, the wheat-shed areas are experiencing decline. In the more remote areas there is a mix of towns experiencing growth and with those recording decline.

Population distribution patterns have undergone substantial change in the last century. In the period prior to World War II the lateral growth was limited by the reach of public transport. However, increasing levels of car ownership led to the extension of low density suburbs. For the early post-war decades the population growth occurred in the outer suburbs. However, increasingly population concentration occurred in the inner areas of the major cities.

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## Endnotes

1 ABS Media Release, 18 August 1999.

2 Male expectation of life at birth in 1901 was 55.2 years; that in 1999 was 78.2 years.

3 Life expectancy is defined as "the average number of years a person can expect to live if present mortality rates at all ages for a given period is maintained throughout his or her life".

4 The Infant Mortality Rate is calculated as the number of babies who die before they reach their first birthday.

5 The Total Fertility Rate can be defined as "the number of children a woman can expect to bear in her lifetime if she were to pass through all her childbearing years at the current rates of fertility in a given year" (Hugo 1986, 43).

6 i.e. TFR = 2.1.

7 Ethnic strength is derived by adding fractions of ancestry for generations.

8 The definitions are as follows:

- Permanent Residents - persons migrating to Australia and residents of Australia.
- Long Term Movement - visitors arriving and residents departing to another country, or to Australia or abroad for 12 months or more, and the departure of visitors to another country, or to Australia or abroad for 12 months or more.
- Short Term Movement - travellers whose intended or actual stay in Australia is less than 12 months.

9 Defined as ASIC divisions D, E, F, G and L, i.e. Electricity, Gas and Water Supply, Wholesale Trade, Retail Trade, and Property and Business Services.

10 Defined as ASIC divisions H, I, J and K, i.e. Accommodation, Cafes and Restaurants, Storage, Communication Services, and Finance and Insurance.

11 Group households are defined as households consisting of two or more persons who are aged 15 years or over. There are no reported couple relationships or blood relationships in these households.

12 Plane and Rogerson (1994, 31) define this as follows: "The population centroid is the mean point, the centre of gravity, or sometimes simply the centre of mass. In the mythical Atlas were to hold up the entire area for which a centroid was defined, the States - and assuming that people were the only objects contributing to the weight (everyone weighs the same!), the point where he would have to stand would be the centroid."

centroid".

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