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Indicators for Change 2009

Tracking the progress of New Zealand women




MINISTRY OF WOMEN'S AFFAIRS
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Indicators for Change 2009

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Introduction

Indicators for Change 2009: Tracking the progress of New Zealand women (Indicators for Change 2009) provides information on the current social and economic status of women. It builds upon *Indicators for Change: Tracking the progress of New Zealand* published in October 2008.

The purpose of the report is to provide policy-makers, researchers, and planners with a way to track progress for women, and identify areas where more work may be needed.

As with most indicator sets, the ones used in this report act as a 'dashboard'. The aim is to:

- give an overall snapshot of how women, or particular groups of women, are doing
- focus on some areas where women are not doing so well
- include some areas that are significant for women, but are not a focus of other monitoring reports
- provide a 'gender angle' that complements and expands on monitoring from other reports.

Selecting the indicators

The indicators have been selected to measure a range of outcomes that relate to the government's high-level goals for women. These are:

- women have the opportunity to develop and use their skills and talents
- women are healthy, empowered, resilient and safe
- society recognises caring as integral to economic and social success.

The indicators are not intended to cover all areas where monitoring is possible. Rather, they provide us with particular parts of the picture, which need to be understood in context.

Of course, measurement alone will not lead to improvement in outcomes. It is hoped, however, that the report will provide policy-makers with a clearer understanding of the areas where changes may be necessary for improvements in outcomes to occur.

Tracking sub-groups of women

As well as tracking how outcomes for women compare with outcomes for men and change over time, it is also important to track whether some sub-populations of women are experiencing poorer outcomes than others. In many cases, the average for women can disguise wide variation in how well women are doing. In order to improve outcomes for all women, it is important to identify whether there is wide variation, and for which groups of women the outcomes are poorer.

Wherever possible, the indicators in this report have been broken down by ethnicity and age, as well as gender. For some indicators, data is broken down by other factors related to variation in outcomes. For example, disaggregating health indicators by socio-economic status reveals wide variation in the health of women.

Unfortunately, for most indicators the data sources do not enable us to report on outcomes for disabled women or women from smaller ethnic groups, either because this data is not collected or because sample sizes for surveys are not large enough to provide robust data on smaller groups.

Updating the indicators

The information in this report is drawn from a number of sources that vary in how often new data is collected. For some indicators, such as those that draw on data from the Household Labour Force Survey, new data will be available each year. For others, such as the Time Use Survey or indicators sourced from the New Zealand Census of Population and Dwellings, new data will only be available every five to ten years.

For each updated version, the indicators will also be evaluated and new indicators may be added to ensure the report monitors the key areas that relate to the government's high-level priorities for women. In 2009, ten indicators have been updated or revised from the previous report, and two new indicators have been added. Only three indicators remain unchanged.

Table 1: Linking the indicators with the government's high-level priorities for women

Priority	Indicators
Women have the opportunity to develop and use their skills and talents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educational attainment** • Participation in tertiary education* • Participation in modern apprenticeships[%] • Median hourly earnings* • Weekly income* • Representation of women in leadership* • Joblessness**
Women are healthy, empowered, resilient and safe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal victimisation[#] • Concern about crime[#] • Health expectancy • Self-reported health status • Access to health services[#]

Priority	Indicators
Society recognises caring as integral to economic and social success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction with work-life balance[%] • Total work time • Access to early childhood education[*]

* updated with 2008 data
revised
% new indicator

Structure of the report

This report is divided into three sections. The first section, 'Highlights', provides a summary of how women are doing across all the indicators.

The second section, 'A Profile of Women in New Zealand', provides demographic and contextual information on the size and composition of the population of women in New Zealand. This information compares women with men, as well as showing differences between groups of women.

The third section provides more comprehensive information on each indicator, and is divided into the government's three high-level priorities for women.

Highlights

This section presents a summary of the key indicators to give a snapshot of how women overall, and Māori and Pacific women, are faring.

The following table outlines how women and men compare on some key indicators.

Table 2: Comparing women and men against key indicators, 2008

	Women	Men
Percent with a post-school qualification	48.6%	52.9%
Representation in Modern Apprenticeships	9.4%	90.6%
Median weekly income	\$413	\$690
Representation in Parliament	33.6%	66.4%
Proportion who are victims of sexual offences (2005)	4%	2%
Health expectancy (2006)	69.2 years	67.4 years
Satisfaction with work-life balance	77.2%	74.6%

Women's educational attainment has improved significantly.

Women and men now have similar qualification levels overall. In the last ten years there has been a significant increase in women's participation in tertiary education, and younger women are now more likely to hold a post-school qualification than young men.

Women continue to experience poorer economic outcomes than men, on average.

The median weekly income of women was 40.1 percent lower than that of men in 2008, and women are much less likely to receive high incomes. This reflects the combination of women being less likely to be in paid work, more likely to work part-time, and earning less per hour worked.

In retirement, however, women and men have similar median weekly incomes, reflecting the large proportion of retirement income provided by universal New Zealand Superannuation.

Women remain under-represented in leadership positions, particularly in the private sector.

Although women now make up almost half of the workforce, women remain under-represented in leadership and governance positions. Women's representation tends to be greater in fields where they have traditionally predominated, such as education (51.9 percent on school boards of trustees) and health (43.4 percent on district health boards). However, women continue to have low representation in Parliament, on private sector boards, and in the judiciary.

Women have better overall health outcomes than men, and health expectancy is improving for both men and women.

Women experience better overall health outcomes than men on average. Women can expect to live in good health for longer than men and more women than men consider their health to be excellent or very good.

Women are more likely than men to be unable to access a GP when they need to. Access to health services has, however, improved significantly for both women and men in recent years.

Partner violence and sexual violence continue to affect a significant number of women.

Overall, women and men are equally likely to be victims of a crime. Women are, however, more likely to be victims of confrontational offences committed by partners, and sexual assault, while men are more likely to be victims of confrontational offences committed by strangers.

While the proportion of women who were victims of a confrontational offence committed by partners in 2005 was only slightly higher than that of men (7 percent compared with 6 percent), the number of these offences as a percentage of the population was considerably higher for women (26 offences per 100 women compared with 18 offences per 100 men). This means that women are more likely to be repeat victims of confrontational offences committed by partners than men.

Women are more concerned about being a victim of a crime than men.

Women are particularly concerned about being assaulted by strangers and being a victim of a sexual assault. In 2005, around one in four women were very worried about being a victim of sexual violence.

Women are slightly more likely to be satisfied with their work-life balance.

Women are slightly more likely to be satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance than men. However, long working hours have a bigger impact on women's satisfaction with work-life balance than men's.

Women and men spend a similar amount of time on work overall, but women spend more time on unpaid work.

Women and men spend a similar amount of time working, but 70 percent of women's work is unpaid, compared with 40 percent of men's.

The contribution women make to New Zealand through their greater role in caring is highly significant. In 2001 the value of unpaid work in New Zealand was estimated at \$40 billion (equivalent to 39 percent of gross domestic product), with women contributing 64 percent of the total value.

The affordability of early childhood education has improved, but long waiting times for places are becoming more common.

There has been a substantial improvement in the affordability of early childhood education (ECE) for three- and four-year-old children, following the introduction of 20 hours ECE in teacher-led services. Despite long waiting times becoming more common, participation in ECE continues to increase.

A Profile of New Zealand Women

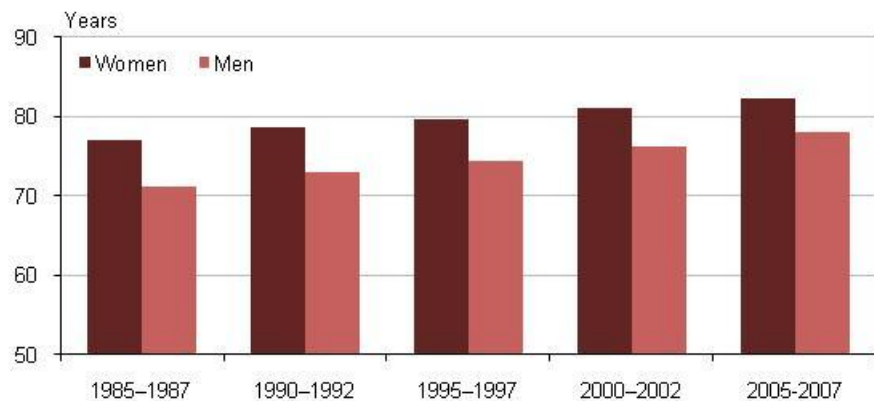
Age and life expectancy

Women in New Zealand are continuing to live longer than men, but the gap is closing.

New Zealand has an ageing population. In 2008, the median age of the female population in New Zealand was 37.1 years, compared with 34.3 years in 1998. The median age of the male population in 2008 was 35.4 years. An estimated 13.6 percent of New Zealand women were aged 65 years and older in 2008. There were 122 women per 100 men aged at least 65 years in 2008, which reflects the higher life expectancy of women.

A female born in 2005-07 can expect to live 82.2 years, compared to 78.1 years for males. Despite women continuing to outlive men on average, over the last 20 years this gap has narrowed from 6.0 years in 1985-87 to 4.1 years in 2005-07.

Figure 1: Life expectancy by gender



Source: Statistics New Zealand

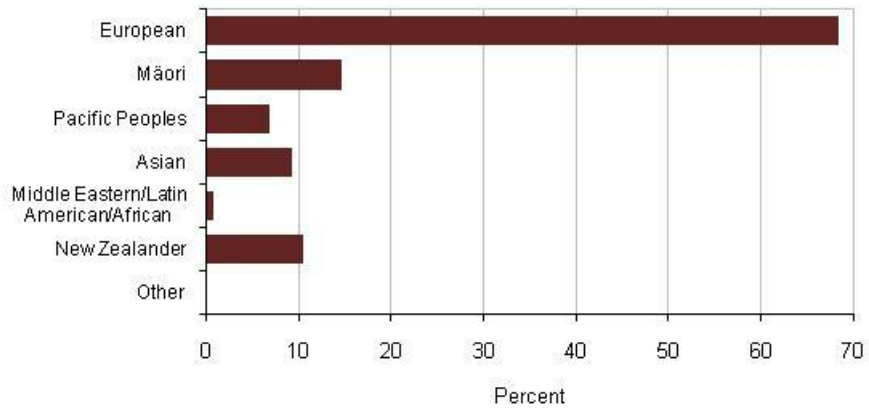
Māori women have a shorter life expectancy than non-Māori women. In 2005-07, life expectancy for Māori women was 75.1 years, compared with 83.0 years for non-Māori women. Māori women's life expectancy has also been increasing at a slower rate than that of non-Māori women. Between the period 1985-87 and 2005-07, life expectancy for Māori women has increased by 2.8 years, compared with 5.6 years for non-Māori women.

Ethnicity

The ethnic make-up of women in New Zealand is becoming increasingly diverse.

In 2006, more than two-thirds (68.4 percent) of women in New Zealand identified themselves as European, and a further 10.4 percent identified themselves as New Zealander. Between 1991 and 2006 the proportion of women identifying themselves as Māori increased from 13.0 percent to 14.7 percent. Over the same period, the proportion of women identifying themselves as Pacific increased from 5.0 percent to 6.8 percent. The proportion of women identifying as Asian increased dramatically – from 3.0 percent in 1991 to 9.4 percent in 2006.

Figure 2: Ethnicity of women in New Zealand, 2006



Source: Statistics New Zealand

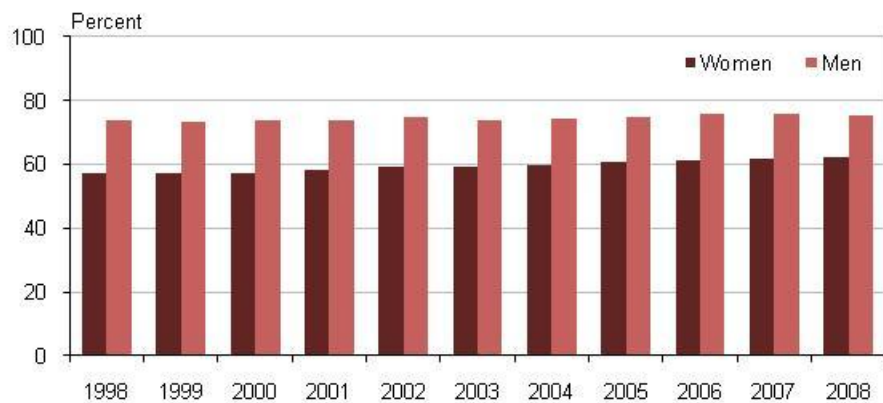
Women in New Zealand are increasingly likely to have been born overseas. In 2006, nearly one in four (23.0 percent) women in New Zealand were born overseas, compared with less than one in six (15.6 percent) in 1991.

Employment

Women's labour force participation is increasing.

Women's participation in the labour force has been steadily increasing over time. Between 1998 and 2008, women's labour force participation increased from 57.0 percent to 62.2 percent. Although women's participation in the labour force still remains lower than men's, the gap has closed from 16.6 percentage points in 1998 to 13.0 percentage points in 2008.

Figure 3: Labour force participation rate, by gender, 1998-2008



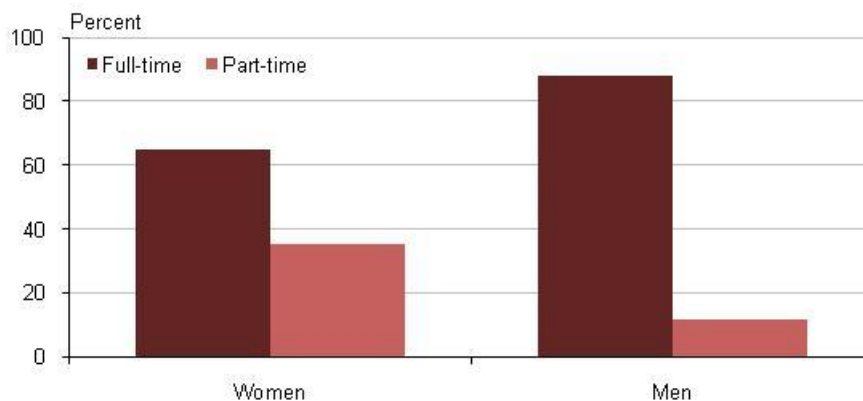
Source: Statistics New Zealand

There is very little gender difference in the unemployment rate. Women have had a slightly higher rate of unemployment than men since 2002. In 2008, 4.2 percent of women in the labour force were unemployed, compared with 4.1 percent of men.

Women are more likely to be working part-time than men.

Women are more likely than men to be working part-time. More than one-third (35.1 percent) of employed women worked part-time in 2008, compared with 11.8 percent of men. Nearly three-quarters (72.4 percent) of part-time employees in 2008 were women.

Figure 4: Type of employment, by gender, 2008



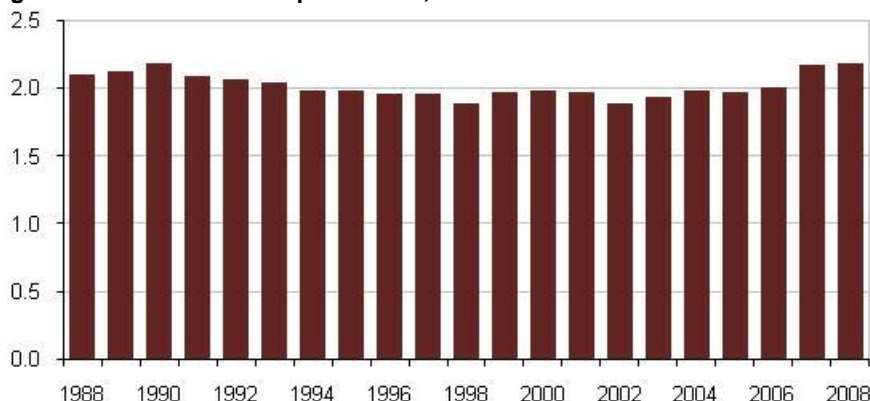
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Fertility

The birth rate has been increasing for the past five years.

New Zealand's birth rate has increased over recent years, with the number of births per woman now comparable to that of the baby 'blip' in the late 1980s to early 1990s. There was an average of 2.18 births per woman in 2008 – the highest rate since 1990. As shown in the graph below, the birth rate has been trending upwards since 2002.

Figure 5: Number of births per woman, 1988-2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Despite the recent increase in the birth rate, the number of women who do not have children has remained relatively stable in the past decade. According to the 2006 Census, 31.2 percent of women aged 15 years and over have had no children. This is similar to 1996, when 31.6 percent of women aged 15 years and over had no children.

Women who have children are doing so at a later age.

The median age of New Zealand women giving birth in 2008 was 30.0 years, compared with a median age of 29.3 years in 1998 and 27.2 years in 1988. The proportion of babies born to mothers aged 35 years and over has more than doubled in the last 20 years – from 7.9 percent in 1988 to 22.1 percent in 2008.

The total birth rate for Māori women in 2008 was 3.0 births per woman. This is significantly higher than the birth rate of all women. Māori women also tend to give birth at a younger age than non-Māori women – with a median age of 25.6 years in 2008.

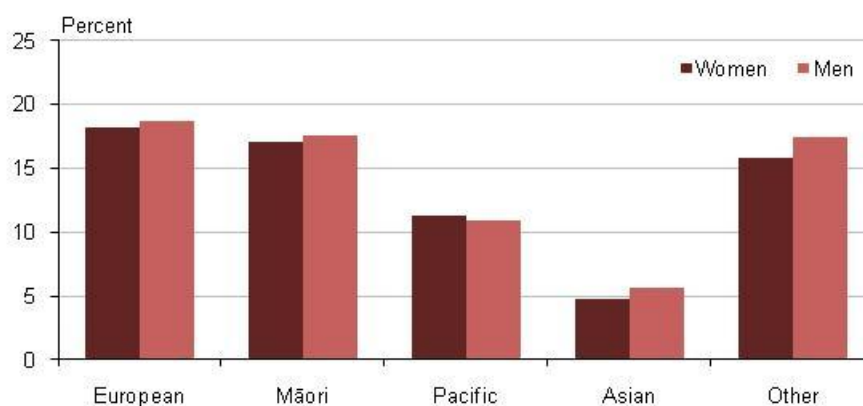
Disability

A similar proportion of women and men have a disability.

An estimated 332,600 women had a disability in 2006. This equates to 16.2 percent of the female population, compared with 16.9 percent of men. Women have a lower rate of disability than men in all age groups under 65 years, but a higher rate in the age group 65 years and over.

European women are more likely to have a disability than women of other ethnicities. In 2006, 18.1 percent of European women had a disability, compared with 17.0 percent of Māori, 11.3 percent of Pacific, and 4.7 percent of Asian women.

Figure 6: Disability rate, by gender and ethnicity, 2006



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Women have the opportunity to develop and use their skills and talents

- Educational attainment
- Participation in tertiary education
- Participation in modern apprenticeships
- Median hourly earnings
- Weekly incomes
- Representation of women in leadership
- Joblessness

Educational attainment

Definition

As measured by the Household Labour Force Survey, the proportion of people aged 15 to 64 years with:

- no qualification
- school qualification only
- post-school qualification.

Relevance

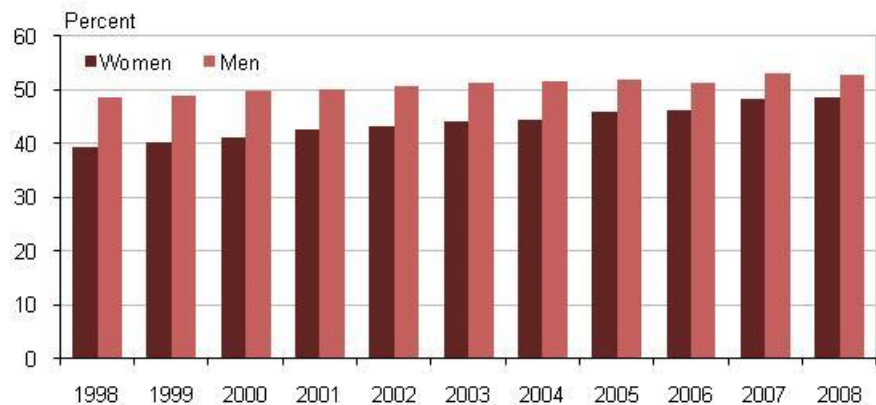
Educational attainment is an indicator of the extent to which women have skills and qualifications that equip them to participate in the workforce and in society more generally.

Current level and trends

Men are more likely to hold post-school qualifications than women, but the gap is closing.

Women are increasingly likely to hold a post-school qualification. Between 1998 and 2008, the proportion of women holding a post-school qualification increased from 39.3 percent to 48.6 percent. However, men are still more likely than women to hold a post-school qualification, with 52.9 percent of men holding a qualification at this level in 2008. The gender gap has been steadily closing – from 9.3 percentage points in 1998, to 4.3 percentage points in 2008.

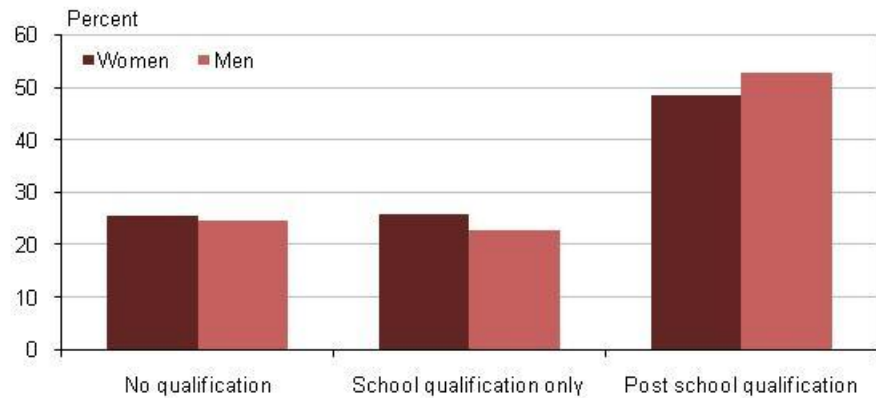
Figure 7: Post-school qualification attainment, by gender, 1998-2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

The level of qualification held by women and men was fairly similar in 2008. Approximately one-quarter of both women and men held no qualification (25.5 percent and 24.5 percent respectively). A further 25.9 percent of women and 22.6 percent of men held a school qualification only.

Figure 8: Educational attainment, by gender, 2008



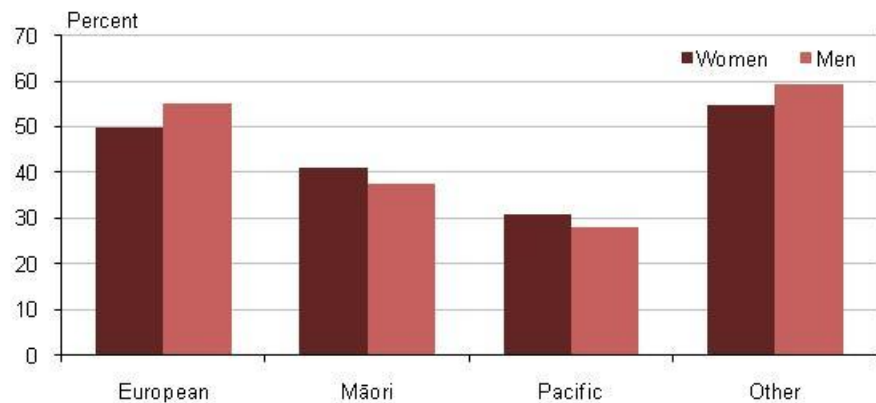
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

Māori and Pacific women are less likely to have a post-school qualification than European women.

The proportion of women who hold a post-school qualification varies considerably by ethnicity. In 2008, 49.7 percent of European women held a post-school qualification, compared with 41.1 percent of Māori women and 30.9 percent of Pacific women. Women of other ethnicities were the most likely to hold a post-school qualification in 2008 (54.7 percent). In both the Māori and Pacific ethnic groups, women were more likely than men to hold a post-school qualification in 2008.

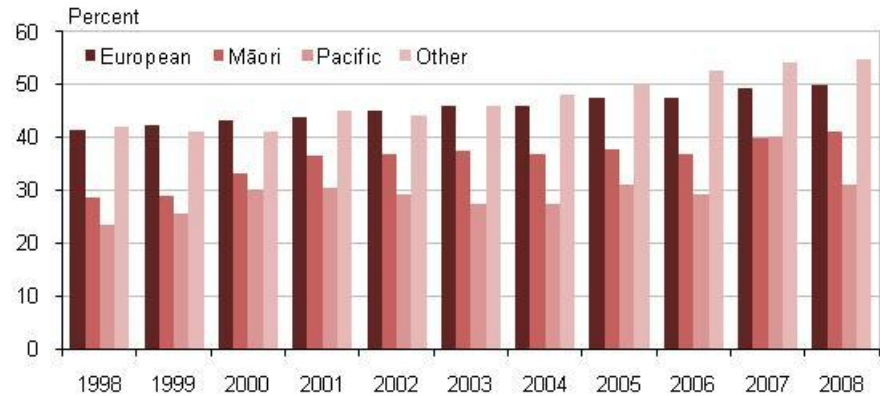
Figure 9: Post-school qualification attainment, by gender and ethnicity, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Overall, the proportion of women holding a post-school qualification increased for all ethnic groups between 1998 and 2008. The proportion of Māori women with a post-school qualification increased by 43.2 percent over this period, compared with a 32.9 percent increase for Pacific women and a 20.4 percent increase for European women. However, it should also be noted that the gap in women’s educational attainment between ethnicities has not narrowed in the last ten years.

Figure 10: Women’s post-school qualification attainment, by ethnicity, 1998-2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

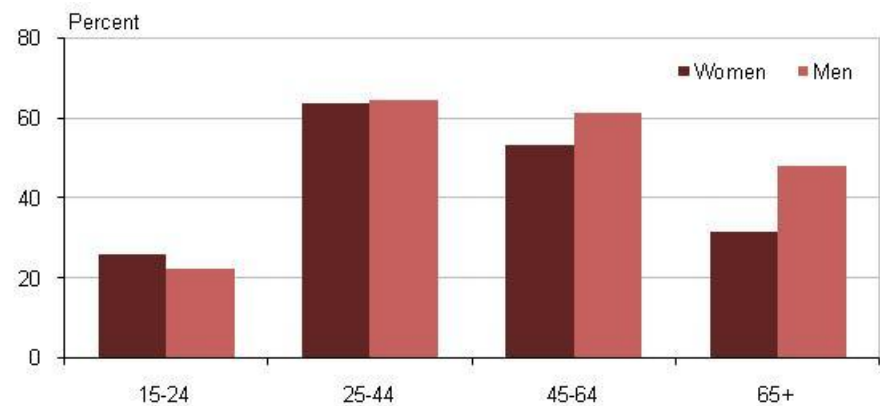
Age differences

Younger women are now more likely to have an upper secondary or tertiary qualification than young men.

While men are more likely to have a post-school qualification overall, the number of women completing post-school qualifications has increased significantly, to the point where young women are now more likely to have a post-school qualification than young men (26.1 percent compared with 22.1 percent in 2008).

Within all other age groups, men were more likely to hold a post-school qualification than women in 2008. The gender gap was smallest within the 25 to 44 year age group, with 63.6 percent of women and 64.6 percent of men holding a post-school qualification.

Figure 11: Post-school qualification attainment, by gender and age, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Participation in tertiary education

Definition

The proportion of people aged 15 to 64 years who are enrolled in tertiary education, as measured by the Ministry of Education.

Relevance

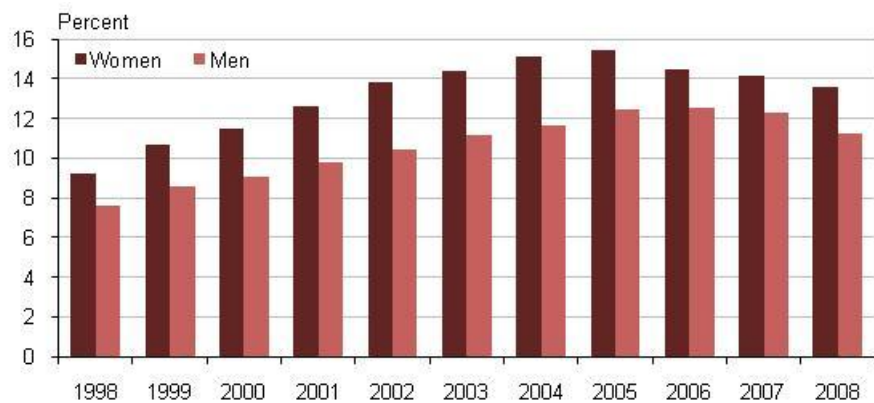
Participation in tertiary education is an indicator of the extent to which women are currently acquiring the skills and qualifications that equip them to participate in the workforce and society more generally.

Current level and trends

Women are more likely to be participating in tertiary education than men.

In 2008, women were slightly more likely than men to be enrolled in tertiary study (13.6 percent compared with 11.2 percent). The proportion of women and men enrolled in tertiary study has been decreasing on an annual basis since peaking in 2005. Women have consistently had a higher rate of participation in tertiary education; however the gap has narrowed slightly – from a peak of 3.5 percentage points in 2004, to 2.4 percentage points in 2008.

Figure 12: Participation in tertiary education, by gender (age-standardised), 1998-2008

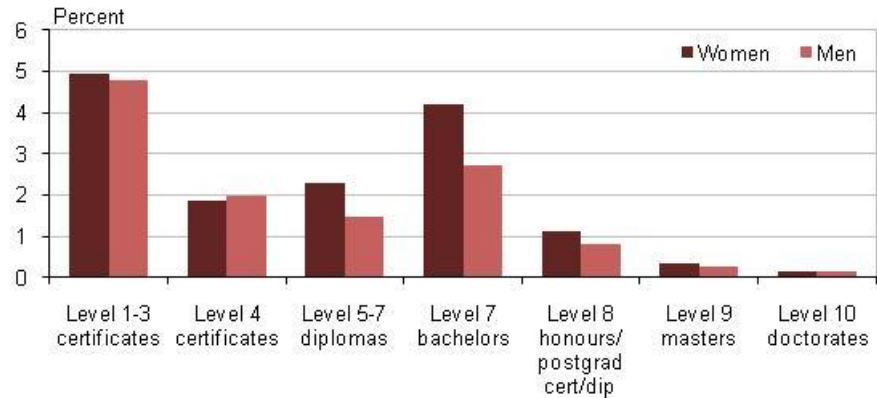


Source: Ministry of Education

In 2008, women had higher participation rates than men in all qualification levels except for Level 4 certificates. Gender differences in participation rates were greatest for qualifications at bachelors level.

Despite falling participation rates in tertiary education over recent years, it should be noted that participation at bachelors level qualifications and above has remained relatively stable. In 2008, 5.8 percent of women and 3.9 percent of men were enrolled in a qualification at bachelors level and above.

Figure 13: Participation in tertiary education, by gender and qualification level (age-standardised), 2008



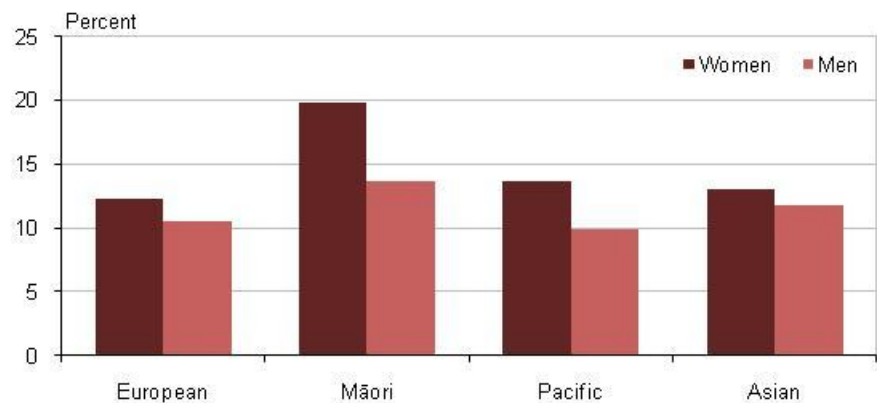
Source: Ministry of Education

Ethnic differences

Māori women have the highest levels of participation in tertiary education of all gender and ethnic groupings.

The proportion of people participating in tertiary education in 2008 varied significantly by ethnicity. Māori women had the highest levels of participation overall (19.8 percent), followed by Pacific women (13.7 percent). This compares with a participation rate of 12.2 percent for European women, and 13.1 percent for Asian women.

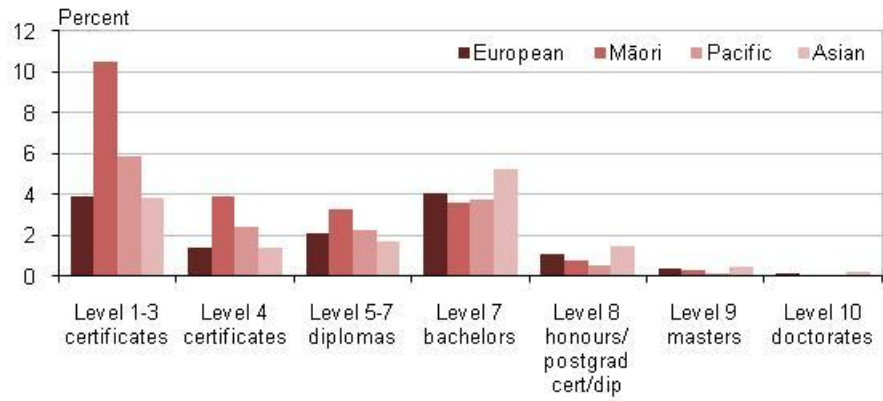
Figure 14: Participation in tertiary education, by gender and ethnicity (age-standardised), 2008



Source: Ministry of Education

Women’s participation levels also vary by the level of qualification they are undertaking. Māori women in particular have very high levels of participation in sub-degree level qualifications, while women of Asian ethnicity have very high levels of participation in bachelors and post-graduate level qualifications.

Figure 15: Women’s participation in tertiary education, by ethnicity and qualification level (age-standardised), 2008



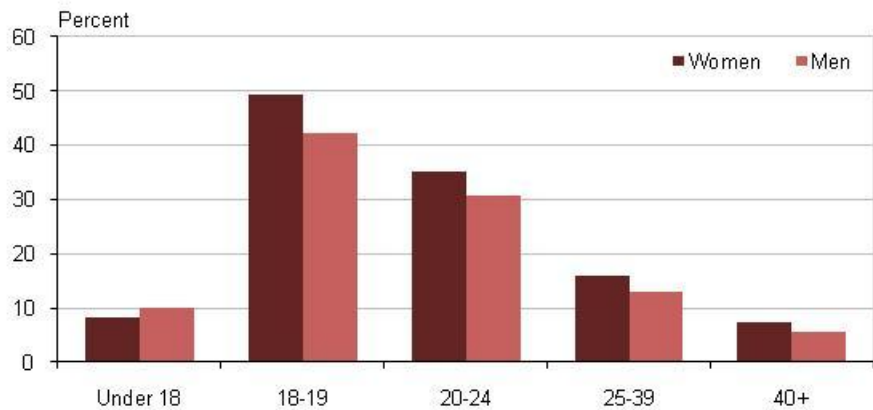
Source: Ministry of Education

Age differences

Women are more likely to be participating in tertiary education than men in all age groups over 18 years of age.

Participation in tertiary education varies by age, and the trends are similar for both men and women. Women are more likely than men to be participating in tertiary education at all age groups above 18 years. For both women and men, participation in tertiary education is greatest in the 18 to 19 year age group (49.4 percent and 42.1 percent respectively), followed by the 20 to 24 year age group (35.1 percent for women and 30.7 percent for men).

Figure 16: Participation in tertiary education, by gender and age, 2008



Source: Ministry of Education

Participation in Modern Apprenticeships

Definition

The number of people participating in a Modern Apprenticeship, as measured by the Ministry of Education.

Relevance

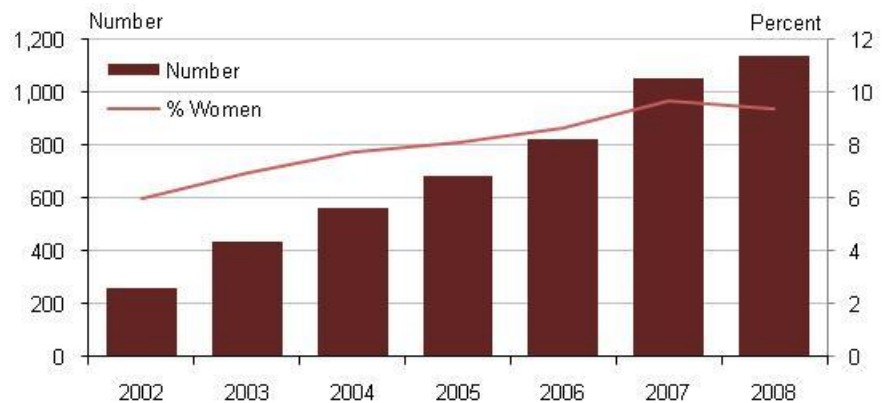
The New Zealand workforce shows a clear pattern of occupational segregation, with a substantial proportion of both women and men working in occupations dominated by their own gender. The Modern Apprenticeships initiative is a pathway to qualifications in traditionally male-dominated trade occupations.

Current level and trends

Women make up only 9.4 percent of Modern Apprentices.

In 2008, there were 1,140 women participating in a Modern Apprenticeship, accounting for 9.4 percent of Modern Apprentices. Between 2007 and 2008, there was an 8.5 percent increase in the number of women participating in a Modern Apprenticeship, compared with a 12.4 percent increase for men.

Figure 17: Women's participation in Modern Apprenticeships, 2008



Source: Ministry of Education

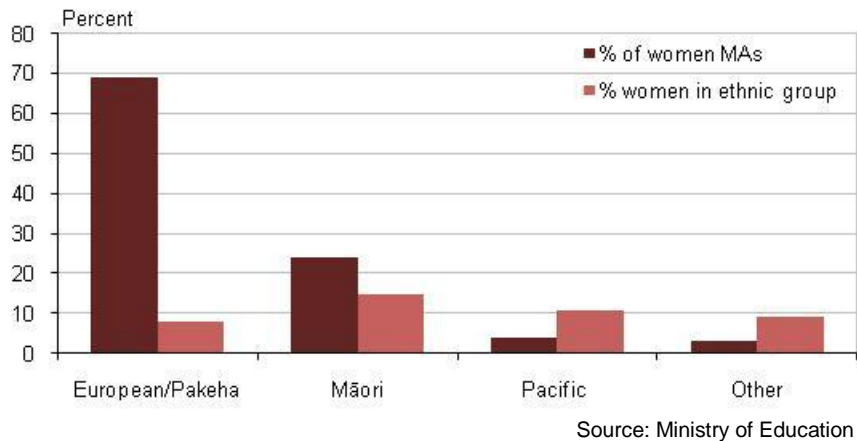
Ethnic differences

Māori women are more likely to be participating in a Modern Apprenticeship.

The ethnic composition of women participating in Modern Apprenticeships is not reflective of the total female population. In 2008, 68.9 percent of women in a Modern Apprenticeship identified with the European/Pākeha ethnic group, 24.0 percent identified with the Māori ethnic group, and 3.8 percent identified with the Pacific ethnic group.

In 2008, women accounted for 14.6 percent of Modern Apprentices in the Māori ethnic group, 10.8 percent in the Pacific ethnic group, and 8.0 percent in the European/Pākeha ethnic group.

Figure 18: Ethnic composition of Modern Apprentices, by gender, 2008

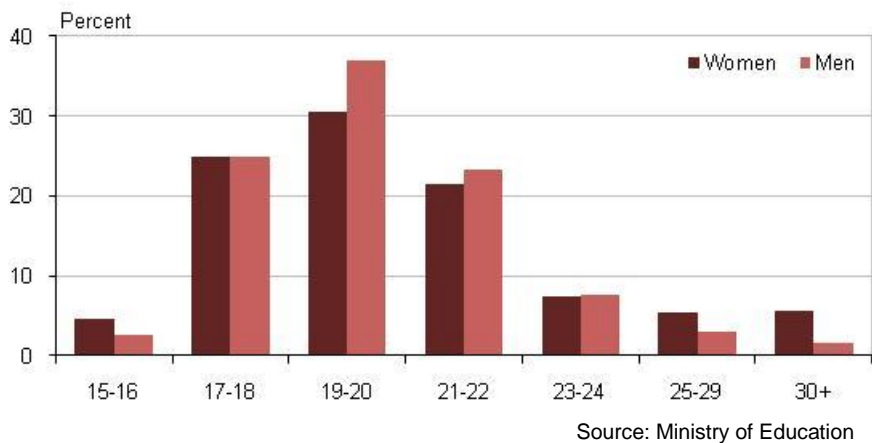


Age differences

The age distribution of Modern Apprentices is slightly older for women than for men.

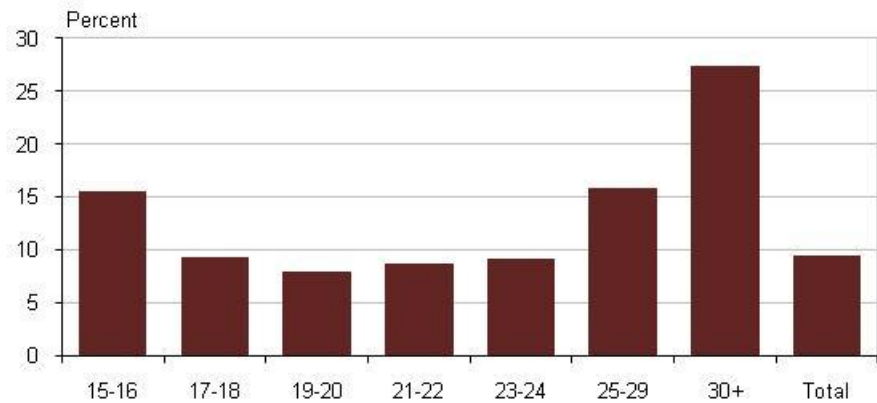
The Modern Apprenticeship initiative is targeted at people aged 16 to 21 years. In 2008, 73.0 percent of female Modern Apprentices and 78.7 percent of male Modern Apprentices fitted within this age band.

Figure 19: Age distribution of Modern Apprentices, by gender, 2008



Women participating in a Modern Apprenticeship are slightly more likely to be older than men – with 11.0 percent of female Modern Apprentices aged 25 years and over, compared with 4.5 percent of male Modern Apprentices. While women account for only 9.4 percent of Modern Apprentices overall, they make up 20.0 percent of apprentices aged 25 years and over, and 27.4 percent of those aged 30 years and over.

Figure 20: Proportion of Modern Apprentices who are women in each age group, 2008



Source: Ministry of Education

Industry differences

There is a clear difference in the type of ITO men and women choose to undertake their Modern Apprenticeship through.

In 2008, there were 25 Industry Training Organisations (ITOs) participating in the Modern Apprenticeship initiative. Of those, only three had more female Modern Apprentices than male: the New Zealand Association of Hairdressers Incorporated (93.3 percent female), the Public Sector Training Organisation (77.3 percent female), and Retail Training New Zealand Incorporated (53.2 percent female). Within 12 ITOs, women accounted for fewer than 5 percent of Modern Apprentices.

The most common ITOs for women and men to be undertaking their Modern Apprenticeship through is shown in the table below:

Table 3: Participation in Modern Apprenticeships, by most popular ITOs, by gender, 2008

Women	Number	% of all female MAs	% female in ITO
New Zealand Horticulture ITO Inc	217	19.0	26.0
Agriculture ITO Inc	159	13.9	23.1
Hospitality Standards Institute	157	13.8	39.1
Public Sector Training Organisation	126	11.1	77.3
New Zealand Association of Hairdressers Inc	84	7.4	93.3
Men	Number	% of all male MAs	% male in ITO
Building & Construction ITO Inc	1,981	18.0	99.8
New Zealand Engineering, Food & Manufacturing ITO Inc	1,817	16.5	96.5
New Zealand Motor ITO Inc	1,677	15.2	97.1
Electrotechnology ITO Inc	790	7.2	98.3
New Zealand Horticulture ITO Inc	619	5.6	74.0

Source: Ministry of Education

Median hourly earnings

Definition

Median hourly earnings for employees earning income from up to three wage and salary jobs, as measured by the New Zealand Income Survey.

Relevance

Median hourly earnings provides an indicator of the financial return from paid employment, independent of the number of hours worked. The difference between median hourly earnings for women and men, as a percentage of men’s median hourly earnings, provides a key indicator of the gender pay gap.

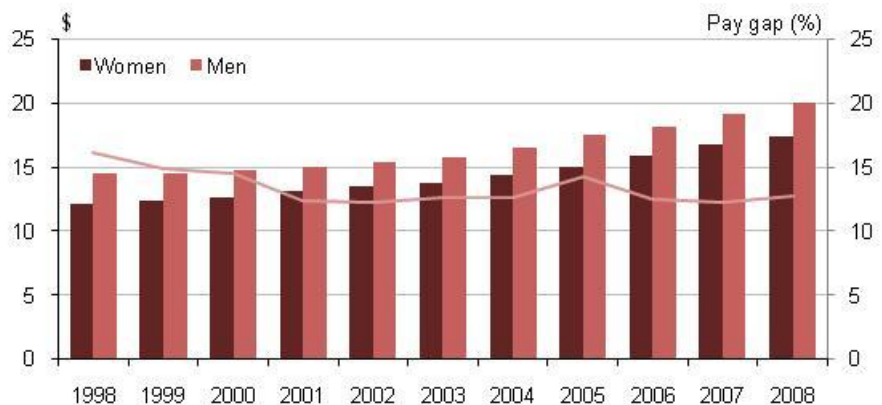
Current level and trends

Men continue to have higher median hourly earnings than women. The gender pay gap has remained relatively unchanged since 2001.

On average, men continue to earn more per hour than women. In 2008, women’s median hourly earnings were \$17.44, compared with \$20.00 for men. This equates to a gender pay gap of 12.8 percent of men’s pay rate.

As both men’s and women’s median hourly earnings have been increasing by similar rates since 2001 (32.7 percent for women and 33.3 percent for men), there has been very little downward movement in the pay gap over this time. Between 2007 and 2008, the gender pay gap widened by 0.6 of a percentage point.

Figure 21: Median hourly earnings, by gender, 1998-2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

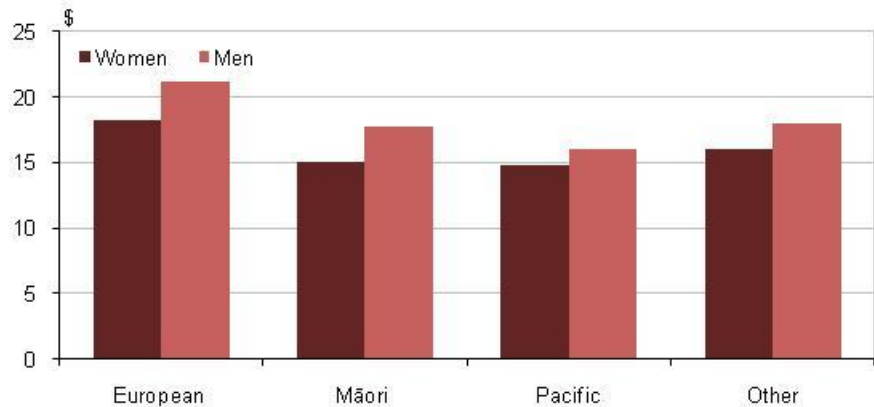
Māori and Pacific women have lower median hourly earnings than European women.

Median hourly earnings vary considerably according to ethnicity. In 2008, women in the European ethnic group earned more per hour (\$18.22) than women in each of the Māori, Pacific, and Other ethnic groups (\$15.00, \$14.80, and \$16.00 respectively).

Across all ethnicities, men’s hourly earnings were greater than those of women. In 2008, the largest gender pay gap was within the Māori ethnic group at 15.4 percent. In comparison, the gender pay gaps for the European, Pacific, and Other ethnic groups were

13.8 percent, 7.9 percent, and 11.1 percent respectively.

Figure 22: Median hourly earnings, by gender and ethnicity, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Age differences

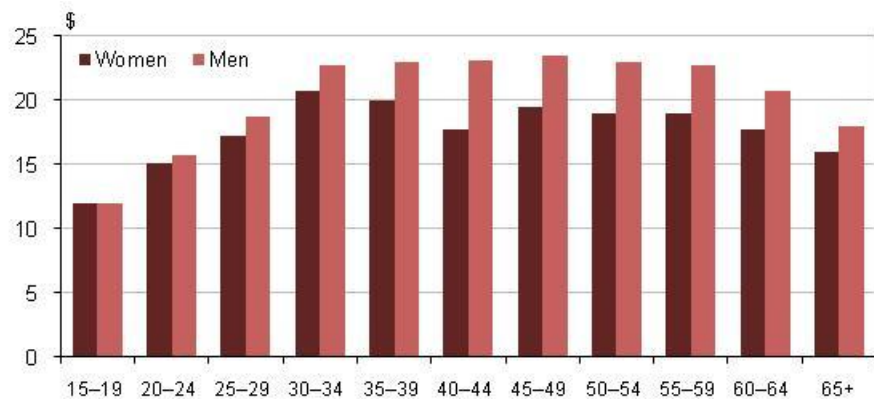
Women in their early thirties earn more per hour than women in other age groups. Among men, those in their late forties earn the most per hour.

Men's and women's median hourly earnings vary by age. Between the ages of 35 and 64, there is a notable gender difference in median hourly earnings – with women earning much less than men. The time of life when this gap starts to occur corresponds with the age at which women are most likely to be raising children.

Median hourly earnings peak for women at age 30 to 34 years, whereas men's median hourly earnings continue to increase up until age 45 to 49 years.

The biggest gender difference in median hourly earnings was in the 40 to 44 age group, where there was a gender pay gap of 22.9 percent.

Figure 23: Median hourly earnings, by gender and age, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Weekly incomes

Definition

Median personal weekly income from all sources and weekly personal income by quintiles, as measured by the New Zealand Income Survey.

Relevance

Income is an important indicator of a person’s ability to provide for themselves, have a good quality of life, and participate in their community. For many women, household, rather than personal, income is the key determinant of their current standard of living, as financial resources are often shared within households.

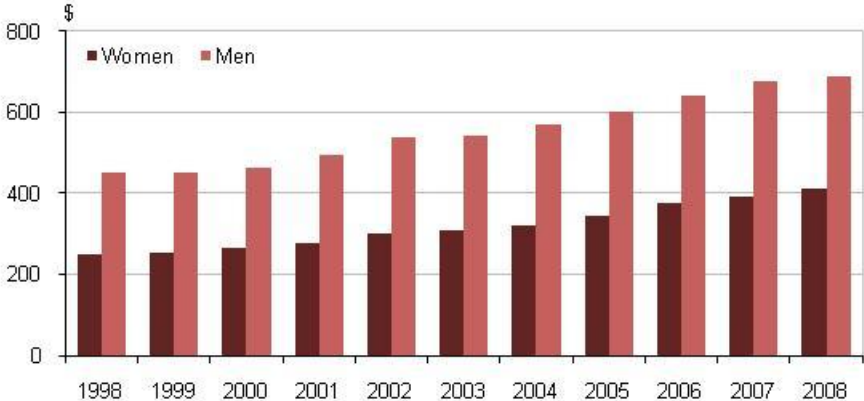
However, it is also important to consider personal incomes. A person’s ability to provide for themselves in retirement and during times when they may not have a partner, or their partner is not able to work, is a factor in their long-term economic well-being. If women have lower incomes than men on average, they may be more vulnerable to financial hardship at certain times in their lives.

Current level and trends

In 2008, the median weekly income of women was 40.1 percent lower than that of men.

In 2008, women had a median weekly income of \$413 compared with \$690 for men. This is a difference of 40.1 percent of men’s incomes. This reflects a combination of women being less likely to be in paid work, more likely to work part-time, and tending to earn less per hour worked. There has been a small improvement since 1998, when the gender income gap was 44.9 percent.

Figure 24: Median weekly income, by gender, 1998-2008

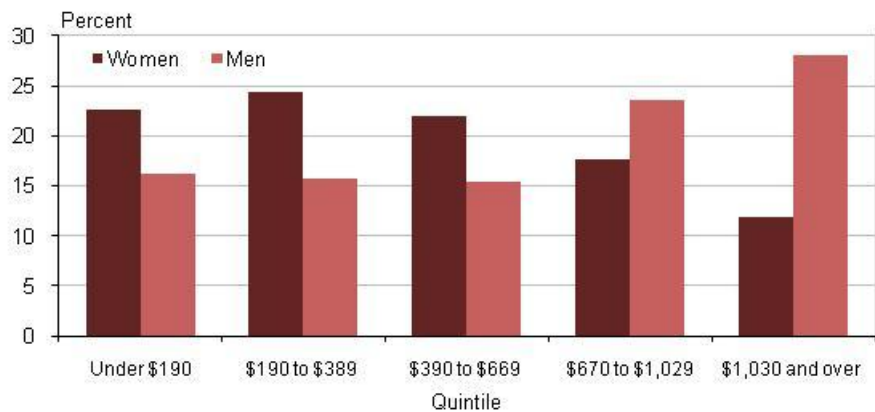


Source: Statistics New Zealand

The distribution of incomes differs between genders. In 2008, 28.0 percent of men had an income of more than \$1,030 per week (the highest 20 percent of incomes), compared with just 12.0 percent of women. Men made up 68.8 percent of those in this income quintile.

Women are more likely than men to have low incomes. In 2008, 22.7 percent of women had an income of less than \$190 per week (the lowest income quintile), compared with 16.2 percent of men. Of those whose income was in the lowest 20 percent of weekly incomes, 59.8 percent were women. There has been no notable change in the distribution of women's weekly incomes over the past ten years.

Figure 25: Weekly income distribution, by gender, 2008



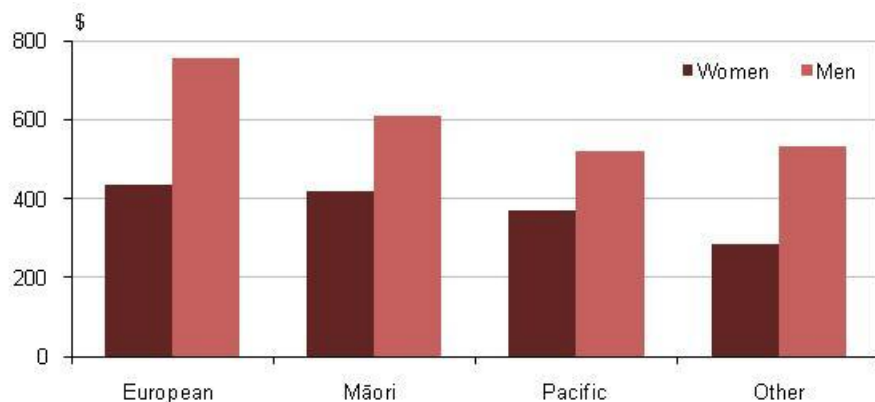
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

European men have significantly higher weekly incomes than men of other ethnicities. The weekly incomes of women, however, do not differ much for different ethnic groups.

Across all ethnic groups, women's weekly income was less than men's in 2008. The most pronounced income gap was in the 'Other' ethnic group (46.1 percent), closely followed by the European ethnic group (42.2 percent). Although smaller, the gender gap in median weekly income was still considerable in the Māori and Pacific ethnic groups, at 31.1 percent and 28.8 percent respectively.

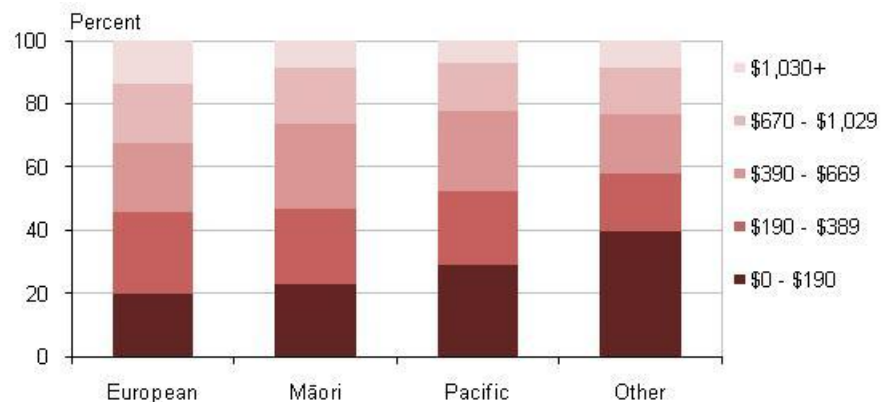
Figure 26: Median weekly income, by gender and ethnicity, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

In 2008, European women were more likely than women of all other ethnic groups to have a weekly income in the highest quintile – with 13.7 percent of European women having a median weekly income of at least \$1,030 per week. This compares with 8.5 percent of Māori women, and 7.0 percent of Pacific women. Conversely, 33.0 percent of European men were in the top income quintile in 2008.

Figure 27: Women’s weekly income distribution, by ethnicity, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Age differences

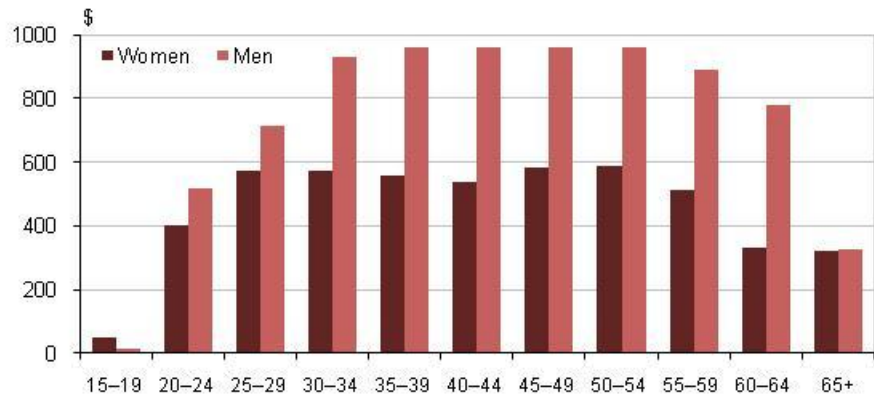
Women’s median weekly income is around 40 percent lower than that of men between the ages of 30 and 65.

Women’s median weekly incomes are lower than men’s for all age groups except 15- to 19-year-olds and those over 65 years of age. In 2008, the largest gender pay gap in median weekly incomes was in the 60 to 64 year age group, at 57.3 percent (or \$447 per week).

Between ages 35 and 54, the median income for men plateaus at \$959 per week; in comparison, women’s median weekly income hovers between \$536 and \$589 within the same age band.

Only in the 65 years and over age bracket do men’s and women’s weekly incomes converge. This reflects the provision of universal superannuation.

Figure 28: Median weekly income, by gender and age, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Representation of women in leadership and governance positions

Definition

The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) and local government bodies; members of state sector boards, district health boards, and school boards of trustees; and judges; who are women.

Relevance

The representation of women in government, public and community sector boards and committees, and the judiciary, provides an indication of whether women are fully participating in the community.

Current level and trends

While women have high levels of representation in some areas, there is still a long way to go to achieve equal representation.

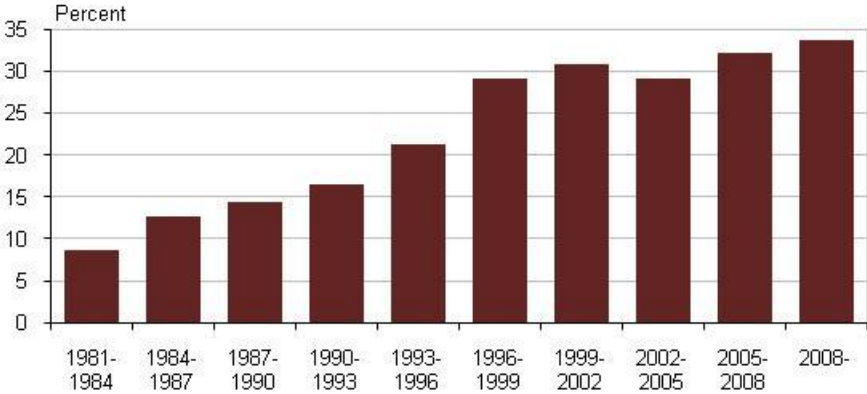
While the level of women’s political representation has been slowly improving over time, women remain under-represented in leadership positions.

Representation in Parliament is an indicator of women’s participation at the highest level. Women were first eligible to stand for election in 1919, and a woman first won a seat in 1933. Since that time, 106 women have held a seat in Parliament.

Forty-one of the 122 seats in Parliament (33.6 percent) were held by women as a result of the 2008 general election. Six of the 20 Cabinet Ministers are women (30.0 percent) and there are a further two female ministers outside of Cabinet.

The proportion of MPs that are women rose significantly following the adoption of a mixed member proportional (MMP) electoral system in 1996. Since the introduction of MMP, female representation has hovered around the 30 percent mark.

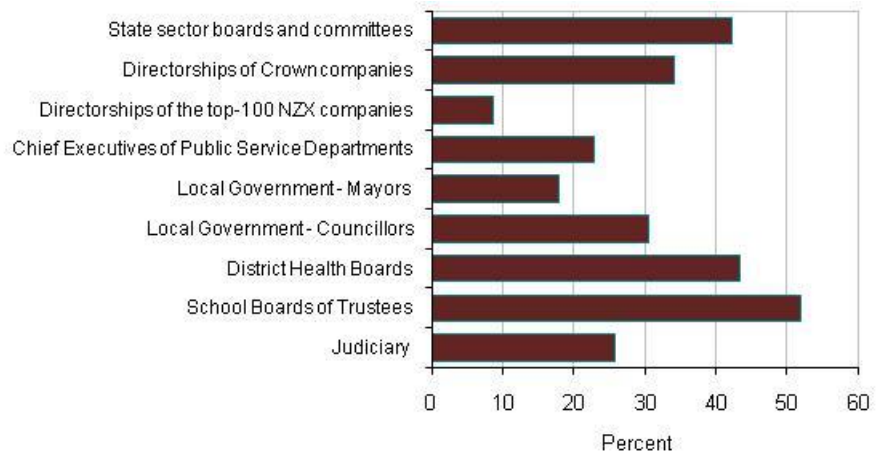
Figure 29: Proportion of women Members of Parliament, 1981-2008



Source: Ministry for Culture and Heritage; Inter-Parliamentary Union

Women's representation in other areas of leadership and governance varies considerably. Within fields where women have traditionally predominated, representation is relatively high, such as on school boards of trustees (51.9 percent female), district health boards (43.4 percent female), and state sector boards (42.2 percent female). Women's representation in leadership positions is particularly low in the private sector, where women make up 8.7 percent of board members of NZX top 100 companies.

Figure 30: Women's representation in selected governance roles, 2007



Source: Human Rights Commission

Joblessness

Definition

The jobless are defined as those people who are officially unemployed (available for and actively seeking work) plus those people who were without employment and either: available, but not actively seeking work; or actively seeking, but not available for work.

The jobless rate used here is the number of jobless people expressed as a percentage of the jobless plus the employed, as measured by the Household Labour Force Survey.

Relevance

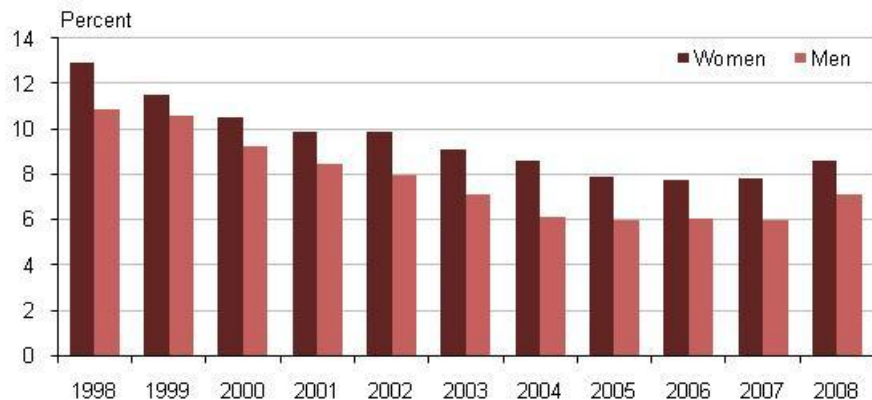
Jobless rates provide a better indication than unemployment rates of the extent to which appropriate job opportunities are available to women. Unlike unemployment rates, jobless rates include those who would like a job but are not actively looking for one, or are not available to work right now. There are many reasons why a person who would like paid work may not be actively looking for it, or available to work right now. These include having trouble finding the right kind of work in their locality, or work that fits around other responsibilities such as caring for family members.

Current level and trends

Women are more likely to be jobless than men.

In 2008, the jobless rate for women was 8.6 percent, compared with 7.1 percent for men. Despite an overall reduction in joblessness in the last ten years, the jobless rate for women has been increasing since 2006.

Figure 31: Jobless rate, by gender, 1998-2008



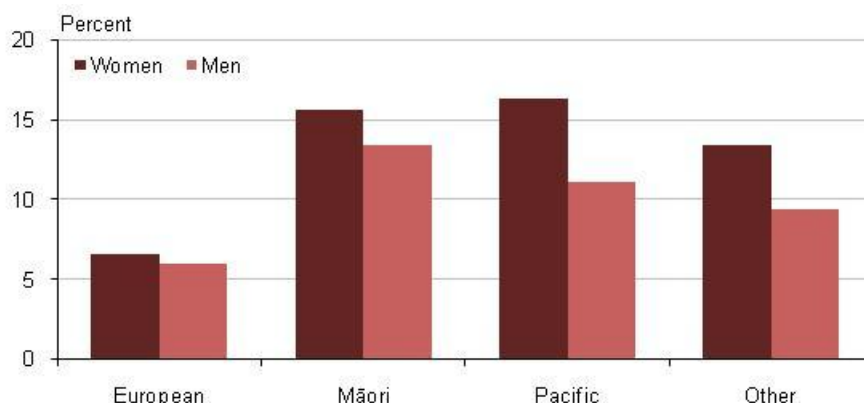
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

European women are significantly less likely to be jobless than women of all other ethnic groups.

In 2008, women in the European ethnic group had a significantly lower rate of joblessness (6.6 percent) than women in all other ethnic groups. Pacific women had the highest jobless rate of all ethnic and gender groupings (16.3 percent), followed by Māori women (15.6 percent), and women of other ethnicities (13.4 percent).

Figure 32: Jobless rate, by gender and ethnicity, 2008

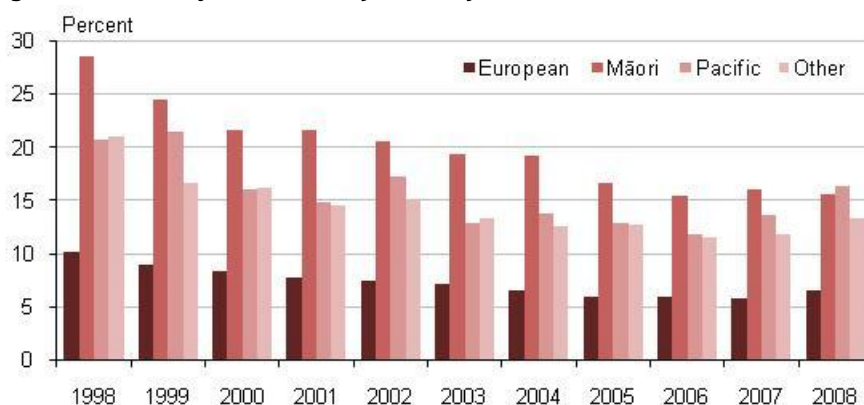


Source: Statistics New Zealand

European women have consistently experienced significantly lower rates of joblessness than women of other ethnic groups. However, ethnic differences in the rates of joblessness for women have narrowed substantially over the last decade.

Māori women have experienced the most significant reduction in joblessness since 1998 – dropping by 13 percentage points (45.5 percent). Between 2007 and 2008, the jobless rate increased for all women except Māori women.

Figure 33: Female jobless rate, by ethnicity, 1998-2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

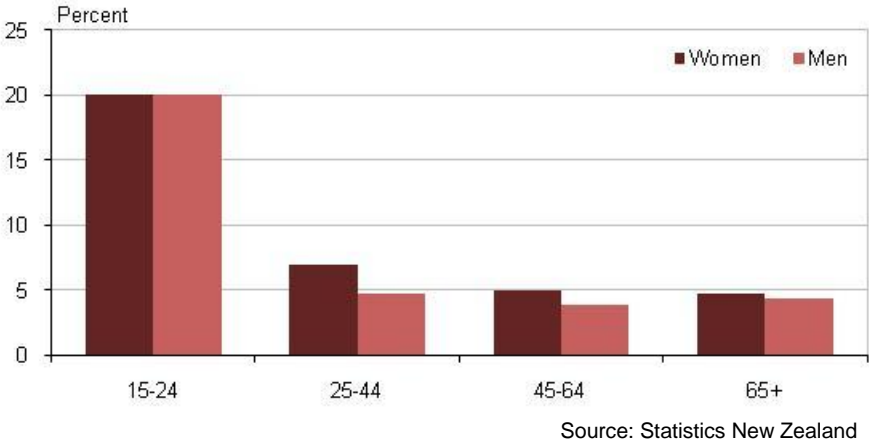
Age differences

Women in their prime child-rearing years (aged 25 to 44) are more likely to be jobless than men in the same age group.

Joblessness varies considerably by age. The jobless rate for both men and women is significantly higher among 15- to 24-year-olds, and tends to decline for each consecutive age group.

In 2008, the jobless rate was identical for women and men in the 15 to 24 year age group (20 percent). The largest gender difference was in the 25 to 44 year age group with women and men experiencing jobless rates of 7.0 percent and 4.7 percent respectively. This corresponds with the period when child-rearing typically takes place.

Figure 34: Jobless rate, by gender and age, 2008



Women are healthy, empowered, resilient and safe

- Criminal victimisation
- Concern about crime
- Health expectancy
- Self-reported health status
- Access to health services

Criminal victimisation

Definitions

Victimisation: the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over that have been a victim of one or more incidents of criminal offending as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006 (NZCASS).

Incidence rates: the total number of offences that occurred in 2005 per 100 people in the New Zealand adult population. Incidence rates take account of the fact that some people are victimised more than once.

Prevalence rates: the percentage of the New Zealand population who were victims of at least one offence. Unlike incidence rates, prevalence rates do not take into account the number of times a person has been victimised.

Relevance

The criminal victimisation rate is an indicator of women's personal safety and well-being. Victimization surveys provide a broader measure of criminal victimisation than police data as not all victimisations are reported.

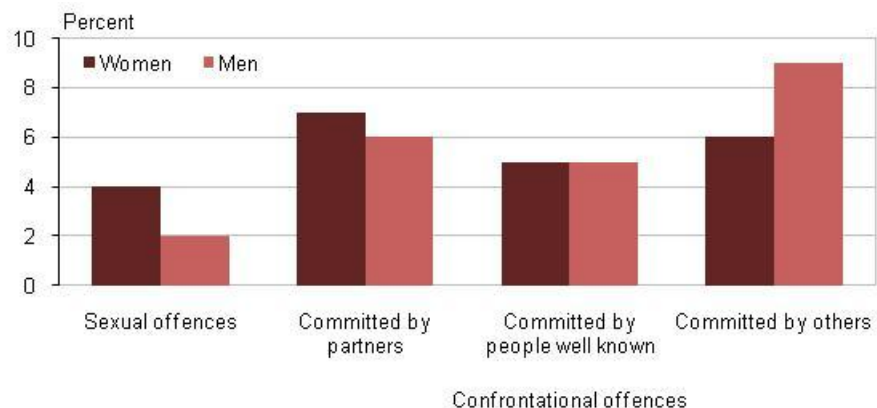
Current level and trends

Women and men are equally likely to be victims of crime in general; however women are more likely to be victims of partner offences and sexual offences.

In 2005, women and men had the same prevalence rates for victimisation overall (39 percent). There were, however, gender differences in rates of particular types of victimisations.

Women were more likely than men to be victims of sexual offences (4 percent versus 2 percent). There was no statistically significant difference in the prevalence of confrontational offences committed by partners between women and men (7 percent versus 6 percent). Women were just as likely as men to have been victims of confrontational offences committed by people well known to them (5 percent), but were less at risk of being victims of confrontational offences committed by other people (6 percent versus 9 percent).

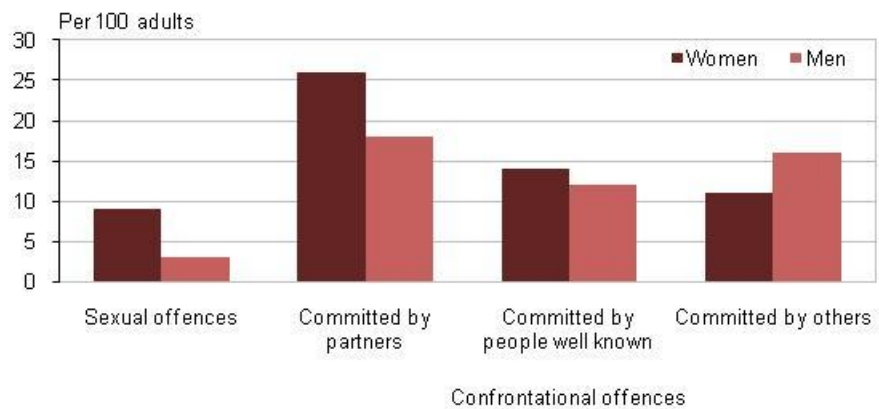
Figure 35: Prevalence of victimisation, by gender and type of offence, 2005



In 2005, there were nine sexual offences per 100 women, compared with three sexual offences per 100 men. There were 26 confrontational offences committed by partners per 100 women, compared with 18 per 100 hundred men. This suggests that women are more likely than men to be repeat victims of sexual assault and confrontational offences committed by partners.

There was no statistically significant difference between men and women in the incidence rates for confrontational offences committed by people well known to the victim.

Figure 36: Incidence of victimisation, by gender and type of offence, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

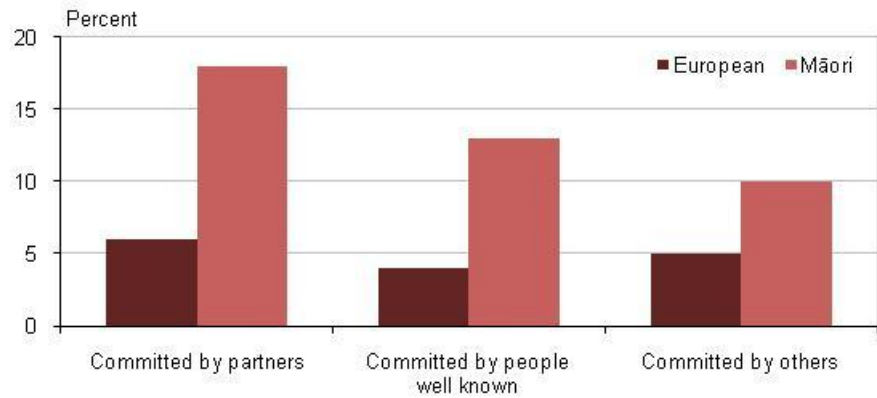
Ethnic differences

Māori women experience greater rates of victimisation than European women.

Because of the low prevalence rates of victimisation, it is difficult to draw meaningful comparisons between women of different ethnic groups, particularly for sexual offences. However, the NZCASS findings note that Māori women have twice the risk of sexual victimisation compared to women overall.

In 2005, Māori women were significantly more at risk than European women of being a victim of all types of confrontational offences. This was particularly the case for confrontational offences committed by partners – 18 percent of Māori women were a victim of at least one confrontational offence committed by partners in 2005, compared with 6 percent of European women.

Figure 37: Prevalence of confrontational offences among women, by ethnicity, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

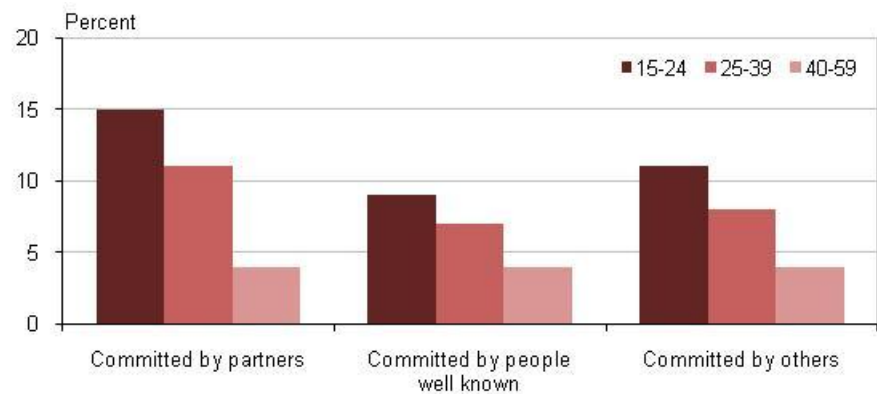
Age differences

Women aged 15 to 24 years experience greater rates of victimisation than women in other age groups.

Women aged 15 to 24 years were more at risk than other women of being a victim of all types of confrontational offences. In 2005, 15 percent of women aged 15 to 24 years were a victim of at least one confrontational offence committed by partners, compared with 11 percent of women aged 25 to 39 years and 4 percent of women aged 40 to 59 years.

Because of the low prevalence rates of sexual victimisation, it is difficult to draw statistically significant comparisons between women of different age groups. The NZCASS findings do, however, note that 12 percent of women aged 15 to 24 years reported one sexual victimisation compared with an average of 4 percent for women overall.

Figure 38: Prevalence of confrontational offences among women, by age, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

Concern about crime

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 and over who are concerned about being a victim of crime, and the reported impact of crime on quality of life, as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006 (NZCASS).

Relevance

Feeling safe is important in order to participate fully in one's community. Although information about the level of victimisation is important, people's concerns about crime may provide a broader understanding of the impact of crime.

Current level and trends

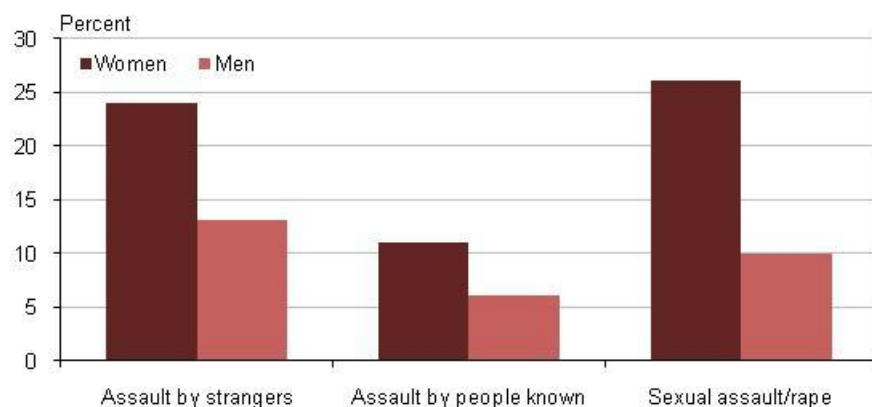
Women are more likely to be very worried about victimisation than men.

More women than men reported that crime had a high or moderate impact on their quality of life.

In 2005, women were more likely than men to be worried about being a victim of a crime.

Women were significantly more likely than men to report being 'very worried' about being a victim of an assault by strangers (24 percent versus 13 percent), assault by people known to them (11 percent versus 6 percent), and sexual assault or rape (26 percent versus 10 percent).

Figure 39: People 'very worried' about victimisation, by gender and type of crime, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

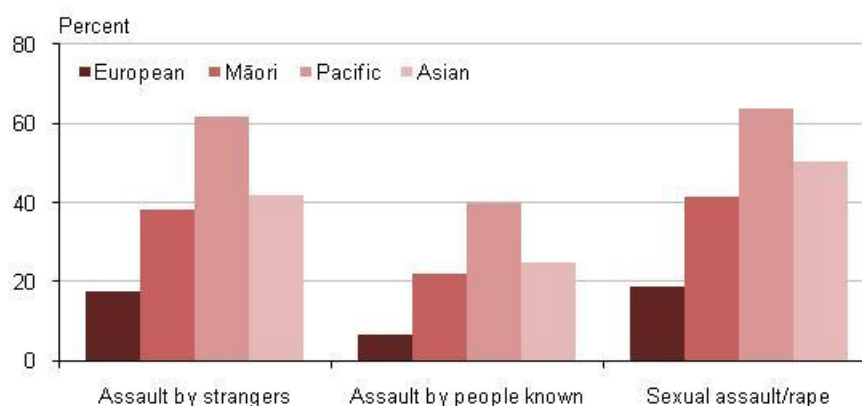
In 2005, 8 percent of women and 6 percent of men reported that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life. A further 37 percent of women and 28 percent of men said that fear of crime had a moderate impact on their quality of life.

Ethnic differences

Ethnicity has a significant impact on the level of concern felt regarding victimisation.

Across all ethnicities, a greater proportion of women were 'very worried' about being a victim of sexual assault or rape than any other confrontational offence. Pacific women were the most likely to report being very worried about being a victim of sexual assault or rape (64 percent), followed by Asian women (50 percent), and Māori women (42 percent). European women were significantly less likely to report being very worried about being a victim of sexual assault or rape (19 percent).

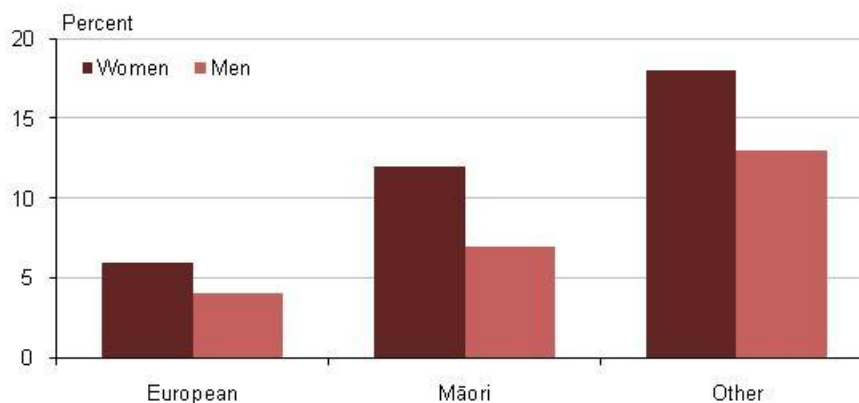
Figure 40: Women 'very worried' about victimisation, by ethnicity and type of crime, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

Within all ethnic groups, women were more likely than men to report that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life. Women classified in the 'Other' ethnic category (which includes both Pacific and Asian women) were the most likely to report that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life (18 percent), followed by Māori women (12 percent). European women were significantly less likely to indicate that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life (6 percent).

Figure 41: Proportion of people who say fear of crime has a high impact on their quality of life, by gender and ethnicity, 2005



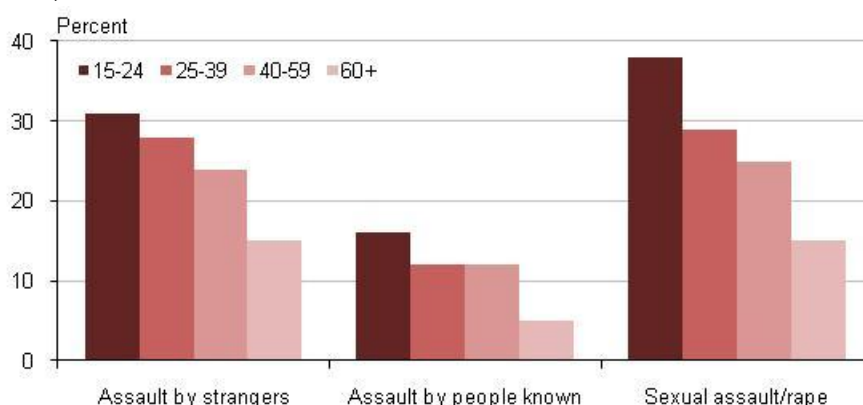
Source: Ministry of Justice

Age differences

Women aged 15 to 24 years were more worried than other age groups of being victimised.

While the proportion of women concerned about being a victim of crime tends to decrease with age, the type of crime women are most concerned about remains consistent across all age groups. Within all age groups, proportionately more women were concerned about being a victim of a sexual assault/rape – with 38 percent of women aged 15 to 24 years saying they were ‘very worried’ about being a victim of this type of crime. ‘Assault by people known’ created notably less concern for women of all ages than the other forms of crime, particularly among those aged 60 years and over.

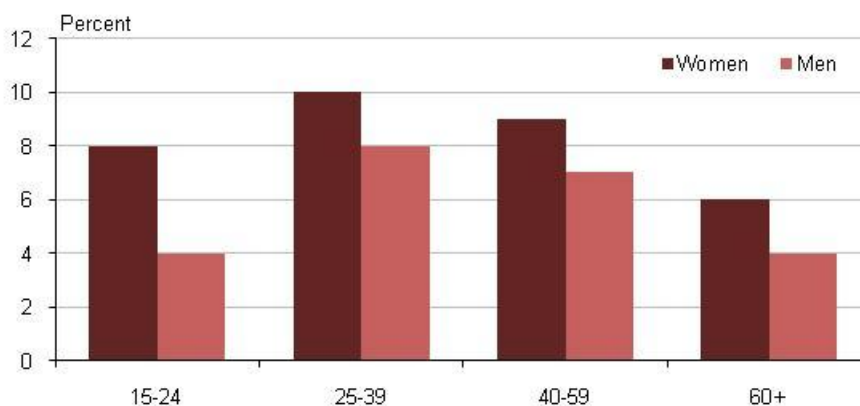
Figure 42: Women ‘very worried’ about victimisation, by age and type of crime, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

Within all age groups, a greater proportion of women than men reported that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life. Notably, women aged 60 years and over were the least likely to report that fear of crime had a high impact on their quality of life (6 percent).

Figure 43: Proportion of people who say fear of crime has a high impact on their quality of life, by gender and age, 2005



Source: Ministry of Justice

Health expectancy

Definition

The number of years a person could expect to live independently (i.e. live without any functional limitation requiring the assistance of another person or complex assistive device) if current mortality and disability rates persist.

Relevance

Health expectancy is a measure of health that captures both the ‘quantity’ and the ‘quality’ of life dimensions of physical and mental health. Health expectancy is a positive measure, capturing expectations of a life free from functional limitation that requires assistance. Improvements in health expectancy reflect changes in social and economic conditions, lifestyle changes, medical advances and better access to health services.

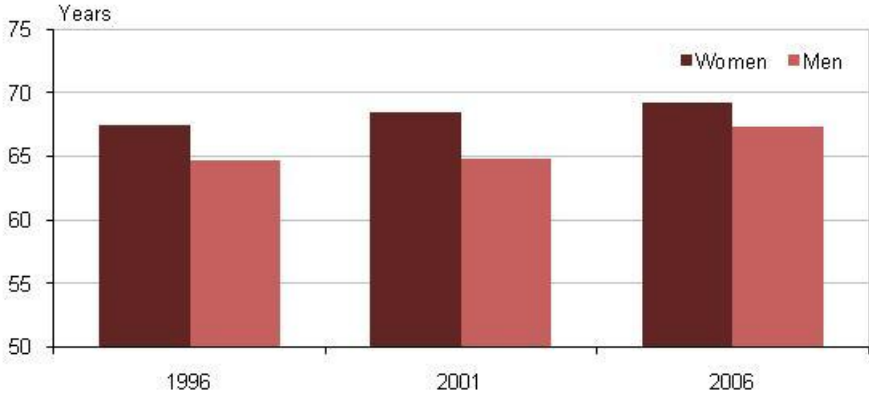
Health expectancy is an important measure of women’s health. Women live longer on average than men, but may experience health problems in old age that affect their quality of life. This means it is important to consider the ‘quality’ of women’s health as well as the ‘quantity’.

Current level and trends

Women continue to have a longer health expectancy than men, but the gap is closing.

Women have a longer health expectancy than men (69.2 years compared with 67.4 years). Improvements in health expectancy have been greatest for men: between 2001 and 2006 men’s health expectancy increased by 2.6 years (4.0 percent), compared with an increase of 0.7 years (1.0 percent) for women. This has led to a reduction in the gender difference – from 2.8 years in 1996 to 1.8 years in 2006.

Figure 44: Health expectancy, by gender, 1996-2006



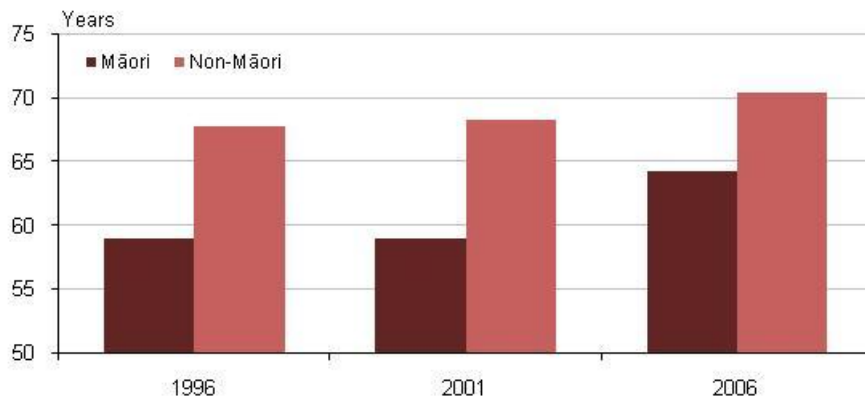
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

Māori women's health expectancy is six years less than non-Māori women's, but the gap is closing.

There is a significant difference in health expectancy between Māori women and non-Māori women. In 2006, Māori women's health expectancy was 64.2 years, compared with 70.4 years for non-Māori women (a difference of 6.2 years). However, in recent years Māori women's health expectancy has improved significantly – increasing by 5.2 years between 2001 and 2006, compared with an increase of 2.2 years for non-Māori women over the same period.

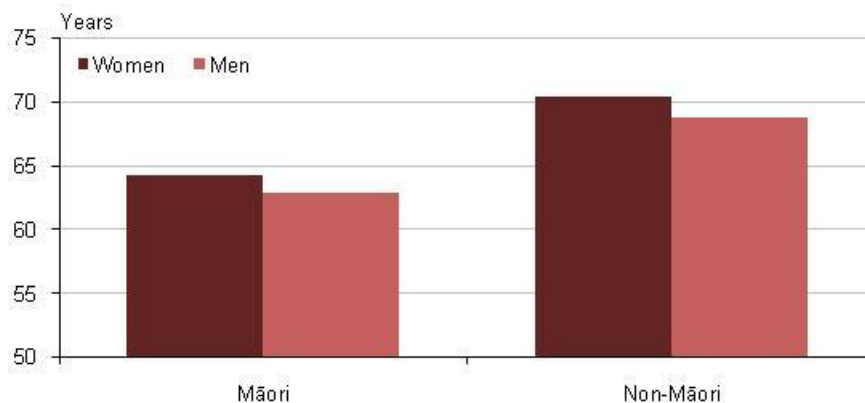
Figure 45: Women's health expectancy, by ethnicity, 1996-2006



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Within both Māori and non-Māori groups, women have a longer health expectancy than men. For Māori, the gender gap was 1.3 years (64.2 years for Māori women compared with 62.9 years for Māori men). For non-Māori, the gender gap was 1.6 years (70.4 years for non-Māori women, compared with 68.8 years for non-Māori men).

Figure 46: Health expectancy, by gender and ethnicity, 2006



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Self-reported health status

Definition

An individual's own perception of their health status and functioning based on a five point scale of excellent, very good, good, fair, or poor (New Zealand Health Survey).

Relevance

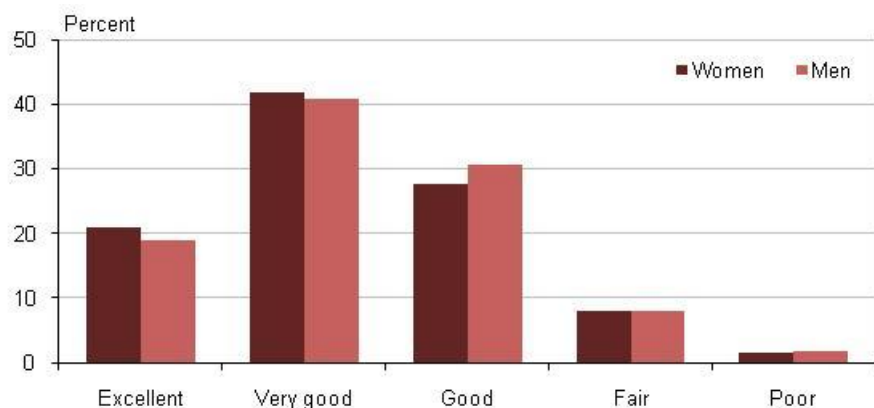
By taking into account how individuals view their own health, self-reported health measures place more emphasis on how health affects quality of life and well-being than other more objective measures of health.

Current level and trends

Women are more likely to report excellent or very good self-reported health.

Overall, women are significantly more likely than men to report excellent or very good self-reported health. In 2006/07, 20.8 percent of women and 18.9 percent of men reporting having excellent health. A further 41.9 percent of women and 40.8 percent of men reported having very good health. Very few people said they had poor health (1.6 percent of women and 1.8 percent of men).

Figure 47: Self reported health status, by gender, 2006/07 (age-standardised)



Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

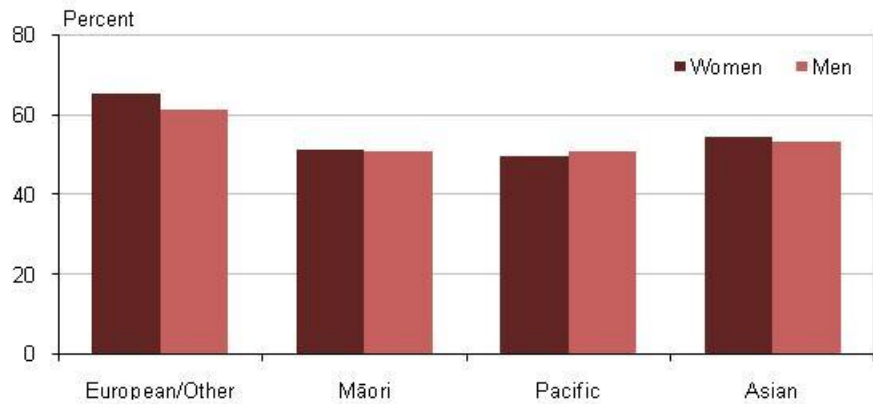
European/Other women are most likely and Pacific women are least likely to report their health as excellent or very good.

Women in the European/Other ethnic group are more likely to report excellent or very good health than women in other ethnic groups. In 2006/07, 65.3 percent of women in the European/Other ethnic group said they had excellent or very good health, compared with 51.2 percent of Māori women, 49.7 percent of Pacific women, and 54.6 percent of Asian women.

While women overall are more likely than men to report their health as excellent or very good, the gender gap varies between ethnic groups. Women are more likely to rate their health as excellent or very good than men within all ethnic groups, except the Pacific

ethnic group.

Figure 48: Proportion of people with a self-reported health status of excellent or very good, by gender and ethnicity, 2006/07 (age-standardised)



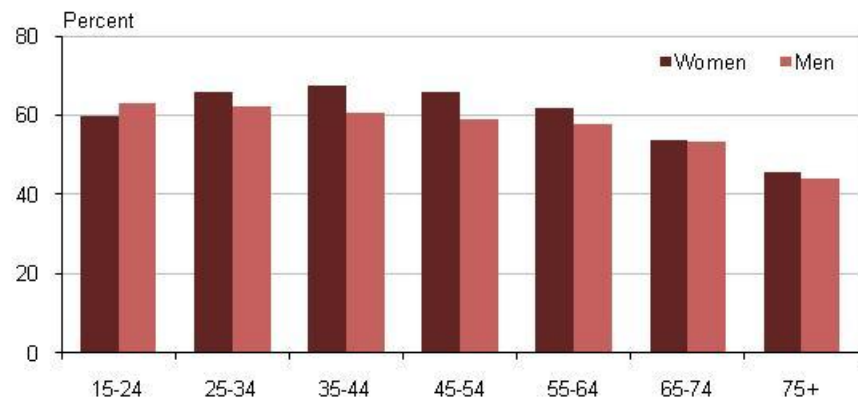
Source: Ministry of Health

Age differences

Self reported health status peaks at around 35 to 44 years for women, and 15 to 24 years for men.

Except in the 15 to 24 age group, women are more likely than men to rate their health as excellent or very good. In general, self-reported health status for women peaks around 35 to 44 years (at 67.7 percent) and then begins to decrease. For men, self-reported health peaks at 15 to 24 years (at 63.1 percent).

Figure 49: Proportion of people with a self-reported health status of excellent or very good, by gender and age, 2006/07



Source: Ministry of Health

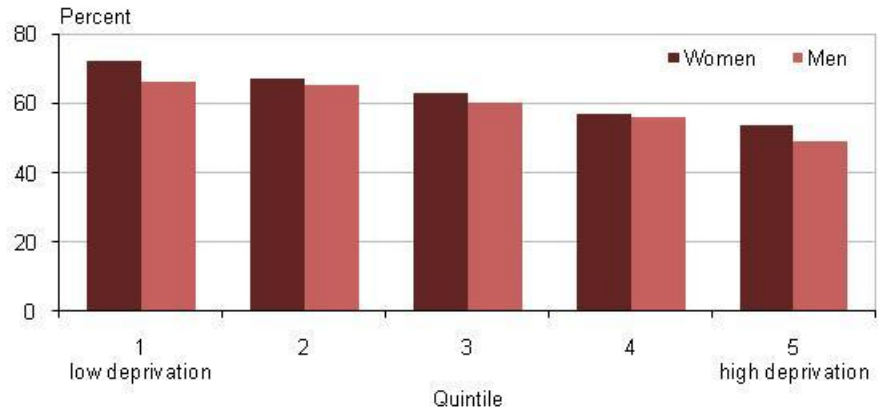
Socio-economic differences

Women living in the most deprived neighbourhoods reported the lowest levels of health.

Women living in the least deprived neighbourhoods are more likely to rate their health as excellent or very good than women living in the most deprived neighbourhoods.

In 2006/07, more than two-thirds (72.1 percent) of women living in areas with the lowest levels of socio-economic deprivation rated their health as excellent or very good, compared with just over half (53.6 percent) of women living in areas with the highest levels of socio-economic deprivation.

Figure 50: Proportion of people with a self-reported health status of excellent or very good, by gender and level of socio-economic deprivation, 2006/07 (age-standardised)



Source: Ministry of Health

Access to health services

Definition

The proportion of the population that was unable to see a GP when they needed to in the past 12 months, for any reason, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey.

Relevance

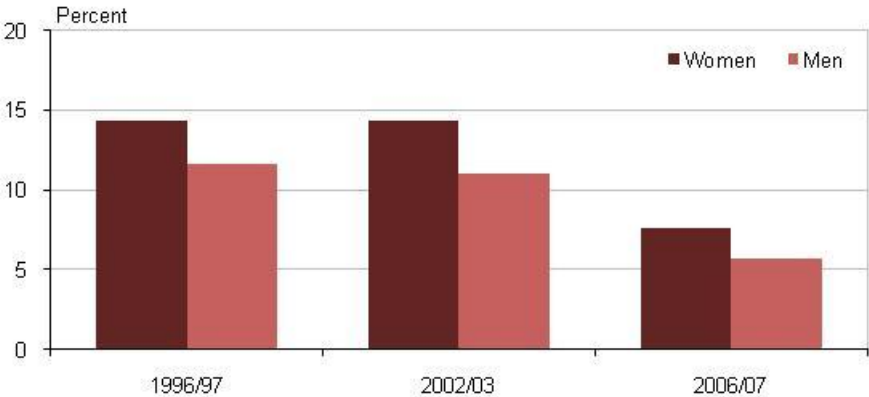
In order to maintain good health and minimise preventable health problems, women and their families need to have access to primary health care services, such as those available from a GP. Primary health care provides an entry point to the health system, delivers core medical and preventative care and helps patients co-ordinate and integrate their care.

Current level and trends

Women are more likely than men to be unable to access a GP, but access has improved significantly for both women and men.

The proportion of women unable to see a GP when they needed to is notably higher than for men (7.6 percent for women compared with 5.7 percent for men in 2006/07). However, perceived access to health services has improved in recent years with fewer women saying they were unable able to see a GP when they needed to in 2006/07 than in 2002/03. Women were more likely than men to cite cost as the reason for not being able to see a GP when they needed to (30.1 percent versus 23.1 percent).

Figure 51: Unable to see a GP in the past 12 months, by gender (age-standardised), 1996/97-2006/07



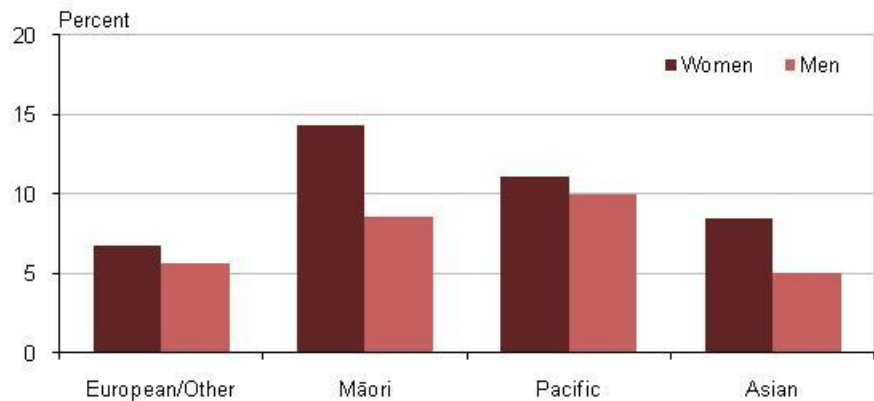
Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

Māori and Pacific women were more likely to be unable to access a GP when they needed to.

In 2006/07, Māori and Pacific women were significantly more likely than women of all other ethnic groups to be unable to see a GP when they needed to – with rates of 14.3 percent and 11.1 percent respectively. In comparison, 8.5 percent of Asian women and 6.8 percent of European/Other women said they were unable to see a GP when they needed to. Across all ethnic groups, women were more likely to be unable to access a GP than men.

Figure 52: Unable to see a GP in the past 12 months, by gender and ethnicity, 2006/07



Source: Ministry of Health

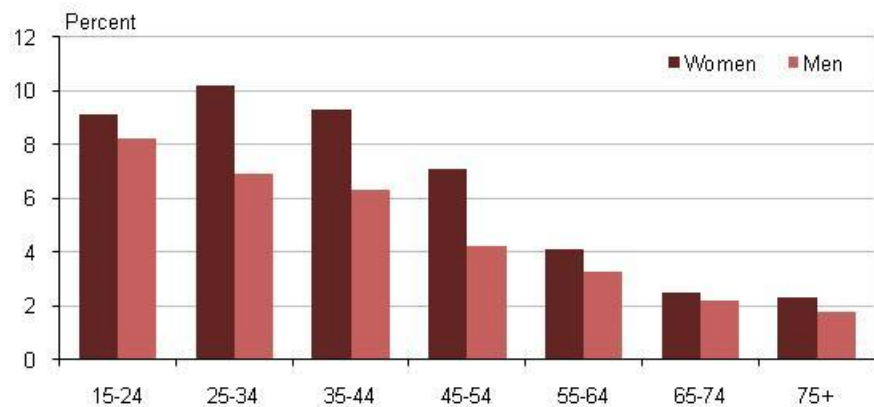
Age differences

Women aged 25 to 44 years have the most difficulty accessing a GP when they need to.

Across all age groups, women are more likely than men to be unable to access a GP when they need to. The greatest difference between the genders is at ages 25 to 54.

Women among the younger age groups are more likely to be unable to see a GP when they need to. Access issues affected 10.2 percent of women in the 25 to 34 age group, compared with just 2.3 percent of women aged 75 years and over.

Figure 53: Unable to see a GP in the past 12 months, by gender and age, 2006/07



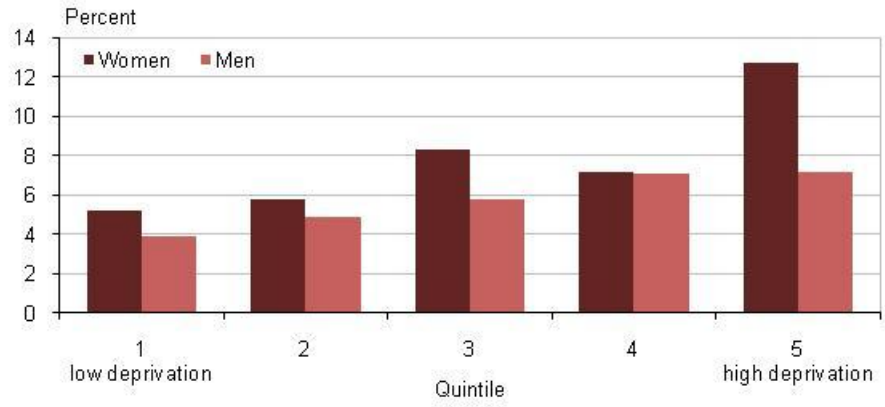
Source: Ministry of Health

Socio-economic differences

Women in the most deprived areas had the most difficulty accessing a GP.

Women who live in areas with high levels of socio-economic deprivation are significantly more likely to be unable to see a GP when they need to. In 2006/07, 12.7 percent of women living in the most deprived areas were unable to access a GP when they needed to, compared to 5.2 percent of women living in the least deprived areas. The level of socio-economic deprivation appears to have a greater impact on being able to see a GP for women than for men.

Figure 54: Unable to see a GP in the past 12 months, by gender and level of socio-economic deprivation, 2006/07



Source: Ministry of Health

Society recognises caring as integral to economic and social success

- Satisfaction with work-life balance
- Total work time
- Access to quality early childhood education

Satisfaction with work-life balance

Definition

The proportion of the employed population aged 15 years and over who reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance.

Relevance

There is no 'right' work-life balance. What constitutes a good work-life balance will differ for different people, depending on their personal preferences, values, and stage of life.

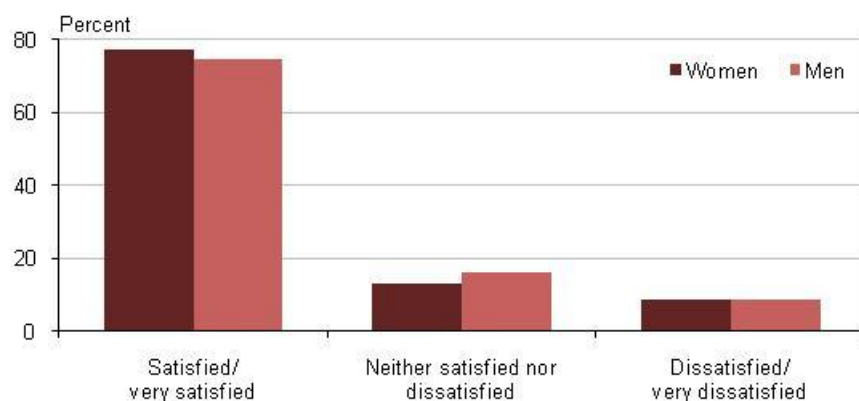
As more women enter the workforce, there is a risk that many may experience difficulties in balancing paid work with other responsibilities, particularly if women continue to take greater responsibility for unpaid work.

Current level and trends

There is very little difference in satisfaction with work-life balance between women and men.

Women are slightly more likely than men to report being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance (77.2 percent and 74.6 percent respectively). However, women are just as likely as men to report being dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their work-life balance (8.9 percent and 8.6 percent respectively).

Figure 55: Satisfaction with work-life balance, by gender, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Ethnic differences

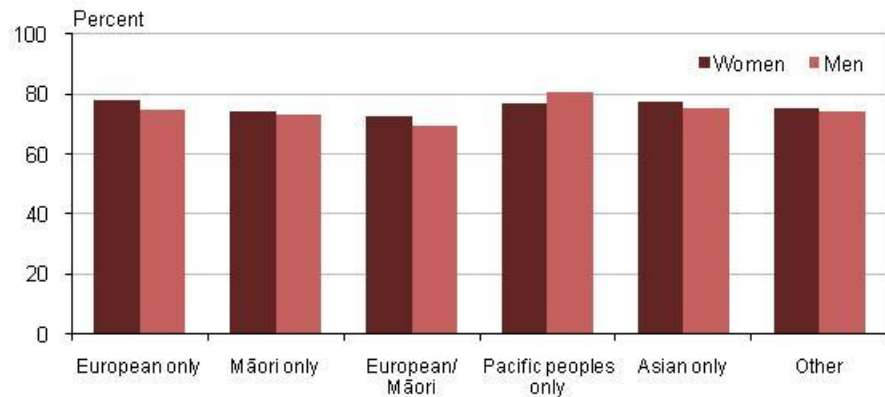
There is very little variation in levels of satisfaction with work-life balance across ethnicities.

There is very little variation in women's satisfaction with work-life balance across ethnic groups. In 2008, women who identified as belonging only to the European ethnic group were slightly more likely to be satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance (77.8 percent) than women identifying as belonging to other ethnic groups. Women identifying with both European and Māori ethnicities were the least likely to be satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance (72.8 percent).

Across all ethnicities, women were more likely than men to report being satisfied or very satisfied with their work life balance, except for Pacific peoples, where men reported slightly higher levels of

satisfaction with work-life balance.

Figure 56: Proportion of people satisfied/very satisfied with their work-life balance, by gender and ethnicity, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

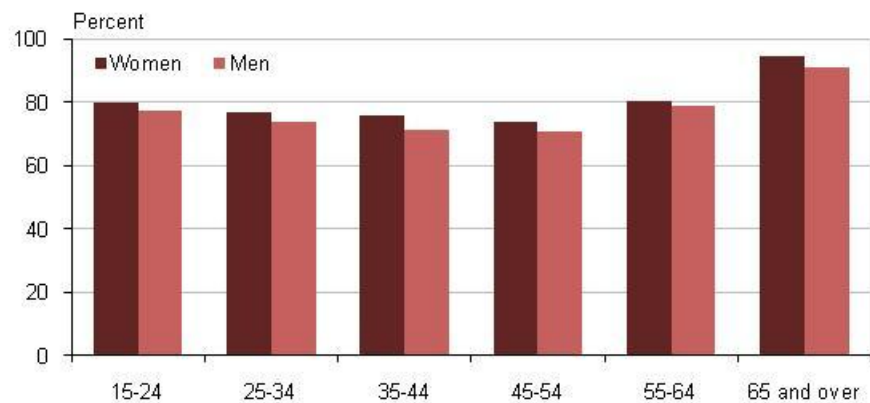
Age differences

Women aged 65 years and over are the most likely to be satisfied with their work-life balance.

Between the ages of 15 and 54, women's satisfaction with work-life balance tends to decrease. In 2008, 79.9 percent of women aged between 15 to 24 years reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance, compared with 73.6 percent of women aged between 45 and 54 years. Women aged 65 years and over were the most likely to report being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance (94.3 percent).

Across all age groups, women are more likely than men to report being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance. In 2008, this gender difference was most pronounced in the 35 to 44 year age group, where 75.7 percent of women and 71.4 percent of men reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance (a difference of 4.3 percentage points).

Figure 57: Proportion of people satisfied/very satisfied with their work-life balance, by gender and age, 2008



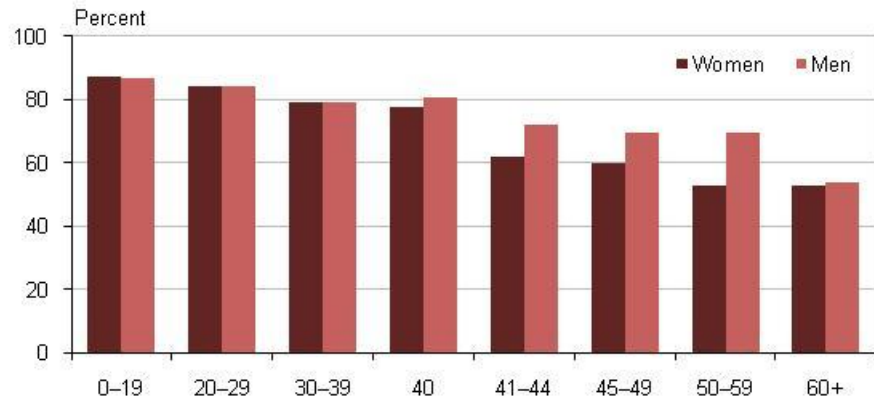
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Hours worked

Level of satisfaction with work-life balance tends to decrease as the number of hours worked increases.

It is not particularly surprising that the likelihood of being satisfied with work-life balance decreases as the number of hours worked per week increases. This is particularly the case for women. In 2008, women who worked less than 20 hours per week were significantly more likely to report being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance than women who worked 60 hours or more per week (87.1 percent and 52.7 percent respectively).

Figure 58: Proportion of people satisfied/very satisfied with their work-life balance, by gender and hours worked per week, 2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Total work time

Definition

The average time per day spent in paid and unpaid work, counting primary activities only, as measured by the *New Zealand Time Use Survey*. Unpaid work includes household work, caregiving for household members, purchasing goods and services, and unpaid work outside the home.

Relevance

Total work time provides an indicator of how time-rich or time-poor people are. As women on average do a significant amount of unpaid work, it is important that both paid work and unpaid work are taken into account.

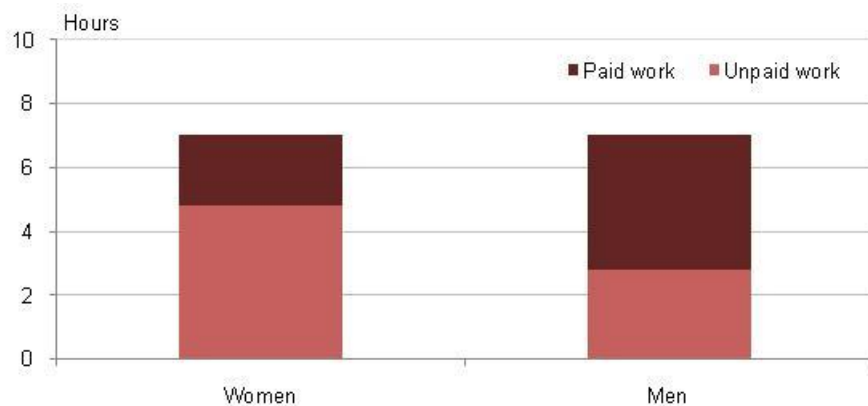
To date, New Zealand has carried out one Time Use Survey, in 1998/99. This means that it is not yet possible to consider trends over time in the total time spent working. The Time Use Survey is being repeated in 2009/10. This indicator will be updated to show trends once data from this survey is available.

Current level and trends

Men and women spend a similar amount of time working overall, but 70 percent of women's work time is unpaid, compared with 40 percent of men's work time.

In 1998/99, the average number of hours per day spent on paid and unpaid work combined was 7.0 hours for both men and women. However, there were significant differences in the kinds of work men and women did. On average, women spent 4.8 hours per day on unpaid work and 2.2 hours on paid work. Men spent 2.8 hours on unpaid work and 4.2 hours on paid work.

Figure 59: Average hours per day spent on paid and unpaid work, by gender, primary activities only, 1998/99



Source: Statistics New Zealand

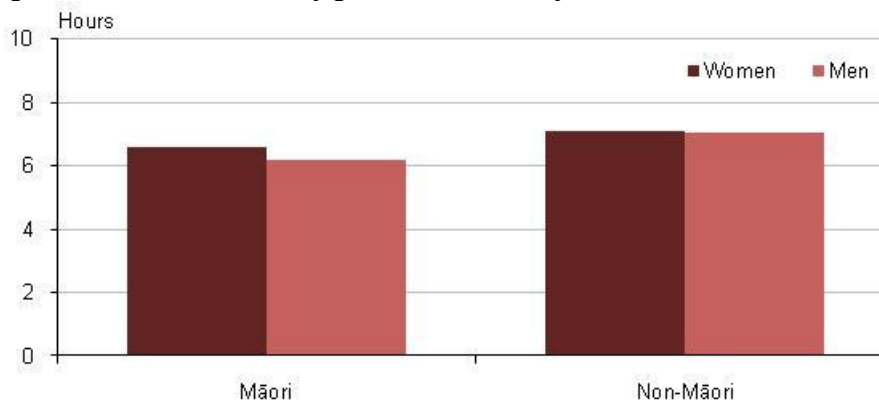
Women spent considerably more time working when both primary and simultaneous work activities were counted. Women spent 7.0 hours per day on average on simultaneous work activities (such as being responsible for the care of children while doing another activity), compared with 4.0 hours for men.

Ethnic differences

The amount of time Māori women and non-Māori women spend on paid work and unpaid work is similar.

In 1998/99, there was very little difference in total work time between Māori women and non-Māori women (6.6 hours and 7.1 hours respectively). Māori women spent less time on paid work (1.8 hours) than non-Māori women (2.3 hours). Māori women and non-Māori women spent similar amounts of time on unpaid work (4.7 hours and 4.8 hours respectively), which was considerably greater than the amount of time both Māori and non-Māori men spent on unpaid work activities (2.8 hours).

Figure 60: Total work time, by gender and ethnicity, 1998/99



Source: Statistics New Zealand

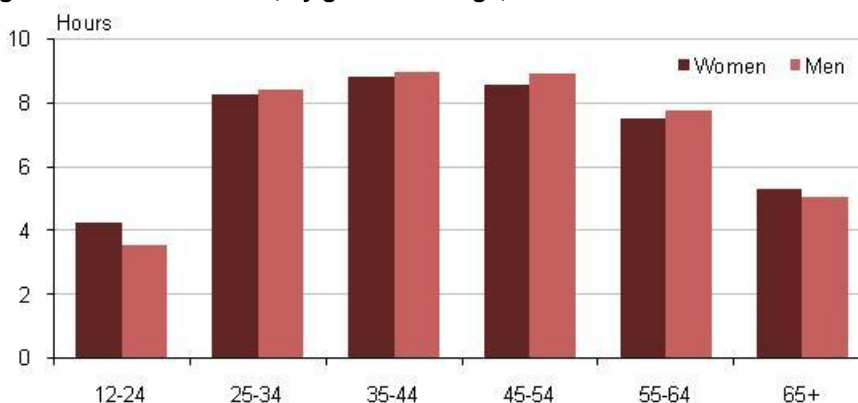
Age differences

Total work time is highest between the ages of 35 and 44 for both women and men.

There is very little gender difference in total work time within the different age groups. Total work time was greatest for women and men aged 35 to 44 years – reaching 8.8 hours per day for women and 9.0 hours per day for men within this age group.

While total work time was less for women aged 65 years and over, this age group spent a similar amount of time on unpaid work than women aged 25 to 64 years (around 5 hours per day).

Figure 61: Total work time, by gender and age, 1998/99



Source: Statistics New Zealand

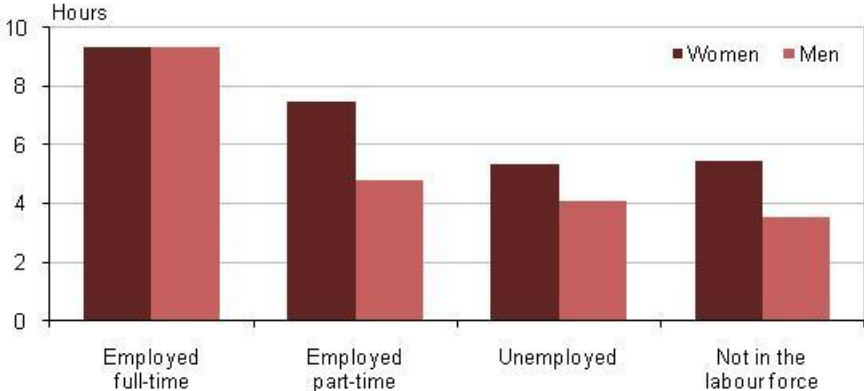
Labour force status

The amount of time women spend on unpaid work only decreases once they are employed full-time.

Women and men employed full-time had the longest total work time (9.3 hours). Women who were employed part-time, unemployed, or not in the labour force spent more time working in total than men in these groups.

While men spent considerably less time on unpaid work if they were employed (either full-time or part-time), women employed part-time spent almost the same amount of time on unpaid work as women who were not in the labour force (just over 5 hours per day). The amount of time women spent on unpaid work reduced only once women were employed full-time.

Figure 62: Average hours per day spent on paid and unpaid work, by gender and labour force status, 1998/99



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Access to early childhood education

Definition

This indicator measures the following aspects of accessibility:

Affordability: the index of early childhood education (ECE) fees, as measured by the Consumer Price Index.

Availability: the proportion of licensed ECE services with enrolment waiting times of at least six months.

Relevance

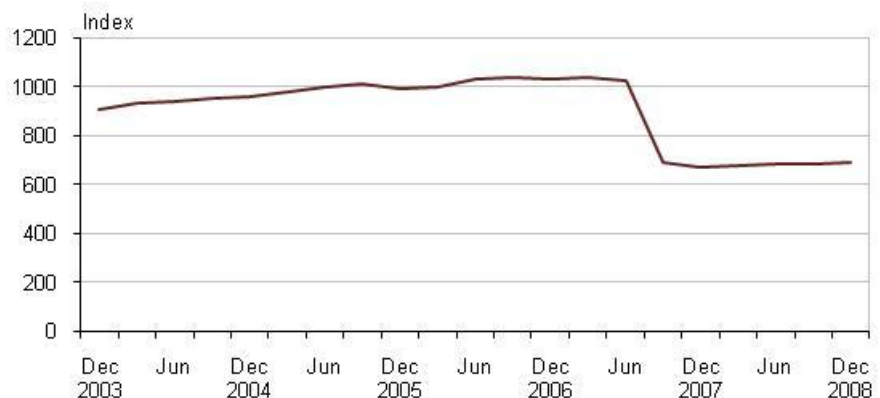
Improved affordability and availability of ECE services enables many more mothers to participate in the workforce, if they wish to do so.

Current level and trends

ECE is becoming more affordable, particularly for three- and four-year-olds.

Overall, ECE fees have reduced substantially since the introduction of 20 hours ECE for three- and four-year-olds in July 2007. Between December 2003 and December 2008, ECE fees decreased by 23.9 percent.

Figure 63: Index of ECE fees, 2003-2008



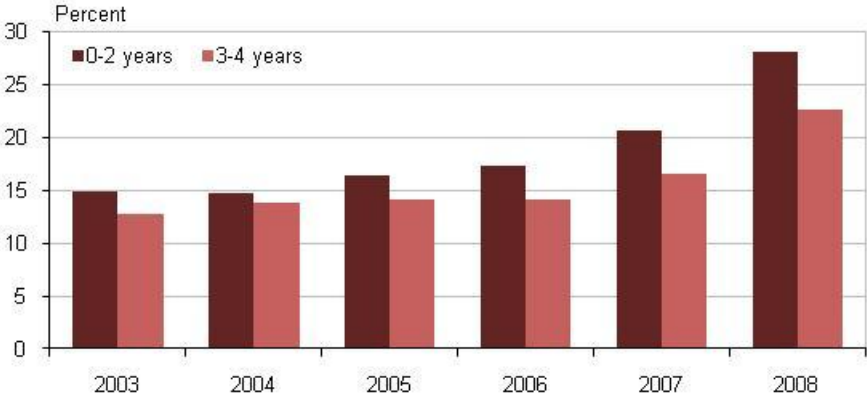
Source: Statistics New Zealand

An increase in average hourly earnings means that, relative to earnings, ECE fees are even more affordable. Fees relative to average hourly earnings fell by 38.7 percent in the five years to December 2008.

Long waiting times are becoming more common, particularly for one- and two-year-old children.

For ECE to be accessible, enough places need to be available to meet demand. The proportion of licensed ECE services with enrolment waiting times of at least six months has increased substantially, particularly for children aged two years and under. In 2008, 28.1 percent of licensed ECE services had a waiting time of at least six months for children aged two years and under. For three- and four-year-old children, 22.7 percent of licensed ECE services had waiting times of at least six months.

Figure 64: Percentage of licensed ECE services with a waiting time of at least six months, by age of child, 2003-2008



Source: Ministry of Education

The proportion of ECE services with no waiting time has reduced significantly in recent years. In 2008, around one-third (34.9 percent) of licensed ECE services had no waiting time, compared with 51.5 percent for children aged two years and under, and 48.5 percent for three- and four-year-old children in 2003.

In spite of growing waiting lists, overall participation in ECE continues to increase. In 2008, 58.6 percent of children aged less than five years were enrolled in a licensed ECE service. This is an increase of 0.6 percentage points since 2007, and 3.5 percentage points since 2003.

Technical Details

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes
<p>Life expectancy</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand</p> <p>Dates: 1985-87, 1990-92, 1995-97, 2000-02, 2005-07</p>	<p><i>Life expectancy</i>: the average length of life of a newborn baby assuming they experience the age-specific mortality rates of a given period throughout their life.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are included multiple times, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>
<p>Ethnicity</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings</p> <p>Dates: 2006</p>	<p><i>Ethnicity</i>: calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are included multiple times, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent. For the 2006 Census, 'Middle Eastern/Latin American/African' (MELAA) has been separated from 'Other'; and 'New Zealander' has been included in the 'European' category.</p>
<p>Employment</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey</p> <p>Dates: Year ended December 1988-2008</p>	<p><i>Labour force participation</i>: the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who regularly work for one or more hours per week for financial gain, or work without pay in a family business, or are unemployed and actively seeking part-time or full-time work.</p> <p><i>Full-time</i>: those who usually work 30 hours or more per week.</p> <p><i>Part-time</i>: those who usually work fewer than 30 hours per week.</p>
<p>Fertility</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand</p> <p>Dates: Year ended December 1988-2008</p>	<p><i>Births per woman</i>: based on the total fertility rate concept, which is the average number of live births that a woman would have during her life if she experienced the age-specific fertility rates of a given period (usually a year). It excludes the effect of mortality.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are included multiple times, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes
<p>Disability</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2006 Disability Survey</p> <p>Dates: 2006</p>	<p><i>Disability:</i> any self-perceived limitation in activity resulting from a long-term condition or health problem; lasting or expected to last six months or more and not completely eliminated by an assistive device.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> prioritised when the respondent identified with two or more ethnicities. In such cases, a single ethnic group was assigned using the following priority rules:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • if Māori is one of the groups reported, assigned to 'Māori' • if any Pacific ethnic group is reported, assigned to 'Pacific' • if any Asian ethnic group is reported, assigned to 'Asian' • if none of the above are reported, the assignment is to 'European/Other'.
<p>Educational attainment</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey</p> <p>Dates: Average for year ended December 1998-2008</p>	<p><i>Educational attainment:</i> the proportion of people aged 15-64 years with either:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no qualification • school qualification only • post-school qualification. <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are included multiple times, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>
<p>Participation in tertiary education</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Education</p> <p>Dates: 1998-2008</p>	<p><i>Participation in tertiary education:</i> the proportion of people aged 15-64 years who are enrolled in tertiary education</p> <p>Data relates to domestic students only, enrolled at any time during the year with a tertiary education provider in a formal qualification of greater than 0.03 EFTS. Data excludes all non-formal learning and on-job industry training, and those Private Training Establishments and Other Tertiary Education Providers which neither received tuition subsidies nor were approved for student loans or allowances.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are included multiple times, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>
<p>Participation in modern apprenticeships</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Education</p> <p>Dates: 2002-2008</p>	<p><i>Participation in Modern Apprenticeships:</i> the number of people participating in a Modern Apprenticeship.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> based on the single prioritised method of reporting.</p>

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes
<p>Median hourly earnings</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey</p> <p>Dates: 1998-2008 (June quarter)</p>	<p><i>Median hourly earnings:</i> Median hourly earnings for employees earning income from up to three wage and salary jobs.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are counted in each ethnic category identified, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>
<p>Weekly income</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey</p> <p>Dates: 1998-2008 (June quarter)</p>	<p><i>Weekly income:</i> Median personal weekly income from all sources.</p> <p><i>Income Quintiles:</i> The weekly incomes of a population is ranked from highest to lowest and is then divided into 5 equal groups. The upper quintile will therefore contain the top 20% of incomes, while the lowest will contain the bottom 20% of incomes etc.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are counted in each ethnic category identified, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes																						
<p>Representation of women in leadership</p> <p>Source: Various (see Definitions)</p> <p>Dates: Various (see Definitions)</p>	<p><i>Representation of women in leadership</i>: the proportion of elected Members of Parliament and local government bodies; members of state sector boards, district health boards, and school boards of trusses; and judges, who are women.</p> <p>Sources:</p> <p>Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet (2009) <i>Ministerial List: As at 30 June 2009</i>. http://www.dPMC.govt.nz/cabinet/ministers/ministerial-list.html.</p> <p>Electoral Commission (9 May 2006) <i>Women in Parliament 1933-2005</i>. http://www.elections.org.nz/files/women_in_parliament.xls.</p> <p>Inter-Parliamentary Union (30 June 2008) <i>Women in National Parliaments</i>. http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/arc/classif300608.htm.</p> <p>Ministry for Culture and Heritage (6 November 2007) <i>Female MPs 1993-2002</i>. http://www.nzhistory.net.nz/media/photo/women-mps-in-parliament.</p> <p>Parliamentary Library (no date) <i>Members of Parliament: Current MPs</i>. http://www.parliament.nz/en-NZ/MPP/MPs/MPs/.</p> <p>Human Rights Commission (2008) <i>New Zealand Census of Women's Participation 2008</i>. Wellington: Human Rights Commission.</p> <p>The table on women's representation provides the proportion of women in certain positions in 2007 (unless otherwise specified). The specific points in time these figures relate to are outlined below:</p> <table data-bbox="607 751 1509 1054"> <tr> <td></td> <td>Calculated as at...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>State sector boards and committees – Ministerial appointees</td> <td>December 2007</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Directorships of Crown companies</td> <td>1 January 2008</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Directorships of the top-100 NZSX Companies</td> <td>9 October 2007</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Chief Executives of Public Service Departments</td> <td>12 December 2007</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Local Government:</td> <td>2007 elections</td> </tr> <tr> <td>- Mayors</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>- Councillors</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>District Health Boards</td> <td>31 December 2007</td> </tr> <tr> <td>School Boards of Trustees</td> <td>2007 elections</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Judiciary</td> <td>31 December 2007</td> </tr> </table>		Calculated as at...	State sector boards and committees – Ministerial appointees	December 2007	Directorships of Crown companies	1 January 2008	Directorships of the top-100 NZSX Companies	9 October 2007	Chief Executives of Public Service Departments	12 December 2007	Local Government:	2007 elections	- Mayors		- Councillors		District Health Boards	31 December 2007	School Boards of Trustees	2007 elections	Judiciary	31 December 2007
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<p>Jobless rate</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey</p> <p>Dates: Average for year ended December 1988-2008</p>	<p><i>Jobless</i>: the officially unemployed (available for and actively seeking work) plus those people who during their reference week were without employment and either: available, but not actively seeking work; or actively seeking, but not available for work.</p> <p><i>Jobless rate</i>: the number of jobless people expressed as a percentage of jobless people plus employed people.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: calculated as total ethnicity, meaning that those with multiple ethnicities are counted in each ethnic category identified, causing the total to equal more than 100 percent.</p>																						

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<p>Criminal victimisation</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Justice, New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006</p> <p>Dates: 2005</p>	<p><i>Victimisation</i>: the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over that have been a victim of one or more incidents of criminal offending. It does not cover commercial crimes, 'victimless crimes' (such as drug or alcohol abuse) or crimes against people under 15 years of age.</p> <p><i>Incidence rate</i>: the total number of offences that occurred in the reference period expressed as a percentage of the relevant population. Incidence rates take account of the fact that some people are victimised more than once.</p> <p><i>Prevalence rate</i>: percentage of the NZCASS sample who were victims of at least one offence. Unlike incidence rates, prevalence rates do not take into account the number of times a person has been victimised.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: where respondents identified themselves as belonging to more than one ethnic group, each was used in analysis.</p>
<p>Concern about crime</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Justice, New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006</p> <p>Dates: 2005</p>	<p><i>Concern about crime</i>: the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who are concerned about being a victim of crime.</p> <p>The NZCASS asks participants how their quality of life was affected by their fear of crime on a scale of 0 (no effect) to 10 (total effect). The NZCASS also asks participants about their concerns of particular types of victimisation. Interviews were undertaken from 9 February 2006 to 25 June 2006.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: where respondents identified themselves as belonging to more than one ethnic group, each was used in analysis.</p>
<p>Health expectancy</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Health</p> <p>Dates: 1996, 2001, 2006</p>	<p><i>Health expectancy</i>: the number of years a person could expect to live independently (i.e. live without any functional limitation requiring the assistance of another person or complex assistive device) if current mortality and disability rates persist.</p> <p>Health expectancy is calculated, in part, by using data from Statistics New Zealand's Disability Survey. In 2006, this survey reported a significantly lower rate of disability than previous surveys in 1996 and 2001. The apparent decline in the disability rate is likely to be due to a combination of factors relating to the way the 2006 survey was conducted, people's perceptions of disability, as well as possible real world change. Statistics New Zealand cautions users about making strong inferences from apparent trends between 2001 and 2006. As such, comparisons in health expectancy between 2006 and previous surveys should also be made with caution.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: presented in terms of Māori and non-Māori, based on a prioritised ethnicity classification.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori: all people who indicated New Zealand Māori as one of their ethnic groups, regardless of whether any other ethnic group was also specified. • Non-Māori: people who did not indicate New Zealand Māori as one of their ethnic groups.

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes
<p>Self-reported health status</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey</p> <p>Dates: 2006/07</p>	<p><i>Self-reported health status</i>: an individual's own perception of their health status and functioning based on a five point scale of excellent, very good, good, fair, or poor.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: the 2006/07 survey used a total ethnicity methodology, whereby a person can be classified to more than one ethnic group.</p> <p><i>Deprivation Quintiles</i>: The New Zealand Deprivation Index 2001 (NZDep2001) is used as the key indicator of socio-economic status. It is an area-based index of deprivation based on Census 2001 variables (e.g. income, house ownership and qualifications). NZDep2001 Census Area Units (CAUs) were divided into five quintiles, where quintile 1 is the least deprived and quintile 5 the most deprived.</p>
<p>Access to health services</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey</p> <p>Dates: 1996/97, 2002/03, 2006/07</p>	<p><i>Access to health services</i>: The proportion of the population that was unable to see a General Practitioner when they needed to in the past 12 months, for any reason.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: the 2006/07 survey used a total ethnicity methodology, whereby a person can be classified to more than one ethnic group. For the 2002/03 survey, ethnicity was prioritised when the respondent identified with two or more ethnicities. In such cases, a single ethnic group was assigned using the following priority rules:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • if Māori is one of the groups reported, assigned to 'Māori' • if any Pacific ethnic group is reported, assigned to 'Pacific' • if any Asian ethnic group is reported, assigned to 'Asian' <p>if none of the above are reported, the assignment is to 'European/Other'.</p> <p><i>Unable to see a GP</i>: those in the population that were unable to see a GP when they needed to in the past 12 months, for any reason.</p> <p><i>Deprivation Quintiles</i>: The New Zealand Deprivation Index 2001 (NZDep2001) is used as the key indicator of socio-economic status. It is an area-based index of deprivation based on Census 2001 variables (e.g. income, house ownership and qualifications). NZDep2001 Census Area Units (CAUs) were divided into five quintiles, where quintile 1 is the least deprived and quintile 5 the most deprived.</p>
<p>Satisfaction with work-life balance</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life</p> <p>Dates: 2008 (March quarter)</p>	<p><i>Satisfaction with work-life balance</i>: the proportion of the employed population aged 15 years and over who reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance.</p> <p><i>Ethnicity</i>: calculated as total ethnicity, whereby a person can be classified to more than one ethnic group.</p>

Indicator	Definitions and technical notes
<p>Total work time</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Time Use Survey</p> <p>Dates: 1998/99</p>	<p><i>Total work time:</i> the average time per day spent in paid and unpaid work, counting primary activities only.</p> <p><i>Unpaid work:</i> Unpaid work includes household work, caregiving for household members, purchasing goods and services and unpaid work outside the home.</p> <p><i>Paid work:</i> Time spent on 'labour force activities', including working for pay or profit, travel associated with paid work, education or training in paid work time, and job search activities.</p> <p><i>Total work time:</i> Time spent on paid work and unpaid work combined.</p> <p><i>Primary activities:</i> The activity which respondents listed in the first column of their time use diaries, which was headed "What were you doing?"</p> <p><i>Simultaneous activities:</i> Activities that respondents listed in the second column of their time use diaries, which was headed "what else were you doing at the same time?"</p> <p><i>Ethnicity:</i> presented in terms of Māori and non-Māori, based on a prioritised ethnicity classification.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori: All people who indicated New Zealand Māori as one of their ethnic groups, regardless of whether any other ethnic group was also specified • Non-Māori: People who did not indicate New Zealand Māori as one of their ethnic groups.
<p>Access to early childhood education (ECE)</p> <p>Source: Ministry of Education, <i>State of Education in New Zealand</i></p> <p>Dates: 2003-2008</p> <p>Source: Statistics New Zealand, Consumer Price Index and Quarterly Employment Survey</p> <p>Dates: Dec 2003–Dec 2008 (all quarters)</p>	<p><i>Affordability:</i> the index of ECE fees, relative to income. The index of fees paid for ECE is measured by the Consumer Price Index. When this index is adjusted by average hourly earnings from the Quarterly Employment Survey, it gives an indication of whether ECE fees have become more or less affordable. This is the same method used by the Ministry of Education in developing their ECE affordability indicator.</p> <p><i>Availability:</i> the proportion of licensed ECE services with enrolment waiting times of at least six months. This information is sourced from the Ministry of Education.</p> <p><i>Licensed ECE services:</i> premises used regularly for the education or care of three or more children under the age of six must be licensed, except if it has been specifically exempted by the Minister of Education. Licensed ECE services include education and care centres, kindergartens, playcentres, home-based services, and correspondence schools. This information is sourced from the Ministry of Education.</p>

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