Australian Government
Department of Social Services

National Centre for Longitudinal Data

Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA):

The Longitudinal Study of Humanitarian Migrants

Findings from the first three waves

Powerful data | Strong evidence | Informed policy

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Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA):

The Longitudinal Study of Humanitarian Migrants

Findings from the first three waves

This report uses unit record data from release 3 of Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA): The Longitudinal Study of Humanitarian Migrants. BNLA is funded by the Australian Government Department of Social Services (DSS) through the National Centre for Longitudinal Data (NCLD) and is managed by the NCLD in conjunction with the Australian Institute of Family Studies (AIFS). The report was researched and written by DSS staff. The views in this report should not be taken to represent those of the Minister for Social Services, DSS or AIFS. We gratefully acknowledge all the humanitarian migrants who have given their time so willingly to participate in the study.

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The photographs used in this report are not of BNLA participants.

CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
AMEP	Adult Migrant English Program
BNLA	Building a New Life in Australia
DSS	Department of Social Services
HILDA	Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (Survey)
HSP	Humanitarian Settlement Program
HSS	Humanitarian Settlement Services
LSAC	Longitudinal Study of Australian Children
LSIC	Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children
NCLD	National Centre for Longitudinal Data
PTSD	Posttraumatic stress disorder
SDQ	Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire
SEE	Skills for Education and Employment
SEIFA	Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas
UMA	Unauthorised maritime arrival

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Building a New Life in Australia: The Longitudinal Study of Humanitarian Migrants (BNLA) is a long-term project researching how humanitarian migrants settle into life in Australia. It is the first long-term study of humanitarian migrants to Australia.

The study provides a broad evidence base to assist policy development and program improvement for humanitarian migrants to Australia. It follows a large cohort of humanitarian migrants to increase knowledge around the factors that support successful settlement. The study also identifies barriers that hinder positive settlement outcomes.

Three broad questions guide the study.

- What are the settlement outcomes of humanitarian migrants and how are they faring on a range of key measures? (For example, employment, education, English language and health).
- How does access to and use of government services and non-government services and welfare benefits contribute to humanitarian migrants' successful settlement? (For example, the Adult Migrant English Program, AMEP).
- Do the settlement experiences and outcomes of humanitarian migrants vary according to the differing migration pathways taken? (for example, offshore, onshore).

The value of BNLA as a longitudinal study is that it allows researchers and policy makers to look at outcomes over time. This report uses data from the first three waves (three years) of BNLA.

The report is a quick and easy reference for policy makers and service providers needing evidence to inform their work. It provides a detailed overall description of migration experiences, settlement experiences and socio-demographic characteristics of a large group of humanitarian migrants. It also examines the association between variations in these characteristics and experiences with the settlement outcomes of respondents.

Humanitarian migration to Australia

Australia has a long history of welcoming refugees and humanitarian migrants from all parts of the world. Since the arrival of the first waves of post-World War II refugees, Australia has settled more than 800,000 refugees and other humanitarian entrants. It was not until the 1970s, however, that Australia developed the Humanitarian Program to cater for the needs of resettling refugees (Parliamentary Library, 2017).

In 2013–14, Australia granted 203,747 permanent residency visas, 6.7 per cent (13,747) under the Humanitarian Program.

The program has two components:

- Onshore protection, which fulfils Australia's international obligations to those who arrive in Australia and are found to be refugees in need of protection.
- Offshore, which reflects Australia's commitment to refugee protection by offering resettlement to those subject to persecution or to substantial discrimination amounting to a gross violation of human rights (Department of Immigration and Border Protection, 2013).

Australia's approach to settlement

Humanitarian migrants resettled in Australia are here for humanitarian reasons, not because of their potential economic contribution. Australia is one of a small number of countries providing targeted services to humanitarian migrants to assist in their settlement and facilitate independence and self-reliance. Humanitarian migrants can also access a variety of mainstream services available to the broader Australian community.

Settlement services are based on these principles:

- Early intervention to provide more intensive support on arrival and in the months following arrival.
- Needs-based services tailored to individual and family requirements.
- Collaboration and coordination between government and other services.
- Welcoming communities to prepare for the support and the settlement of new arrivals.
- Evaluation of services to continually refine programs and ensure best results for humanitarian migrants.

More information on the settlement services is in Appendix A on page 106.

CHAPTER 2

ABOUT BUILDING A NEW LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

About Building a New Life in Australia

This section provides the history of BNLA, important background information about the BNLA study and context for the analysis in this report.

History

BNLA was originally conceived and established by the (then) Department of Immigration and Citizenship in 2013. At the time, the department funded BNLA for five years, based on the time it takes for a new humanitarian migrant to become an Australian citizen (four-year waiting period plus time to apply for citizenship).

As part of machinery-of-government changes in late 2013, BNLA was placed within the Department of Social Services (DSS). In 2014, it joined several other longitudinal studies in the newly-formed National Centre for Longitudinal Data (NCLD).

Although 2018 was meant to be the fifth and final year of BNLA, DSS secured additional ongoing funding to support BNLA and its other longitudinal studies in the 2017–18 Commonwealth Budget. The NCLD is now planning for a future of BNLA well beyond 2018.

Limitations

Through its first four years (of which the first three waves are reported on in this report), DSS has gained a greater understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of BNLA.

Some chapters in this report are constrained in their depth and breadth of findings by inherent limitations of BNLA data. Some limitations have resulted from the ways data have been sought from those within the migrating units in the study. For example, BNLA collects more comprehensive information from principal visa applicants than from secondary applicants.

There are also limitations in the way data can be compared with the other studies managed by the NCLD, including the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey and the Longitudinal Study of Australian Children (LSAC). Some of these differences are found in specific questions themselves, or in the way questions are asked of respondents.

Methodological issues, such as alternating face-to-face with telephone interviews, have introduced some mode effect inconsistencies across waves (that is, some respondents might answer a question asked face-to-face differently than they might answer that question over the phone).

Future development

There are significant opportunities to improve BNLA over the coming years, to:

- harmonise its data with other studies
- more comprehensively and uniformly collect information from all applicants and from others in each household
- better understand the migration and settlement experiences of children.

At the time of writing, DSS is consulting with stakeholders and investigating how to improve and enhance BNLA to best understand the settlement experiences of humanitarian migrants to Australia. Changes to the study are expected to be introduced from wave 6 onwards.

Survey sample

BNLA follows 1,509 humanitarian migrating units who arrived in Australia or had their permanent visas granted in the six months between May and December 2013.

The in-scope population from which the survey sample was selected comprised adult humanitarian migrants issued with a permanent visa under the Humanitarian Program. The study aimed to include 1,500 migrating units. A migrating unit is defined as an individual or group of people, usually related, granted permanent residency in Australia under the same visa application. The survey sample aimed to include 77 per cent whose visas were granted outside Australia (offshore visa holders) and 23 per cent in Australia (onshore visa holders). This ratio broadly reflected the distribution of government visa grants under the Humanitarian Program at the time.

To be eligible to participate, offshore visa holders had to have arrived in Australia holding a permanent humanitarian

visa, three to six months prior to their first wave[1] interview. Onshore visa holders had to have received their permanent protection visa three to six months prior to their wave 1 interview.[2] Given that wave 1 interviews took place from October 2013 to February 2014, the eligibility period for offshore arrivals and onshore visa grants was May to December 2013. Table 2.1 shows the target sample and sample obtained for each visa type.[3]

Table 2.1: Target sample and obtained sample of migrating units by visa type, number

Visa type	Target sample	Sample obtained
Visas granted offshore		
200 — Refugee visa	940	942
201/203 — In-country special humanitarian visa/emergency rescue visa	10	8
202 — Global special humanitarian visa	40	42
204 — Woman at risk visa	170	183
Visas granted onshore		
866 — Protection visa — unauthorised maritime arrivals (UMA)	250	234
866 — Protection visa — non-unauthorised maritime arrivals (non-UMA)	90	100
Total	**1 500**	**1 509**

Eleven locations were selected from which to draw the sample. The lead participant in each migrating unit was the adult principal applicant on the visa application (the person for whom approval of the visa was based). Secondary applicant adults and adolescents comprised other members of the migrating unit. They had to be 15 years or older to participate. In wave 1, the principal applicant had to consent to participating before secondary applicants could be invited to do so. Once part of the study, secondary applicants could participate independently of the principal applicant in future waves.

Principal applicants completed a longer questionnaire than secondary applicants. This included household-level questions asked to collect demographic information about other people on the visa application and/or in the household. Therefore, BNLA contains limited information about non-responding enumerated[4] persons in migrating units.

The 1,509 migrating units in wave 1 include 1,509 principal applicants, 755 adult secondary applicants and 135 adolescent secondary applicants — 2,399 persons in total. Information is available on a further 1,808 enumerated persons, bringing the number about whom some information is collected to 4,207.

The study aimed to follow all newly established households in cases where the migrating unit split after the wave 1 interview. In these cases, if the newly formed household no longer contained the original principal applicant, an adult secondary applicant responded to the longer principal questionnaire. This report therefore uses ‘principal respondent’ and ‘secondary respondent’ to distinguish between the respondent groups for the two questionnaires. In many cases the principal respondent is also the principal applicant.

Retaining all sample members is important in longitudinal studies; however, some attrition is unavoidable and some sample members do not participate in all waves.

Table 2.2 shows numbers of respondents and enumerated persons in BNLA across the three waves. While enumerated persons did not respond, the study collected information on them. Non-responding/non-enumerated persons are individuals who responded or were enumerated in a previous wave but did not participate in the wave listed.

Table 2.2: Numbers in the BNLA sample by wave

[1] A wave is a data collection point. New data is collected at each new wave. With BNLA this is 12 months apart.

[2] Onshore visa holders have been in Australia for longer than offshore visa holders, on a different visa type or in immigration/community detention.

[3] Non-UMA visa holders arrived in Australia on a valid temporary visa and applied for asylum after arrival. UMAs arrived in Australia without a valid visa and applied for asylum after arrival. Under subsequent legislation changes, this last category is no longer eligible to apply for a permanent humanitarian visa and settle in Australia.

[4] Enumerated persons are non-responding members of migrating units in the sample. Their demographic data is collected as part of the study.

	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
Principal respondent	1 509	1 284	1 181
Secondary respondent	755	632	642
Adolescent secondary respondent	135	93	71
Total number of respondents	**2 399**	**2 009**	**1 894**
Wave 3 Child module — child respondents	N/A	N/A	427
Enumerated person	1 808	1 553	2 141
Non-responding/non-enumerated person	N/A	645	857

The number of enumerated persons in wave 3 increased because data about non-migrating unit members living with sample members were included.

Data collection

Data is collected annually by bilingual interviewers. In waves 1 and 3, interviews were conducted face-to-face using a Microsoft Surface Pro tablet, either as a self-completion or personal interview. Interviews were conducted in English or one of 14 translated languages.

In wave 1, more than 90 per cent of interviews were conducted in a language other than English. Wave 1 included questions about experiences prior to arrival in Australia in addition to experiences since arrival.

Wave 2 interviews were conducted by telephone using questionnaires in English and nine other respondent languages. These interviews were slightly shorter than wave 1 (and 3) interviews due to the interview method used and some questions previously asked were omitted. Therefore, responses to some questions are only available for principal respondents in wave 2 but for both principal respondents and secondary respondents in waves 1 and 3.

Wave 3 also included a special child module in which children between 11 and 17 years of age were asked to complete a short pen and paper questionnaire about their own experiences. In conjunction, parents were invited to complete a brief questionnaire about how well their children were doing. Parents also completed a questionnaire for some children 5 to 10 years of age who were not interviewed. Information was collected for up to two children in each household.

Survey content

BNLA collects data about a wide variety of topics relevant to the background and settlement experiences of humanitarian migrants. Table 2.3 lists some of these.

Table 2.3: BNLA topics

Topic	Scope
Demographics	Age and gender of family members; country of birth; marital status.
Immigration experience	Life before arriving in Australia including: countries of residence; experience of deprivation or traumatic events; time spent and type of services accessed in refugee camps, Australian detention centres or community detention; reasons for migration to Australia; social networks available on arrival.
Housing and neighbourhood	Assistance in finding housing; number of times moved home; tenure type; quality of housing; number of bedrooms; neighbourhood characteristics.
English language proficiency	Languages spoken at home; English language proficiency; English language classes; use and helpfulness of interpreting services.
Education and training	Highest level of education; current education and training; educational aspirations; qualifications gained prior to arrival; whether qualifications are recognised in Australia.
Employment and	Current employment status; employment characteristics; pre-migration occupation and work;

Topic	Scope
income	experience of unemployment in Australia; income and government benefits received; financial stress.
Health	Physical and mental health; life stressors; coping.
Self-sufficiency	Use and ease of accessing services; information and transport; barriers to service use.
Community support	Levels of support from national, religious and other community groups; involvement in community activities; ease of making friends; sense of belonging in Australia.
Personal resources and life satisfaction	Satisfaction with current life; self-esteem; self-efficacy; levels of trust in different community groups and organisations; experience of discrimination.
Life in Australia	Expectations of life in Australia before arrival; factors promoting and hindering settlement; ease of settling; self-sufficiency.

As well as the special child module, wave 3 included questions about the use of technology and interaction with the police.

Understanding the data in this report

Analysis for this report uses the first three waves of BNLA data from release 3. Wave 1 was collected between October 2013 and March 2014. Waves 2 and 3 were collected in the same period in the two subsequent years.

Many tables and graphs in the report show frequencies and are relatively easy to interpret. More complex data analysis looks at how characteristics or factors have an impact on outcomes. As far as possible, complex data analysis is explained in text referring to the relevant table or figure. Information on how to interpret more complex analysis is on page 110.

All references to statistical significance reflect a significance level of $p<0.05$ (less than 5 per cent likelihood that the observed difference could have occurred by chance).

Respondents have the option to select non-specific responses: ‘don’t know’, ‘prefer not to say’ or ‘does not apply’. Unless otherwise stated, such non-specific responses are excluded from analyses.

Some questions were only asked of a specific group that had answered a preceding question with a particular response. Numbers are generally provided to show the number of responses from which percentages were calculated.

Wave 2 response patterns often substantially differ from waves 1 and 3. This may be the result of the change in collection mode from face-to-face to telephone interviewing. As a result, data from wave 2 is omitted where the response pattern is very different from responses in waves 1 and 3.

Some types of analysis are restricted to respondents who participated in all waves. This is known as a ‘balanced panel’. A total of 1,704 respondents participated in all three waves. For analysis using only waves 1 and 3, the balanced panel comprises 1,894 respondents. This report explicitly states whether a balanced panel has been used in any analyses. In other cases, proportions are based on the number of responses in the wave being used.

Some tables and figures use data from other longitudinal studies or datasets to provide a comparison with other groups of the Australian population. Where possible, data is reported for the same year as BNLA results. Datasets used include:

- The Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey — comparison with the whole Australian population
- The Longitudinal Study of Australian Children (LSAC) — comparison of children born in 2000 and 2004 and their primary carers
- The Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children (LSIC) — comparison of children of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander born in 2003–2008 and their primary carers
- ABS 2011 Census data — comparison with demographic characteristics of the Australian population
- The Settlement Database — comparison with demographic information of other migrant streams in Australia.

While both cross-sectional and longitudinal weights are available in BNLA, analyses in this report are not conducted on weighted data. Given the profile of humanitarian migrants changes significantly over time, weights have not been applied to analyses to mitigate the risk that the reader generalises findings to all humanitarian migrants, not just those that were

granted a visa during the reference period of the BNLA cohort.

All analyses from HILDA and LSAC are based on weighted data and so are broadly representative of the Australian population as at the relevant reference period.

Free text responses

Some questions in BNLA asked respondents to answer in their own words. Verbatim responses are included throughout the report, from the question in wave 1 asking for comments about time in Australia so far and the question in wave 3 asking about hopes and dreams for themselves and their family in the coming 12 months.

Responses were entered by the respondent or verbatim by the interviewer, usually in a language other than English and later translated. Responses were confidentialised to remove information that could identify respondents (such as names of family members or geographical references).

CHAPTER 3

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Demographic characteristics of the sample

Demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, marital status and country of birth, influence individual settlement choices, experiences and outcomes. For example, women with young children may choose to work part time or delay entering the workforce.

Understanding the sample is therefore important in analysing the data. Table 3.1 shows how the composition by country of birth of the final BNLA sample differs from that of the in- scope sample from which it was derived.

The largest groups in the in-scope and interviewed sample are those that were born in Iraq and Afghanistan, although in BNLA these two groups account for 64.7 per cent compared to 49.6 per cent in the in-scope sample. Migrants from Myanmar are the third largest group in the in-scope sample but the BNLA sample includes a higher proportion of migrating units from Iran than from Myanmar. The 'other-confidentialised' group includes all countries from which there were fewer than 10 migrating units. These countries are not listed separately to reduce the chance of respondent identification.

Not all members of the same migrating unit were born in the same country so proportions of the sample by country of birth are quite different when all participants are accounted for rather than just principal respondents. For example, 29.8 per cent of principal respondents were born in Afghanistan but only 19.7 per cent of all participants were born in Afghanistan. This is partly driven by the disproportionate number of respondents from Afghanistan who are single-person migrating units. Around one-fifth of migrating units have members born in a different country from the principal respondent. Most of these cases include children born en- route or after arrival in Australia. These children are study participants but not respondents.

A comparison of those on onshore visas versus on offshore visas by respondent characteristics shows that onshore visa holders are more likely to be in single-person migrating units (82.6 per cent) than are principal respondents with offshore visas (31.7 per cent).

Country of birth composition also differs by migration pathway (for example, 42.6 per cent of offshore visa holders were born in Iraq compared to 7.8 per cent of onshore visa holders). Onshore visa holders are relatively more likely to be from Iran, Afghanistan or Pakistan compared to offshore visa holders. It is important to remember that onshore visa holders have generally been in Australia longer than offshore visa holders. Some onshore visa holders had working rights prior to being granted a permanent visa so were more likely to be working when they were first interviewed and would have had longer to develop English language skills.

Table 3.1: Obtained and in-scope samples by country of birth, per cent

Country of birth (BNLA sample rank order)	In-scope sample	Principal respondent sample in wave 1 BNLA
Iraq	25.8	34.9
Afghanistan	23.8	29.8
Iran	10.0	10.5
Myanmar	12.0	6.6
Pakistan	4.6	3.8
Bhutan	2.3	3.1
Sri Lanka	2.5	2.2
Egypt	3.4	1.7
Democratic Republic of Congo	1.4	1.6
Ethiopia	2.0	1.1
Syria	1.3	1.1
Eritrea	1.5	0.7
Libya	0.8	0.7

Country of birth (BNLA sample rank order)	In-scope sample	Principal respondent sample in wave 1 BNLA
Sudan	0.6	0.4
India	0.6	0.3
Nepal	0.1	0.0
Other-confidentialised	7.3	1.5
Total number of migrating units	4 035	1 509

Data source: Australian Government Data (Settlement Database)

Table 3.2: Respondent type by gender, wave 1

Respondent type	Males (per cent)	Females (per cent)	Total number
Principal respondents	70.3	29.7	1 509
Secondary respondents (adult)	24.9	75.1	755
Secondary respondents (adolescent)	43.0	57.0	135
Responding sample	54.5	45.5	2 399
Enumerated sample	51.7	48.3	4 207

Another important characteristic of the sample is the gender composition. Table 3.2 shows that principal respondents are predominantly male and adult secondary respondents predominantly female. Although comprising only a small proportion of the responding sample, adolescent secondary respondents are more evenly divided between males and females. The enumerated sample is also more evenly divided between males and females (51.7 per cent versus 48.3 per cent) than the responding sample, where males slightly outnumber females (54.5 per cent versus 45.5 per cent).

Gender difference is especially important in interpreting response patterns as men and women may respond differently to some questions. Gender bias may therefore affect response patterns to questions asked only of principal respondents.

A large proportion of migrating units (42.9 per cent) in wave 1 consisted of a single person (Table 3.3). Of these, 77.8 per cent were males. In particular, 70.4 per cent of those on 866 (UMA) visas were men who migrated as a single person.[5] The average age of male single person migrating units was 31, compared to 44 for other male principal applicants.

Table 3.3 shows that the predominant types of migrating units were single persons (648), couple families with children under 18 years of age (460), single-parent units (172), and couple families without children under 18 years of age (151). In couple families (with or without children under 18 years of age), the principal respondent was most likely male (87.1 per cent). In single-parent families, however, most principal respondents were female (96.5 per cent).

Households sometimes included people not part of the original migrating unit, such as flatmates, new partners and new babies. Most of these cases (71.2 per cent of 566 migrating units) were single person migrating units. Larger size migrating units were less likely to have others living in the household.

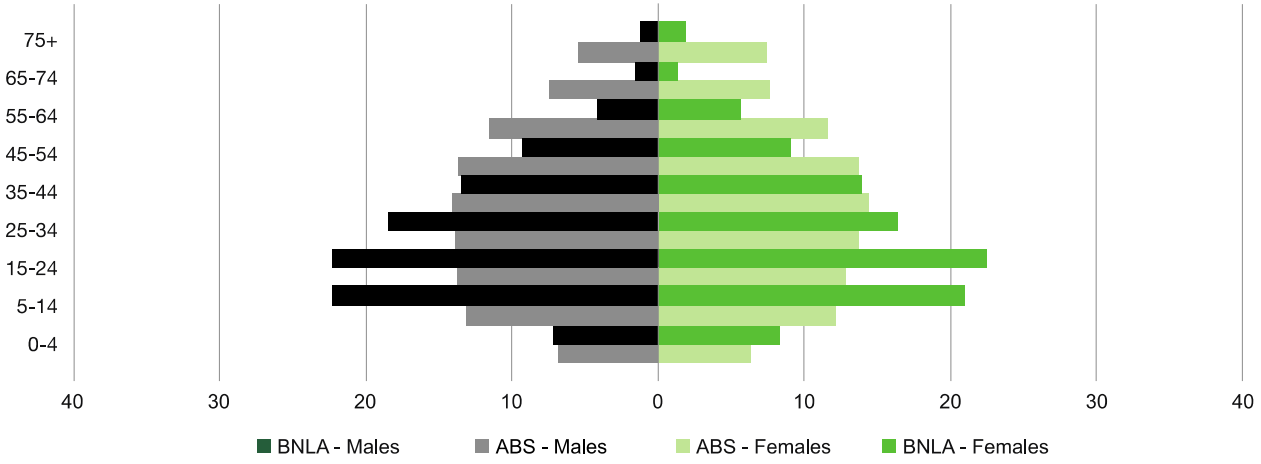
As shown in Table 3.3, many BNLA migrating units include children. More than one-third of all participants (35.8 per cent) are children under 18 years of age. At wave 1, 40.3 per cent of migrating units included children 15 years of age or under and 19.9 per cent included children 5 years of age or under. Only 15.2 per cent of migrating units included members over 55 years of age.

Table 3.3: Migrating unit structure, wave 1

[5] The migrating unit structure includes only family members on the visa application and does not necessarily reflect actual household structure.

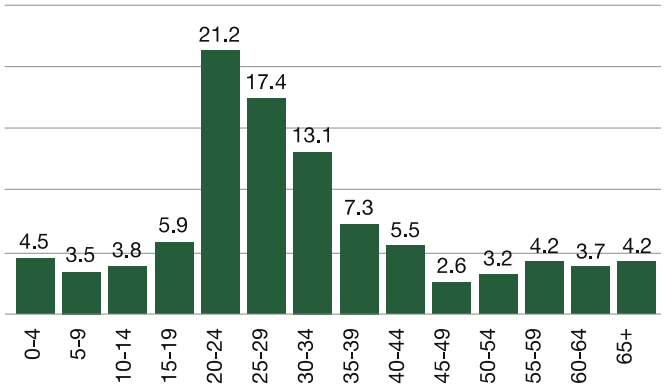
Structure	Number	Per cent
Couple family with children under 18 (no other family members)	331	21.9
Couple family with children under 18 and other family members	129	8.6
Couple family only (no other family members)	93	6.2
Couple family and other family members but no children under 18	58	3.8
Single parent family with children under 18 (no other family members)	98	6.5
Single parent family with children under 18 and other family members	74	4.9
Other immediate family members	77	5.1
Other extended family members	1	0.1
Non-related persons	0	0.0
Single person	648	42.9
Total	**1 509**	**100**

Figure 3.1: Age profile of the Australian population and the enumerated BNLA sample, per cent



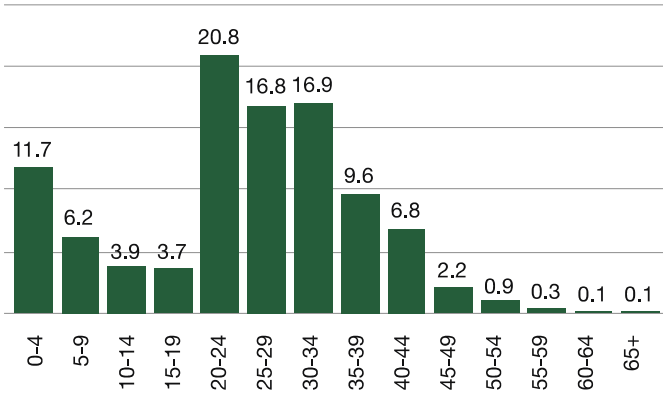
Data source: Census 2011 (author's calculations from data cube)

Figure 3.2: Age profile for family migrants arriving in Australia between May and December 2013, per cent (n=49 495)



Data source: Australian Government data (Settlement Database)

Figure 3.3: Age profile for skilled migrants arriving in Australia between May and December 2013, per cent (n=107 401)



Data source: Australian Government data (Settlement Database)

Figure 3.4 Age profile for all BNLA members arriving in Australia between May and December 2013, per cent (n=4 207)

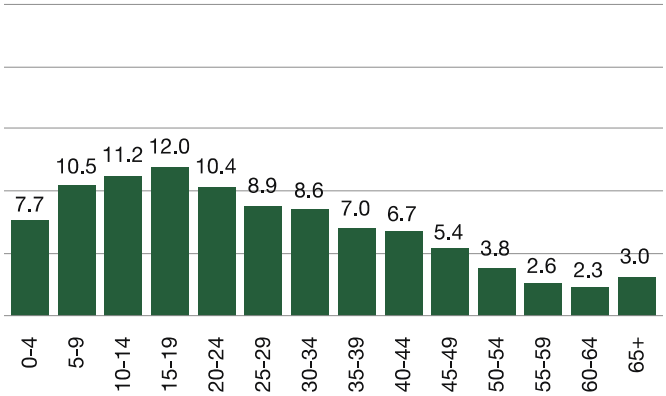
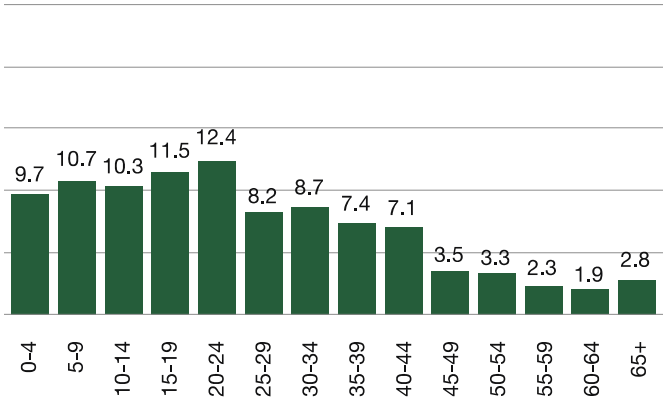


Figure 3.5: Age profile for all humanitarian migrants arriving in Australia between May and December 2013, per cent (n=12 368)



Data source: Australian Government data (Settlement Database)

Figure 3.1 shows wave 1 BNLA age groups by gender compared to those in the Australian population as measured in the 2011 Census.[6] The two population profiles are quite different in terms of age. BNLA has much higher proportions of the sample in the 5 to 14, 15 to 24 and 25 to 34 year-old age groups. The general Australian population has much higher proportions of people in the older age groups.

It is not only the general Australian population from which the BNLA sample differs. Australia has three main streams of

[6] Data from the 2011 Census is more contemporary to the 2013 BNLA data than data from the 2016 Census.

permanent migrants:

- family
- skilled
- humanitarian (from which the BNLA sample was drawn).

The size and composition of each stream can change over time. Figures 3.2 to 3.5 show the differences in age profile of the different migrant streams in addition to that of BNLA.[7]

The family and skilled migrant streams have much greater proportions of people in prime working age groups, especially between 20 and 35 years of age (Figures 3.2 and 3.3 respectively). The BNLA sample closely reflects the age profile of the entire humanitarian migrant stream of the same collection period (Figures 3.4 and 3.5 respectively). While the skilled migrant stream has a relatively large proportion of children up to four years of age, overall the family and skilled migrant streams have smaller proportions of people under 20 years of age than the migrant stream.

In addition, as Professor Hugo stated:

A higher proportion of humanitarian arrivals than other groups is made up of children who receive their education in Australia. This also means that, for the bulk of refugee entrants, virtually their entire working lives will be spent in Australia, maximising their potential economic contribution compared with other visa category entrants who may arrive mid-career. (Hugo, 2011)

The Department of Immigration and Citizenship (2011) stated:

Professor Hugo found that humanitarian entrants have the lowest rate of settler loss, at almost half that of other visa categories. This characteristic is not surprising, especially in the early years of settlement, because of the very reason for them leaving their homeland—the fact that they were forced out by the threat of persecution and fear returning. Consistent with this rationale, the rates of loss are lowest for the more recent arrivals. Comparatively, humanitarian entrants thus demonstrate a greater commitment to life in Australia.

Key findings and observations

- The BNLA sample reflects the demographics of the humanitarian program at the time of sample selection.
- Three-quarters of the BNLA sample come from Iraq, Afghanistan and Iran.
- Most principal respondents are male and most secondary respondents are female.
- The age profile of the BNLA sample is relatively young compared to the contemporary general Australian population as well as the family and skilled migration streams.
- Single persons are the most prevalent migrating unit structure. These are typically young males.

[7] Data for all groups relates to the period May to December 2013.

CHAPTER 4

EXPERIENCE OF TRAUMATIC EVENTS

Experience of traumatic events

Before settling in Australia, many humanitarian migrants have likely experienced or been exposed to traumatic events such as persecution, violence, separation from family, loss of significant loved ones or forced relocation (Davidson & Carr, 2010; Schweitzer et al., 2006; Uribe Guajardo, 2016). As a result, they could be expected to have heightened levels of psychological distress and increased risk of mental health issues (Schweitzer et al., 2006; Uribe Guajardo, 2016). Research also shows that repeated experience of traumatic events increases the possibility of developing poor mental health (Schweitzer et al., 2006). Resettlement can also have its own stressors which may compound existing levels of psychological distress (Schweitzer et al., 2006).

As humanitarian migrants, it is likely that many BNLA respondents had experienced traumatic events before coming to Australia. In examining the association between traumatic events and settlement outcomes it is important to first understand the reporting of traumatic events by BNLA respondents.

Experience of traumatic events was asked about in wave 1 as part of the suite of questions covering pre-arrival characteristics and experiences. However, analysis of wave 1 responses highlighted some issues which necessitated re- asking questions about traumatic events in wave 3.

It is noted that in-depth understanding of traumatic events in BNLA is limited because there is no information about the severity, frequency or period over which people experienced these events.

Traumatic events reported in wave 1

In wave 1, all respondents were asked if they or another family member had experienced or been exposed to different types of traumatic events before arriving in Australia. This meant that more than one respondent from the same migrating unit could provide an affirmative response for the same incident, potentially resulting in over counting but also making it impossible to distinguish between individuals' experiences. An affirmative response could also be provided for someone who had not come to Australia with the respondent.

Table 4.1 shows that more than half of all respondents (55.2 per cent) said they or another family member had experienced war or other conflict. Just under half (49.6 per cent) had experienced political or religious persecution. Onshore visa holders were more likely to report experience of political or religious persecution while offshore visa holders were more likely to report experience of war or other conflict.

Overall, 5.1 per cent of respondents chose a non-specific response — 'prefer not to say' (2.3 per cent), 'don't know' (1.9 per cent) or 'doesn't apply' (0.9 per cent). As there was no initial screening question to determine any experience of traumatic events before asking about specific events, the 'none' and non-specific responses can be interpreted in two ways. It could be that respondents meant that they and their family members did not experience traumatic events or that they were not willing to categorically say they had experienced traumatic events.

Traumatic events reported in wave 3

As the questions in wave 1 did not enable identification of individual respondent exposure to traumatic events, respondents were re-asked about traumatic events in wave 3. This time they were asked about personal experiences of traumatic events. There were also differences in the type of events asked about. Additionally, the option 'none' was not included in the list in wave 3 which may be the reason that more respondents gave a non-specific response.

Table 4.1: Experience of traumatic events by respondents or family members, wave 1, per cent

Type of traumatic event	Onshore (n=380)	Offshore (n=2 019)	Total (n=2 399)
War or other conflict	53.2	55.6	55.2
Political or religious persecution	59.2	47.7	49.6
Extreme living conditions	18.9	38.7	35.6
Violence (physical or sexual)	29.7	15.1	17.4
Imprisonment or kidnapping	18.7	14.4	15.1
Natural disaster	8.2	4.7	5.3
Other	16.8	16.1	16.2
Non-specific response	7.9	4.6	5.1

Type of traumatic event	Onshore (n=380)	Offshore (n=2 019)	Total (n=2 399)
None	7.6	9.2	9.0

Note: Questions were asked of all respondents in respect of themselves or any family member.

Overall, 38.7 per cent of respondents reported personal experience of extreme living conditions and 37.4 per cent exposure to combat. As with the traumatic events listed in wave 1, the prevalence of experience of these types of events was different for onshore and offshore visa holders. Onshore visa holders were much less likely to have experienced extreme living conditions or exposure to combat. They were also significantly more likely to have experienced torture or separation from family. The latter is perhaps not surprising given that 56.6 per cent of BNLA onshore visa holders were single person migrating units.

Table 4.2: Personal experience of traumatic events by respondents, wave 3, per cent

Type of traumatic event	Onshore (n=247)	Offshore (n=1 647)	Total (n=1 894)
Extreme living conditions	23.1	41.0	38.7
Combat exposure	27.9	38.9	37.4
Murder of stranger	16.2	20.3	19.7
Imprisonment/kidnapping	14.6	17.4	17.1
Serious injury	15.0	14.8	14.8
Murder/disappearance of family	11.7	15.1	14.7
Separation from family	16.6	12.1	12.7
Violence against women	10.1	12.0	11.8
Torture	16.6	10.1	10.9
Other	30.8	34.2	33.7
Non-specific response	31.6	22.6	23.8

Note: These questions were asked of all respondents in respect of their own experiences.

In wave 3, nearly one-quarter of the sample (23.8 per cent) chose non-specific responses — ‘prefer not to say’ (7.7 per cent), ‘don’t know’ (4.0 per cent) or ‘doesn’t apply’ (12.1 per cent). The lack of a clear question about whether respondents experienced any of the types of traumatic events means it is not clear from the data whether respondents who selected a non-specific response did not experience any traumatic events, did not experience any of those listed or did not feel comfortable identifying experience of specific events.

For analytical purposes this report assumes a non-specific response is the same as not having experienced that type of traumatic event. As with the questions from wave 1, Table 4.2 shows that onshore visa holders were more likely than offshore visa holders to give a non-specific response (31.6 per cent compared to 22.6 per cent).

Of all wave 3 respondents, 23.8 per cent did not identify having experienced any type of traumatic events asked about, 27.7 per cent reported having experienced one type and 48.6 per cent reported having experienced two or more.

The report uses this breakup of experience of traumatic events to examine the association of traumatic events with settlement outcomes.

Key findings and observations

- High proportions of BNLA respondents reported having experienced various types of traumatic events before arriving in Australia. At wave 3, more than three-quarters of respondents reported having personally experienced at least one type of traumatic event before arriving.
- Onshore visa holders were less likely than offshore visa holders to report having experienced traumatic events.
- Experience of traumatic events can be expected to have a significant impact on the ability of individuals and families

to settle in Australia. The association between experience of traumatic events and settlement outcomes is examined later in the report.

CHAPTER 5

LANGUAGE BACKGROUND AND ENGLISH SKILLS AND ACQUISITION

Language background and English skills and acquisition

Language and literacy is a key focus of BNLA. The survey collects information not only about respondents' linguistic background but also their knowledge and acquisition of English over time. Building English literacy and language proficiency are fundamental to settlement.

In studies of settlement in Australia, English language proficiency emerges as crucial to migrants' level of social and economic participation, including access to employment, education, training, housing, government services, and information about available subsidies and training courses (FECCA, 2013 and Fozdar & Hartley, 2012, in Yates et al., 2015 p.10).

Research also highlights the relationship between English proficiency and employment, an important measure of integration (Hugo 2011, 2014; Khoo, 2012). However, the role English plays in the social domains of integration is also considered significant (Hugo, 2011; Fozdar & Hartley 2012). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) recognises that knowledge of a host country's language is a key factor in integration noting that humanitarian migrants with language difficulties and lower education may find it particularly difficult to enter the labour market and their outcomes will lag behind other migrant groups (OECDa, OECDb, 2016).

Linguistic background of respondents

A major way in which humanitarian migrants differ from many Australians is their ability to communicate in multiple languages. Many humanitarian migrants come from ethnic minority groups in their countries of birth and can speak the languages of their ethnic groups and the official language of their home countries. Figure 5.1 shows the range of languages spoken by respondents from selected countries of birth in the BNLA sample. Figure 5.2 further shows that of all respondents, less than 10 per cent speak only one language.

Figure 5.1: Linguistic background by country of birth, wave 3

North Africa and the Middle East

Iraq

Official languages: Arabic and Kurdish

- BNLA n=801
- Main languages spoken at home: Assyrian, Arabic, Chaldean, English, Kildani, Kurdish, Persian
- Secondary languages include Turkish, Mandaean, Greek, Armenian
- 43% bilingual; 49% 3+ languages

Iran

Official language: Persian

- BNLA n=201
- Main languages spoken at home: Persian, Dari, Hazaragi, English, Arabic
- Secondary languages include Turkish, Kurdish, Mandarin, Urdu
- 57% bilingual; 35% 3+ languages

Southern and Central Asia

Afghanistan

Official languages: Dari and Pashto

- BNLA n=485
- Main languages spoken at home: Dari, Hazaragi, Persian, Pashto, English
- Secondary languages include Urdu, Arabic, Hindi
- 49% bilingual; 36% 3+ languages

Pakistan

Official languages: Urdu and English

- BNLA n=44
- Main languages spoken at home: Pashto, Hazaragi, Urdu, Persian
- Secondary languages include Dari and Punjabi
- 27% bilingual; 70% 3+ languages

South-East Asia

Myanmar

Official languages: Burmese

- BNLA n=103
- Main languages spoken at home: Chin (various dialects), Burmese, Karen, Mon, Rohingya
- Secondary languages include Malay, Bengali, Hindi, Thai
- 38% bilingual; 44% 3+ languages

Sub-Saharan Africa

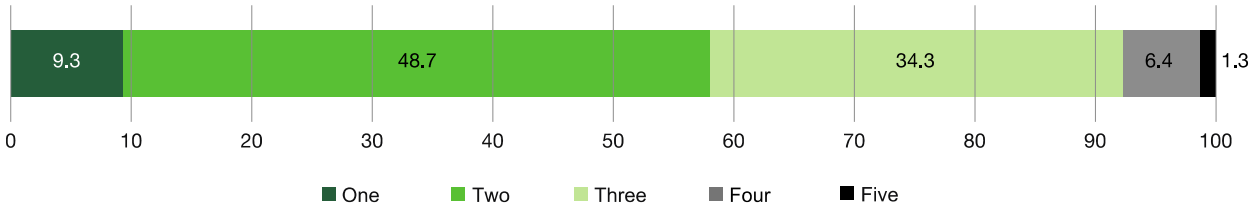
Democratic Republic of Congo

Official languages: French

- BNLA n=24
- Main languages spoken at home: Swahili, English
- Secondary languages include Chewa (also known as Chichewa or Nyamja), Kirundi, French, Kibbe, Portuguese
- 33% bilingual; 63% 3+ languages

Note: The data shows respondents from each country from whom language information was collected in wave 3.

Figure 5.2: Number of languages spoken by respondents, wave 3 (n=1 889), per cent



Literacy

While some humanitarian migrants to Australia will be highly literate and hold secondary and tertiary educational qualifications, others will have no literacy in either their main or other languages (non-literate), or will have never experienced literacy as their main language has no written tradition (pre-literate).

Non-literate and pre-literate learners will take considerably longer to acquire English language skills than learners who already have literacy and/or the experience of learning in a formal classroom setting. Additionally, some non-literate and pre-literate learners may not yet realise that literacy underpins communication in Australia, that educational practice focuses on literacy skills, and that reading and writing skills are required for communication in various modes and forums including Internet messaging, email and SMS (AMEP Research Centre, 2007; Burt, Kreeft Peyton & Schaetzel, 2008). Equally, learners who are semi-literate face barriers to learning, and even those who are literate in non- roman or non-alphabetic scripts only require time to build proficiency in English (Yates et al., 2010).

In wave 1, respondents were asked about the language in which they communicated at home and about their levels of literacy in that language. The data showed that 20.2 per cent (23.8 per cent of women and 17.1 per cent of men) were illiterate[8] in the main language they spoke at home. However, this finding does not consider that many people speak multiple languages and being illiterate in the main language spoken at home, which may be a language used only in the oral form, does not necessarily preclude literacy in another language.

In wave 3, language proficiency questions were repeated but respondents were asked about literacy in all languages they spoke. Although in wave 1 the proportion of illiteracy in the main language spoken at home was 20.2 per cent, once other languages were considered, the rate of illiteracy dropped to 5.0 per cent (3.1 per cent for men and 7.2 per cent for women). For example, some Iraqi speakers of Assyrian or Chaldean are highly literate in Arabic.

Table 5.1 shows characteristics of respondents who are illiterate in all languages compared to those who have at least a minimal level of literacy in one or more languages.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of respondents by literacy, wave 3, per cent

Characteristic	Illiterate (n=95)	Literate (n=1 795)
Female	67.4	45.6
Attended school	11.7	87.8
Any work experience prior to arrival in Australia	39.0	53.3
Currently working at wave 3	7.5	20.8
High risk of serious mental health problems in wave 3	34.1	18.3
Can understand English well or very well in wave 3	1.1	46.1
Not had English lessons in any wave	29.7	8.2

Note: The number of responses may vary for each characteristic due to a small number of non-specific responses. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the Kessler 6 (K6) measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. The 87 respondents who said in wave 1 that they did not take classes because their English was already good are excluded from this analysis.

[8] Illiterate is defined here as those who responded 'not at all' to questions about how well they can read and write in the main language spoken at home.

Figure 5.3: Self-reported level of understanding of spoken English across four time points (n=1 646), per cent

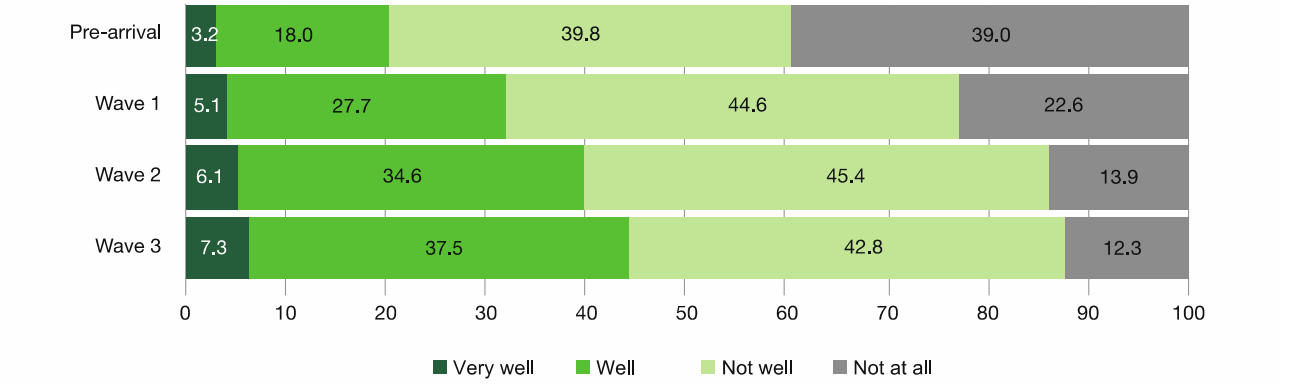


Figure 5.4: Self-reported level of English speaking ability across four time points (n=1 629), per cent

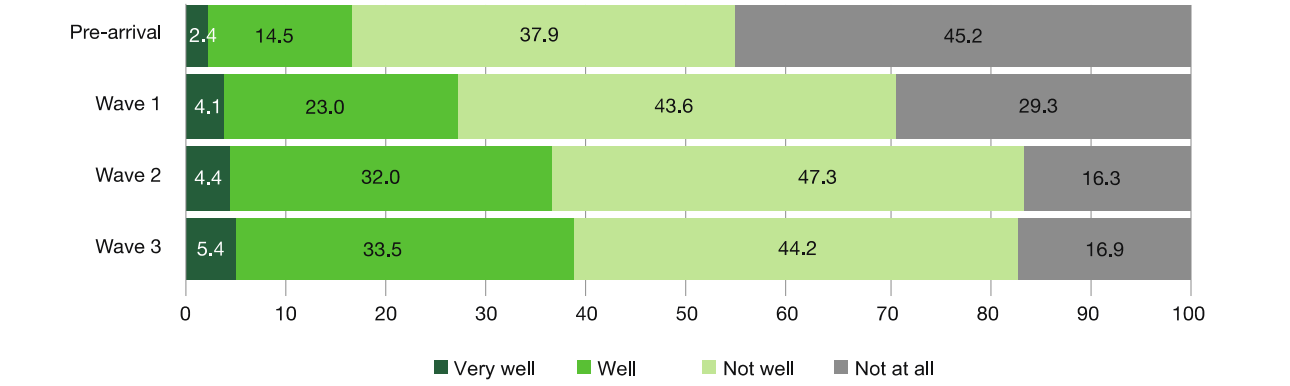


Figure 5.5: Self-reported level of English reading ability across four time points (n=1 648), per cent

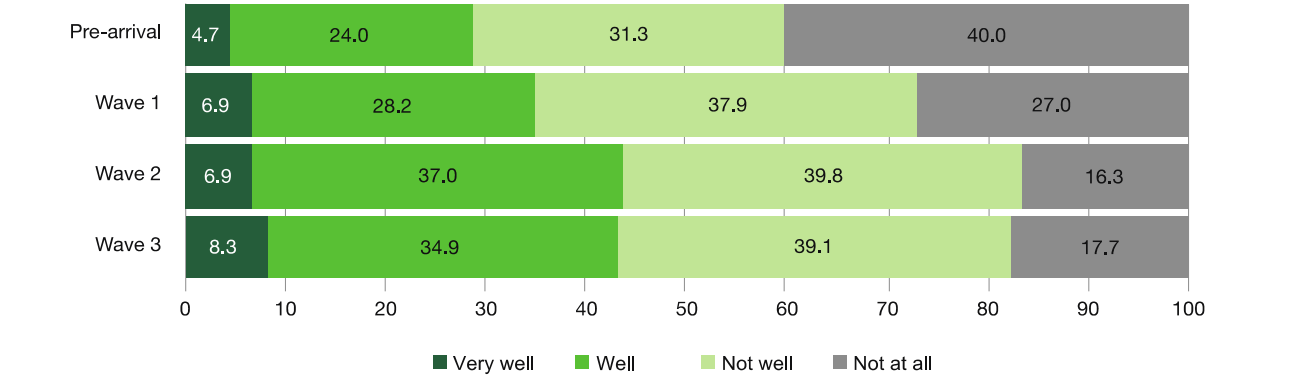
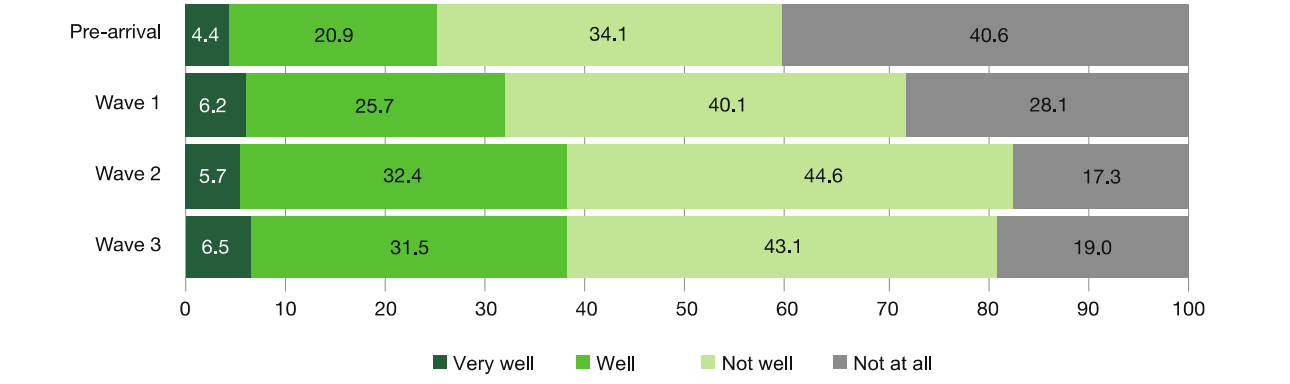


Figure 5.6: Self-reported level of English writing ability across four time points (n=1 650), per cent



The mean age of respondents who are illiterate was 49 at wave 3 compared to 38 for those who have at least some literacy in one or more language. Only one respondent who was illiterate could understand English well or very well in wave 3. Table 5.1 shows that respondents who are illiterate are also more likely to be women, are more likely to have a

high risk of mental health problems and to not have had English lessons in any wave. They were also less likely to have worked prior to arrival or be working at wave 3.

English skills

In addition to information about languages spoken by respondents prior to arrival, BNLA collects information about respondents' English language proficiency. By wave 3, BNLA data on English proficiency had been collected for four time points. Respondents were asked to assess their proficiency prior to arrival in addition to their proficiency at the time of each interview. Respondents were asked about English proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing.

Language proficiency in BNLA is self-reported. It should be noted that self-ratings are not a measure of actual language performance but rather a reflection of how a learner feels about their language proficiency at the time of being asked (Yates et al., 2015). Examples exist of respondents reporting lower levels of skills in subsequent waves, which may reflect how they see themselves compared to those around them.

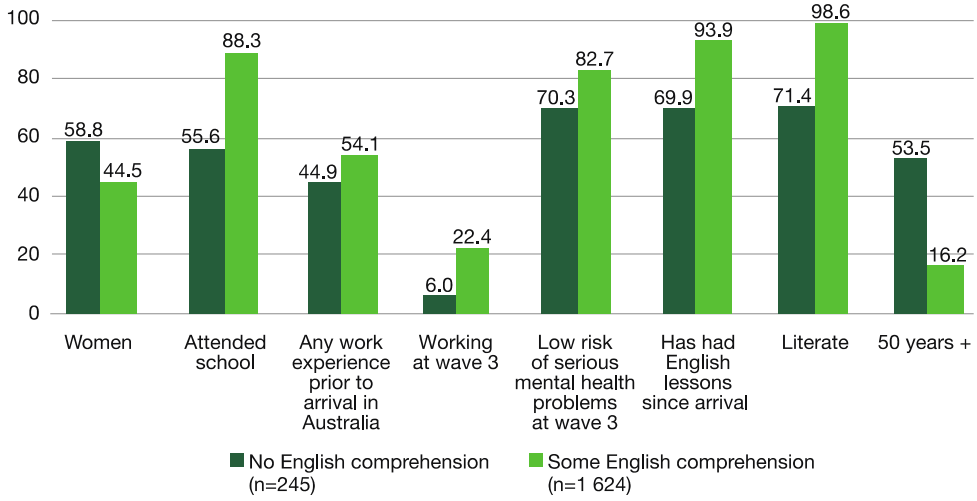
Figures 5.3 through 5.6 show the proportion of respondents by level of self-reported proficiency in English understanding, speaking, reading and writing across the four time points. The figures show proportions for the balanced panel and only include responses for those who provided a specific response for all four time points for each question.

By wave 3, 44.8 per cent of respondents who participated in all waves reported understanding English well or very well. The figures show a general trend of improvement across the four time periods in all areas of English proficiency with the greatest increases occurring between the first three time periods. The difference between waves 2 and 3 in the proportions of those understanding English well or very well (40.7 per cent and 44.8 per cent respectively) is significantly different but this is not the case for the other three English skills, possibly indicating a plateauing effect.[9] Prior to arrival, respondents were more likely to rate their literacy skills (writing and reading) higher than their oral skills (speaking and understanding spoken English) but by wave 3 their oral skills were similar to their literacy skills. The proportion with good or very good oral skills in wave 3 is more than double that of pre-arrival rates. While the proportions reporting good or very good English literacy skills increased between waves 1 and 3, the increase is more modest than it was for oral skills. In wave 1, 27.0 per cent of respondents reported not being able to read English at all. This decreased to 16.3 per cent in wave 2 before rising slightly to 17.7 per cent in wave 3.

In wave 3, 245 respondents (13.1 per cent) reported not being able to understand English at all. Figure 5.7 shows the characteristics of this group compared with respondents who said they could understand at least a little English.

In the group that had no English comprehension, 58.8 per cent were women, compared to the group with at least some English comprehension, of which 44.5 per cent were women. There is a considerable overlap between the group that do not understand English at all in wave 3 and those who are illiterate in all languages. Of those who could not understand English at all in wave 3, 71.4 per cent were literate compared to 98.6 per cent of those who understood English at least a little.

Figure 5.7: Characteristics of respondents by understanding of English, wave 3, per cent



Notes: The proportions shown for work experience in Australia and not having English lessons in any wave are based on respondents for whom there is a valid response in all waves. Low risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents

[9] The phenomenon of 'plateauing' in adult language learning often follows a period of improvement in learning. When learners 'plateau' their learning slows or stops for a period of time (Richards, 2008; Zhao Hong Han, 2004).

with scores over 19 are in this group. The 87 respondents who said in wave 1 that they did not take classes because their English was already good are excluded from the overall proportions who have taken English lessons since arrival.

"I am very happy but learning English is very hard."

Learning English

Along with other migrants, humanitarian migrants with less than Functional English[10] are eligible for up to 510 hours of free English language tuition through the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) to help them learn Functional English language and settlement skills to enable them to participate socially and economically in Australian society. Migrants must start tuition within 12 months of arrival and complete it within the first five years (Department of Education, 2015). From 1 July 2017, migrants with significant learning or other issues may also be eligible for additional English language support through AMEP sub-programs, including up to an additional 490 hours of tuition.

The Skills for Education and Employment (SEE) program (known as the Language, Literacy and Numeracy Program at the time of the wave 1 interview) provides language, literacy and numeracy training to eligible job seekers to help them participate more effectively in training or in the labour force. Eligible job seekers are entitled to up to 800 hours of free accredited training. Along with other job seekers, humanitarian migrants receiving income support are eligible for this program if they are registered as a job seeker with the Department of Human Services and are not studying full time to meet income support related mutual obligation requirements.

Humanitarian migrants may also access English language tuition through technical and further education (TAFE) institutions. In some cases, this is an AMEP course delivered by a TAFE institution. In other cases, this may include courses for which participants need to pay.

As humanitarian migrants, BNLA respondents were eligible for English language tuition upon arrival in Australia. More than three-quarters of respondents (77.9 per cent) had taken up this opportunity by the time of the wave 1 interview at which point 75.2 per cent of respondents had been in Australia less than six months. Table 5.2 shows whether respondents had studied English at wave 1.

Table 5.2: Whether respondents had studied English in Australia, wave 1

Response	**Number (n=2 364)**	**Per cent**
I am currently studying	1 714	72.5
Yes, but I am no longer studying	127	5.4
No, my English was already good	87	3.7
No (other reasons specified)	436	18.4

Of the 127 respondents who had studied English since arrival but were not doing so at the time of interview, 55 (43.3 per cent) had been in Australia for a year or more. Around half of those no longer studying indicated this was because they understood English very well or well. Of the 87 respondents who responded in wave 1 that they had not studied English as their English was already good, most (47 or 54.0 per cent) had been in Australia for at least a year. However, when this group was asked about their English proficiency in the wave 1 interview, 13 said they did not understand English well or at all.

By wave 3, participation in English language lessons was tapering off. Of the balanced panel[11], 71.9 per cent of respondents were studying at the time of their wave 1 interview, 53.1 per cent in wave 2 and 39.9 per cent in wave 3.

Reasons respondents did not study English at wave 1

Respondents who had not studied at all for reasons other than that their English was already good at the time of their wave 1 interview were asked if they planned to study in future:

- 80.0 per cent said they planned to
- 17.9 per cent said that they did not plan to

[10] Functional English is currently defined as International Secondary Language Proficiency Ratings Level 2 across all four skills — reading, writing, listening and speaking. From 1 July 2017, Functional English will be defined against the Australian Core Skills Framework.

[11] These figures include those who did not provide a specific response.

- 2.1 per cent gave a non-specific response.

Respondents who were not studying English were also asked to provide a reason in an open-ended question. Of the 436 respondents who were asked, more than half cited health conditions or caring responsibilities as reasons they were not studying. More than 10 per cent of respondents indicated in their free text response that they were already enrolled and waiting for a course to start. The remaining cited other reasons for not studying including feeling they were too old, transport or distance difficulties, not knowing they were eligible for lessons, being unsure how to organise them or feeling that illiteracy precluded them from learning.

"I am not learning English because I cannot read or write."

Overcoming obstacles to studying English

As a longitudinal dataset, BNLA provides the opportunity to examine the extent to which respondents were able to overcome the obstacles cited as their reason for not studying in wave 1. The data shows that some participants who were not able to study early on in the settlement period were able to do so by wave 3.

Most respondents (80.0 per cent) who had not started studying English at the time of the wave 1 interview said they intended to study in the future. However, of the 323 who responded in all waves, 46.4 per cent had not subsequently gone on to study in either of the subsequent waves, 32.8 per cent studied in one subsequent wave and 20.7 per cent had studied in both subsequent waves.

As reported above, respondents who were not studying English (for a reason other than that their English was already good) in wave 1 most commonly reported health problems, caring responsibilities and that they were waiting for a course to start as the reason. Of those who also provided a response in wave 2, 28.4 per cent of those with health problems, 46.3 per cent with caring responsibilities and 70.6 per cent who intended to start later had studied English since their wave 1 interview.

Women with young children

Women may delay learning English so they can settle their children in schools or care for family members.
The Empowering Migrant and Refugee Women study (De Maio et al., 2017) found that some women do not look to participate in English study until five years post arrival when the family as a whole is settled. In wave 1 of BNLA, there were 439 mothers of children 12 years of age or under[12] with 340 and 338 in waves 2 and 3 respectively.[13] This group of mothers can then be compared to other women and all men to examine whether the mothers have lower English class attendance and English comprehension outcomes. In wave 1, mothers of young children comprise 40.2 per cent of all female respondents. For this analysis, the age range for other women and men comparison groups has been restricted to match the age range of mothers (18 to 54 years). Table 5.3 shows the proportion of mothers studying English at each wave compared with other women and men 18 to 54 years of age. It also shows the proportion in each category who studied in all three waves.

Table 5.3: Mothers who had studied English compared with other women and men 18 to 54 years of age, per cent

Studied English in	Mothers	Other women	Men	Total
Wave 1	72.0	87.9	84.8	82.6
Wave 2	62.5	66.2	54.7	59.0
Wave 3	57.3	65.9	52.6	57.1
All waves	27.5	39.3	24.8	28.5

Note: Mothers Wave 1 n=339 Wave 2 n=340 Wave 3 n=338; Other women Wave 1 n=451 Wave 2 n=407 Wave 3 n=411; Men Wave 1 n=1,109 Wave 2 n=950 Wave 3 n=848. The 87 respondents who in wave 1 said they did not have any English classes because their English was already good are excluded from the analysis presented in this table. 'Mothers' are defined in this analysis as women who live in a household in which the youngest member is 12 years of age or under and are the principal respondent or spouse or partner of the principal respondent. In waves 1 and 2 'mothers' are defined based on the age of the principal respondent's youngest child listed on the visa application, not necessarily the principal respondent's youngest child in the household. The

[12] As the data only includes information about relationship to the principal respondent, this definition may exclude women with young children who are not the spouse or partner of the principal respondent (for example, the principal respondent's sibling). Similarly, it may include women who are the partner of the principal respondent but not the biological mother of the child.

[13] Some women will move in or out of this group when children become older than 12 years of age or when babies are born.

number of mothers therefore may be slightly underestimated due to children not on the visa application being born or joining the household by the time of the wave 1 or 2 interview. From wave 3, 'mother' is determined based on the age of the youngest child in the household. The question in wave 1 referred to the period since arrival and the in wave 3, since the previous interview.

In wave 1, mothers were significantly less likely than both other women and men to be studying (or have been recently studying) English. In wave 2, there is no statistically significant difference between mothers and other women but both are significantly more likely to be studying than men. In wave 3, other women are significantly more likely than both mothers and men to be studying but there is no statistically significant difference between men and mothers. Other women were significantly more likely than mothers and men to have studied English at all three waves but there was no significant difference between men and mothers.

"I should look after my kids."

The patterns for English comprehension outcomes are different from those of English class participation. In all three waves, mothers were less likely to understand spoken English well or very well than both other women and men and there was no significant difference between other women and men.

Table 5.4: Mothers who understand English well or very well compared to other women and men aged 18 to 54, per cent

	Mothers	Other women	Men	Total
Wave 1	21.7	36.6	40.7	35.6
Wave 2	27.1	45.7	48.7	43.7
Wave 3	31.5	51.6	51.0	47.1

Note: Mothers Wave 1 n=339 Wave 2 n=340 Wave 3 n=338; Other women Wave 1 n=451 Wave 2 n=407 Wave 3 n=411; Men Wave 1 n=1,109 Wave 2 n=950 Wave 3 n=848.

Reasons for stopping English language lessons

Respondents who said they had been studying English but were no longer studying at the time of their interview were asked the reasons for this (Table 5.5). Respondents could select multiple responses but in both waves more than 80 per cent selected only one.

Table 5.5: Reasons for stopping English language lessons, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Reason stopped lessons	Wave 1 (n=110)	Wave 3 (n=666)
English improved	10.9	10.1
Completed the course	21.8	19.7
Work	30.9	29.9
Family	23.6	29.0
Transport difficulties	9.1	4.2
Cost	0.9	Not asked
Class wasn't helpful	16.4	Not asked
Experienced discrimination	2.7	Not asked
Other	Not asked	22.5

Work and family were the most common reasons for stopping English tuition in both waves. It is also interesting to note the large proportion that selected 'other' which suggests that there may be important reasons for leaving study which are not captured by the options provided.

How respondents are learning English

BNLA respondents who said that they had studied English in Australia were asked about which programs or methods

they had used (Table 5.6). The questions were repeated in wave 3 and included two new answer options.

Table 5.6: Methods of learning English, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Program	Wave 1 (n=1 821)	Wave 3 (n=1 411)
Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP)	63.2	60.9
Skills for Education and Employment (SEE)	1.8	7.7
Secondary school	8.3	9.2
TAFE	21.4	26.3
Self-taught	Not asked	3.0
Family or friends	Not asked	1.6
Other	7.5	5.7

Note: Some AMEP providers are also TAFEs so it is not possible to identify the precise number of non-AMEP TAFE responses.

Most respondents received English tuition through AMEP and proportions were similar in both waves. The proportion of respondents learning English through the SEE program may be a result of their English proficiency being higher than Functional English, which means they were no longer eligible for AMEP or respondents having used up their allocation of hours through AMEP.

Principal respondents who undertook AMEP, TAFE and SEE programs were further asked about how helpful they had found them. Table 5.7 shows the combined responses of the three programs for waves 1 and 3.

Table 5.7: Helpfulness of formal English language programs, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Helpfulness of program	Wave 1 (n=1 014)	Wave 3 (n=788)
Very helpful	51.0	43.8
Quite helpful	28.2	33.8
A little helpful	17.7	19.9
Not at all helpful	3.2	2.5

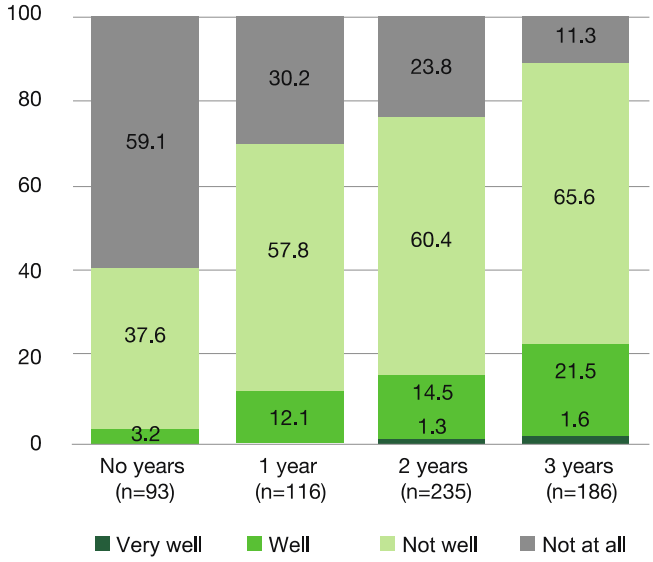
Most respondents who rated the helpfulness of their English language program had found it quite or very helpful. The changes between waves were not significant.

Of the 1,617 respondents for whom there is information in all waves about whether they were studying English, 31.2 per cent had studied English in all three waves, 43.3 per cent in two waves, 16.2 per cent in one wave, and 9.3 per cent had not studied English in any wave. The data can be further used to examine the relationship between having English lessons and the self-reported English proficiency of humanitarian migrants.

Figure 5.8 shows the difference in self-reported levels of understanding English by the number of years respondents had studied English. In this analysis, respondents were considered to have studied English if they were studying at the time of their interview or said they had studied since the previous interview but were not currently studying. The results exclude those who had been in Australia for a year or longer at the time of the wave 1 interview as there is no information in the data about their prior learning in Australia.

Figure 5.8: Number of years studied English in Australia by proficiency in understanding spoken English in

wave 3 for respondents who did not understand at all pre-arrival (n=630), per cent



The figure shows a positive relationship between self-reported English comprehension and the number of years in which respondents studied English. The percentage of respondents who did not understand English at all in wave 3 decreased from 59.1 per cent of those who had not studied in any wave to 11.3 per cent of those who studied in all three waves.

Of the 1,646 respondents for whom there is English proficiency information in every wave, 97 (5.9 per cent) said they could not understand spoken English at all four time points. Of these, 49.4 per cent had not had English lessons at any wave and 24.7 had had English lessons at only one wave.

However, it should be noted that there is no information available in BNLA about the duration of study (for example, two months) or pace of learning (full time, part time, home tutor, online), all of which may have an effect on English proficiency outcomes.

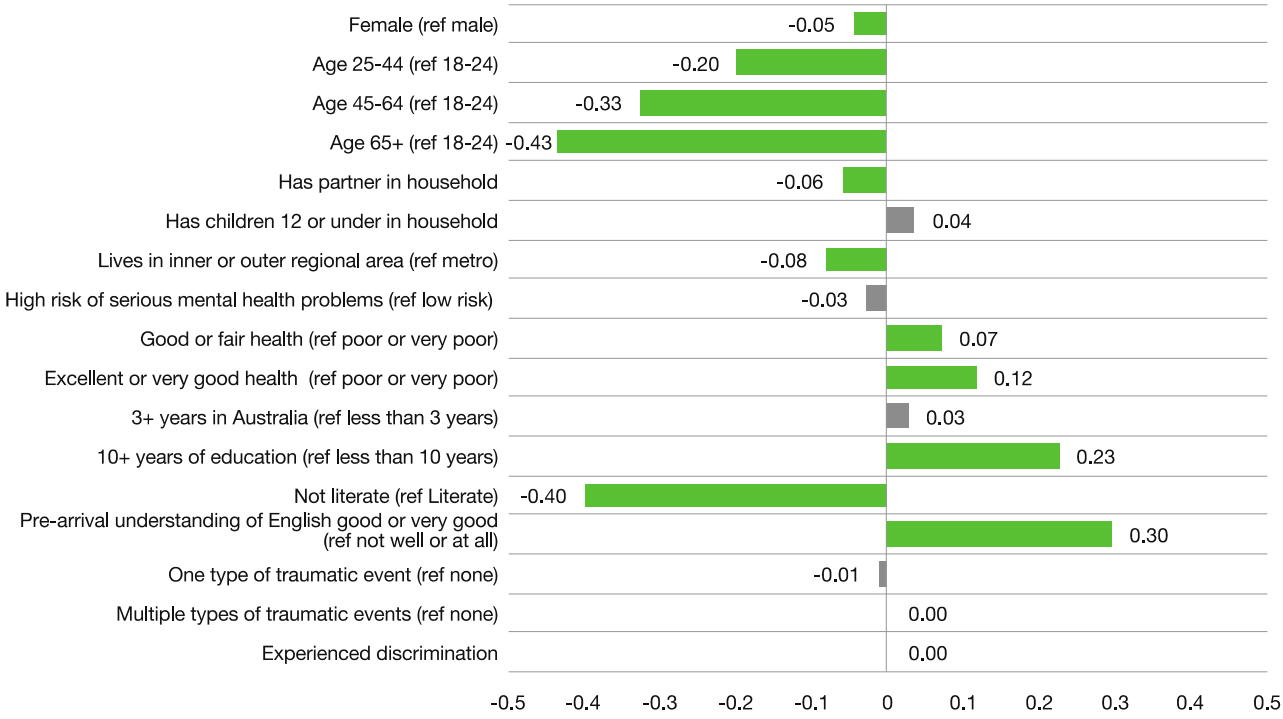
Factors associated with English proficiency in wave 3

Figure 5.9 reports the results of an analysis of factors which may have an association with English proficiency outcomes. For this analysis, English proficiency has been divided into two levels; respondents who said they could understand English ‘well’ or ‘very well’ and respondents who said they could understand English ‘not well’ or ‘not at all’ in wave 3. The model uses the understanding of English as a proxy for all four of the English language skills (understanding, speaking, reading and writing).

The figure shows the size and significance of the effect of particular characteristics on being able to understand spoken English well or very well in wave 3 when all characteristics are considered simultaneously. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a negative effect on English comprehension and bars to the right show a positive effect.

Figure 5:9: Factors associated with good or very good understanding of English, wave 3 (n=1 707), logistic

regression (marginal effects)



Notes: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. Pseudo R^2=0.3070. R isk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Literacy is defined here as being able to read and write in at least one of the languages spoken by the respondent. This is defined in greater detail on page 110. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared to those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

The figure shows that when all characteristics are considered simultaneously, being female, being in an older age group, having a partner in the household, living in a regional area and not being literate are all significantly associated with lower likelihood of speaking English well or very well in wave 3. Those who are not literate are 40 percentage points less likely to speak English well or very well than those who are literate. Compared to respondents 18 to 24 years of age, those 25 to 44 years of age are 19 percent points less likely, those 45 to 64 years of age are 33 per cent less likely and those 65 years of age or over are 43 percentage points less likely to understand spoken English well or very well. Respondents are more likely to understand spoken English well or very well if they have 10 or more years of education (23 percentage points more likely), and if they understood English well or very well prior to arrival (30 percentage points). Better health was also associated with better levels of English, with those who had good or fair health 7 percentage points more likely to understand English well or very well, and those with excellent or very good health 12 percentage points more likely to understand English well than with those poor or very poor health. Characteristics that did not have a statistically significant effect on better English comprehension were having children 12 years of age or under in the household, being in Australia for three years or longer, having a high risk of serious mental health problems, having experienced pre-arrival traumatic events and having experienced discrimination.

“The biggest problem for me in this country is accessing an interpreter.”

Interpreting assistance

In addition to relying on their own English language skills, humanitarian migrants have access to interpreting and translation assistance. Figure 5.9 shows responses in each wave for how often respondents could get interpreting assistance when needed. The figure shows proportions for the balanced panel.

Figure 5.10 shows an increase in the proportion of respondents who report not needing interpreting assistance between waves 1 and 3 (from 6.3 per cent to 10.7 per cent); however it also shows that in waves 2 and 3, more respondents said they could never get an interpreter when they needed one.

This information should be interpreted with caution as there is no corresponding information about the number of attempts made to access the services. In addition, not needing interpreting assistance does not necessarily mean that respondents had good levels of English. For example, of all respondents who had reported not needing interpreting assistance and for whom English proficiency information is available in wave 1 (n=157) 20.4 per cent also reported not understanding English well or at all (13.5 per cent of the men in the group and 31.1 per cent of the women). It is also

possible that the number who said they had not needed any assistance is overstated as respondents may have believed the question referred to formal services rather than from other people around them.

In waves 1 and 3, respondents who said they had been able to access interpreting assistance at least some of the time were then asked who had provided the assistance (Figure 5.11). Respondents could select multiple responses.

Figure 5.10: How often respondents could access interpreting assistance when needed by wave, per cent

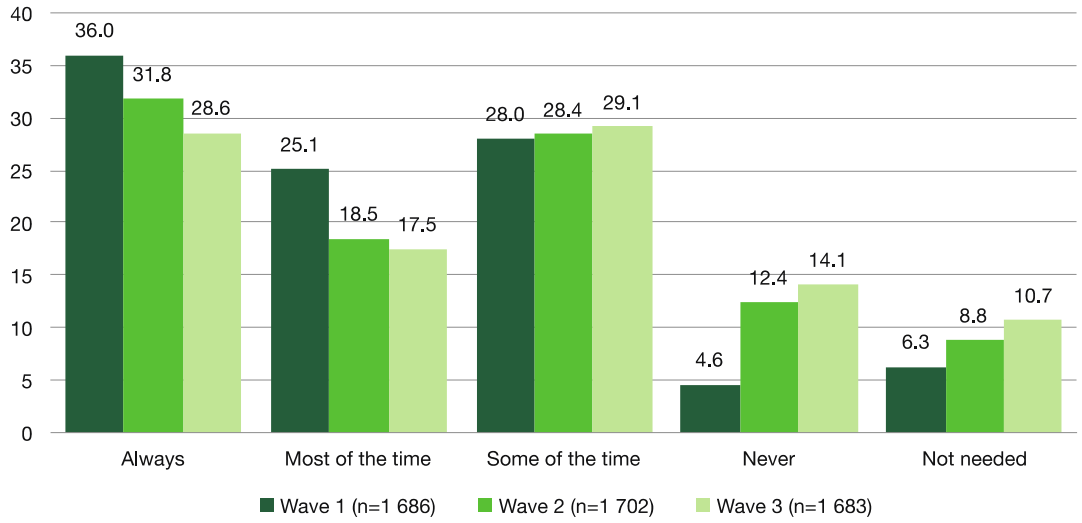
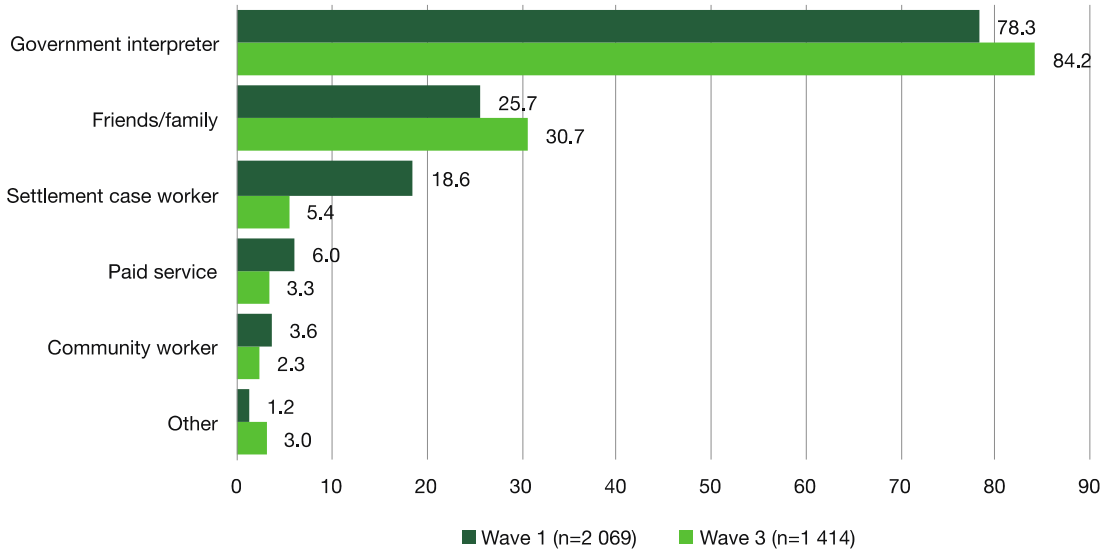


Figure 5.11: Interpreting assistance provider for those who were able to access interpreting service when needed by wave, per cent



Note: These questions were asked in relation to the time period since arrival in Australia in wave 1 and in the last 12 months in wave 3. Respondents could select multiple responses.

Table 5.8: Reason for not being able to access interpreting services, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Reason	Wave 1 (n=1 413)	Wave 3 (n=1 142)
I didn't know how to access an interpreter	27.2	18.5
Interpreter not available when I needed it	24.6	13.1
Interpreter not available in my language	13.5	10.6
I was told my English was too good to need an interpreter	10.8	22.7
I had to pay for the interpreter and it cost too much	3.6	1.7
Non-specific responses	33.7	39.2

Note: Respondents could select multiple responses.

Respondents who needed interpreting assistance were most likely to use government interpreting services. This may be because government services are available 24 hours a day and are free of charge to the user. When responses from waves 1 and 3 are compared, the biggest decrease is seen in interpreting assistance provided by the settlement case workers, presumably because by the time of the wave 3 interview, very few people in the sample were still receiving services from a settlement case worker.

BNLA respondents who had used interpreting assistance most commonly needed it to speak to people in government agencies (71.2 per cent in wave 1 and 61.3 per cent in wave 3) or to get medical help (68.0 per cent in wave 1 and 72.1 per cent in wave 3).

Respondents who were not always able to get access to interpreting assistance when they needed it were further asked about the reasons for not being able to access the service (Table 5.8). In both waves a large proportion chose to give a non-specific response.

In wave 1, the most common reason for not being able to get interpreting services was lack of knowledge about how to access services. In wave 3, being told their English was too good was the most common reason. It was also the only reason which showed an increase in the proportion of responses between wave 1 and 3. This may be a function of greater English proficiency perceived by service providers. The majority of this group consider themselves to both understand and speak English well or very well. However, around 20 per cent in both waves 1 and 3 of those who were told their English was too good said they could not understand English well or at all.

Key findings and observations

- Most BNLA respondents (90.7 per cent) speak more than one language.
- Around 5 per cent of respondents cannot read or write in any of the languages they speak. Following the trajectory of this group will be important in developing an understanding of how best to provide support.
- In wave 1, 27.0 per cent of respondents were not able to read English at all. This decreased to 17.7 per cent in wave 3.
- By wave 3, 44.8 per cent of respondents reported being able to understand English well or very well compared to 21.2 per cent prior to arrival. In addition, the proportion not understanding English at all dropped from 39.0 per cent prior to arrival to 12.3 per cent in wave 3.
- While men generally have greater English proficiency than women, characteristics other than gender play a more significant role in determining English comprehension outcomes in wave 3. These include age, health, literacy and pre-arrival education. Older migrants with limited education and literacy may need additional encouragement and support in seeking out opportunities to learn English.
- Most respondents undertook formal English classes in the period shortly after arrival but this tapers off over time. Work and family responsibilities were the main reasons.
- Some participants who were not able to take up English classes shortly after arrival were able to do so later. It is important that the opportunity to join an English class is still available once participants are through the early stages of settlement.
- Poor health and caring responsibilities play a major role in not taking in English classes.
- Participation in English classes is closely linked to greater proficiency in English.
- Nearly one-quarter of respondents who were not able to get access to interpreting services in wave 3 when they needed them said it was because they were told their English was too good.

CHAPTER 6

EDUCATION

Education

Along with the development of language skills, education and training is 'critical to preparing immigrants, and particularly their descendants, to be more successful and more active participants in society.' (Migration Policy Group, 2010)

The nature of the refugee experience can create complications with education. Many humanitarian migrants have experienced a disrupted education, some have lost qualification records, and education and training undertaken before resettlement may not be recognised by the host country (Organisation for Economic Development (OECD), 2015; OECDb, 2016).

Analysis of 2010 data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (Hugo, 2011) showed that compared to the general migrant population:

- a greater number of humanitarian migrants had never attended school
- a greater number had Year 8 level education or below
- fewer humanitarian migrants had completed Year 12 (matriculation).

Pre-migration education

The pre-migration educational background of respondents in BNLA varies widely from no formal education to a university degree. Overall, 16.0 per cent had never attended school and 16.2 per cent had a university degree or a trade or technical qualification. A significant gender difference exists, with women generally having lower levels of education than men (Figure 6.1). However, nearly one-third (31.9 per cent) of women had 12 or more years of education, a trade or technical qualification or a university degree.

Not surprisingly, a significant association exists between being literate in one or more languages and level of education achieved. Those with a higher level of education reported better levels of literacy in at least one language. Of those who had no or low levels of literacy in all languages spoken, 98.1 per cent had less than 10 years of schooling compared to 49.3 per cent of those literate in at least one language. A strong association also exists between age and level of education, with older migrants more likely to have lower levels of education. Of respondents 45 years of age or older in wave 1, 28.0 per cent had never attended school and 7.3 per cent had a university degree compared to 12.0 per cent and 11.2 per cent respectively of those under 45 years of age.[14]

As Table 6.1 shows, pre-migration educational attainment of BNLA respondents varies with region of birth. The table shows the relative proportions of respondents attaining different levels of education by region of birth.
Educational attainment is grouped into three levels: less than 10 years of schooling; 10 or more years of schooling but no post-secondary qualifications; and a trade, technical or university qualification.

Figure 6.1: Level of education by gender, per cent

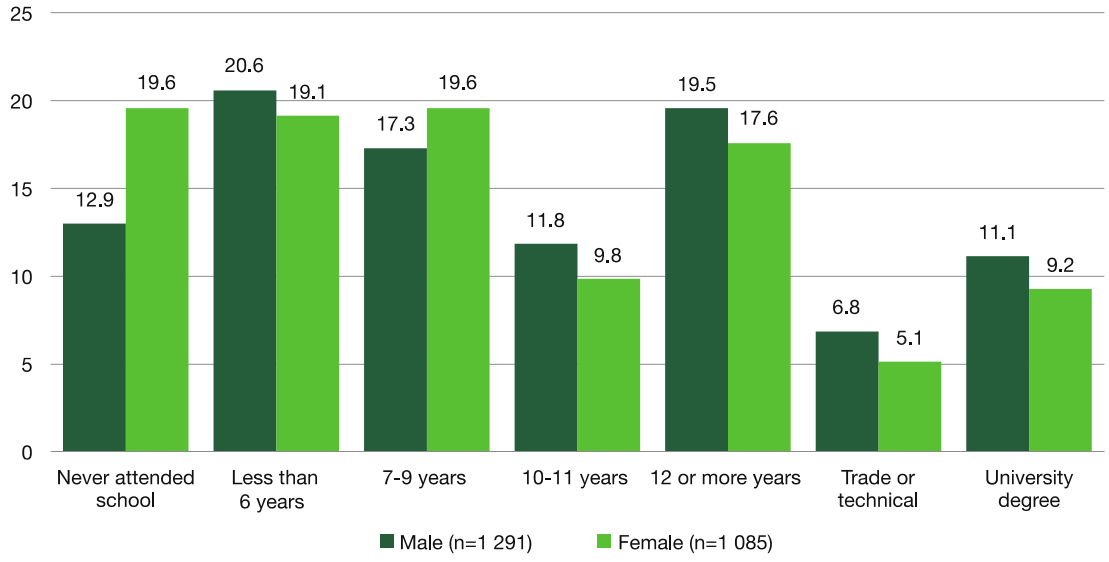


Table 6.1: Pre-arrival levels of education by region of birth, per cent

[14] This excludes adolescent respondents.

	0 to 9 years of schooling	10 to 12 years of schooling	Trade, technical or tertiary qualification
Central Asia (n=606)	84.2	12.9	3.0
Mainland South-East Asia (n=129)	57.4	30.2	12.4
Southern Asia (n=214)	46.7	43.5	9.8
Middle East (n=1 264)	43.8	34.0	22.2
Sub-Saharan Africa (n=93)	40.9	50.5	8.6
Total (n=2 376)	**54.3**	**29.5**	**16.2**

Note: Some respondents are not categorised within reported regions.

Respondents from the Middle East[15] are the most likely to have a trade, technical or tertiary qualification and those from Central Asia are the most likely to have nine years or less schooling. Respondents from Sub-Saharan Africa are the most likely to have 10 to 12 years of schooling and the least likely to have lower levels of schooling but the proportions are not significantly different from Southern Asia for 10 to 12 years of schooling or from the Middle East for the less than 10 years of schooling.

Table 6.2 shows the proportions of men and women from different regions who had never attended school.

Table 6.2: Never attended school by region of birth and gender, per cent

	Men	Women	Total
Central Asia (n=606)	32.5	47.8	38.9
Mainland South-East Asia (n=129)	15.6	16.9	16.3
Southern Asia (n=214)	13.5	37.0	21.5
Middle East (n=1264)	3.7	7.3	5.5
Sub-Saharan Africa (n=93)	0.0	12.8	6.5
Total (n=2 376)	**12.9**	**19.6**	**16.0**

Note: Some respondents are not categorised within reported regions.

For each region of birth, women are more likely to have never been to school although the difference is not significant for Mainland South East Asia.[16]

Recognition of qualifications in Australia

Respondents who brought evidence of overseas qualifications may have undertaken to have these qualifications formally recognised. Of the 386 wave 1 respondents who had university, trade or technical qualifications, 134 (34.7 per cent) had applied to have their qualifications assessed in Australia.

Table 6.3 shows the outcomes for those who had sought recognition of their educational qualifications. Respondents who did not have their qualifications assessed or who were waiting on assessment results at the time of their wave 1 interview were asked about such assessment again in wave 3. By their wave 3 interview, 156 of the 386 (40.4 per cent) of the original sample who had technical or tertiary qualifications had sought to have these assessed. Of these, 30 had received full recognition and 22 partial recognition. Forty had had their qualifications assessed but not recognised in

[15] Regions were chosen based on having large enough samples and are grouped according to the Standard Australian Classification of Countries. In BNLA, Central Asian respondents are all from Afghanistan, Mainland South-East Asian respondents are from Myanmar, Southern Asian respondents are from Bhutan, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, Middle Eastern respondents are from Iran, Iraq and Syria and Sub-Saharan African respondents are from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea and Ethiopia.

[16] Chi 2 test

Australia.

Table 6.3: Educational qualifications recognised in Australia, number

	Wave 1 (n=134)	Wave 3 (n=66)
Yes fully recognised	20	10
Yes, partially recognised	10	12
Not yet, currently being assessed	55	11
No, assessed but not recognised	25	15
Not specified	24	18

Of those who had not sought recognition of their qualifications, the most commonly cited barriers were not knowing how to do so (32.9 per cent in wave 1)[17] and not having paperwork to support the claim (23.6 per cent in wave 1). Another reason was that recognition was not needed for work (19.0 per cent in wave 1 and 26.1 per cent in wave 3).

Although the numbers are small, there is some indication that formal recognition of qualifications is significantly associated with being in paid employment. Of the 30 respondents who had fully or partially recognised qualifications in wave 1, 6 (20.0 per cent) were in paid employment compared to 27 out of 336[18] (8.0 per cent) of respondents aged between 18 and 64 years who had qualifications but had not had them recognised. However, in wave 3, proportions in employment for groups with and without recognised qualifications are virtually the same (around 25 per cent).

"Just to recognise qualifications would facilitate getting work easily. I am a medical doctor and I have difficulty getting my qualifications recognised."

Respondents with a university degree attained before arriving were significantly more likely to be in employment in wave 1 than those with lower pre-arrival levels of education. This difference was also found in wave 3. In wave 1, 10.6 per cent of respondents with a university degree[19] had a job compared with 6.1 per cent of those who did not. At wave 3, 28.7 per cent with a university degree were in paid employment compared to 20.6 per cent who did not have a university degree.[20] However, proportionately more onshore visa holders than offshore visa holders had university degrees (23.5 per cent compared to 7.7 per cent) and at the time of the wave 1 interview had been in Australia for longer and had better levels of English.

Studying in Australia

Study aspirations

Humanitarian migrants often have educational opportunities in Australia that were not available to them prior to migration. For some, educational and career goals take shape once educational opportunities present themselves in an environment free from threat (Fozdar & Hartley, 2012; Labour & Immigration Research Centre, New Zealand, 2012).

"I'm hoping to go to university and pursue my career in the media."

In wave 1, principal respondents were asked if they planned to undertake training or study apart from English language classes. Two-thirds who provided a specific response (66.6 per cent) said they planned to take up such educational opportunities with only a small, non-significant difference between women and men. Of the 927 principal respondents who responded to the question about the highest level of education desired: 4.1 per cent said they would like a secondary school qualification[21]; 21.7 per cent said they would like to attain their language, literacy and numeracy certificate; 46.1 per cent said they were interested in a trade, technical qualification or a diploma; and 28.2 per cent said they were interested in a university degree. Of the 261 respondents interested in studying for a degree, 58.6 per cent

[17] Non-specific responses were included in the proportions in this analysis.

[18] Seven respondents who did not have their qualifications recognised in Australia did not provide a response about their working status. They were excluded from quoted proportions.

[19] Includes only working age respondents (18 to 64 years of age).

[20] Includes only working age respondents (18 to 64 years of age).

[21] Only principal respondents were asked this question. They were all adults.

responded in all three waves. Of this group of respondents, 9.8 per cent had undertaken a university course in one of the three years, 5.9 in two of the three years and 2.0 per cent in all three years.

Two-thirds (66.6 per cent) of respondents who intended to study in wave 1 (and provided a specific response in both waves), reaffirmed their desire to do so in wave 3. This adjustment in numbers may have been influenced by several factors. Other studies have discussed what might impact on a new migrant or humanitarian entrant's capacity and motivation to pursue goals. Factors include: English proficiency; pre-migration educational level; age; family responsibilities; economic imperatives; lack of recognition of formal qualifications; and length of time for re-training (Yates et al., 2015; Fozdar & Hartley, 2012; and Labour & Immigration Research Centre, New Zealand, 2012).

Study other than English

As shown in the section about English language learning, many respondents were engaged in English language classes shortly after arrival. However, BNLA respondents were also furthering their education in other areas (Table 6.4). Overall, 14.9 per cent were studying or had studied in Australia in wave 1. In wave 3, 20.9 per cent were studying or had studied since the wave 2 interview. Among the 1,704 respondents who responded in all waves, 669 (39.3 per cent) had undertaken some study by the time of the wave 3 interview.

Table 6.4: Respondents studying (other than English) by gender, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1		**Wave 3**	
Whether studying at time of interview	**Male (n=995)**	**Female (n=875)**	**Male (n=975)**	**Female (n=730)**
Yes, currently studying	12.0	11.3	14.1	20.0
Yes, commenced but stopped	1.1	0.7	3.2	3.1
Yes, completed	1.6	1.4	7.5	4.7
No	85.3	86.6	75.3	72.2

Note: Restricted to respondents who responded in both waves.

At wave 1, women and men were equally likely to be studying, but by the time of the wave 3 interview, the proportion of women had increased to a larger extent than for men. This difference was significant.

Across the three waves, 181 respondents said they had stopped their studies before completion. These respondents were asked why and given multiple options (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Reasons for stopping studies across three waves

Reason for stopping	**Per cent (n=181)**
Work	36.5
Family	24.9
Language	11.0
Discrimination	0.0
Other	24.3

In looking at educational uptake by migrants and humanitarian entrants, other studies have found that those who arrive with educational qualifications are more likely to pursue additional education post-arrival. The Australian Survey Research Group study (2011) found that the vast majority of humanitarian arrivals in the study who had little or no pre-migration education did not study after arrival. Just under 50 per cent of those who arrived with trade or university qualifications did. Yates et al. (2010) found that those with higher levels of English and professional backgrounds could better articulate career goals and pathways required.

BNLA respondents with a higher level of pre-arrival education were more likely to be studying or had studied subjects other than English at wave 1 and 3 interviews. In wave 1, 15.7 per cent of respondents who had 12 or more years of

education, a trade or technical qualification or a tertiary degree were studying or had studied in Australia, compared to 12.5 per cent with lower levels of education. This pattern was even more pronounced in wave 3 — 36.2 per cent of those with a higher level of education were studying or had studied since their previous interview, compared to 21.3 per cent of those with a lower level of education.

Those who had studied or were studying or training at the time of interview were asked about courses or training (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6: Types of courses undertaken by respondents, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Type of course	Wave 1 (n=264)	Wave 3 (n=530)
Secondary school	25.4	15.5
Work experience	22.7	11.5
Short course	21.2	24.2
Trade or technical qualification	15.5	33.6
University degree	12.5	9.2
Paid traineeship	9.1	Not asked
Other	Not asked	12.3

Note: Respondents who did not specify a type of course were excluded from results.

The number of respondents undertaking an educational course doubled between waves 1 and 3. The proportion of people undertaking study other than English increased from 11.0 per cent in wave 1 to 28.0 per cent in wave 3. A few respondents undertook more than one type of study or job training in any given wave, most commonly work experience in conjunction with another course in wave 1.

Apart from secondary school, work experience courses were the most commonly undertaken form of education in wave 1. In wave 3, these were overtaken by courses for trade or technical qualifications. University courses were the least likely to be taken up. This is perhaps not unexpected given the English language and educational pre-requisites and duration of university study. However, while the proportional share decreased between waves 1 and 3, the number of respondents taking a university course increased from 33 in wave 1 to 49 in wave 3.

Secondary school take up is correlated with age. Of the 203 respondents aged 18 years or under in wave 1, only 10 said they were not engaged in any studies, and four did not provide a response. The rest were studying English (186 respondents) and/or undertaking other studies (56 respondents, of them 46 in secondary school). Engagement of youth and children in school is further explored in the section on youth and children.

Some adults had also taken up secondary studies. Of the 67 respondents doing so in wave 1, 21 (31.3 per cent) ranged in age from 19 to 57 years. In wave 3, 45 of the 82 respondents in secondary studies (54.9 per cent) were adults.

Key findings and observations

- BNLA respondents had a diverse range of pre-arrival education levels — 16.0 per cent had never attended school and 16.2 per cent had a tertiary degree or trade or technical qualification.
- Women were more likely than men to have lower levels of education. This may have an impact on building English and other skills and seeking employment, however, the proportion of women undertaking study other than English at the time of the wave 3 interview was greater than that of men (12.5 per cent and 8.2 per cent respectively).
- Only a small number of respondents with overseas qualifications have had them formally recognised in Australia, however, for this small group, indications are that having formally recognised qualifications was significantly associated with being in paid employment.
- Principal respondents were keen to take up educational opportunities other than English classes. At wave 1, 66.6 per cent said they planned to take up study other than English. Of this group, two-thirds re-affirmed at wave 3 the desire to study.
- Overall, 14.9 per cent of BNLA respondents were studying or had studied a course other than English in Australia in wave 1. In wave 3, 20.9 per cent were studying or had studied since the wave 2 interview.
- BNLA respondents with a higher level of pre-migration education (12 or more years, trade or technical qualification or tertiary qualification) were more likely to be undertaking or have undertaken study other than English at waves 1

and 3 (15.7 per cent and 36.2 per cent respectively). Future waves of data will continue to contribute to the picture of who is interested in studying post-arrival and at what point in the settlement trajectory this might be undertaken.

- In wave 1, apart from secondary school courses, work experience courses were the most commonly undertaken. In wave 3, courses for trade or technical qualifications were most prevalent.
- Small numbers of adults are taking up secondary studies: 21 in wave 1 and 45 in wave 3.

CHAPTER 7

EMPLOYMENT AND OTHER PARTICIPATION

Employment and other participation

The ability of migrants to participate in the workforce is an important determinant of their ability to earn an income, buy services and engage in other dimensions of society (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). The OECD notes that finding a job is fundamental to humanitarian migrants becoming part of the host country's economic fabric and helping them take their place in society as a whole (OECD, 2015). Previous research has shown that humanitarian migrants have a strong motivation to find work in their host country but face many barriers in securing employment (Hugo, 2011). Barriers can include the consequences of exposure to trauma on physical and mental health, disrupted education, lack of knowledge about the labour market, difficulties in having their skills recognised and low levels of English proficiency.

Proportion in paid employment

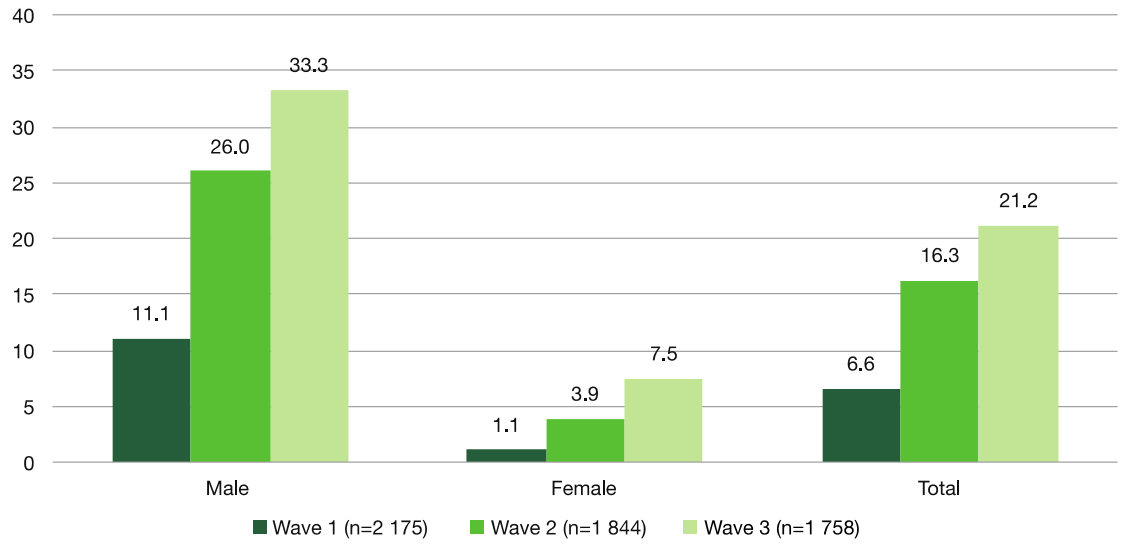
At the time of the first interview in wave 1, most respondents had been in Australia less than six months and are likely to have been primarily concerned with establishing households and learning English. This meant that the number in paid work was low. The study asked respondents if they had done any paid work in the last seven days in a job, in a business or on a farm. Of all respondents in wave 1, 145 or 6.0 per cent said they were in paid employment. By wave 2, this had more than doubled to 302 (15.0 per cent of all wave 2 respondents) and it increased further by wave 3 to 377 (19.9 per cent of all wave 3 respondents).

Consistent with the general Australian population it is reasonable to expect that not all respondents will be actively seeking employment, including those studying full time (secondary or tertiary education), those who are retired and some parents with young children.

The employment-related analyses include respondents between the 18 and 64 years of age, regardless of whether they were in the workforce. This slightly reduces the number in paid employment but increases overall proportions. Figure 7.1 shows a steady increase in the proportion of respondents in employment at the time of interview, from 6.6 per cent (143) in wave 1 to 16.3 per cent (300) in wave 2 and to 21.2 per cent (373) in wave 3.

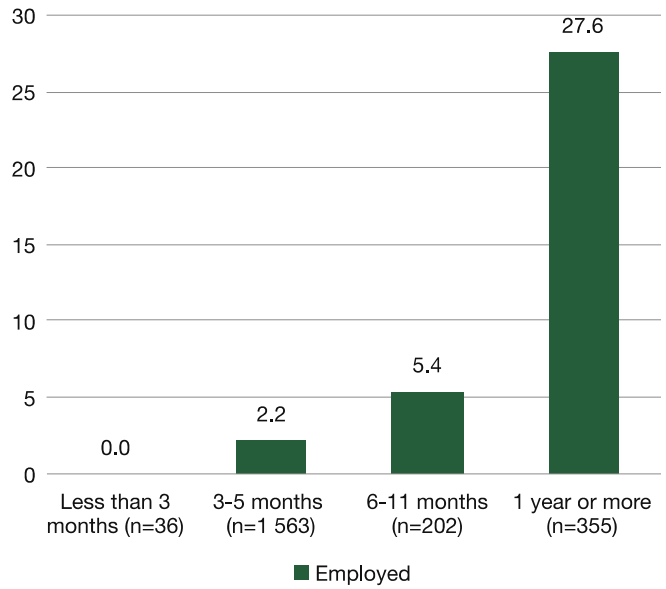
Figure 7.1 shows that women were much less likely to be working than men at each wave. However, women comprised a growing proportion of those employed — increasing from 7.7 per cent of all those in paid employment in wave 1, to 10.7 per cent in wave 2 and to 16.6 per cent in wave 3.

Figure 7.1: Paid employment by gender and wave, per cent



Note: Includes all respondents 18 to 64 years of age.

Figure 7.2: Paid employment by length of time in Australia, wave 1, per cent



Note: Includes all respondents 18 to 64 years of age.

Figure 7.2 shows that, at the time of interview, respondents who had been in Australia for at least a year had much higher employment rates than those who had only been in Australia a few months. None of the respondents who had been in Australia less than three months had found employment at the time of the wave 1 interview. Respondents who had been in Australia between three and 11 months had very low levels of employment, noting that this accounted for most respondents. However, onshore visa holders who had been in Australia for some time before being granted a protection visa had much higher levels of employment.

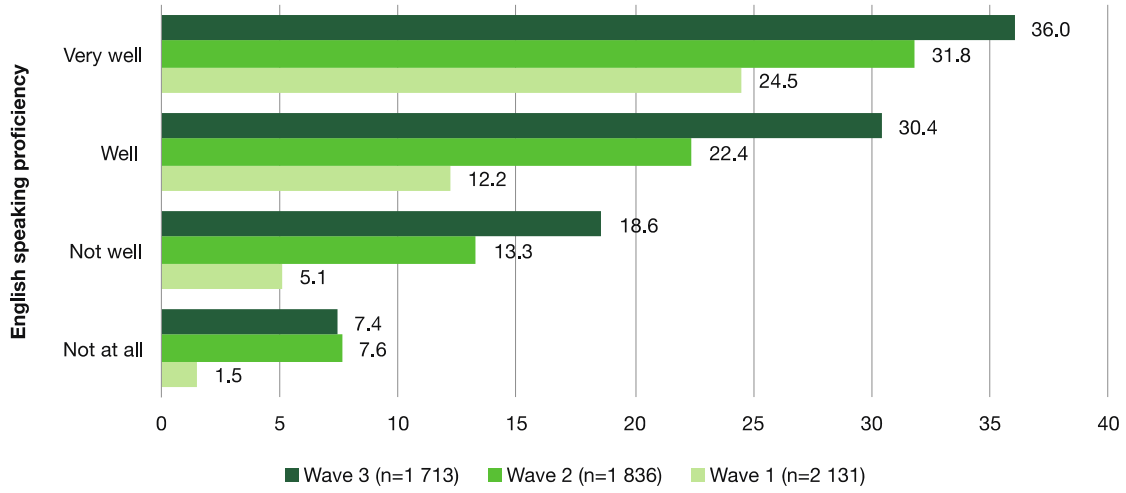
Figure 7.3 shows the relationship between respondents' ability to speak English and finding paid work across the three waves. Those with higher levels of English speaking proficiency had much greater rates of employment than those with lower levels.

Figure 7.3 demonstrates that time in Australia and English-speaking proficiency are important factors associated with being in paid employment. While respondents with better English proficiency were more likely to be in paid employment at each wave, even those who spoke little English were more likely to be in paid employment in wave 2 than in wave 1. However, those who did not speak English at all, were no more likely to be in paid employment in wave 3 than in wave 2, unlike groups with better English speaking proficiency.

Working in Australia

In wave 1, those who were in paid employment in the last seven days were asked about their job. Of the 143 respondents in paid employment in wave 1, 134 (93.7 per cent) were working in one job, three (2.1 per cent) were working in two jobs and the remaining six did not provide a specific answer. Of the 139 employed respondents who provided specific details about the length of time worked since arriving in Australia, 23.0 per cent per cent had worked for four weeks or less, 38.8 per cent had worked for between one and six months and 38.1 per cent had worked for more than six months. Of those who had worked more than six months, all but one had been in Australia for a year or longer.

Figure 7.3: Paid employment by English speaking ability across, by wave, per cent



Note: Includes all respondents 18 to 64 years of age.

Most respondents in paid employment at the time at wave 1 were working on a casual basis. By wave 3, this proportion had decreased and those in permanent employment had increased (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Type of employment, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Employment type	Wave 1 (n=143)	Wave 3 (n=373)
Casual basis	62.2	42.9
Permanent/ongoing basis	17.5	25.2
Fixed-term contract	6.3	14.2
Self-employed	5.6	11.5
Other	4.9	4.3
Non-specific response	3.5	1.9

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

The number of hours worked per week ranged from two to 100 hours at wave 1 with a median of 35 hours per week. One self-employed respondent who had lived in Australia for three or more years[22] reported working 100 hours a week. The median number of hours worked in subsequent waves was higher, with 38 hours in wave 2 and 37 in wave 3. The ABS defines full-time work as 35 hours per week. Table 7.2 shows the proportion of respondents working part time, standard full-time hours and long hours per week in waves 1 and 3.

Table 7.2: Hours worked, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=123)	Wave 3 (n=336)
15 hours or less	17.9	17.3
16 to 34 hours	23.6	22.6
35 to 40 hours	40.7	47.0
41 hours or more	17.9	13.1

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

The proportion of respondents in paid part-time work decreased between waves 1 and 3 with a commensurate rise in the proportion working between 35 and 40 hours per week. However, there is not sufficient data in BNLA to determine if

[22] This respondent was an onshore visa holder.

respondents were satisfied with the number of hours they worked as only respondents who were dissatisfied with their job were asked why they were dissatisfied.

Table 7.3 shows that overall most respondents working in wave 1 were satisfied with their job and levels of satisfaction increased in wave 3. Those who were not satisfied were asked why. In wave 1, the top three reasons were that the job did not pay enough, have enough hours or did not use their skills or experience. The first two reasons given in wave 1 remained the most common reasons in wave 3 but the third most common reason was that respondents had to work too many hours.

Table 7.3: Level of satisfaction with job, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=129)	**Wave 3 (n=310)**
Very satisfied	13.2	21.0
Satisfied	62.8	64.8
Dissatisfied	18.6	11.6
Very dissatisfied	5.4	2.6

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

In wave 1, 11 respondents selected one reason for dissatisfaction, 11 selected two and the remaining 7 selected between three and five reasons. Of the 44 respondents who provided a reason in wave 3, 22 selected one, 13 selected two and the other 9 selected three or four.

“My dream is to find a good job in information technology.”

Principal respondents who said they were not in paid work at the time of the wave 1 interview were asked if they had participated in paid work since arrival in Australia. They were then asked about the length of time they had worked since arrival. Sixty-three respondents said they had worked but were not working at the time of their interview. Nearly three-quarters of these 63 respondents had lived in Australia for one or more years, 57 (90.5 per cent) were male and 44 (69.8 per cent) spoke English well or very well. Of the 63 respondents, 11 (17.5 per cent) had worked for less than a week and 22 (34.9 per cent) had worked for a total of more than 6 months. In wave 3, 87 respondents were not working at the time of interview but said they had worked in the previous 12 months. Of these 87 respondents, 35 (40.2 per cent) had worked between three and six months and 20 (23.0 per cent) between six and 12 months.

Looking for work

All respondents who were not in paid work at their wave 1 interview were asked if they had ever looked for work in Australia. In wave 1, 77.2 per cent not in paid employment said they had not looked for work and 22.8 per cent said they had. Of the 459 (22.8 per cent) who had looked for work, 346 (17.2 per cent of those not in paid employment) had done so in the last four weeks. In wave 3, the number of respondents who had looked for work in the last 12 months was 605 (34.4 per cent of all wave 3 respondents 18 to 64 years of age)[23] and 397 (22.6 per cent of all wave 3 respondents 18 to 64 years of age) had looked in the last four weeks.

Principal respondents who had a job or had looked for work in Australia in wave 1 were asked how they had looked for paid work since arrival. In wave 3, this was asked of respondents who had looked for work in the past 12 months. Table 7.4 shows the proportion of principal respondents who had used various ways to look for work.

Table 7.4: How principal respondents looked for employment, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=511)	**Wave 3 (n=436)**
Through family or friends	61.3	67.9
Contacted Centrelink	52.6	39.0
Contacted an employment agency	52.4	55.7
Contacted employers directly	45.4	56.7

[23] In wave 3, the question about looking for work was asked of all respondents, not just those not in paid employment.

	Wave 1 (n=511)	Wave 3 (n=436)
Through people from my religious/ethnic community	44.0	44.0
Through newspaper advertisements or internet	35.6	43.6
Through settlement case worker	21.7	Not asked
Through other community groups	17.6	27.5
Through school/where I study	14.3	22.2

Note*:* The reported proportions include respondents who were asked but chose to provide a non-specific response such as 'prefer not to say' or 'don't know'. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Table 7.5: Reasons respondents found it difficult to get a job, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Barriers to getting a job	Wave 1 (n=534)	Wave 3 (n=498)
Don't have Australian work experience	58.1	55.2
My English isn't good enough yet	53.7	58.0
Don't have the necessary skills or qualifications	36.5	36.7
Couldn't get a job in the same occupation I had overseas	30.3	28.5
No suitable jobs	18.0	31.7
Transport difficulties	14.6	11.6
Couldn't get an interview	13.7	Not asked
Discrimination	6.4	10.2
Hours were unsuitable	5.4	Not asked
Health reasons (physical or emotional)	4.5	9.8
Look after family	Not asked	11.6
Other	Not asked	7.0

Note*:* The reported proportions include respondents who were asked but chose to provide a non-specific response such as 'prefer not to say' or 'don't know'. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

In both waves, the most common way of looking for work was through family or friends. In wave 1 this was followed by use of formal agencies, however by wave 3 it was less common to use Centrelink and more common to contact employers directly. In both waves, more than 80 per cent of respondents used various ways to look for work with around 17 per cent using six or more ways.

Respondents who were in paid work or had looked for work in Australia were asked if they had ever found it hard to get a job since arrival. Those who said they had were asked what the reasons were (Table 7.5).

Lack of Australian work experience and English proficiency were the most often selected barriers to getting a job and these remained at similarly high levels in wave 3. Not having the necessary qualifications and not being able to get a job in the same occupation as they had had overseas remained at similar levels in waves 1 and 3. Discrimination and no suitable jobs became more prevalent in wave 3 than in wave 1. The proportion of respondents reporting health reasons making it difficult to get a job also increased in later waves.

In wave 3, 36.5 per cent selected only one barrier to getting a job and less than 16.5 per cent listed five or more.

Workforce status

The proportion of all working age adults in paid employment at the time of the wave 3 interview reflects only part of the story in relation to participation in society. As with the general Australian population, not all working age adults are in the

labour force or in paid employment. Other ways in which respondents may engage in Australian life include volunteering, studying, caring for family or a combination of these activities.

From the existing data, it is not possible to derive unemployment rates and workforce participation rates from BNLA that are comparable to official ABS labour force data. This is mainly due to differences between the questions asked in BNLA and those asked in the Labour Force Survey from which the ABS derives its data. However, additional questions in wave 3 provide an indication of whether respondents not in paid employment at the time of interview were unemployed or whether they considered themselves not to be in the labour force.

Table 7.6 categorises working age respondents (18 to 64 years of age) into three groups; those who had worked in the last seven days; those who had looked for work in the last four weeks; and those who had neither worked nor looked for work.

Table 7.6: Working status, wave 3, per cent

Working status	Men (n=934)	Women(n=824)	Total (n=1 758)
Working (n=373)	33.3	7.5	21.2
Looking for work (n=267)	19.1	10.8	15.2
Neither working nor looking for work (n=1 092)	46.6	79.7	62.1
Not specified (n=26)	1.1	2.0	1.5

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Table 7.7: Whether those neither working nor looking for a job would like a job, wave 3, per cent

Working status	Men (n=934)	Women (n=824)	Total (n=1 758)
Working (n=373)	33.3	7.5	21.2
Looking for work (n=267)	19.1	10.8	15.2
Neither working nor looking for work (n=1092) • *Wants a job (n=509)* • *Doesn't want a job (n=304)* • *Unsure if wants a job (n=264)* • *Not specified (n=15)*	46.6 *25.1* *9.7* *11.4* *0.4*	79.7 *33.4* *25.8* *19.2* *1.3*	62.1 *29.0* *17.3* *15.0* *0.9*
Not specified (n=26)	1.1	2.0	1.5

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Table 7.8: Reasons for not wanting to get a job by gender, wave 3, per cent

Reason	Male (n=86)	Female (n=210)	All (n=296)
Health (physical or emotional) *	69.8	51.9	57.1
My English is not good enough yet	43.0	40.0	40.9
Look after my family or home *	36.0	53.3	48.3
No Australian work experience	33.7	23.8	26.7
Don't have any skills or qualifications	29.1	22.9	24.7
Currently studying or wanting to study	14.0	11.4	12.2
Transport difficulties	5.8	6.2	6.1

Reason	Male (n=86)	Female (n=210)	All (n=296)
Childcare reasons *	1.2	10.5	7.8
Experienced discrimination when work previously	1.2	0.5	0.7

Note: Asterisks indicate where the proportions for men and women are significantly different (p<0.05). Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Overall, nearly two-thirds were not working or had not looked for work in the previous four weeks. Men were more likely to be working or looking for work. However, this is a crude measure and does not tell the whole story.

Greater detail is available through responses to a question about whether respondents who were neither working nor looking for work in the four weeks before interview said they wanted a job (refer to italicised lines in Table 7.7).

At wave 3, 65.4 per cent of respondents were working, looking for work or wanting to get a job. Overall, 17.3 per cent of all working age respondents did not want a job (9.7 per cent of men and 25.8 per cent of women).

Age is also associated with participation outcomes. Older working age respondents (41 to 64 years of age) were less likely to be working, looking for a job or wanting a job than respondents 18 to 25 years of age (50.6 per cent compared to 76.9 per cent). Of those 26 to 40 years of age, 73.0 per cent were working, looking for a job or wanting a job but this was not significantly different from the younger age group.

Of the 304 respondents who did not want a paid job, 296 provided one or more reasons. Table 7.8 shows the proportions selecting each reason by gender.

For the group as a whole, the most commonly cited reason for not wanting to get a job was health problems. This was more prevalent among men than women. The next most commonly cited reason concern was English proficiency but this was not statistically different for men and women. Looking after family or home was much more prevalent among the women. Just over half of the women asked this question had a child under the 15 years of age in the household. Not having any skills or qualifications or Australian work experience were reasons more likely to be given by men than by women for not wanting to get a job but the differences were not statistically significant.

Around half of the respondents — 50.0 per cent of men and 51.0 per cent of women — who did not want a job selected multiple reasons for this. Of those who selected only one reason, 77.4 per cent selected either ‘health’ or ‘looking after family or home’. Poor English skills tended to be included as one of multiple reasons.

Table 7.9 shows that respondents who did not want a job were much more likely to have experienced posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms, have a high risk of serious mental health problems and report poor or very poor health than the sample as a whole.

Table 7.9: Health characteristics of those who did not want a job compared to the whole sample, wave 3, per cent

	Did not want a job	Total sample
Experienced symptoms of PTSD	40.6	33.7
High risk of serious mental health problems	31.8	19.4
Poor or very poor health	36.5	17.3

Note: Did not want a job n=298-304; Total sample n=1,701-1,758. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Of all responding women in BNLA (n=1,092 in wave 1), 86.6 per cent were born in a country in a region listed by the International Labour Organization as having more than a 50 per cent gender gap in labour force participation rates in 2016 (International Labour Organization, 2016). The large gender differences in workforce participation reflect similar differences seen for work experience prior to arrival, educational background and English proficiency outcomes in BNLA. Future waves of BNLA include questions to determine the extent to which cultural background and personal expectations may influence women’s participation in the workforce.

Other forms of participation in society

In addition to working, participation in society can include looking for work, studying and, in the case of migrants, learning English, all of which are discussed in previous chapters. Table 7.10 shows the proportions undertaking English or other study or training by the working status categories shown in tables 7.6 and 7.7. The far-right column shows the

proportions of all respondents undertaking English and/or other types of study.

Overall, respondents wanting a job or actively looking for work were the most likely to be engaged in some study. Respondents working or not wanting a job were the least likely to also be studying English. Those who were unsure about getting a job or not wanting to get one were significantly less likely to be engaged in study other than English than respondents in the other three workforce status categories to be engaged in study other than English.

"I would like to work for a trial period."

Women were more likely than men to be studying across all working status categories. However, the difference was significant only for those working (58.1 per cent of employed women were studying compared to 25.1 per cent of employed men) or looking for work (74.2 per cent of women compared to 52.8 per cent of men).

Participation can also comprise unpaid work such as volunteering, working in the family business or looking after the family or household. Volunteering not only provides respondents the opportunity to 'give back' to the community, it may also provide opportunities to practise English, learn new skills, make friends and connections, and demonstrate a commitment to working, all of which may assist settlement and may be useful when looking for paid employment. Principal respondents were asked if they undertook some of these unpaid activities (Table 7.11).

Table 7.10: English or other study or training by working status, wave 3, per cent

	Currently studying English (n=703)	**Currently doing other study (n=281)**	**Currently doing English and/or other study (n=817)**
Working	20.9	16.1	30.6
Looking for work	48.3	25.1	59.9
Wants a job	59.3	21.6	64.6
Doesn't want a job	27.3	6.3	29.9
Unsure if wants a job	42.0	9.5	46.6
Total	**41.0**	**16.4**	**47.6**

Note: Respondents are assumed to be not studying if they did not provide specific responses to questions about current study or training. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Table 7.11: Unpaid work activities, wave 3, per cent

	Men (n=732)	**Women (n=325)**	**Total (n=1 057)**
Unpaid work looking after family or household	32.7	51.4	38.4
Doing unpaid volunteer work	8.9	6.8	8.2
Doing unpaid work in family business	2.2	2.2	2.2
Other types of unpaid work	3.0	1.9	2.6
Any type of unpaid work	42.3	56.6	46.7

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Women were more likely than men to participate in unpaid work, but this was mainly driven by much greater proportions of women reporting unpaid work in the form of looking after family or home. Proportions reporting unpaid work (including work looking after family or household) refer only to principal respondents who are predominantly male and do not capture any of the secondary respondents, the overwhelming majority of whom are women (73.2 per cent in wave 3).

BNLA principal respondents were also asked how often in the last 12 months, they and/or the family members they live with had volunteered or helped others in their ethnic or religious community. As only of principal respondents answered in relation to themselves or their family members, there is some room for error in identifying those who had undertaken volunteering activities. Table 7.12 shows volunteering frequency in waves 1 and 3.

"I want to progress in my profession towards helping the community."

Table 7.12: Frequency of volunteering or helping others in ethnic or religious community by respondent or family members, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Frequency	Wave 1 (n=1 509)	Wave 3 (n=1 181)
Daily	1.1	1.0
Weekly	2.9	3.4
Monthly	4.3	5.3
A few times a year	12.9	17.4
Never	71.3	68.2
Non-specific	7.6	4.6

Table 7.12 shows that 21.1 per cent of households had at least one member who had volunteered in their ethnic or religious community in the last 12 months at the time of wave 1. This rose to 27.2 per cent in wave 3.

Despite a high proportion of respondents with characteristics that could contribute to non-participation such as poor health and family commitments, nearly two-thirds of BNLA respondents 18 to 64 years of age are working, looking for work or wanting to find work. In addition, many are engaged in activities that could improve their skills and opportunities for future participation in the workforce.

Current and pre-arrival occupations of respondents

This section examines respondents' work experience prior to and post arrival in Australia. Just over half the respondents 18 to 64 years of age at the time of their wave 1 interview (56.5 per cent) had work experience prior to arrival, although this differed greatly for women and men — 33.2 per cent of women in this age group had work experience prior to arrival compared to 75.5 per cent of men. Table 7.13 compares country of birth (for which there are sufficiently large numbers in the sample) and gender for rates of pre-arrival work experience.

Table 7.13: Pre-arrival work experience by country of birth and gender, per cent

	Men	Women	Total
Afghanistan (n=558)	85.8	37.6	66.3
Iran (n=255)	74.6	43.2	59.2
Iraq (n=837)	74.0	24.6	50.1
All respondents (n=2 162)	75.5	33.2	56.5

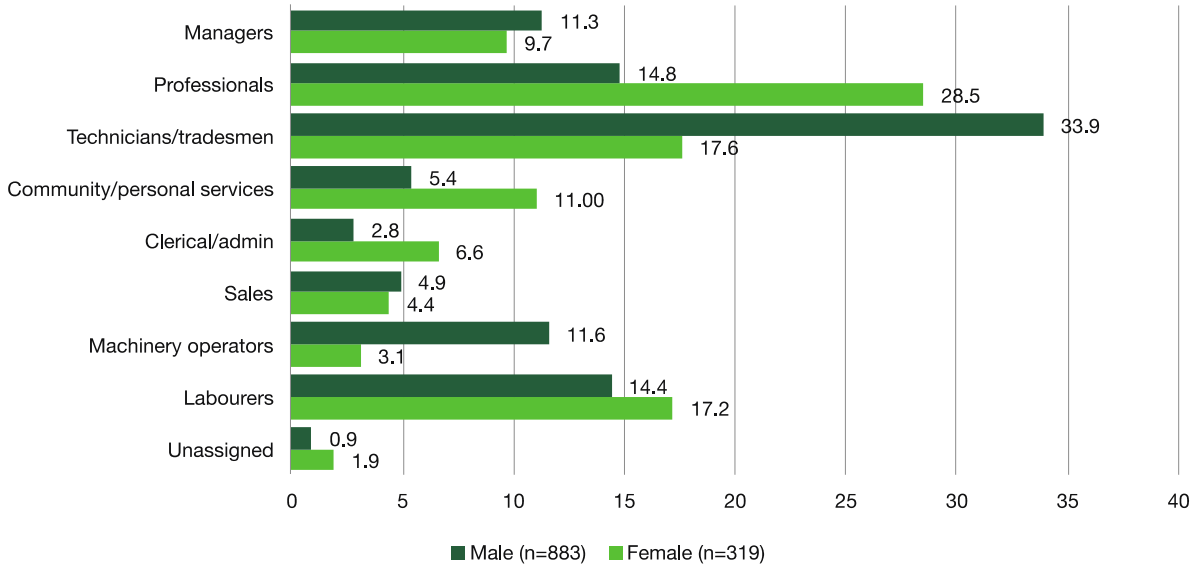
Note: Includes only respondents who were 18 to 64 years of age in wave 1 and specified pre-arrival work experience.

Respondents who had pre-arrival work experience were asked to specify their main occupation.[24] Figure 7.4 shows main occupation by gender for respondents 18 to 64 years of age at the time of the wave 1 interview. Prior to arrival in Australia, respondents most commonly worked as technicians or tradesmen followed by professionals and labourers.

While women comprise only 26.5 per cent of respondents with pre-arrival occupational details it is interesting to note that they were most likely to have worked as professionals while men were most likely to have worked as technicians or tradesmen. Once in Australia, 18 of the 131 men and 4 of the 91 women who had previously worked as professionals were working at wave 1. However, none had found work as professionals. In wave 3, of the 28 men who had previously worked as professionals and were in paid employment, 5 were working in a professional job. Of the 15 female respondents in paid employment at wave 3 who had professional jobs prior to arrival, 4 were working as professionals.

Figure 7.4: Pre-arrival main occupation by gender, per cent

[24] Occupation classifications are from the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations. For respondents with pre-arrival work experience whose main occupation was not specified or was listed as 'unassigned', main pre-arrival occupation was derived where possible based on the highest skill level job they had listed.



Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age at wave 1.

Table 7.14: Types of work done by respondents in Australia, by wave, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=130)	Wave 2 (n=285)	Wave 3 (n=373)
Managers	4.6	3.9	0.0
Professionals	3.8	3.9	4.6
Technicians/tradesmen	30.0	31.9	23.9
Community/personal services	10.0	10.2	10.5
Clerical/admin	0.8	1.1	0.5
Sales	0.8	4.9	3.5
Machinery operators	10.0	8.4	7.0
Labourers	33.1	35.8	37.8
Unassigned	6.9	0.0	12.3

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Table 7.14 shows the types of work BNLA respondents were doing at each wave. It does not use a balanced panel and the numbers are only for respondents between 18 and 64 years of age at the time of interview. Not all respondents who worked provided details of their type of work.

Across the three waves, respondents were most likely to be working as labourers followed by tradesmen or technicians. Table 7.15 compares types of work by men and women in wave 3.

Table 7.15: Types of work done by respondents in Australia by gender, wave 3, per cent

	Men (n=311)	Women (n=62)
Managers	0.0	0.0
Professionals	2.9	12.9
Technicians/tradesmen	27.0	8.1
Community/personal services	6.8	29.0
Clerical/admin	0.6	0.0
Sales	3.5	3.2

	Men (n=311)	Women (n=62)
Machinery operators	8.0	1.6
Labourers	37.9	37.1
Unassigned	13.2	8.1

Note: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Both men and women were most likely to be working as labourers. More than one-quarter of men were working as technicians or tradesmen and a similar proportion of women were working in the community and personal services sector. As discussed earlier, women were proportionately much more likely than men to be working in a professional job although actual numbers are low.

Impact of previous work experience on work in Australia

BNLA data enables examination of how respondents' previous work experience might have an impact on their type of work at various time points after arrival in Australia. Outcomes for those employed as labourers, machinery operators, tradesmen or technicians, professionals, or managers prior to arrival in Australia are compared to their later occupation outcomes in Australia.

Hugo (2011) identified a significant issue among humanitarian migrants, whereby among some groups, significant proportions were not able to obtain work commensurate with their overseas qualifications. BNLA data suggests that in the short-term respondents are not gaining employment in Australia at pre- migration skill levels, supporting this concept of 'occupational skidding'.

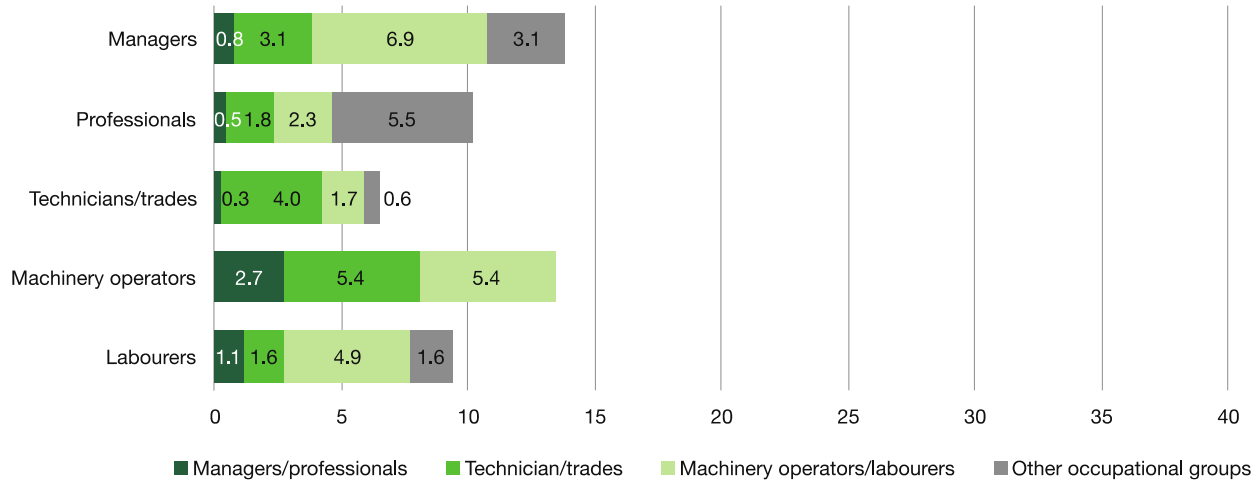
"I want to work as a doctor because I was working as a general practitioner in my home country"

Figures 7.5 to 7.7 show the occupational outcomes in Australia for each wave by the main occupation of respondents prior to arrival. The proportions are based on the number of respondents 18 to 64 years of age in the relevant wave and for whom there is information about pre- arrival occupation. The numbers of respondents are 995 in wave 1, 840 in wave 2 and 768 in wave 3.

Figure 7.5 shows that of the five main occupational groups, respondents with pre-arrival experience as managers or machinery operators were the most likely to be in paid employment in wave 1, although the proportions of those in these occupational groups who were in paid employment were still quite low (only 13.8 per cent and 13.4 per cent respectively). Machinery operators were as likely to find employment as tradesmen or technicians as they were to find employment as machinery operators or labourers. Respondents with previous experience as managers were predominantly working as machinery operators or labourers. In fact, managers were more likely to find employment as machinery operators or labourers than were respondents who had worked in these types of occupations before arriving.

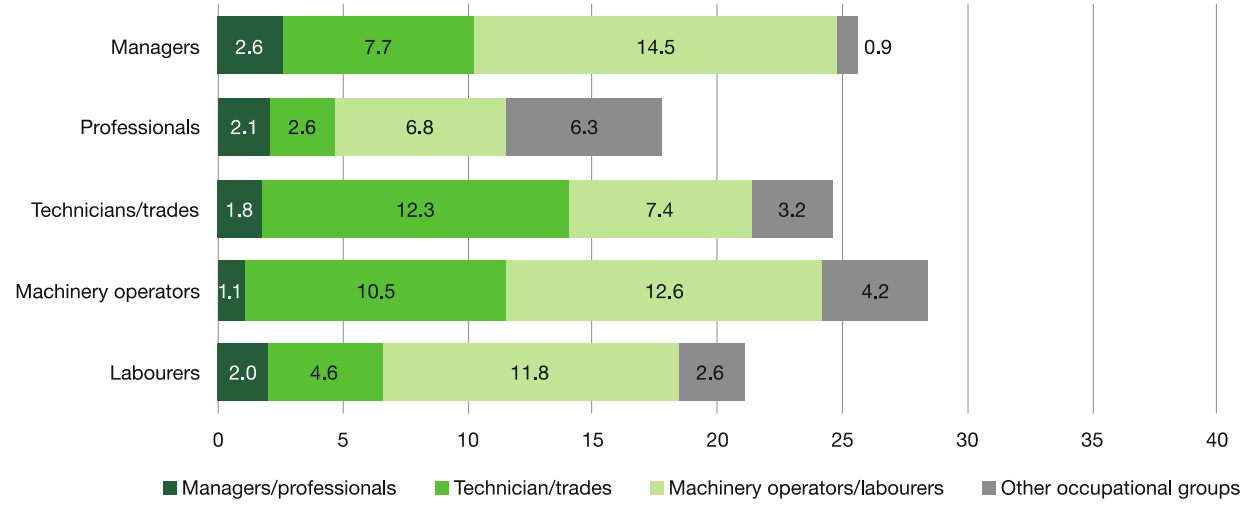
Figure 7.6 shows that proportionately, employment increased for all occupations between waves 1 and 2 but that machinery operators and managers were still the most likely to be employed in wave 2. By wave 3 (Figure 7.7), the proportions of each of these pre-arrival occupation groups in paid employment had again increased although this increase was smaller for machinery operators or labourers than for other occupational groups. On the other hand, nearly 40 per cent of managers were in paid employment although this remained primarily as machinery operators or labourers.

Figure 7.5: Paid employment by pre-arrival occupation and occupation in Australia, wave 1, per cent



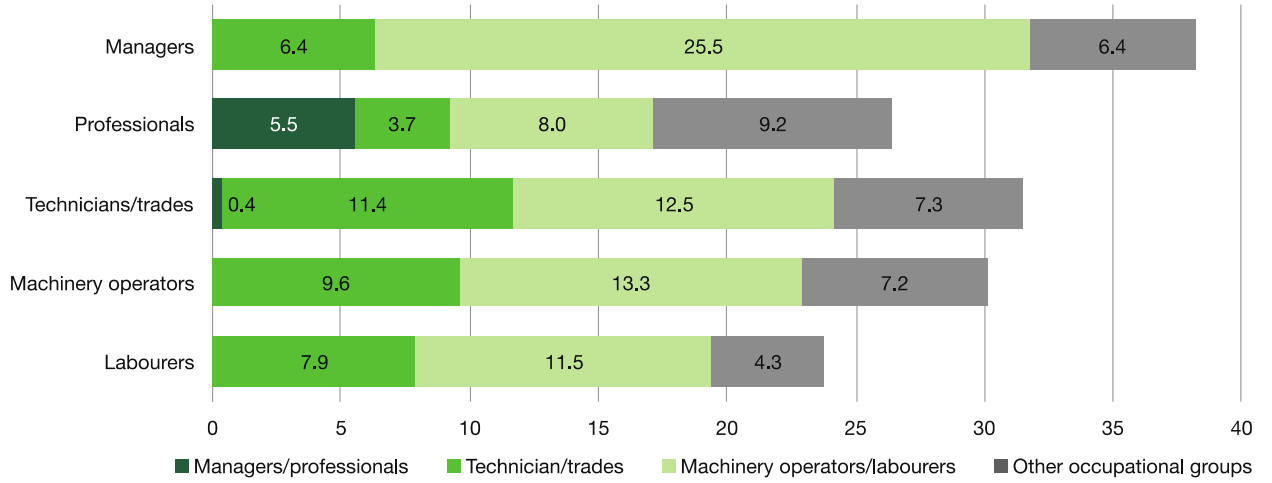
Note: Total n=998; working n=95. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Figure 7.6: Paid employment by pre-arrival occupation and occupation in Australia, wave 2, per cent



Note: Total n=840; working n=193. Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

Figure 7.7: Paid employment by pre-arrival occupation and occupation in Australia, wave 3, per cent



Note: Total n=768; working n=229: Restricted to respondents 18–64 years of age.

In all three waves, those who were tradesmen or technicians prior to arrival were the most likely to be employed in those same type of jobs after arrival with 14 of the 23 (60.9 per cent) respondents with that occupational background having

jobs in the same area in wave 1. This is similar in subsequent waves with 35 out of 70 (50.0 per cent) in wave 2 and 31 out of 86 (36.0 per cent) in wave 3.

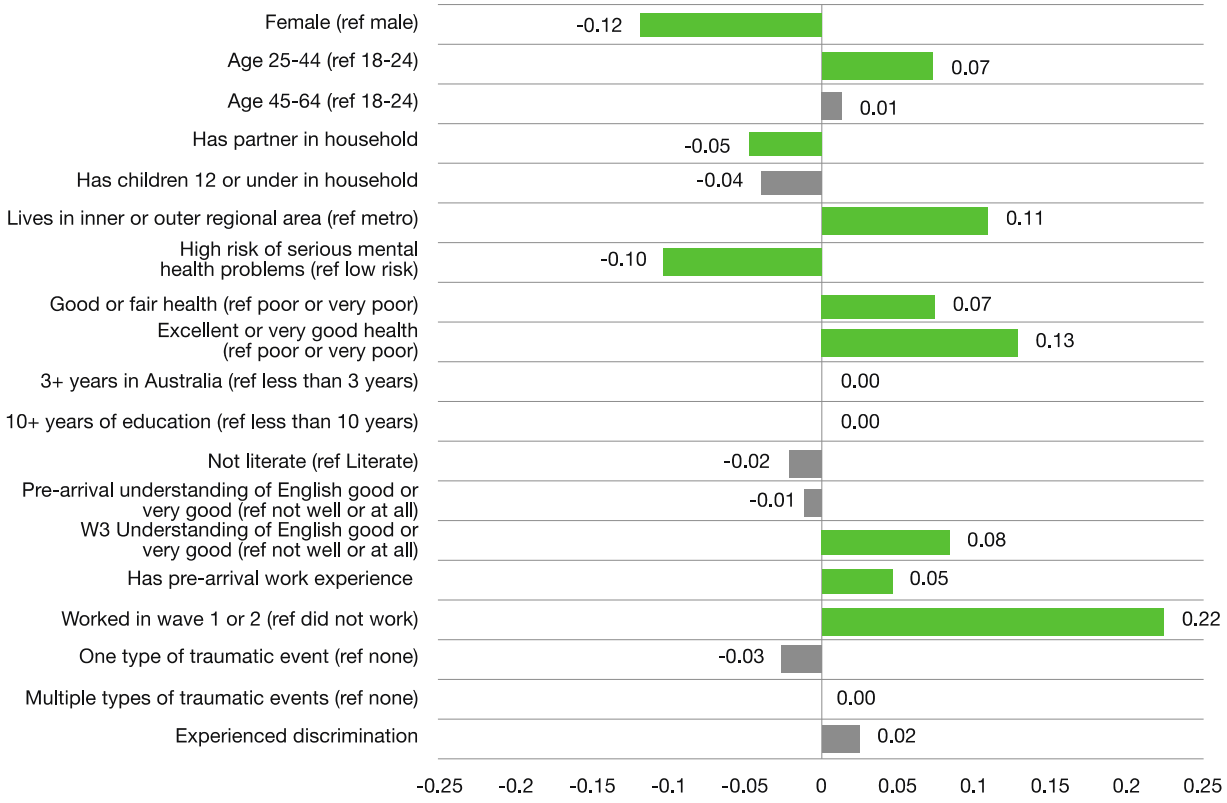
“I want to get my own business in a mechanics shop with my son as I have a certificate in mechanics”

Factors affecting likelihood of working in wave 3

Figures 7.1 to 7.3 show that respondents were more likely to be in paid employment if they had been in Australia longer, had better English-speaking skills and are male. In all waves, respondents who reported being in paid work were on average younger than those who were not.

Figure 7.8 shows the size and significance of the effect of particular characteristics on being in paid employment in wave 3 when all characteristics are considered simultaneously. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a negative effect on the likelihood of working and bars to the right show a positive effect. More detailed information about interpreting the table is on page 110.

Figure 7:8: Factors associated with being in paid employment, wave 3 (n=1 445), logistic regression (marginal effects)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. Pseudo R^2=0.3371. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Literacy is defined here as being able to read and write in at least one of the languages spoken by the respondent. This is defined in greater detail on page 110. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared to those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

The figure shows that when all characteristics are considered simultaneously, women are 12 percentage points less likely to be employed than men. Respondents with a partner in the household were 5 percentage points less likely to be employed than those with no partner and those with a high risk of serious mental health problems were 10 percentage points less likely to be employed than those with a low risk. Respondents 25 to 44 years of age were 7 percentage points more likely to be employed than those 18 to 24 years of age. Living in a regional rather than a metropolitan area was positively and significantly associated (11 percentage points) with being employed at wave 3. Those with fair or good health were 7 percentage points more likely to be employed than those with poor or very poor health and for those with excellent or very good health this increased to 13 percentage points. Understanding English well or very well (8 percentage points) and having pre-arrival work experience (5 percentage points) were also significant advantages. The biggest predictor of working in wave 3 was having worked in wave 1 or wave 2 with those who had worked 22 percentage points more likely to be working in wave 3 than those who had not worked. Pre-arrival experience of traumatic events, discrimination, educational level, literacy pre-arrival understanding of English and having children 12

years of age or under in the household were not significantly associated.

Key findings and observations

- Employment levels of all respondents 18 to 64 years of age increased each year from 6.6 per cent in wave 1 to 16.3 per cent in wave 2 and 21.2 per cent in wave 3.
- Employment was higher among men than women (33.3 per cent compared to 7.5 per cent at wave 3), although the contribution of female employment as a proportion of employment among the group increased in each wave.
- Job security improved with increased time in Australia with more respondents in permanent or ongoing jobs and fewer in casual jobs over time. By wave 3, 25.2 per cent of respondents in paid employment had permanent jobs compared to 17.5 per cent of those in paid employment at wave 1.
- In wave 3, 36.4 per cent of respondents were working or looking for work, and another 29.0 per cent wanted to find work but were neither working nor looking for work at the time of interview.
- Women were more likely to report not wanting a job than men. There are many reasons for this including looking after children and the home and lack of previous work experience.
- More than half the respondents who reported not wanting a job reported health problems as the reason.
- Nearly half of all principal respondents were in unpaid work.
- Overall, 47.6 per cent of respondents were engaged in study with those who wanted a job or were actively engaged in looking for work the most likely to be studying.
- In waves 1 and 3 the most common way of looking for work was through family and friends.
- Respondents with pre-arrival experience as managers were most likely to get a job but not necessarily in managerial positions.
- Lack of Australian work experience and poor English proficiency were the main reasons respondents found it difficult to get a job.
- Having previous Australian work experience was the most important factor determining the likelihood of working in wave 3. Other factors associated with an increased likelihood of working in wave 3 were good English comprehension, having good health, living in a regional area and having pre-arrival work experience.
- Being a woman, having a high likelihood of serious mental illness and having poor or very poor health were significantly associated with a lower likelihood of being in paid employment at wave 3.
- The BNLA data suggests that in the short-term respondents are not gaining employment in Australia at pre-migration skill levels. It will be important to look at future employment patterns for BNLA respondents.

CHAPTER 8

INCOME AND FINANCIAL STRESS

Income and financial stress

Permanent humanitarian migrants are eligible for income support payments upon arrival in Australia (offshore visa holders) or upon being granted their permanent residency visa (onshore visa holders). These payments are provided as financial support until they become financially independent. As discussed in previous chapters, many respondents were engaged in activities other than paid employment shortly after arrival with the proportion in paid employment increasing over time.

Sources of income

As recently-arrived humanitarian migrants, many BNLA households when interviewed in wave 1, relied on government payments as their main source of income. While all respondents were asked about their main source of income, only responses from the principal respondent are reported to avoid double counting within households.

Figure 8.1 shows that the proportion of principal respondents depending on government payments as their main source of income declined from 88.0 per cent in wave 1 to 67.1 per cent in wave 3. At wave 1, 10.2 per cent of principal respondents reported their main source of income was their own wage or that of their spouse, partner or parent. This figure increased across waves to 29.7 per cent by wave 3.

Respondents were asked if they received specific government payments and could select as many responses as applied (except for 'none'). Table 8.1 shows the types of payments and proportion of respondents receiving them. Some were unsure of the exact nature of the government payments they were receiving with 5.6 per cent saying 'don't know'.

Table 8.1: Government payment types, wave 1, per cent

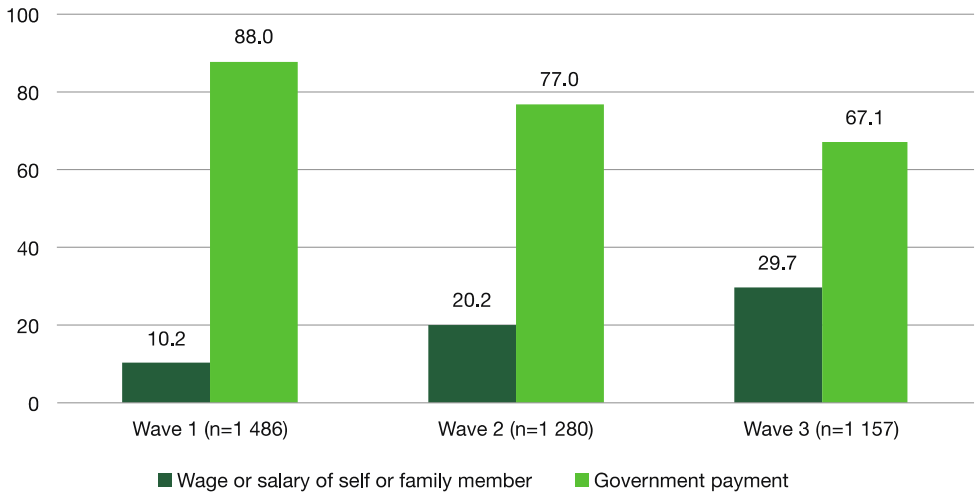
Government benefit	Principal respondents (n=1 509)
NewStart allowance/unemployment benefits	69.6
Family assistance	12.0
Parenting payment	4.2
Youth allowance	2.8
Carer payment/carer allowance	2.4
Age pension	1.9
Disability payments	1.3
Special benefits	0.7
Other	1.1
None	9.8
Not specified	6.7

By far the most common payment received was NewStart allowance or unemployment benefits (69.6 per cent).

It is important to note some limitations of BNLA data relating to family incomes. While some data is collected on the amount of income respondents received, it is not possible to use this data to estimate the amount of income and benefits received by humanitarian migrant families in BNLA, for several reasons. First, not all household members participate in the survey, and some responses are not specific making it impossible to calculate household income. Second, information is only collected about income from government payments and wages. While these are the two most common sources of income, some respondents received income from other sources not specified in the data.

"No one wants to rent me a place because I don't receive enough money"

Figure 8.1: Main source of income for principal respondents by wave, per cent



Financial stress

Financial stress cannot be measured simply by assessing income, given that an individual's financial circumstances, including their cost of living, is unique to them. Factors vary between individuals and households, including where respondents live, how many dependants they are supporting, how much debt they are in, and their financial management skills. BNLA respondents face the added complexity of learning to use a new currency in an unfamiliar economy and deciding what is value for money.

One measure of financial stress is the impact of being short of money. In BNLA this is assessed through questions about events arising because of a shortage of money. These questions are also asked in the HILDA survey, which means financial stress for this sample of humanitarian migrants can be compared to that of the general Australian population.

Table 8.2 shows the proportion of respondents in the two surveys that had experienced each type of financial stress at least once in the time period. However, some differences between the two datasets need to be noted, including the time periods to which the responses refer. HILDA data used in Table 8.2 was collected in 2013 so it aligns with the collection of wave 1 BNLA data. In HILDA, questions about financial stress are asked for the period between the beginning of the year and the interview (in most cases eight to 10 months since interviews took place from August to October). In BNLA, questions were asked for the period since arriving in Australia which in most cases was three to six months at wave 1.[25] In BNLA, questions were asked only of principal respondents whereas in HILDA they were asked of individual respondents. Some differences in results may be due to differences in the characteristics of the two samples such as the proportions of men and women and age profiles. Data from HILDA is weighted so proportions represent the Australian population. Non-specific responses are excluded for both surveys.

The table shows two very noticeable differences in the financial stress experiences of BNLA respondents and the Australian population as a whole. The first is that BNLA respondents are more likely to experience each type of stress. The second is that in HILDA the most commonly experienced type of stress reported was not being able to pay the bills on time whereas in BNLA it was unable to heat (or cool) the home. Even so, a larger proportion of BNLA respondents than HILDA respondents had difficulty with paying the bills.

Another way to examine the extent of financial stress among these humanitarian migrants is to examine the number of types of stress experienced. Figure 8.2 compares BNLA principal respondents with HILDA respondents aged 18 years or over in terms of the numbers of types of financial stress.

Table 8.2: Reported experience of types of financial stress in 2013 in BNLA and HILDA, per cent

Financial stress type	BNLA principal respondents	HILDA
Were unable to heat (or cool) the home	25.4	3.1
Could not pay gas, electricity or telephone bills on time	18.3	12.4
Sought assistance from a welfare or community organisation	15.0	3.7

[25] In subsequent waves it was asked in respect of the previous 12 months.

Financial stress type	BNLA principal respondents	HILDA
Could not pay the mortgage or rent on time	12.1	5.7
Went without meals	8.2	3.5
Pawned or sold something because needed cash	5.7	4.9

Notes: BNLA n=1,426-1,464; HILDA n=14,261-14,318. In BNLA, the reference period for experiencing these events is since arriving in Australia, in most cases three to six months at wave 1. In HILDA the reference period is the time since the beginning of the year and time of interview, in most cases eight to 10 months. HILDA excludes responses from anyone under 18 years of age.

Figure 8.2: Respondents experiencing multiple types of financial stress in 2013 in HILDA and BNLA, per cent

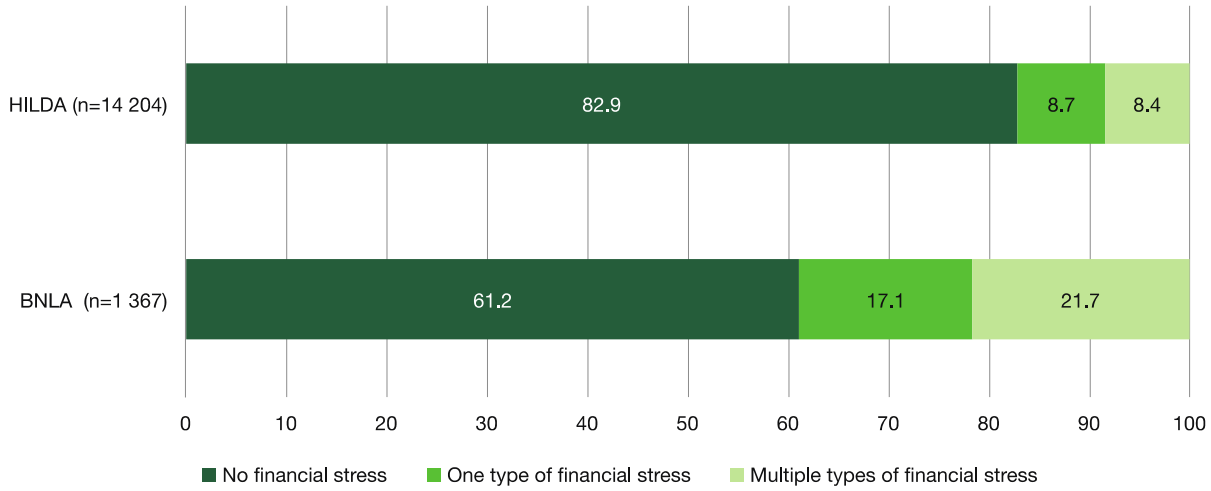


Figure 8.2 highlights that nearly 40 per cent of BNLA principal respondents experienced financial stress in 2013 compared to around 17 per cent of HILDA respondents.

One likely difference between BNLA respondents and the general population is the high percentage of BNLA families that relied on government benefits as their main source of income at wave 1.

Information on financial stress was also collected in wave 3, making it possible to see if levels of financial stress decreased. Table 8.3 compares the proportion of principal respondents who reported each type of stress in waves 1 and 3.

The prevalence of some types of financial stress increased between waves while others decreased. The largest increase was in the proportion of those reporting not being able to pay bills on time.

Figure 8.3 shows the proportion of principal respondents experiencing multiple types of financial stress in waves 1 and 3. It shows that a higher proportion of respondents were experiencing multiple types in wave 3 than in wave 1.

Table 8.3 and Figure 8.3 suggest little change in the overall financial stress burden experienced by BNLA respondents despite the decrease in the proportion reliant on government benefits. There was no significant difference in the proportion of respondents reporting one or multiple types of financial stress depending on their main source of income in wave 1. However, in wave 3 those relying on government benefits were significantly more likely to experience multiple types of financial stress compared to those whose main source of income was wages or salaries.

Another potential source of financial stress for humanitarian migrants is the obligation or desire to provide financial assistance to family and friends overseas. This question was asked of principal respondents and of those who responded to the question in wave 1, 20.5 per cent said they had sent money to family or friends overseas since arriving in Australia. In wave 3 this had risen to 30.8 per cent in the previous 12 months. Table 8.4 compares the level of financial stress by whether respondents sent money overseas in the two waves.

Table 8.3: Financial stress of BNLA principal respondents, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Financial stress	Wave 1	Wave 3
Were unable to heat (or cool) the home	25.4	22.2

Financial stress	Wave 1	Wave 3
Could not pay gas, electricity or telephone bills on time	18.3	27.7
Sought assistance from a welfare or community organisation	15.0	19.1
Could not pay the mortgage or rent on time	12.1	13.9
Went without meals	8.2	7.0
Pawned or sold something because needed cash	5.7	7.1

Note: Wave 1 n=1,426-1,464; Wave 3 n=1,163-1,169

Figure 8.3: BNLA respondents experiencing multiple types of stress, waves 1 and 3, per cent

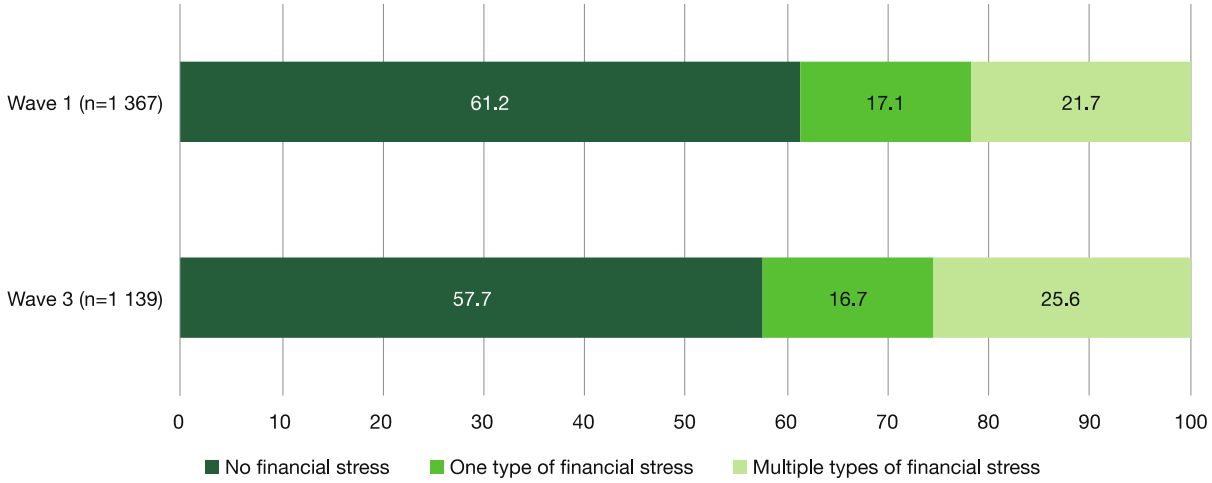


Table 8.4: Experience of financial stress by whether BNLA principal respondents sent money overseas, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Experience of financial stress	Wave 1			Wave 3		
	Sent money overseas (n=287)	Did not send money overseas (n=1 056)	Total (n=1 343)	Sent money overseas (n=344)	Did not send money overseas (n=762)	Total (n=1 106)
No financial stress	58.5	61.6	60.9	68.3	52.8	57.6
One type of financial stress	15.3	17.7	17.2	14.0	17.8	16.6
Multiple types of financial stress	26.1	20.7	21.9	17.7	29.4	25.8

Of the respondents who sent money overseas in wave 1, 58.5 per cent reported having experienced no financial stress, 15.3 per cent reported one type of stress, and 26.1 per cent had experienced multiple types of financial stress. In wave 1, 75 principal respondents reported sending money overseas and experiencing multiple types of financial stress. Of these, 28.0 per cent (21 respondents) reported sending money regularly (at least once a month) while most reported sending it a few times a year or on special occasions.

While the overall proportion of respondents sending money overseas increased between waves 1 and 3, a higher proportion of these respondents had experienced no financial stress (68.3 per cent) with another 14.0 per cent experiencing one type. Of the 61 respondents who reported multiple types of financial stress and sending money overseas, 25 sent it regularly and 31 a few times a year or on special occasions.

Another potential source of financial stress for some humanitarian migrants is repaying loans for costs incurred in travelling to Australia. People coming to Australia on an offshore humanitarian migrant visa have their travel costs to

Australia paid for by the Australian Government but some may have incurred costs to travel to the country from which they travelled to Australia. Table 8.5 shows that, of those who answered, nearly 85 per cent did not have to pay or they had the money needed for their journey. Onshore visa holders were much more likely to say they had paid to migrate. Respondents who selected 'other' were not asked for more details.

Respondents who indicated they had to borrow money were asked if they were still repaying the loan and if they were finding it difficult to do so. In wave 1, 82 respondents (57.7 per cent of those who borrowed money to migrate) said they were still repaying the loan. Of these, 73 were having difficulty meeting these repayments. Of the 82 respondents who borrowed money to migrate, 52 participated in wave 3 and were asked if they were still repaying the loan. Of these, 25 responded said they were and 17 of them were having difficulty doing so. Twenty respondents having difficulty repaying the loan at wave 1 were no longer repaying it at wave 3.

Table 8.5: Payment of travel costs to Australia by migration pathway, per cent

Paid to migrate	Onshore visa (n=320)	Offshore visa (n=1 138)	Total (n=1 458)
No, I didn't have to	18.1	88.5	73.0
Yes, I had all the money I needed	45.9	2.4	11.9
Yes, I needed to borrow money	29.4	4.4	9.9
Other	6.6	4.7	5.1

Saving

In waves 1 and 3, principal respondents were asked if they or family members they were living with were saving for specified items. Respondents were asked to select all answers that applied or 'not currently saving'. Table 8.6 shows the proportion of principal respondents by item for which they were saving.

"I hope to get a good job, save money and buy a house"

Table 8.6: Items being saved for by principal respondent, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=1 462)	Wave 3 (n=1 143)
Car	13.6	18.2
Household item (for example, furniture)	8.2	10.2
School fees for my children	5.7	13.8
House	5.3	14.1
To send money overseas to family or friends	3.8	7.3
School fees for myself	3.1	3.3
To start my own business/work experience	2.6	3.9
Saving for something else	Not asked	7.6
Currently saving	24.4	43.0
Not currently saving	75.6	57.0

Note: The question about school fees was only asked of principal respondents with children in the household (Wave 1 n=679; Wave 3 n=621).

The proportions of households saving increased between waves 1 and 3. In both waves, most households that were saving were saving for one item only, but around 40 per cent were saving for multiple items.

In wave 3, savings behaviour was significantly associated with financial stress, with those not experiencing financial stress more likely to be saving. Of those who had experienced no financial stress, 51.1 per cent were saving for something, while 36.3 per cent who had experienced one type of stress and 27.3 per cent who had experienced multiple types of stress were saving.

Key findings and observations

- Government benefits were the main source of income for most BNLA respondents in the first three years after being granted a visa. However, reliance on government benefits declined over the years from 88.0 per cent in wave 1 to 67.1 per cent in wave 3.
- There was a commensurate increase in those reliant on a wage from 10.2 per cent in wave 1 to 29.9 per cent in wave 3.
- BNLA respondents experienced significantly higher levels of financial stress than the general Australian population with 38.8 per cent of respondents experiencing at least one type of financial stress compared to 17.1 per cent.
- The levels of financial stress did not decrease over the first three years of settlement.
- Around 10 per cent of respondents, predominantly onshore visa holders, had borrowed money to travel to Australia. Repaying these loans was an ongoing issue for some of these respondents which may have affected their financial security and independence in the short term.
- The proportion of respondents sending money overseas to family or friends increased from 20.5 per cent in wave 1 to 30.8 per cent in wave 3 which might be one cause of ongoing financial stress for some families.
- Respondents who experienced financial stress were less likely to be saving than those who experienced no stress.
- The proportion of households saving increased, from 24.4 per cent saving in wave 1 to 43.0 per cent saving in wave 3. The largest increase was in those saving for a house.

CHAPTER 9

HOUSING AND NEIGHBOURHOODS

Housing and neighbourhoods

Humanitarian migrants may be vulnerable to housing insecurity, stress and homelessness (Beer & Foley 2003 in Fozdar & Hartley, 2012). Having experienced hardship and trauma prior to arrival, they may arrive in Australia with limited financial resources of their own. They may also face barriers related to language, discrimination and lack of knowledge about how to access housing. For those forced to leave their homes, stable housing and a sense of place are critical to a sense of belonging in Australia (Sampson & Gifford in Fozdar & Hartley, 2012). Housing provides not only shelter and security but a base from which connections with neighbourhood and community can be forged and educational and employment opportunities explored (Flatau et al., 2015).

Housing support for humanitarian migrants to Australia

Finding a place to live is one of the most immediate concerns of migrants. The Australian Government assists new humanitarian arrivals with this. BNLA respondents were provided with assistance in finding accommodation through the Humanitarian Settlement Services (HSS) program. From 30 October 2017, the services that BNLA respondents would have received are provided under the Humanitarian Settlement Program (HSP).

Eligible[26] humanitarian migrants are met at the airport by an HSP provider and taken to pre-arranged accommodation. Typically, this is short-term accommodation, in which the arrivals live for no longer than three months. During this period, HSP providers secure suitable long-term accommodation (a minimum six-month lease for most new arrivals). Many Special Humanitarian Program visa holders choose to live with their proposers.[27] Other humanitarian migrants choose to live with a friend or family member already in Australia. In these and similar circumstances, HSP providers may not have to secure long-term lease arrangements.

In addition to full accommodation costs, HSP also pays for utilities for the first four weeks after arrival. In selecting accommodation for humanitarian migrants, HSP providers aim to minimise relocations during the initial settlement period, supporting more stable living. Normally only one move is needed, from short-term to long-term accommodation.

HSP providers also ensure that clients are in long-term accommodation or other stable accommodation before they leave the program.

Housing arrangements

In considering the findings in Table 9.1, it is important to note that many, if not most, BNLA participants were HSS clients during wave 1 data collection. It is likely that many of the moves reported in wave 1 were supported by HSS providers. At the time of wave 2 and 3 interviews most participants would no longer have been receiving HSS assistance.[28]

BNLA collects information about housing arrangements in each wave. Most questions about housing are asked only of principal respondents and then applied to all household members. Table 9.1 shows the housing arrangements for BNLA participants across all waves (three years). The proportions do not include non-specific responses.

Table 9.1: Current housing arrangements by wave, per cent

Tenure	Wave 1 (n=4 145)	Wave 2 (n=3 539)	Wave 3 (n=3 309)
Temporary	8.9	6.8	7.0
Short term	37.5	19.0	11.2
Long term	52.0	70.8	75.4
Other	1.6	3.5	6.5

Notes: 'Temporary accommodation' is defined as accommodation available with no contract; 'short-term' is available under a contract for less than six months; 'long-term' is available under contract for more than six months; 'other' is respondent defined.[29] Proportions exclude household members living

[26] From 30 August 2013, respondents on a UMA visa were no longer eligible to receive services under the HSS program but some BNLA respondents in this category may have received services prior to this.

[27] A proposer is an Australian citizen, permanent resident, eligible New Zealand citizen or an organisation based in Australia that supports an application for entry under the Special Humanitarian Program. The support includes settlement support on arrival as well as arranging and covering all the costs associated with travel to Australia (Refugee Council, 2008).

[28] BNLA respondents were not asked if they were receiving HSS program services at the time of interview.

[29] There is the possibility of ambiguity for those with leases of exactly six months. Under this definition, respondents with a six-month lease would need to choose 'short-term' or 'long-term' accommodation.

with BNLA respondents in wave 3 who were not part of the original participant sample.

The relatively large difference between waves 1 and 2 for those in short-term accommodation and those in long-term accommodation is a function of HSS program design. Caution needs to be exercised in using the data to draw conclusions about housing instability. In fact, those in Australia less than six months — who were more likely to have been in the HSS program — were more likely in short-term accommodation and awaiting placement into long-term accommodation.

By wave 2, very few, if any, respondents would have been in the HSS program. Results for waves 2 and 3 are therefore not affected by participation in the program. By wave 3, 75.4 per cent of participants were in long-term accommodation and the proportion in short-term accommodation had decreased to 11.2 per cent. While the proportion of participants in the 'other' category increased over time, it should be noted that nearly half of them were buying their own home.

Most BNLA respondents who were in temporary accommodation were not in such accommodation in subsequent waves.

BNLA principal respondents were asked about current housing tenure. Table 9.2 shows that in all waves the vast majority were in privately rented accommodation.

Table 9.2: Current housing tenure, by wave, per cent

Tenure type	Wave 1 (n=4 147)	Wave 2 (n=3 541)	Wave 3 (n=3 299)
Private rental	86.4	90.2	88.6
Public rental	10.5	4.2	4.2
Housing provided by others	1.5	0.9	1.1
Mortgage	0.5	1.9	4.4
Other	1.1	Not asked	Not asked
Board	Not asked	2.9	1.8

Note: This table uses data provided by the principal respondent and applied to all BNLA participants in the original participant sample.

Housing stress

In waves 1 and 3, respondents were asked if housing was a source of stress. In wave 1, 29.1 per cent who provided a specific answer responded that housing was a source of stress. This increased to 33.8 per cent in wave 3. However, it is not possible to determine from this general question if the source of stress relates to housing costs, housing stability or housing characteristics, such as location, neighbourhood or suitability.

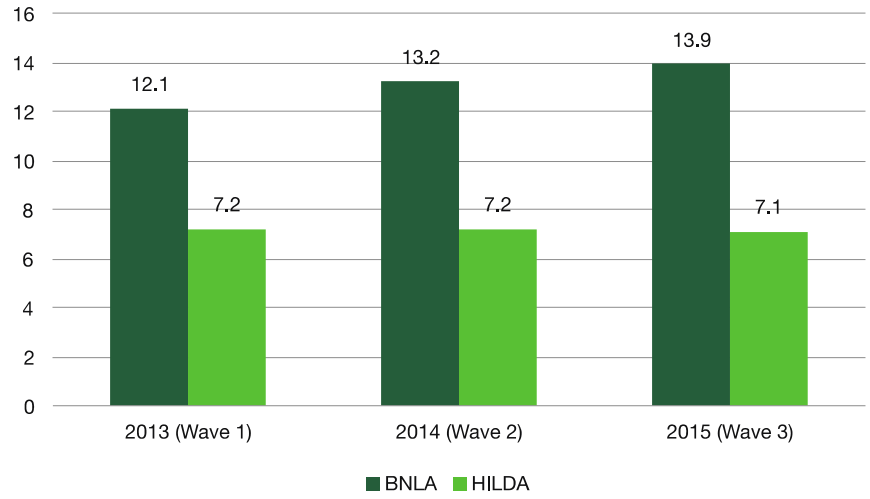
"The main issue I am facing now is finding adequate accommodation"

It should also be noted that BNLA does not ask about respondent expectations of their housing, or how individual circumstances or experience of housing in their country of origin might have an impact on their expectations. However, other questions provide insights into this.

In wave 1, respondents were asked if there was anything else they would like to say about their time in Australia and if they had other comments to make about how programs and services could be improved. Of the 757 who responded to one or both questions, more than one-third commented on housing, especially the cost in relation to income. Chapter 8, on income and financial stress, shows that humanitarian migrants generally face higher levels of financial hardship compared to other Australians. One financial hardship question refers to the cost of home loan repayments or rent.[30] Figure 9.1 compares proportions of BNLA and HILDA households from 2013 to 2015 who reported that a shortage of money prevented them from paying their mortgage or rent on time.

Figure 9.1: BNLA and HILDA households that could not pay mortgage or rent on time due to a shortage of money, per cent

[30] This survey question was asked in relation to the time since arrival in Australia at wave 1 and in relation to the last 12 months from wave 2 onwards.



Notes: Corresponding waves of HILDA are 13, 14 and 15. In HILDA, a household is considered unable to pay rent or mortgage on time if 50 per cent or more of the respondents in the household report this. HILDA proportions are weighted. HILDA Wave 13 n=8,252; Wave 14 n=8,254; Wave 15 n=8,387. Reported BNLA proportions are for principal respondents. Wave 1 n=1,451, Wave 2 n=1,275, Wave 3 n=1,167.

BNLA respondents reported much higher levels of difficulties in paying rent or mortgage than the general Australian population, noting that the profiles of the two populations are very different in terms of the amount and source of income. The slight increases between waves are not statistically significant.

Moving house

The sampling framework for BNLA was designed to reflect the overall initial settlement patterns of humanitarian migrants for geographic remoteness. The vast majority of BNLA participants live in major cities with much smaller proportions in inner regional areas and outer regional areas. Table 9.3 shows the proportions of participants living in areas by remoteness classification.

Table 9.3: Remoteness classification of participants by wave, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=4 207)	**Wave 2 (n=3 562)**	**Wave 3 (n=3 351)**
Major cities	88.7	90.4	89.8
Inner regional	9.5	8.0	8.8
Outer regional	1.8	1.6	1.4

Note: Proportions exclude household members living with BNLA respondents in wave 3 who were not part of the original sample of participants.

By looking at wave 1 and 3 together, it is possible to examine the movement between metropolitan and regional centres. The first column of Table 9.4 shows remoteness classification in wave 1 and the top row shows remoteness area in wave 3.

Table 9.4: Remoteness classification of participants in wave 1 by remoteness classification in wave 3, per cent

Remoteness classification in wave 1	**Remoteness classification in wave 3**			**Total (n=3 351)**
	Major cities (n=3 010)	**Inner regional (n=294)**	**Outer regional (n=47)**	
Major cities (n=2 951)	87.3	0.4	0.3	88.1
Inner regional (n=347)	2.0	8.3	0.0	10.4
Outer regional (n=53)	0.4	0.0	1.1	1.6
Total (n=3 351)	**89.8**	**8.8**	**1.4**	**100.0**

Note: Proportions exclude household members living with BNLA respondents in wave 3 who were not part of the original sample of participants.

Most participants (96.7 per cent) did not move or moved to another house in the same remoteness classification between

waves 1 and 3. The vast majority (87.3 per cent) remained in major cities in both waves. However, one-fifth of those living in inner or outer regional areas in wave 1 (83 participants) were living in major cities in wave 3. Another 24 participants moved out of major cities to regional areas, and two moved between inner and outer regional areas.

Although there was relatively little movement between remoteness classifications, there was considerable movement between houses. In wave 1, principal respondents were asked how many times they had moved since arriving. In waves 2 and 3, they were asked about the number of times they had moved since their previous interview.

Table 9.5: Principal respondents by number of times moved house, by wave, per cent

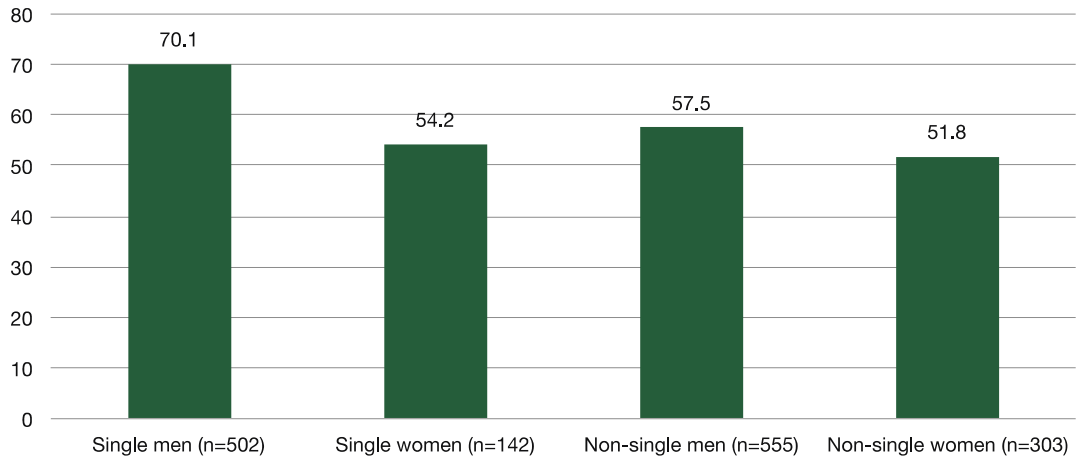
Number of moves	Wave 1 (n=1 502)	Wave 2 (n=1 282)	Wave 3 (n=1 176)
None	39.7	58.1	49.7
1	31.6	34.0	36.5
2	19.6	4.6	9.8
3 or more	9.1	3.3	4.0

Table 9.5 shows that at the wave 1 interview, 60.3 per cent of BNLA principal respondents had moved at least once since arrival, noting that the HSS program often placed migrants in temporary accommodation before moving them to long- term accommodation.

In wave 2, 41.9 per cent of principal respondents reported one or more moves and only 7.9 per cent multiple moves. This may be underreported as the main reason for non- response in BNLA is the inability to locate previous respondents rather than respondents refusing to participate. The increase in moves in wave 3 may be due to respondents having a better idea of their housing requirements after initial leases put in place under the HSS program ended.

Of the principal respondents in wave 1, men who had arrived as a single person migrating unit were more likely to have moved than men in other types of migrating units or women in single person or non-single person migrating units (Figure 9.2).

Figure 9.2: Principal respondents who had moved by migration unit type (single person and non-single person) and gender, wave 1, per cent



Most moves reported at wave 2 and wave 3 interviews were made independently from the HSS program. These covered a period of approximately two years between waves 1 and 3. Of principal respondents who provided information in waves 2 and 3 about the number of moves in both waves (n=1,057), 36.0 per cent reported no moves, 32.7 per cent one move, 18.1 per cent two moves, 8.0 per cent three moves and the remaining 5.2 per cent between 4 and 12 moves. Principal respondents who reported moving frequently were more likely to be single rather than have families and more likely to be male than female.

In wave 3, principal respondents who had moved were asked why they had selected their current house.

Figure 9.3 shows that the most common reason for choosing the current home was size followed by affordability.

Respondents who selected ‘other’ were asked to specify the reason. In wave 1, 44 specified a reason and in wave 3, 36 did. Many responses could be classified according to the reasons listed in Figure 9.3 but the responses provided useful insight into more detailed reasons for choice of house. These included changes in marital status, the landlord wanting their house back, or wanting to be closer to services and facilities such as work, educational facilities, shops and transport. Two people had bought their own house.

“I moved house because I desired to live in a more lively area”

Figure 9.3: Reasons why principal respondents chose current house, wave 3 (n=571), per cent

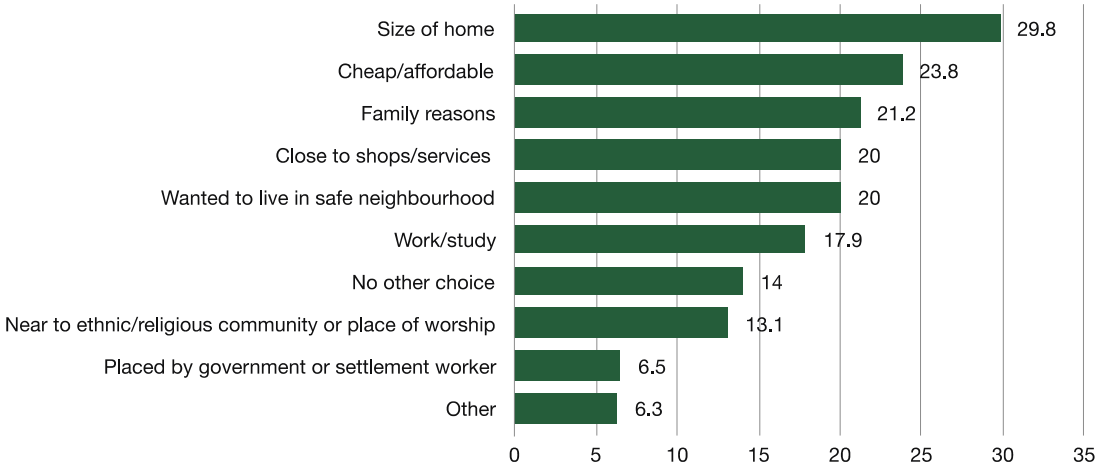
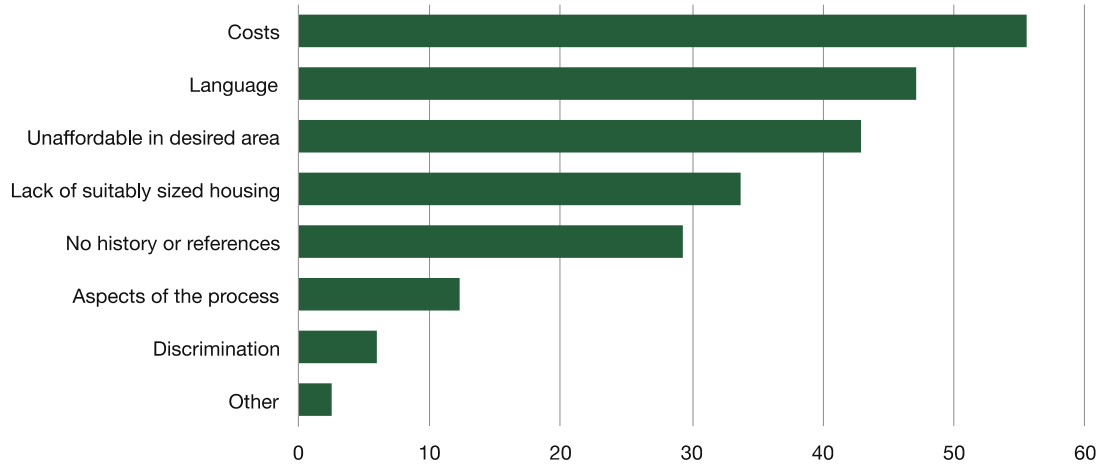


Figure 9.4: Reasons for difficulty finding housing, wave 3 (n=382), per cent



Finding a house

In wave 3, principal respondents who had moved since their previous interview were asked how easy it was to find housing. Of the 580 who responded, 4.5 per cent said it was ‘very easy’, 29.5 per cent said ‘easy’, 45.5 per cent said ‘hard’ and 20.5 per cent said ‘very hard’.

Respondents who said they found it hard or very hard to find housing were asked why. Of those who specified a reason, 35.6 per cent gave one reason. Most gave a combination of reasons. The proportion of respondents reporting each reason is in Figure 9.4.

Principal respondents most commonly reported difficulty with housing costs followed by language. However, cost is not an issue unique to humanitarian migrants. The AHURI reported in September 2017 that housing affordability is a concern for many Australians (Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute (AHURI), 2017).

Housing satisfaction

Data was also collected about respondent satisfaction with the house and neighbourhood in which they live. In wave 1, all respondents were asked how satisfied they were with six aspects of housing:

- number of rooms
- size of rooms
- home's facilities
- outdoor area
- proximity to shops and transport
- proximity to school or childcare (only asked if the household had children).

Table 9.6 shows the proportion of men and women who were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with housing characteristics. The statistical difference between men and women for each is indicated in the table using asterisks.

Table 9.6: Satisfaction with housing characteristic by gender, wave 1, per cent

Housing characteristic	Men	Women	Total
Number of rooms *	86.9	82.4	84.8
Close to transport *	85.1	81.8	83.6
Outdoor area	83.2	80.4	81.9
Size of rooms *	82.6	77.4	80.3
Facilities *	80.6	76.8	78.9
Close to shops *	77.5	71.6	74.8
Close to school/childcare	73.7	68.1	70.8

Note: Asterisks indicate where reported proportions are significantly different for men and women ($p<0.05$). Men n=1,268-1,287 (438 for question about proximity to school) Women n=1,059-1,079 (483 for question about proximity to school)

Overall, most men and women were satisfied with all housing characteristics. However, men were significantly more satisfied across all characteristics. The differences in satisfaction between men and women for satisfaction with outdoor areas and proximity to school and childcare are not significant.

Principal respondents who had moved since their previous interview were asked these questions again in wave 3 if they had moved since their previous interview. Table 9.7 compares the responses of wave 3 principal respondents who had moved and provided a response to the housing satisfaction question in both waves.

Table 9.7: Satisfaction with housing characteristic, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Housing characteristic	Satisfied in wave 1	Satisfied in wave 3
Number of rooms *	81.8	87.8
Close to transport *	82.7	89.3
Outdoor area *	77.4	90.7
Size of rooms *	79.6	85.0
Facilities *	75.2	87.1
Close to shops *	74.4	88.6
Close to school/childcare *	67.2	86.5

Note**:** Asterisks indicate where reported proportions are significantly different between wave 1 and wave 3 ($p<0.05$). n=570-579 (229 for the question about proximity to school)

Table 9.7 shows that in both waves, most respondents were satisfied with all housing characteristics, with significantly greater proportions more satisfied in wave 3. The greatest level of dissatisfaction in wave 1 related to proximity to schools or childcare facilities although satisfaction levels with this characteristic showed the greatest increase between waves.[31]

[31] There were no significant differences in satisfaction with housing characteristics by whether respondents lived in metropolitan or regional areas with the exception of satisfaction with proximity to schools and/or childcare. Respondents in inner or outer regional areas are significantly less satisfied with this aspect of their housing than respondents in metropolitan areas.

“I don’t like living in small towns and wanted to be among people in a larger society”

Neighbourhood satisfaction

BNLA uses the Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) to measure the relative socio-economic advantage and disadvantage of neighbourhoods in which participants live. SEIFA is a suite of four summary indexes created from Census information. Each index summarises an aspect of socio-economic conditions in an area (ABS, 2008).

BNLA uses SEIFA deciles which range from 1 (bottom decile) to 10 (top decile) for each index. Areas in decile 1 (bottom decile) are ranked in the bottom 10 per cent of all areas in Australia in terms of what each index measures and areas in decile 10 are in the top 10 per cent.

At the time of the wave 1 interview, 44.7 per cent of BNLA participants were living in neighbourhoods in decile 1 and 1.0 per cent in decile 10 (as measured by the SEIFA Index of Relative Socio-economic Advantage and Disadvantage). This means nearly half the participants lived in the most disadvantaged neighbourhoods in Australia, disproportionately higher than the 10 per cent of the Australian population. This decreased to 42.6 per cent in wave 2 and again to 39.9 per cent in wave 3. While the proportion living in the bottom decile decreased, around 84 per cent of participants lived in the bottom five deciles in each wave. Additionally, 75.1 per cent of participants for whom there is information in every wave lived in the bottom five deciles in all waves. However, given their circumstances on arrival and dependence on welfare it is not surprising that in only three years this group of humanitarian migrants did not reflect the distribution of the general population. How long this takes is something researchers will be able to follow as more waves of BNLA data become available.

In waves 1 and 3, respondents were asked about their views on their neighbourhood. They were asked the extent to which they agreed with a set of statements about issues such as friendliness of people, number of parks and playgrounds, and feeling safe. Those with children in the household were also asked if their neighbourhood had good schools and was a good place to bring up children.

Figure 9.5 shows the proportion of respondents who agreed or disagreed with each statement on views of their neighbourhood or provided a non-specific response (with many saying they did not know).

Figure 9.5: General perception of neighbourhood, wave 1 (n=2 399) and wave 3 (n=1 894), per cent

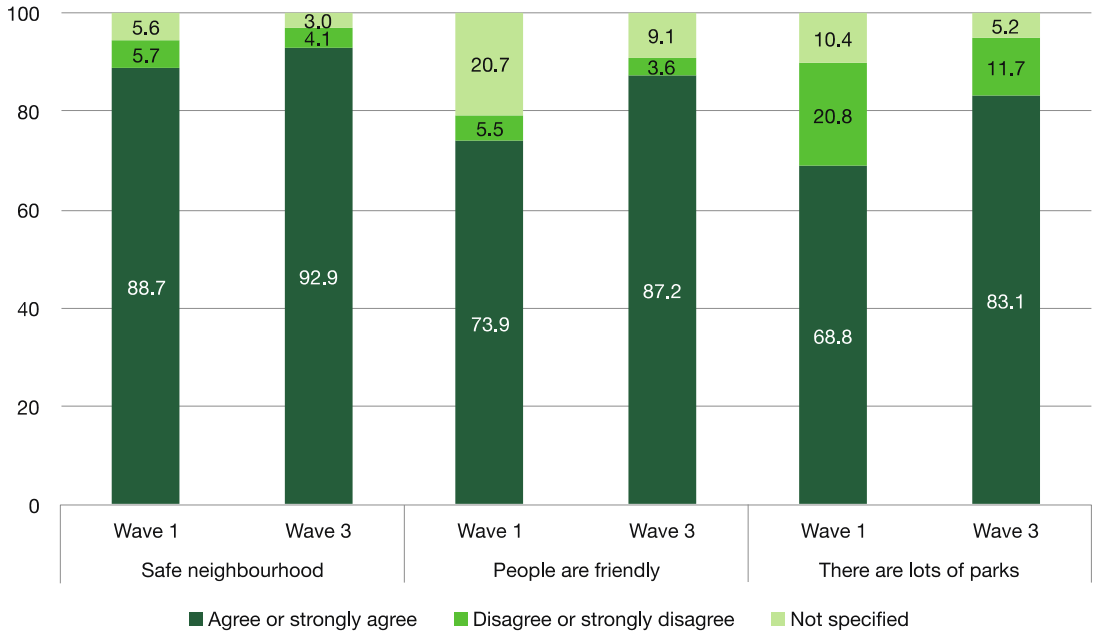
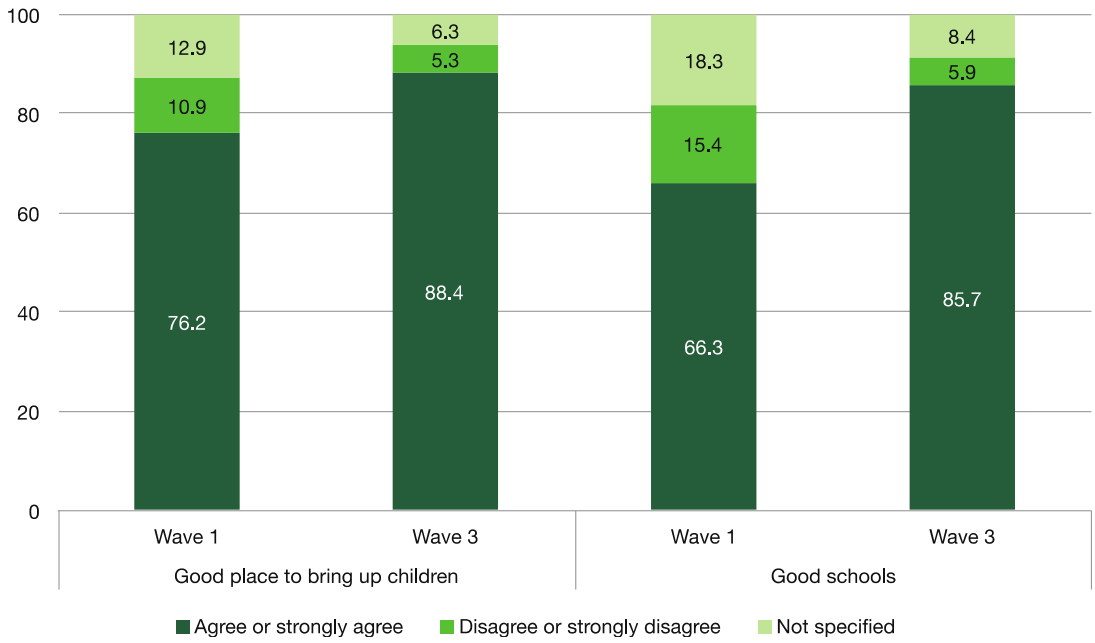


Figure 9.6 shows the proportion of respondents who agreed or disagreed with each statement about their neighbourhood in relation to their children. Non-specific responses are included.

Neighbourhood safety had the greatest proportion of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed. There was an increase in the levels of satisfaction for all neighbourhood characteristics. It is not possible to determine whether those who moved house also moved neighbourhood so these changes could be because people moved to a better neighbourhood or formed more favourable perceptions of the same neighbourhood.

Figure 9.6: Perception of neighbourhood for children, wave 1 (n=973) and wave 3 (n=940), per cent



Key findings and observations

- Findings on housing from the first wave of data must be considered within the context of the housing support provided by the Australian Government to most BNLA respondents through the HSS program. The movement between short and long-term accommodation facilitated by the HSS program is reflected in wave 1 data which shows that more than one-third of BNLA respondents (37.5 per cent) reported they were in short-term accommodation in wave 1.
- Most BNLA respondents initially settled in metropolitan areas and remained there over the next two years. There was little movement between metropolitan and regional areas.
- In the two years between wave 1 and wave 3 interviews, 37.2 per cent of respondents did not move, 33.3 per cent moved once, and the remaining 29.5 per cent moved two or more times.
- Of those who moved between waves 2 and 3, the most common reasons for choice of house were: size of home; affordability; family reasons; proximity to shops and/or services.
- In all waves, most BNLA respondents lived in privately rented accommodation —86.4 per cent in wave 1, 90.2 per cent in wave 2, and 88.6 per cent in wave 3.
- Notably, there were increases between waves in the proportion of participants paying mortgages — 0.5 per cent in wave 1, 1.9 per cent in wave 2, and 4.4 per cent in wave 3.
- The cost of housing was a source of stress for BNLA respondents with between 12 and 14 per cent reporting difficulties making housing payments in each wave. This is considerably higher than the general Australian population, which for the equivalent period reported housing stress at around 7 per cent.
- While many respondents reported difficulty looking for housing and that housing costs were a source of stress, there was also a high level of satisfaction with housing and neighbourhoods.

CHAPTER 10

HEALTH

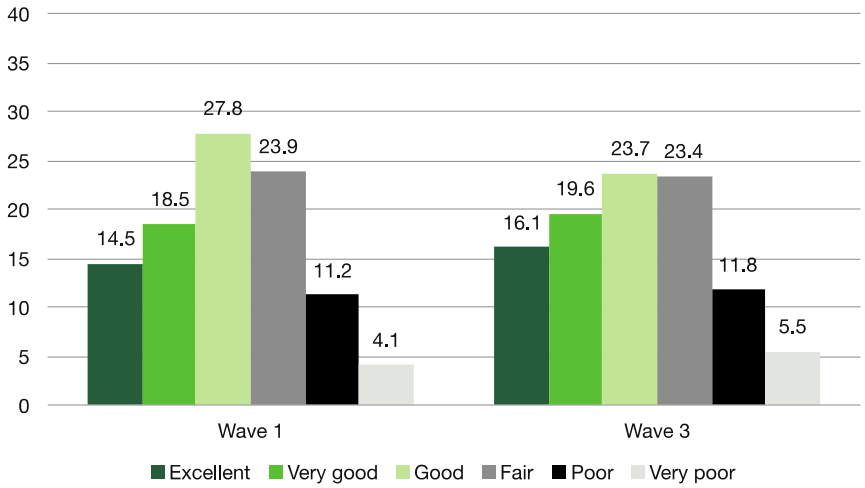
Health

Many humanitarian migrants have arrived in Australia after extended periods living in conditions which could have negative impacts on their physical and/or mental health. Compared to the general populations of resettlement countries, humanitarian migrants may have complex healthcare needs and an increased disease burden (Murray et al., in Manchikanti et al., 2017). Nutritional deficiencies, under-immunisation, poor dental and optical health, poorly managed chronic disease, and delayed development and growth in children are some commonly identified health issues for humanitarian migrants in Australia (Milosevic, Cheng & Smith, 2012). Higher levels of psychological distress and increased risk of mental illness, including posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression and anxiety are also experienced by this group (Davidson et al., in Davidson & Carr 2010).

Physical health

In each BNLA wave, respondents were asked to rate their overall health as 'excellent', 'very good', 'good', 'fair', 'poor' or 'very poor'. Figure 10.1 shows how those who responded in both waves 1 and 3 self-rated their health.

Figure 10.1: Self-reported health rating in BNLA, waves 1 and 3 (balanced panel n=1 894), per cent



The general health question was asked about health within the last four weeks so it is not unreasonable to expect variation in individuals' responses across waves. Most respondents (66.1 per cent) who answered in waves 1 and 3 rated their health differently across the two waves, with 7.5 per cent responding that their health was poor or very poor in both waves. This compares to 20.4 per cent who reported excellent or very good health and 29.1 per cent who reported good or fair health in both waves. More than half of the respondents (51.8 per cent) did not report excellent or very good health in either wave.

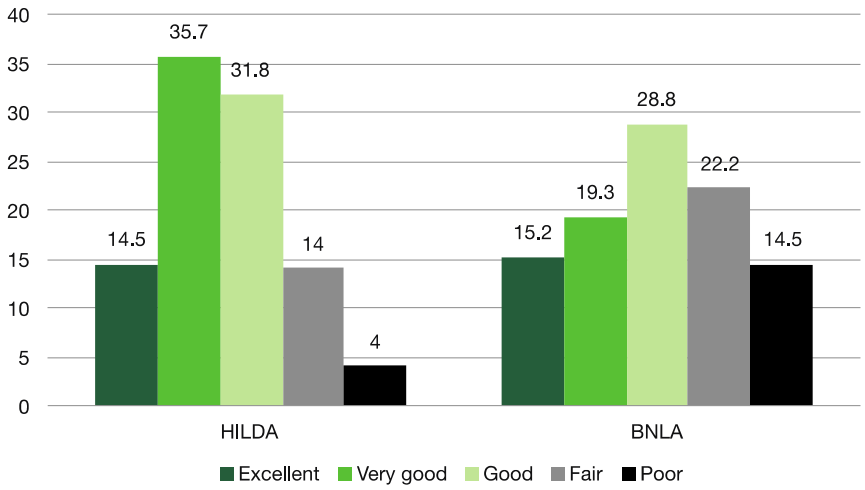
"I suffer from diabetes and I am not able to meet all the financial requirements for my family"

Figure 10.1 shows that waves 1 and 3 share a similar pattern of distribution, with the most common responses being good and fair. When each category is compared between the two waves, the difference in proportions is statistically significant for only the 'good' and 'very poor' categories. Those with good health decreased from 27.8 per cent to 23.7 per cent from wave 1 to wave 3 while those with very poor increased from 4.1 per cent to 5.5 per cent.

In addition to poor and sometimes dangerous living conditions, humanitarian migrants may have experienced limited access to medical care prior to arrival in Australia. It might therefore be reasonable to assume that with improved living conditions and better access to medical care, the overall health of humanitarian migrants would improve the longer they are in Australia. However, the data shown in Figure 10.1 does not support this, with only minimal difference in reported health levels between the two waves.

The general health patterns of BNLA respondents can be compared to health outcomes for the general Australian population by using HILDA data, which asks the same question. The data in Figure 10.2 is from the 2013 wave of the HILDA study. The question in HILDA does not include the 'very poor' response category so for comparison purposes the BNLA categories of 'poor' and 'very poor' have been combined. It should be noted, however, that the additional response category may influence how people responded in BNLA. BNLA data is based on all wave 1 respondents.

Figure 10.2: Comparison of self-reported health rating in 2013 in HILDA (n=16 975) and BNLA (n=2 399), per cent



Note: HILDA results are population weighted.

It is likely that some humanitarian migrants arrive in Australia with health conditions associated with pre-migration circumstances and this is certainly reflected by the results in Figure 10.2. A larger proportion of BNLA respondents reported their health at the lower end of the scale than the Australian population. At the other end of the scale, however, the proportion of BNLA respondents reporting excellent health is similar to the Australian population.

In BNLA, women were significantly more likely than men to report poorer levels of health. In contrast, the HILDA data does not show a statistically significant difference in response patterns for men and women. Figure 10.3 compares BNLA responses for both in waves 1 and 3.

In addition to the general health question in wave 1, respondents were asked about the impact of physical health problems on their daily activities. Approximately half (52.8 per cent) reported some level of limitation due to health, 50.6 per cent reported difficulty with daily work (at and away from home) and 54.4 per cent reported experiencing some level of bodily pain (15.5 per cent reported 'severe' or 'very severe' pain). A strong relationship exists between reported overall health and the degree of bodily pain. Those with greater levels of bodily pain were more likely to report worse overall health.

Figure 10.3: Self-reported health rating of BNLA men (n=1 007) and women (n=887), waves 1 and 3, per cent

Note: Only includes those who responded in both waves.

In wave 1, respondents were asked to compare their health to what it was six months before arriving in Australia.[32] More than half (57.1 per cent) rated their health somewhat or much better than it was, 31.1 per cent rated it about the same and 11.8 per cent rated it somewhat or much worse. Of respondents who had been in refugee camps, 75.3 per cent rated their health somewhat or much better now, 14.9 per cent about the same and 9.8 per cent somewhat or much worse.

Medical services

[32] Response categories for this question were 'much better now', 'somewhat better now', 'about the same', 'somewhat worse now' and 'much worse now'.

BNLA does not include information about whether respondents have accessed medical services. However, respondents were asked if a doctor in Australia had given them medication for health problems. Responses can be used as a proxy for accessing health services, although they are likely to underestimate the proportion of respondents who used these services. Table 10.1 shows the proportion of those given medication by a doctor in wave 1 by self-rated level of health.

"The medical services are very good but very slow"

Table 10.1: Given medication for physical health problems by self-rated level of health, wave 1, per cent

Health rating	Per cent prescribed medication (n=1 377)
Excellent	33.6
Very good	45.2
Good	51.3
Fair	73.4
Poor	87.1
Very poor	88.2

Overall, 57.6 per cent of respondents reported having been given medication by a doctor but the proportions vary greatly by level of self-reported health. A higher percentage of respondents with worse health were given medication than respondents with better health. Nearly 90 per cent of those with poor and very poor health reported they had been given medication compared to only one-third of those whose health was excellent. This suggests that generally respondents who most need medical services have accessed them.

Mental health

BNLA includes two measures of mental health. One measures the risk of serious mental health problems and the second identifies those who have experienced the symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

Kessler 6

The Kessler 6 (K6) is a measure of non-specific psychological distress. It is a tool often used for screening mental health issues in the general adult population. The scale was designed to be sensitive around the threshold for the clinically significant range of the distribution of non-specific distress, to maximise the ability to discriminate cases of serious mental illness.

K6 is used as an indicator of the risk of serious mental health problems. Respondents are asked to indicate how often in the last four weeks they felt:

- nervous
- hopeless
- restless or fidgety
- that everything was an effort
- so sad that nothing could cheer them up
- worthless.

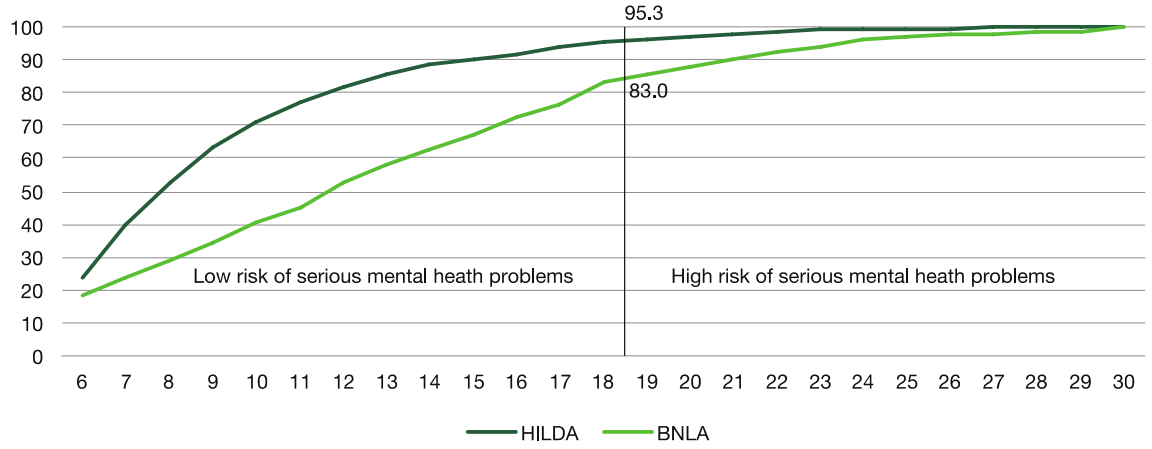
Responses are on a five-point scale ranging from 'none of the time' to 'all of the time'. Scores for each question are summed to give an overall score ranging from 6 to 30. A score of 6 indicates no psychological distress and a score of 30 indicates extreme psychological distress. Respondents with scores of 19 or over are classified as being at risk of having serious mental health problems.

The same questions are asked in HILDA, which means it is possible to compare the BNLA sample with the overall Australian population. HILDA shows that in 2013, 4.7 per cent of the population were at risk of serious mental health problems compared to 17.0 per cent in BNLA. In wave 3, 19.1 per cent of the BNLA sample was at risk of serious mental health problems. In 2013, the mean K6 scores in HILDA were 9.6 compared to 13.0 in BNLA. The mean score in BNLA in wave 3 was 13.2.

"I am psychologically tired and I am suffering from health problems and depression. The responsibility is too much for me"

Figure 10.4 shows the proportion of respondents with K6 scores at or below each score. For example, 95.3 per cent of the HILDA population and 83.0 per cent of the BNLA population had scores of 19 or over, the point above which respondents are classified at risk of having a serious mental health problem. The greater the area between the two lines the greater the difference between the two populations. There is little change when the scores for wave 3 are used.

Figure 10.4: Cumulative frequency of K6 scores in HILDA (n=15 024) and BNLA (n=2 323) in 2013, per cent



Note: HILDA data is population weighted.

The figure shows that BNLA respondents are much more likely to be at risk of serious mental health problems. It also shows that the distribution is very different between BNLA and the general Australian population.

Table 10.2 shows that women were more likely to be at risk of serious mental health problems than men in waves 1 and 3.

Table 10.2: High risk of serious mental health problems by gender, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Wave	Men	Women	Total
Wave 1	13.6	22.5	17.8
Wave 3	15.1	23.7	19.1

Note: W1 Men n=976 Women=862; W3: Men n=991 Women n=865. Uses only respondents who responded in both waves.

As with physical health, mental health can change over time. Table 10.3 shows the proportion of women and men by the number of waves in which their K6 scores indicated they were at risk of serious mental health problems.

Table 10.3: Persistence of risk of serious mental health problems by gender, per cent

Number of waves	Men (n=960)	Women (n=842)	Total (n=1 802)
None	76.6	63.7	70.5
1	18.2	26.2	22.0
2	5.2	10.1	7.5

Just over 70 per cent of respondents were not at risk of serious mental health problems in either wave, and 7.5 per cent were at risk in both waves. The difference between men and women is statistically significant.

PTSD

PTSD is a set of reactions that can develop in people who have been through a traumatic event which threatened their life or safety, or that of others around them (Beyond Blue, 2016). PTSD prevalence is not clear-cut and seems to be population specific. Phoenix Australia – the Centre for Posttraumatic Mental Health estimates that between 5 and 10 per cent of people will suffer from PTSD at some point in their lives (Phoenix Australia, 2017).

The measure of PTSD used in BNLA is based on the PTSD-8, an eight-question scale which was developed as a screening tool to be used by health professionals for initial identification of the likelihood of PTSD. The PTSD-8 has been shown to work effectively in varying trauma samples characterised by different periods of time elapsed post trauma and with varying prevalence rates of PTSD (Hansen et al., 2010). It should be noted, however, that it is a measure of likelihood and not a diagnosis, although it has been shown to be an accurate predictor.

The measure divides respondents into two categories—those who meet the criteria for PTSD and those who do not meet the criteria for PTSD. Eight questions are asked about symptoms in three domains; four measure intrusion (inability to keep memories of the traumatic event from returning), two measure avoidance (attempting to avoid stimuli and triggers that may bring back those memories) and two measure hypervigilance (constant feeling that danger or disaster is nearby). Respondents meet the criteria for PTSD if they respond 'sometimes' or 'most of the time' to one or more question in each of the three domains.

BNLA respondents were asked about the extent to which they had experienced the eight PTSD symptoms in the past week. This is different from PTSD-8, which measures the period between the experience of trauma and the time of interview. Additionally, all respondents were asked about PTSD symptoms, not just those who had experienced traumatic events. Due to the difference in measurement methodology, the measure in BNLA more accurately reflects whether someone has experienced the symptoms of PSTD in the previous week rather than whether they meet the criteria for PTSD.

The PTSD measure was included in waves 1 and 3. Table 10.4 shows that high proportions of BNLA respondents had experienced PTSD symptoms. In wave 1, 34.2 per cent said they had and in wave 3, 32.9 per cent. The proportions were significantly higher for women.

Table 10.4: Experience of symptoms of PTSD by gender, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Men	**Women**	**Total**
Wave 1	31.5	37.4	34.2
Wave 3	29.4	36.8	32.9

Note: W1 Men n=971 Women n=853; W3 Men n=972 Women n=858. Uses only respondents who responded in both waves.

At each wave, respondents were more likely to have experienced symptoms of PTSD than to be at high risk of a serious mental health problem according to the K6. Nevertheless, the data shows a significant association between the two. In wave 3, respondents who had not experienced PTSD symptoms in either wave had a mean K6 score of 10.6, compared to 14.6 for those who had experienced symptoms in one wave and 18.2 points for those who had experienced symptoms in both waves.

Traumatic events and mental health

A high proportion of BNLA respondents experienced traumatic events prior to arrival in Australia. The risk of serious mental health problems is significantly associated with experience of multiple types of traumatic events. Table 10.5 shows that people at risk of serious mental health problems were more likely to have experienced multiple types of traumatic events, compared to those not at risk.

Table 10.5: Risk of serious mental health problems (K6) by number of types of traumatic events experienced, wave 3, per cent

	At risk of serious mental health problems (n=355)	**Not at risk of serious mental health problems (n=1 501)**
No traumatic events reported	10.4	26.2
One type of traumatic event	23.4	28.6
Multiple types of traumatic event	66.2	45.2

Factors associated with high risk of serious mental health problems and the experiencing symptoms of PTSD

Figure 10.5 shows the size and significance of the effect of particular characteristics on having a high risk of serious

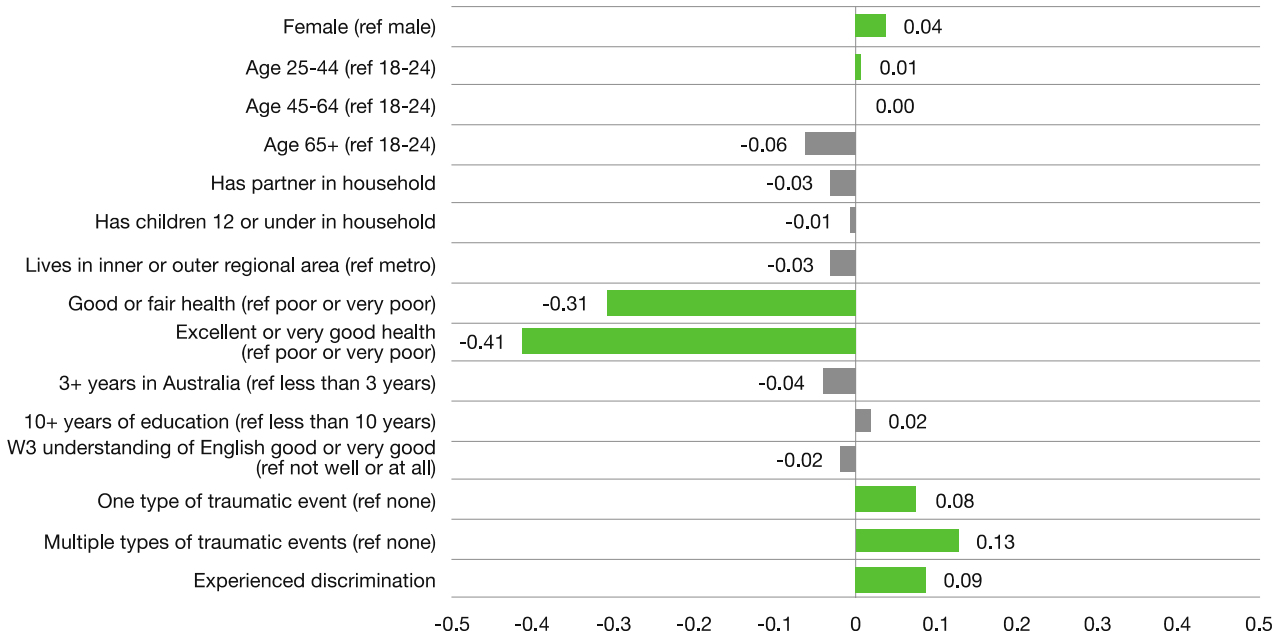
mental health problems in wave 3 (as measured using K6) when all characteristics are considered simultaneously. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a decrease in the likelihood of high risk of a serious mental health problem and bars to the right show an increase.

Figure 10.5 shows that those with good or fair health are 31 percentage points less likely to have a high risk of serious mental health problems than those with poor or very poor health. Those with excellent or very good health are 41 percentage points less likely. Women are 4 percentage points more likely than men to have a high risk of serious mental health problems. Pre- arrival experience of traumatic events is also significant, with those who have experienced one type of traumatic events 8 percentage points more likely and those who have experienced multiple types of traumatic events 13 percentage points more likely to have a high risk of serious mental health problems than those who did not report having experienced traumatic events. Those who have experienced discrimination are 9 percentage points more like to have a high risk of serious mental health problems than those who have not experienced discrimination. However, age, household composition, region of residence, length of time in Australia, pre-arrival education or level of English are not significantly associated with high risk mental health problems once all other characteristics are accounted for.

“Most important for me is to regain my health and for my children to be healthy”

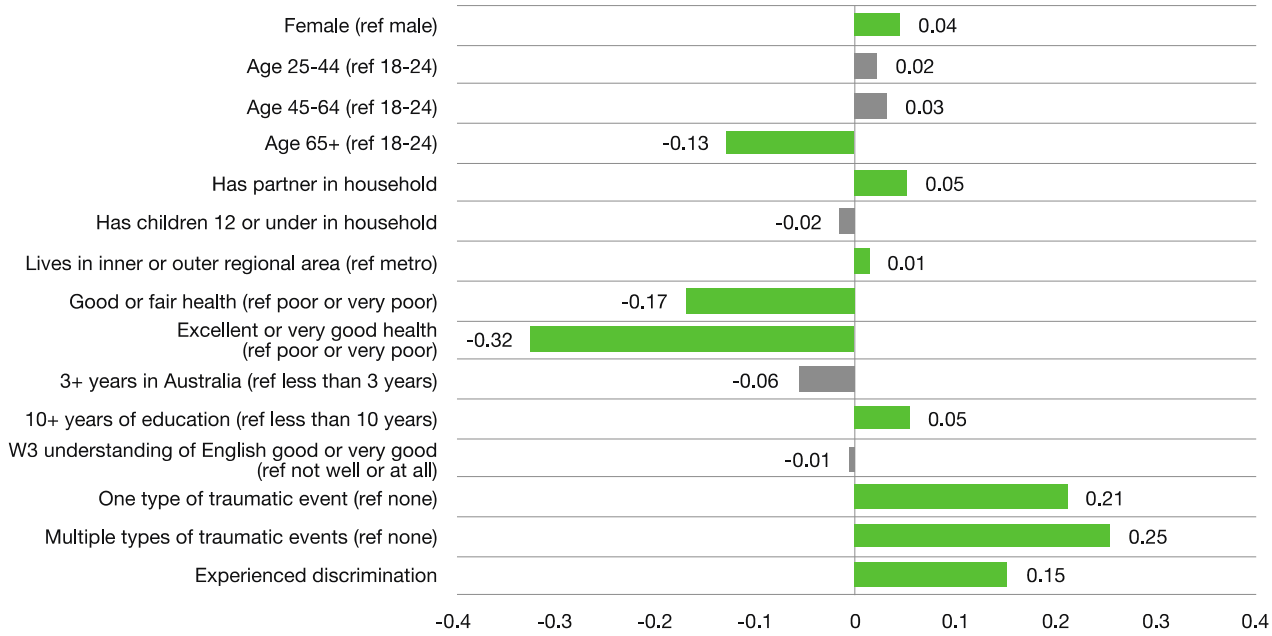
Figure 10.6 shows the size and significance of the effect of particular characteristics on experience of PTSD symptoms in the week prior to the wave 3 interview when all characteristics are considered simultaneously.

Figure 10.5: Factors associated with high risk of serious mental health problems (K6), wave 3 (n=1 730), logistic regression (marginal effects)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<0.05. Grey bars indicate that the characteristic is not significant. n=1,730 Pseudo R^2=0.1862. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared with those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

Figure 10.6: Factors associated with experience of symptoms of PTSD, wave 3 (n=1 705), logistic regression (marginal effects)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. n=1,705 Pseudo R^2=0.1333 Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared with those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

Respondents aged 65 years or older are less likely to have experienced PTSD symptoms than those in younger age groups (13 percentage points), as are those with good or fair health (17 percentage points) and excellent or very good health (32 percentage points) compared to those with poor or very poor health. Women were 4 percentage points more likely than men to have experienced PTSD symptoms. Respondents with a partner in the household and with 10 or more years of education were both 5 percentage points more likely to have experienced PTSD symptoms. Pre-arrival experience of traumatic events was the greatest predictor of PTSD symptoms with those who had experienced one type, 21 percentage points more likely and those who had experienced multiple types, 25 percentage points more likely. However, the difference between the two categories is not significant. Experience of discrimination also increased the likelihood of experiencing symptoms by 15 percentage points. Having children 12 years of age or under in the household, living in a regional area and having been in Australia for three years or longer are not significantly associated with experiencing symptoms once all other characteristics are accounted for.

Key findings and observations

- Higher proportions of BNLA respondents reported poor physical health than the general Australian population.
- Women in BNLA were more likely to report poor health than men, which is different from the trend in the general Australian population.
- Although the limited data from BNLA suggests that respondents who most need medical services were able to get access to them, this is an area warranting further investigation.
- BNLA respondents were more likely than the general Australian population to have a high risk of a serious mental illness.
- Future waves of data will enable further exploration of the impact of physical and mental health issues on settlement outcomes, especially on the ability to learn English and find employment.

CHAPTER 11

SELF-SUFFICIENCY

Self-sufficiency

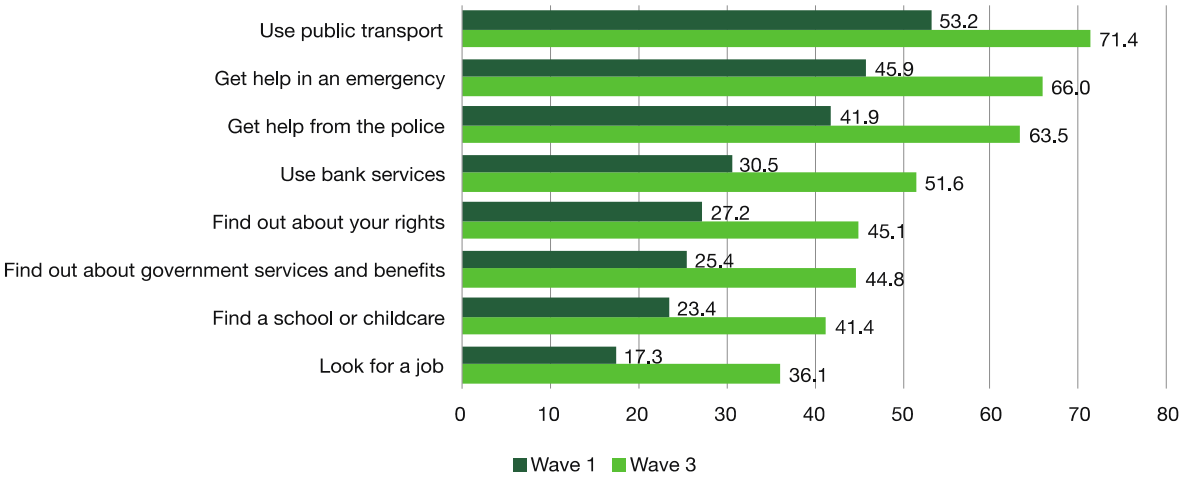
In the BNLA context, self-sufficiency is the ability of individuals to operate in society without assistance from others. Yates et al. (2015) noted in their longitudinal study of Adult Migrant English Program learners that participants reported a lack of independence and frustration with an inability to manage everyday tasks such as shopping and going to the doctor, although this frustration reduced over time as independence increased. For this group the reason most commonly cited for feelings of dependence in early settlement was lack of English skills. Other reasons cited by participants were health problems, lack of a driver's licence, public transport difficulties and financial limitations. Many in the BNLA study also cited their lack of English language skills as the cause of dependence on others. This section examines how BNLA respondents view their self-sufficiency.

"I am happy in Australia because I am learning the language and driving"

In waves 1 and 3, all respondents were asked eight questions relating to self-sufficiency.[33] Respondents were asked how well they knew how use public transport, get help in an emergency, get help from the police, use bank services, find out about their rights, find out about government services and benefits, find a school or childcare (only asked of those respondents with children),and look for a job. Figure 11.1 shows that overall the proportion of respondents who said they would 'know well' or 'know fairly well' how to do each of these activities increased considerably between waves 1 and 3.

Respondents were most likely to have confidence in their ability to use public transport, get help in an emergency and get help from the police. They were least likely to be confident about looking for a job, finding a school or childcare, and finding out more about government services and benefits. However, there are significant differences between the proportions of men and women reporting that they knew how to undertake these tasks well or fairly well (Table 11.1).

Figure 11.1: Respondents who would know well or fairly well how to undertake specific tasks, waves 1 and 3, per cent



Note: Only includes respondents who provided a specific response to the questions in both waves.

Table 11.1: Respondents who would know well or fairly well how to undertake specific tasks by gender, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1		Wave 3	
	Men	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**
Use public transport	60.8	44.5	78.0	63.9
Get help in an emergency	53.0	37.8	74.5	56.2
Get help from the police	47.7	35.4	71.5	54.3
Use bank services	38.7	21.0	61.2	40.6
Find out about your rights	31.6	22.3	51.4	37.8

[33] Wave 2 responses are not included in the analysis because only principal respondents were asked these questions.

	Wave 1		Wave 3	
	Men	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**
Find out about government services and benefits	30.4	19.8	52.9	35.7
Find a school or childcare	28.8	18.5	45.8	37.3
Look for a job	25.3	8.2	46.2	24.6

Note: Only includes respondents who provided a specific response to the questions in both waves. Men n=955-972 (345 for question about school); Women n=840-855 (378 for question about school)

For each task, much higher proportions of men than women responded that they knew how to undertake the task well or very well. The differences between men and women are significant in all cases and while there is an increase between waves for both, women remain less confident in their abilities to undertake each task than men in wave 3. Age is also a factor with younger respondents (18 to 25 years of age) significantly more likely to report knowing well or fairly well how to undertake these tasks (with the exception of finding school or care for children[34]) than respondents 26 years of age or older.

Respondents' confidence in their ability to look for a job varies by work force status.[35] Table 11.2 shows that those working at the time of the wave 3 interview were the most likely to feel confident in their ability to find a job and those who did not want a job the least likely.

Table 11.2: Respondents who would know well or very well how to look for a job by working status, wave 3, per cent

Workforce status in wave 3	**Per cent (n=1 685)**
Working	68.8
Looked for work	55.1
Wants a job	30.5
Doesn't want a job	11.8
Unsure if wants a job	16.7

Note: Restricted to respondents 18 to 64 years of age at wave 3.

Measuring self-sufficiency

An overall measure of self-sufficiency can be created by applying a score to responses for each of the eight questions (from zero for 'not know at all' to three for 'know well') and then summing the scores.[36] Scores range between zero and 24 with higher scores indicating a greater level of self-sufficiency.[37] In wave 1, the mean score using this scale was 9.4. This increased to 12.9 in wave 3 demonstrating a greater overall level of self-sufficiency.

Scores can then be used to examine the characteristics of those who are less self-sufficient and those whose self-sufficiency does not increase over time. In both waves 1 and 3, women had lower mean scores than men (7.6 compared with 10.9 in wave 1 and 11.0 compared to 14.7 in wave 3). Age also had a statistically significant association with self- sufficiency decreasing as age

increased. Respondents 18 to 25 years of age had a mean score of 11.2 in wave 1 and those 26 years of age or older had a mean score of 8.9, a difference of 2.3 points. The gap widened in wave 3 with the 18 to 25 year age group having a mean score of 15.3 and the 26 years and over age group having a mean score of 12.3, a difference of 3.1 points.

Figure 11.2 uses longitudinal regression analysis to estimate the significance and size of the variation in the self- sufficiency scores when all characteristics in the model are considered simultaneously. This analysis uses scores

[34] Very few respondents in the younger age group had children of their own.

[35] Refer to the section on participation for more information on how this measure is defined.

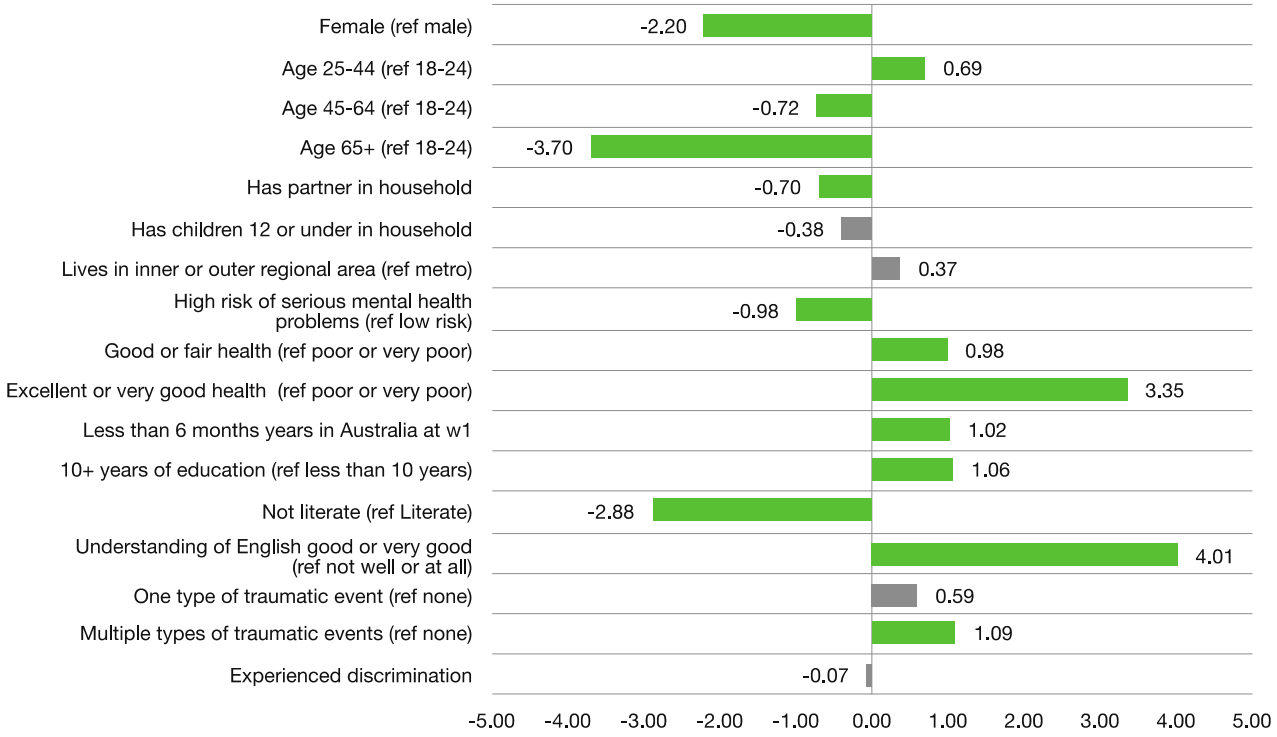
[36] Scores for respondents who did not provide a specific response to one or more of the questions were dropped unless they did not have children and the only non-specific response was to the question about finding school or childcare.

[37] More information about this measure is in Appendix B.

and explanatory variables from both wave 1 and wave 3.[38] Using longitudinal data accounts for changes across time. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a negative effect on self- sufficiency scores and bars to the right show a positive effect.

Figure 11.2 shows that women had a mean self-sufficiency score 2.2 points lower than men. Compared with respondents 18 to 24 years of age, respondents 25 to 44 years of age had mean scores 0.7 points higher but respondents in older age groups had lower mean scores with those 65 years of age and over having mean scores 3.7 points lower. Having a partner in the household, having a high risk of serious mental health problems and being not literate were all significantly associated with lower mean scores, with the latter having a 2.9-point difference. Those with good or fair health had higher self-sufficiency scores (by 1.0 point) compared to those with poor or very poor health, and those with excellent or very good health had even higher scores (by 3.3 points).The largest difference in scores (4.0 points) is associated with better comprehension of spoken English. Having been in Australia for at least six months at the time of the wave 1 interview and having better education are both associated with higher mean scores of 1.1 points. Pre-arrival experience of traumatic events is significantly associated with self-sufficiency but only for those who experienced multiple types of traumatic events. Having children aged 12 or under in the household, living in a regional area and having experienced discrimination were not significantly associated with self-sufficiency scores.

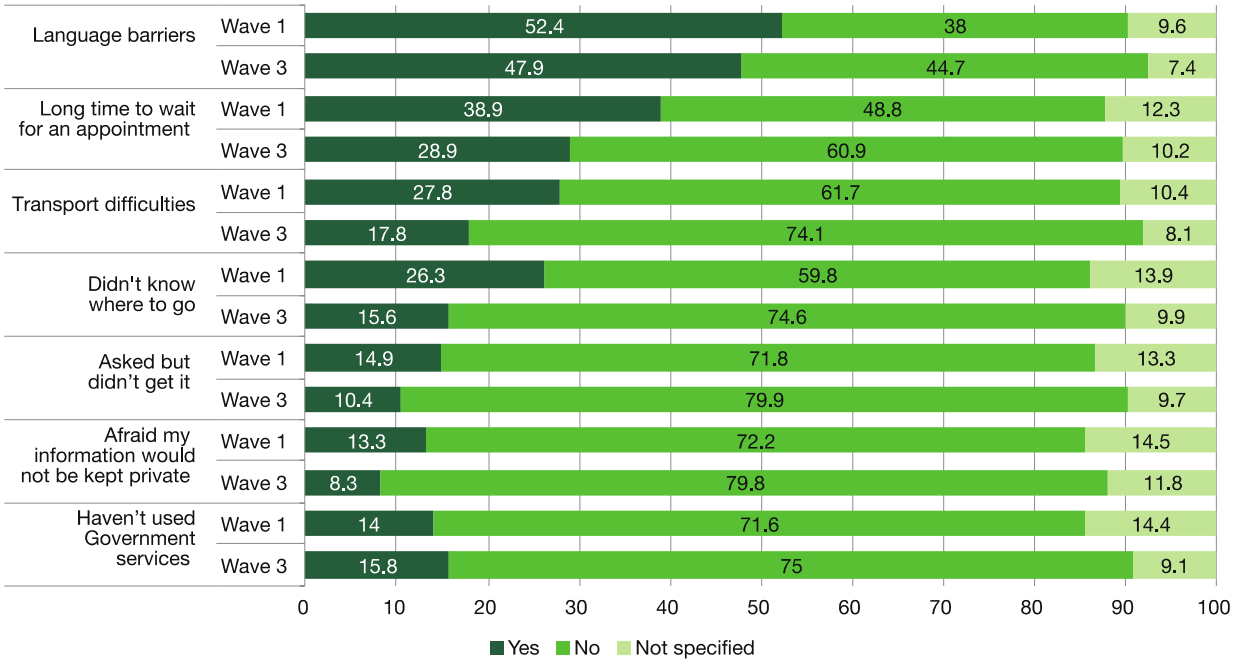
Figure 11.2: Factors associated self-sufficiency scores, longitudinal regression, waves 1 and 3 (coefficients) (n=3 258)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p≤0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. Overall R^2=0.3205. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Literacy is defined here as being able to read and write in at least one of the languages spoken by the respondent. This is defined in greater detail on page 110. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by on the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared with those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

Figure 11.3: Barriers to government service use, waves 1 and 3, per cent

[38] Although self-sufficiency scores are available for wave 2, not all of the explanatory variables are available in wave 2.



Note: Wave 1 n=2,399; Wave 3 n=1,894

Barriers to using government services

In addition to settlement services, humanitarian migrants have access to the same government services as all Australians including Medicare, Centrelink and public housing. BNLA respondents were asked what barriers had made it difficult to use these services (Figure 11.3). A large number provided non-specific responses and these are included in the figure.

Language barriers presented difficulty for more than half the respondents in wave 1 (52.4 per cent) and showed only a small drop in wave 3 (47.9 per cent). Having to wait a long time for an appointment was identified as an issue by 38.9 per cent in wave 1 and 28.9 per cent in wave 3. In both waves, concern over privacy of information was least likely to be reported as a barrier to accessing services. Overall the pattern of responses shows a decrease in the proportion of respondents experiencing each barrier.

Of the 1,845 respondents in wave 1 who specified a response to all of the first six response categories in Figure 11.3, 28.9 per cent selected none of the six barriers listed, while 4.6 per cent selected all six. In wave 3, the proportions were 38.5 per cent and 2.3 per cent respectively (n=1,517).

Transport

In addition to asking if transport difficulties had an impact on the use of government services, respondents were asked more generally how often they experienced difficulty in travelling to places they needed to go. Respondents reported lower levels of difficulty in wave 3; the proportion reporting they always experienced difficulty dropped from 19.6 per cent in wave 1 to 9.8 per cent in wave 3. There was a commensurate increase in those who never experienced difficulty, rising from 24.6 per cent in wave 1 to 37.6 per cent in wave 3.

Some respondents may have reported fewer transport difficulties after getting an Australian driver's licence. All respondents were asked in wave 1 if they had a driver's licence and in subsequent waves those who had not previously reported having one were asked again. In wave 1, 32.7 per cent of respondents over 16 years of age had their driver's licence. In wave 3, 74.1 per cent of all BNLA respondents had their driver's licence. This may be an underestimate in cases where respondents got a licence after their wave 1 interview and did not respond in subsequent waves.

In waves 1 and 3, principal respondents who did not have a licence were asked about the reasons for this. The proportions exclude 29 respondents in wave 1 and 33 respondents in wave 3 who provided a non-specific response (Table 11.3).

Table 11.3: Barriers to getting driver's licence, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=902)	Wave 3 (n=235)
Still taking lessons	25.9	17.9
Don't know how	22.1	11.1
Not eligible to apply	19.3	31.5
Costs too much	17.1	20.0
Don't want to apply	9.6	23.4
Didn't pass test	8.0	9.8
Other	14.9	12.8

Note: Multiple responses permitted.

Lack of knowledge about how to get a licence reduced greatly between waves 1 and 3. The number responding to these questions dropped as most had acquired a driver's licence, and those that still did not have one by the wave 3 interview mostly did not because they were not eligible or did not want one. Just under half of all wave 3 respondents selected one or both of these options.

Principal respondents were also asked about their usual form of transport. The increase in respondents with an Australian driver's licence may explain the increase in the proportion of principal respondents whose main form of transport was their own car (Table 11.4).

Table 11.4: Usual form of transport, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=1 501)	Wave 3 (n=1 172)
Public transport	61.4	29.6
Drive own car/vehicle	15.3	55.5
Walk	9.8	2.4
Someone drives me	9.2	9.6
Drive someone else's car/vehicle	2.3	2.1
Cycle	1.4	0.5
Taxi/cab	0.6	0.3

The increase in those using their own car is balanced by the decrease in those using public transport. At the same time, there was a drop in the proportion of respondents walking or cycling as their main form of transport.

In wave 1, those who had a driver's licence had higher mean self-sufficiency scores than those who did not (11.6 compared to 8.3). This gap widened by the wave 3 interview when those who had a driver's licence had a mean score of 14.5 compared to 8.5 for those who did not have one. While this difference is statistically significant, no conclusion should be drawn about the causal direction. Having a driver's licence may lead to greater self-sufficiency but it is also possible that those with greater self-sufficiency are more likely to get their licence or even that there is no direct link between the two.

Technology

Recent advances in information technology offer opportunities to migrants to keep in touch with relatives and friends overseas that were unavailable to migrants arriving in Australia in previous decades. In addition, Australian Government, state and territory governments, local governments and service providers use information technology platforms such as the Internet and SMS messaging to provide information and services.

Information about the use of technology is limited in BNLA as it does not extend beyond questions about access to and use of the Internet that were asked of all respondents in wave 3. Overall, 86.6 per cent of respondents had access to the Internet including 83.5 per cent who had access to it at home and 5.7 per cent who had access to it somewhere else.

Overall access to the Internet had a statistically significant association with age but not with gender. The mean age of those who reported they did not have access was 47 years of age compared to 37 years of age for those who reported they had access.

Those who indicated they had access to the Internet were asked how frequently they used it. Table 11.5 shows frequency for men and women.

Table 11.5: Frequency of Internet use by gender, wave 3, per cent

Frequency	Male (n=853)	Female (n=720)	Total (n=1 573)
Daily	83.0	81.7	82.4
Weekly	10.1	7.6	9.0
Fortnightly	1.4	1.8	1.6
Monthly	2.5	3.5	2.9
Less than monthly	3.0	5.4	4.1

Of those who specified a frequency, most used the Internet daily. As was the case with access to the Internet, there was a statistically significant association with age but not with gender. For respondents who accessed the Internet, the older they were, the less frequently they used the Internet. Another factor associated with use is literacy. Those who are not literate[39] were significantly less likely to have the Internet at home compared to those with at least some level of literacy (56.8 per cent compared to 83.8 per cent). Those who are not literate but who have access to the Internet used it less frequently than those who are literate.

In terms of how BNLA respondents are using the Internet to help settle into Australia, 6.0 per cent of respondents said in wave 1 that they had used 'the newspaper or Internet' to help them find somewhere to live. Of those who had looked for work, 37.3 per cent had used the 'newspaper or Internet' and this rose to 45.0 per cent in wave 3.

Key observations and findings

- BNLA respondents have become more self-sufficient over time.
- Women report lower levels of self-sufficiency than men and the gap between them increased between waves 1 and 3. Understanding the reasons for this gap and looking for ways to increase self-sufficiency for women warrants further attention.
- Being a woman, being 65 years or older and being not literate are all associated with lower levels of self- sufficiency.
- Those who are more proficient in English have higher self- sufficiency scores.
- Overall, barriers to using government services decreased over time but language remains the greatest barrier. This has implications for the use of language services by government agencies and service providers.
- Most respondents had a driver's licence by wave 3, and having one is significantly associated with self- sufficiency.
- At wave 3, 86.6 per cent of respondents had access to the Internet at home (83.5 per cent) and/or somewhere else (5.7 per cent).
- Internet use is significantly associated with both gender and age, with women likely to use it less frequently than men. Usage decreased with age.
- Another factor associated with Internet use is literacy. Those who are not literate are significantly less likely to have the Internet at home (compared to those with at least some level of literacy). They also used the Internet less frequently.

[39] Respondents are defined as being illiterate if they responded 'not at all' to all questions about how well they can read and write in all languages they can speak, including English. Note that the questions about the main language spoken at home and English ask about reading and writing separately so a respondent who said they could read a little and write not at all would not be designated as illiterate. Proficiency in additional languages asked about reading and writing in a single combined question.

CHAPTER 12

COMMUNITY SUPPORT AND PARTICIPATION

Community support and participation

Community support

While Australian Government and state and territory governments provide settlement support to new arrivals, many humanitarian migrants also interact with and seek support from community groups and the wider Australian community. Many settle where they can receive support from family and friends or others from their cultural background.

In all three waves, BNLA asked respondents if they felt they had received support or comfort from their ethnic community, religious community[40] or other community groups. Proportions of respondents who had received support are in Figure 12.1. Some respondents received support from more than one type of group.

BNLA respondents were most likely to receive support from their ethnic communities but this proportion was slightly lower in wave 3. What is not clear is whether respondents needed less support the longer they had been in Australia or whether there was less support available from these groups.

“To be stronger with my family and friends and my community together”

In wave 1, the majority received support from at least one type of community group, 26.0 per cent received support from all three types, 16.1 per cent from two types and 15.0 per cent from one type. The remaining 42.8 per cent did not receive support from any type of community group.

Community engagement

In wave 1 and 3, principal respondents were asked how often they or family members living with them were involved in activities organised by their ethnic or religious community. Questions about school activities, parent support groups and youth groups were only asked of respondents with children in the household. The volunteering question asked about helping others in their ethnic or religious community. Figure 12.2 shows the rate of any participation by activity across the two waves. Responses of ‘daily’, ‘weekly’, ‘monthly’ and ‘a few times a year’ were combined to represent some participation as opposed to none.

Cultural activities, such as festivals and special days, had the highest level of participation followed by participation in school activities. Proportions of respondents participating in each type of activity was higher in wave 3.

Similar questions were asked of principal respondents about participation in activities organised by groups other than their ethnic or religious community (Figure 12.3). Respondents were only asked about youth groups in wave 3.

“Having the chance to study English is good because it helps me to improve and interpret with the community.”

As with participation in activities organised by ethnic or religious groups, proportions participating in each type of activity organised by other groups was higher in wave 3. Similar proportions of respondents participated in activities organised by the two different types of community groups.

Figure 12.1: Received support from community groups, wave 1 (n=2 399) and wave 3 (n=1 894), per cent

[40] This was not asked in wave 1 of respondents who said they had no religion but was asked in wave 3 of all respondents.

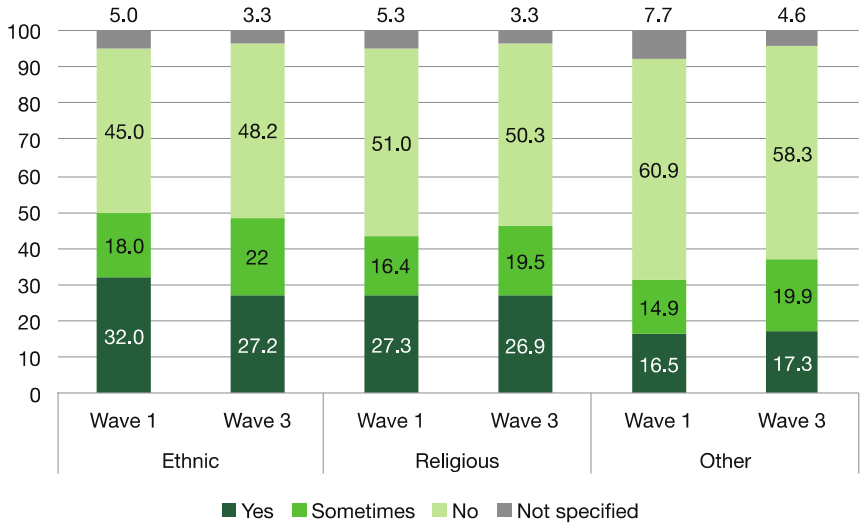
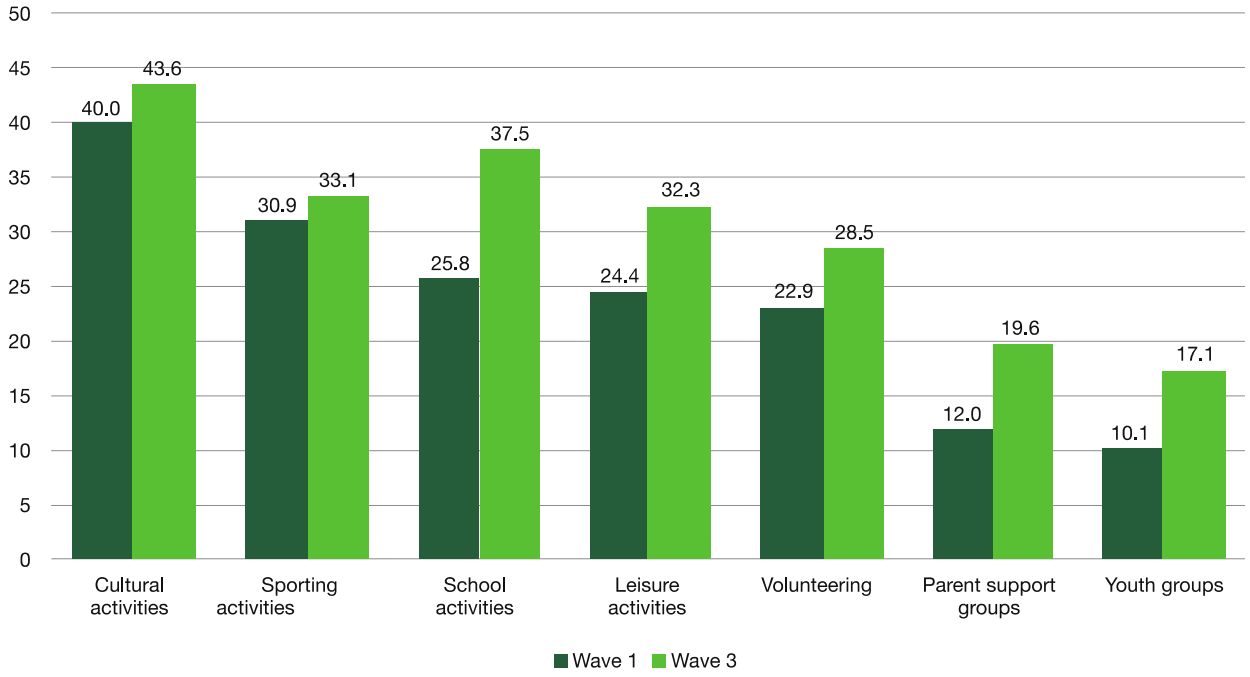
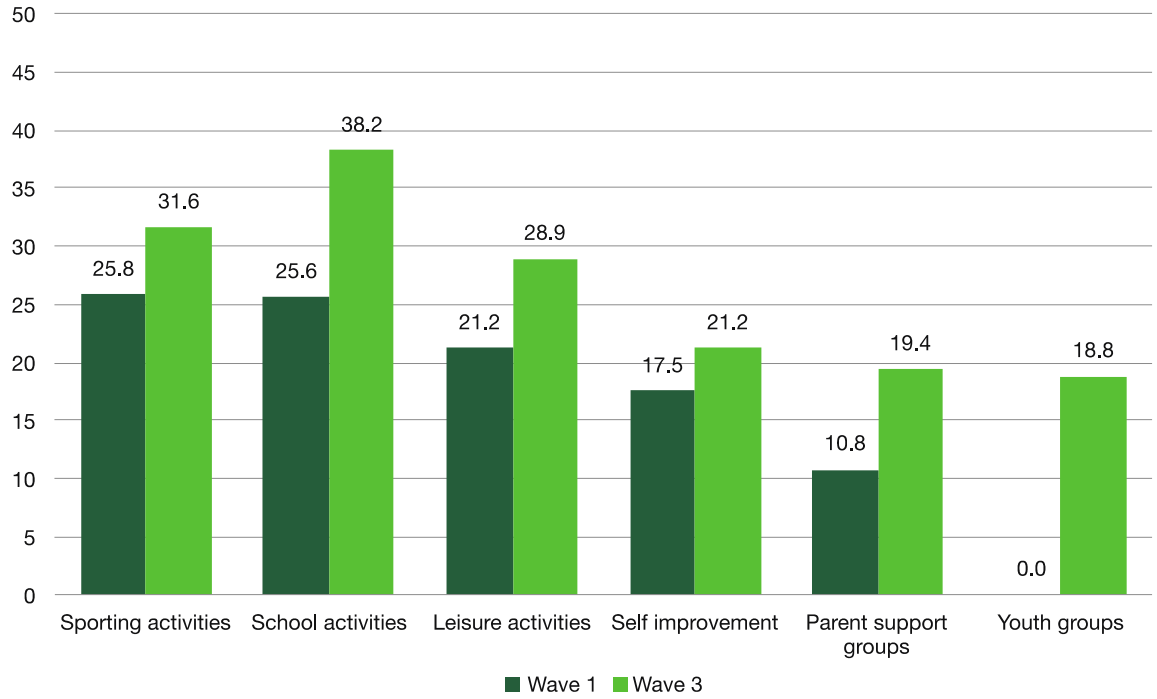


Figure 12.2: Participation in ethnic and religious community group activities, waves 1 and 3, per cent



Note: Around 1,400 principal respondents provided responses to the questions not specifically referring to children and around 630 responded to questions specific to child-related activities (school activities, parent support groups and youth groups). In wave 3, these numbers were around 1,130 and 600 respectively.

Figure 12.3: Participation in other community group activities, waves 1 and 3, per cent



Note: Around 1,400 primary respondents provided responses to the questions not specifically referring to children and around 630 responded to questions specific to child-related activities (school activities, parent support groups and youth groups). In wave 3, these numbers were around 1,120 and 600 respectively.

Interaction with the Australian community

BNLA also asked respondents how comfortable they felt interacting with the general Australian community. Table 12.1 shows the proportion of respondents reporting they found it 'easy' or 'very easy' to interact with the Australian community.

Table 12.1: Respondents finding it easy to interact with the Australian community, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Interaction	Wave 1	Wave 3
Understanding Australian ways and culture	47.3	59.4
Making friends in Australia	44.9	55.0
Talking to Australian neighbours	30.5	48.5

Note: Wave 1 n=2,081-2,221; Wave 3 n=1,765-1,801.

Higher proportions of respondents felt comfortable interacting within the Australian community in wave 3.

The three questions can be used to create a measure of how easy respondents found it to interact within the Australian community. Scores for the three questions (between zero for 'very hard' and three for 'very easy') were summed giving a potential score of nine. Higher scores reflected those who found it easier to interact with the community.

"We need to register in a sports club."

Overall, respondents considered it easier to interact in wave 3 (median score of 5) than in wave 1 (median score of 4). Most respondents with a score in both waves (n=1,430) had the same score (23.2 per cent) or a better score (51.7 per cent) in wave 3. A total of 25.1 per cent considered community interaction harder at wave 3 than at wave 1. One significant factor for this was language ability. Respondents who reported lower levels of ease in community interactions at wave 3 than in wave 1 were more likely to report lower levels of proficiency in understanding English in wave 3 than other respondents (62.5 per cent compared to 51.6 per cent reported not understanding English well or at all).

In waves 1 and 3, respondents were asked if they had any friends in Australia and, if so, whether they were mostly from their ethnic or religious community, other ethnic or religious communities, or a mix of both (Table 12.2).

Table 12.2: Friends in Australia, waves 1 and 3, per cent

Your friends are …	Wave 1 (n=2 134)	Wave 3 (n=1 846)
Mostly from my ethnic/religious community	47.4	39.8
Mostly from other ethnic/religious communities	3.5	4.5
A mixture	34.1	48.4
Do not have any friends in Australia yet	15.0	7.3

In wave 1, respondents were most likely to make friends within their ethnic or religious community. The second most common response was that friends were from a mix of their own and from other ethnic or religious communities. In wave 3 higher proportion of respondents reported having friends both from their own and other religious and ethnic communities. Most respondents had made friends in Australia even by the first interview and by wave 3 the proportion yet to make friends had dropped considerably.

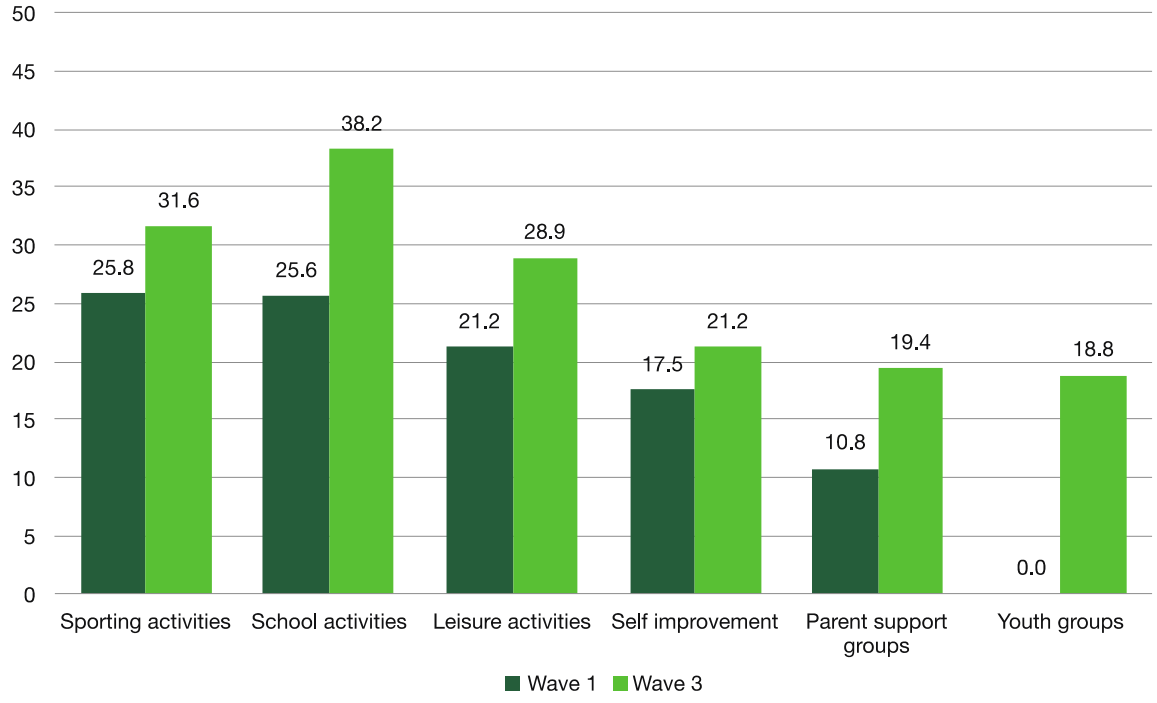
“I moved house to be in touch with Australians”

In both waves, women were significantly more likely than men to report not having any friends in Australia. Of those who provided a valid response in both waves, 84.6 per cent of men and 77.3 per cent of women reported having friends in both waves. However, respondent answers were not always consistent between waves: overall, 81.2 per cent reported having friends in both waves (n=1,807), 4.2 per cent reported having friends in wave 1 but not in wave 3, and 11.5 per cent reported no friends in wave 1 but having friends in wave 3. A total of 3.0 per cent reported having no friends in either wave.

Child interaction with the community

In waves 1 and 3, principal respondents were asked how easy they thought it was for their children to settle into life in Australia. Table 12.4 shows the proportion who responded ‘easy’ or ‘very easy’.

Figure 12.4: Respondents who thought their children found aspects of living in Australia easy, waves 1 and 3, per cent



Note: There were 602 to 629 respondents to each question in wave 1 and 591 to 603 respondents in wave 3.

Feeling accepted in Australia

Feeling part of the community is a two-way process and while respondents may have some choice over when and how they engage with the wider community, the behaviour of the community in which they live will also influence their sense

of belonging.

Respondents were asked in waves 1 and 3 if they felt welcome in their Australian community (Tables 12.3 and 12.4).

Table 12.3: Feels welcome in Australia, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=2 353)	**Wave 3 (n=1 863)**
Always	54.3	60.7
Most of the time	28.3	26.5
Some of the time	15.4	11.5
Never	2.0	1.3

Table 12.4: Feels part of the Australian community, waves 1 and 3, per cent

	Wave 1 (n=2 311)	**Wave 3 (n=1 861)**
Always	46.8	58.7
Most of the time	25.7	23.5
Some of the time	19.6	14.1
Hardly ever	4.8	2.4
Never	3.1	1.3

In wave 1, 82.6 per cent of respondents said they felt welcome and 72.5 per cent felt part of the Australian community 'always' or 'most of the time'. In wave 3, this was higher at 87.2 per cent and 82.2 per cent respectively. Only 1.3 per cent 'never' felt welcome in Australia, and the same number said they 'never' felt part of the community. In wave 1, 66.7 per cent of respondents responded 'always' or 'most of the time' to both questions. This rose to 77.9 per cent in wave 3.

Discrimination

Respondents were asked if they thought they had been discriminated against, stopped from doing something, or been hassled or made to feel inferior because of their ethnicity, religion or skin colour. In wave 1, this was for the period since arrival. In wave 3 it was for the previous 12 months.

The proportion of respondents who answered yes to the discrimination question was quite small (4.7 per cent of all wave 1 respondents) but this rose over time (7.8 per cent of all wave 3 respondents). This change may be in part because of increased English proficiency and ability to recognise verbal discrimination as opposed to increased discrimination. This hypothesis is supported by using bivariate regression analysis[41], which shows that respondents with lower levels of understanding English are significantly less likely to report experiencing discrimination. It may also be due to the different time periods referred to in the two waves (since arrival in wave 1 which was typically three to six months and to the previous 12 months in wave 3). Many factors likely influence this increase in discrimination, including increased confidence in Australian society, less acceptance of discrimination and greater exposure to more diverse situations.

The data shows a relationship between feeling welcome and discrimination. Despite the relatively small numbers who reported experiencing discrimination (113 in wave 1 and 147 in wave 3), respondents who had experienced discrimination were significantly less likely to say they felt welcome in Australia 'always' or 'most of the time' at wave 1 (65.8 per cent compared with 83.5 per cent who had not experienced discrimination). This difference at wave 3 is 61.4 per cent compared to 89.4 per cent.

"In Australia the people are very good, we have never been discriminated against"

Respondents who reported experiencing discrimination were asked where they had experienced it (Table 12.5).

In wave 1, respondents most commonly reported experiencing discrimination in the streets followed by on public

[41] More information on regression analysis is available on page 110. Bivariate analysis examines the association between the outcome variable and one characteristic only.

transport and in their neighbourhood. The question about discrimination in the workplace was asked of all respondents who had been discriminated against. Of those working or who had worked in the 12 months before interview, 42.6 per cent (20 respondents) had experienced discrimination in the workplace.

Table 12.5: Where discrimination was experienced, waves 1 and 3, numbers

Place	Wave 1 (n=107)	Wave 3 (n=132)
In the streets	59	68
On public transport	33	34
In their neighbourhood	31	37
Getting service in a shop or restaurant	19	15
Using government services	17	23
Getting housing	16	18
Getting financial assistance	7	7
Settlement case worker	7	2
The police	7	5
Getting medical care	5	12
Their workplace	N/A	23

Note: Multiple responses permitted.

Trust in people and groups

BNLA asked respondents about their level of trust in different types of people and groups. Answer options were ‘a lot’, ‘some’, ’’a little’ and ‘not at all’. Figures 12.5 and 12.6 compare responses for waves 1 and 3. Non-specific responses are also included, as these comprise a large and varying proportion of the responses for each type of person or group. Two additional questions were included in wave 3.

Figure 12.5: Trust in people and groups, wave 1 (n=2 399), per cent

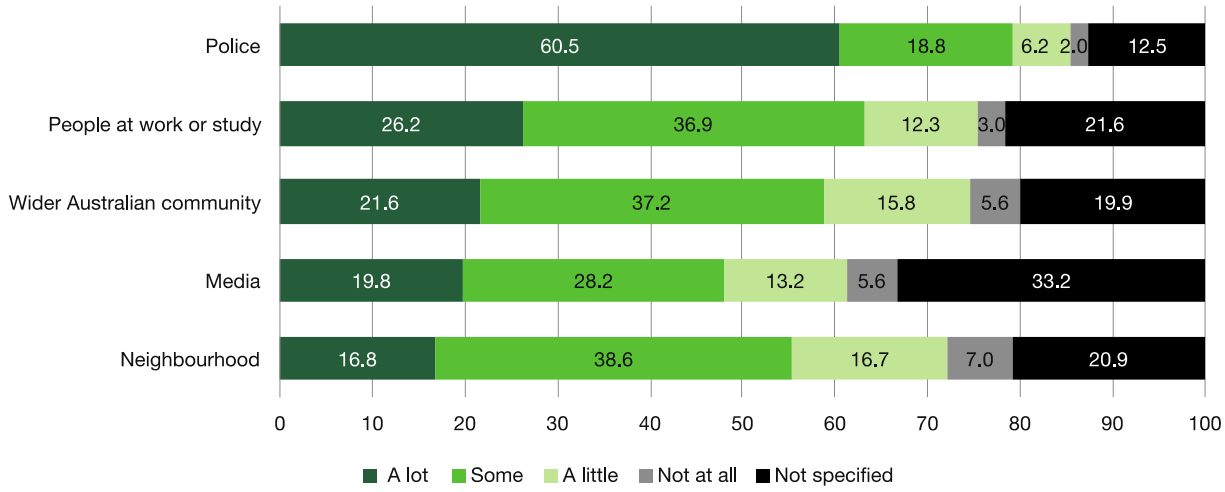
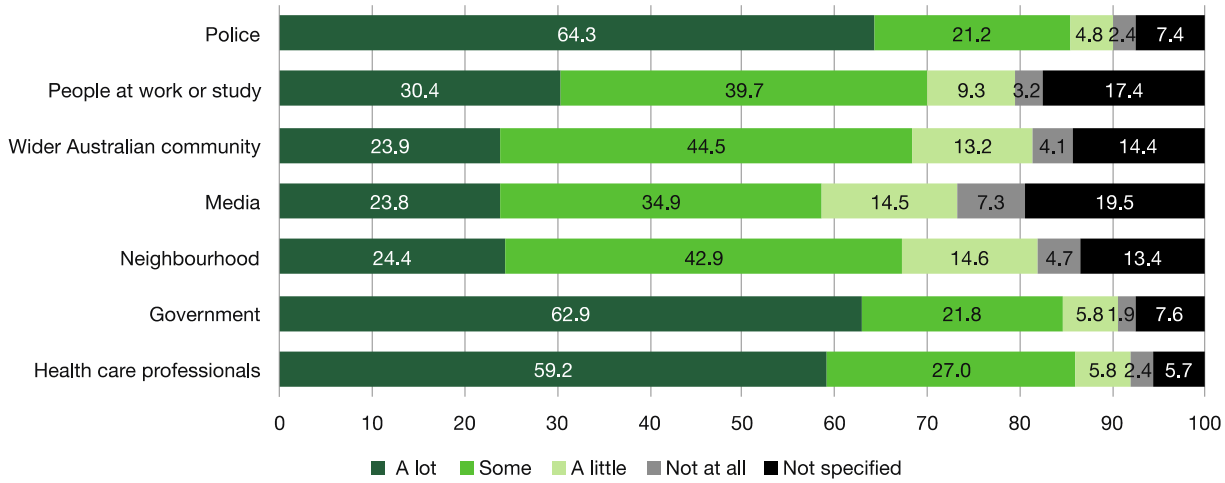


Figure 12.6: Trust in people and groups, wave 3 (n=1 894), per cent



In both waves, respondents were most likely to place high levels of trust in the police. Level of trust in all people or groups is significantly associated with experience of discrimination. Those who had experienced discrimination were much more likely to respond that they had a little or no trust in groups than those who had not experienced discrimination. For example, of those who had experienced discrimination in wave 3, 45.6 per cent had little or no trust in the people in their neighbourhood compared with 17.0 per cent of those who had not experienced discrimination.

Key findings and observations

- Around half the respondents received support from ethnic, religious or other types of community groups in wave 1.
- Respondents and/or their family members were engaged in various activities organised by community, ethnic or religious groups shortly after arrival in Australia and this was greater in wave 3 than in wave 1.
- Shortly after arrival in Australia, 85.0 per cent reported having friends in Australia. This increased to 92.7 per cent by wave 3.
- At wave 3, most respondents (60.7 per cent) always felt welcome in Australia. Another 26.5 per cent felt welcome most of the time.
- Overall, respondents reported that interaction with the Australian community became easier over time.
- The proportion of respondents who reported discrimination is low but increased between waves 1 and 3. It is not possible to determine why from the data.
- In wave 3 most respondents reported a high level of trust in various groups with 84.7 per cent reporting a lot or some trust in government and 86.2 per cent reporting a lot or some trust in health professionals.
- Trust in people in the neighbourhood was higher in wave 3 at 67.3 per cent compared with wave 1 (55.4 per cent).

CHAPTER 13

SETTLING INTO LIFE IN AUSTRALIA

Settling into life in Australia

The Settlement Outcomes of New Arrivals (SONA) study (2011), which looked at settlement experiences of migrants (in particular humanitarian migrants), identified four factors which significantly contributed to comfort in relation to settling into life in Australia. These factors were:

- happiness of the person (self-perceived level of happiness)
- their confidence in making life choices
- being treated well by the local community
- being able to find a place to live in Australia.

The study found that of the three visa streams examined (family, skilled and humanitarian), humanitarian migrants were significantly less positive about themselves than other migrants. For humanitarian migrants, levels of happiness, confidence and comfort did not change over five years (SONA 2011, pp. 45–46).

Yates et al. considered the personal wellbeing and life satisfaction of settling migrants in their study and found that two aspects of wellbeing were significant in developing positive feelings about living in Australia. These were '… relationships with friends and a sense of purpose (plans for the future)' (Yates et al., 2015, p.125).

"I thank the wonderful Australia people who received us with open minds"

The chapters in this report on housing and neighbourhoods and community participation examined outcomes for humanitarian migrants in relation to finding a place to live and acceptance in the community. This section explores what BNLA can tell us in relation to respondents' life satisfaction and self-confidence.

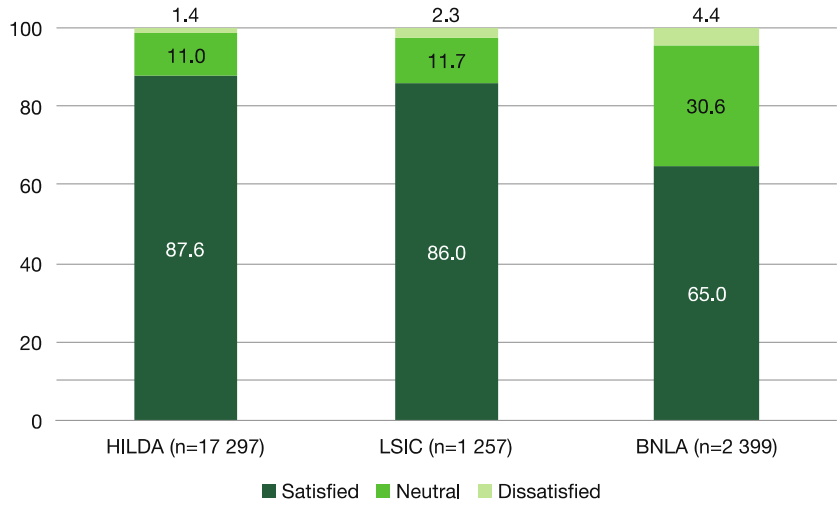
Life satisfaction

When asked to rate their overall settlement experience, most respondents in wave 1 (82.5 per cent) rated their overall settlement experience as 'very good' (23.4 per cent) or 'good' (59.1 per cent). By wave 3, this had risen to 89.1 per cent with 35.5 per cent rating their experience as 'very good' and 53.6 per cent rating it as 'good'.

Respondents were also asked how satisfied they were with their life overall considering their own life and personal circumstances. They were asked to rate their satisfaction on a scale of 0 to 10 where 0 represented 'total dissatisfaction' and 10 represented 'total satisfaction'. In wave 1, 27.8 per cent of respondents rated their life satisfaction as a whole as 10, with more than half rating it as eight or above. Principal respondents were again asked this question in wave 3 with very similar results.

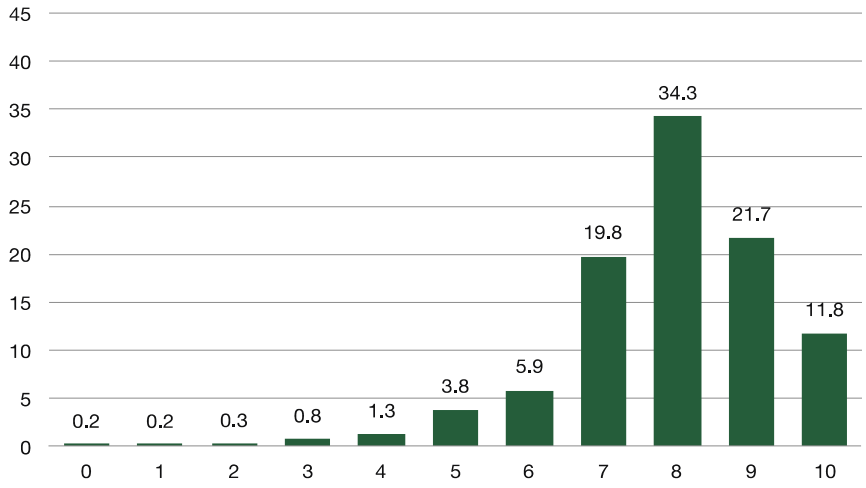
The same question is asked in other longitudinal studies so it is possible to compare the life satisfaction of BNLA respondents with that of the general population (using HILDA) and those of parents of Indigenous children (using LSIC). In Figure 13.1, the scale has been split into three with scores of 0 to 3 indicating dissatisfaction ('dissatisfied'), 4 to 6 indicating neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction ('neutral') and 7 to 10 indicating satisfaction ('satisfied').

Figure 13.1: Life satisfaction in HILDA, LSIC and BNLA



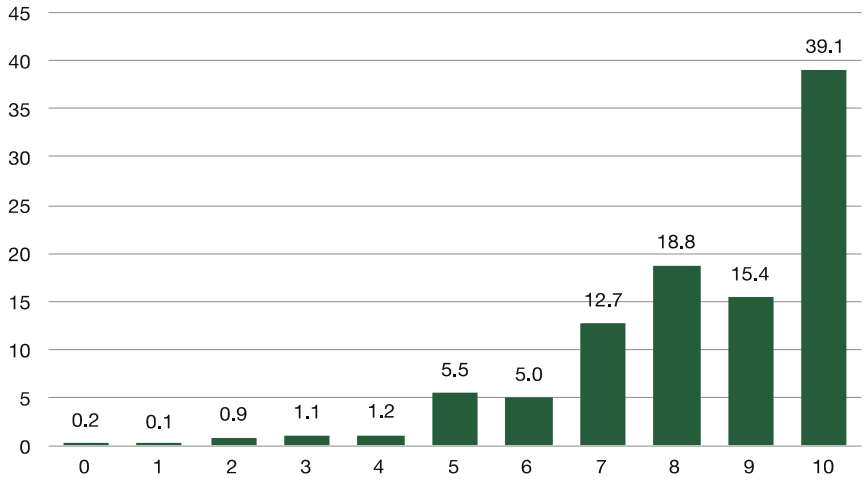
Note: HILDA percentages are population-weighted. BNLA and HILDA were collected in 2013 and LSIC data in 2012.

Figure 13.2: Life satisfaction in HILDA (n=1 297), per cent



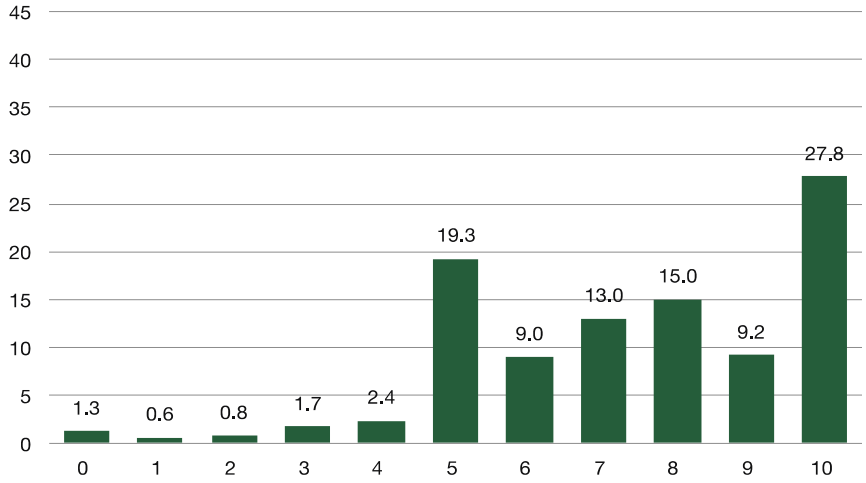
Note: HILDA percentages are population-weighted. Data collected in 2013.

Figure 13.3: Life satisfaction in LSIC (n=1 257), per cent



Note: Data collected in 2012

Figure 13.4: Life satisfaction in BNLA (n=2 399), per cent



Note: Data collected in 2013

Comparison across the three studies shows that BNLA respondents are less likely to express high levels of life satisfaction than those in HILDA and LSIC. However, there are several factors to note about this finding. Feedback from BNLA interviewers indicates that many respondents struggled with the concept of life satisfaction and rating it on an 11-point scale. In HILDA and LSIC, this question is preceded by questions asking about satisfaction with specific aspects of life such as housing, finances, work and relationships, which possibly prompts respondents to think more broadly about

the question in light of their previous responses. Figures 13.2 to 13.4 show the proportions of respondents choosing each point on the scale for the three studies.

Counterintuitive to Figure 13.1, BNLA respondents are much more likely to select a score of 10 than HILDA respondents but less likely than LSIC respondents. BNLA respondents are also more likely to select five (the mid-way point) than either of the other two studies. Whereas BNLA respondents are most likely to select five or 10, those in HILDA, representative of the Australia population, are most likely to select eight.

It is interesting to note the evidence that people from different cultural backgrounds tend to respond differently to these types of questions (Dolnicar & Grun, 2007). Figures 13.5 to 13.8 support this showing a marked variation within the BNLA sample by country of birth.

Figure 13.5: Life satisfaction, all BNLA sample, wave 1, per cent (n=2 399)

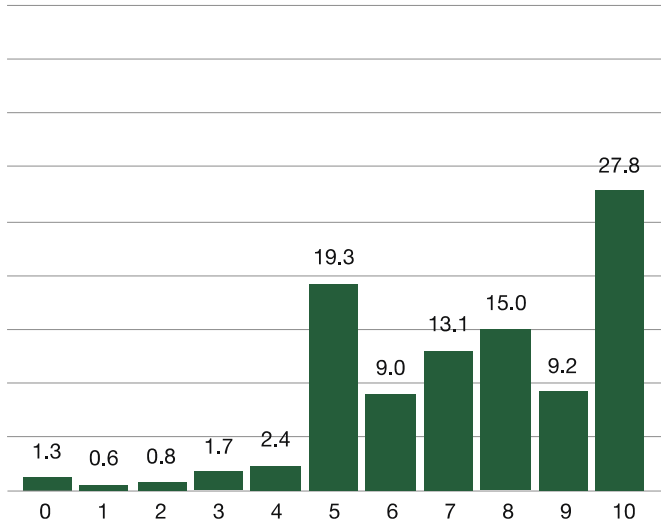


Figure 13.6: Life satisfaction, Afghanistan, wave 1, per cent (n=611)

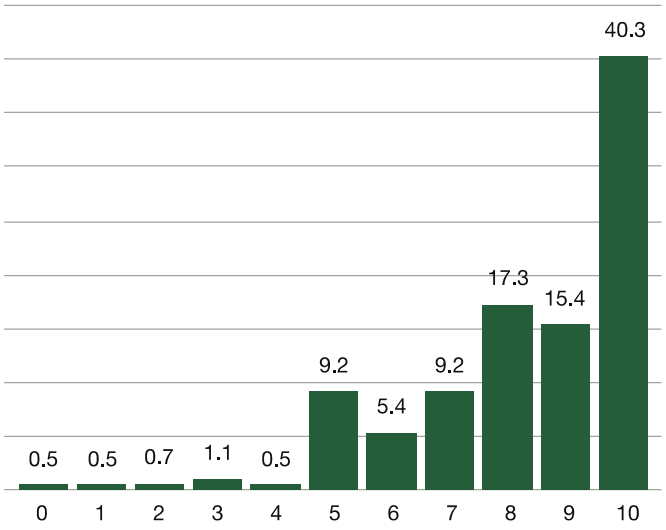


Figure 13.7: Life satisfaction, Bhutan, wave 1, per cent (n=84)

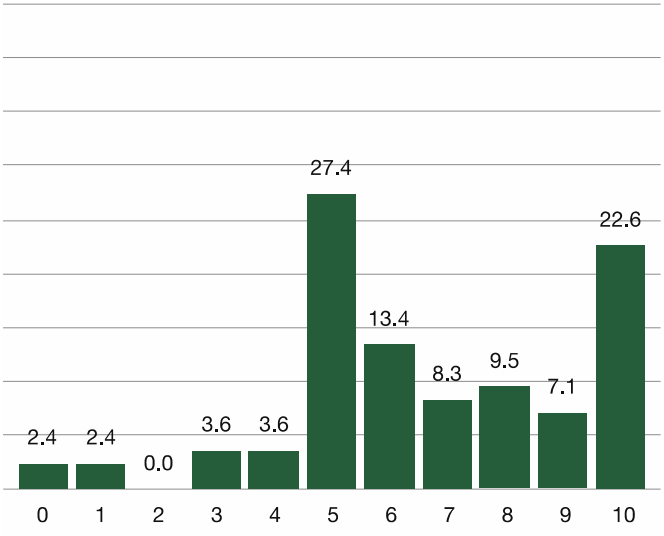
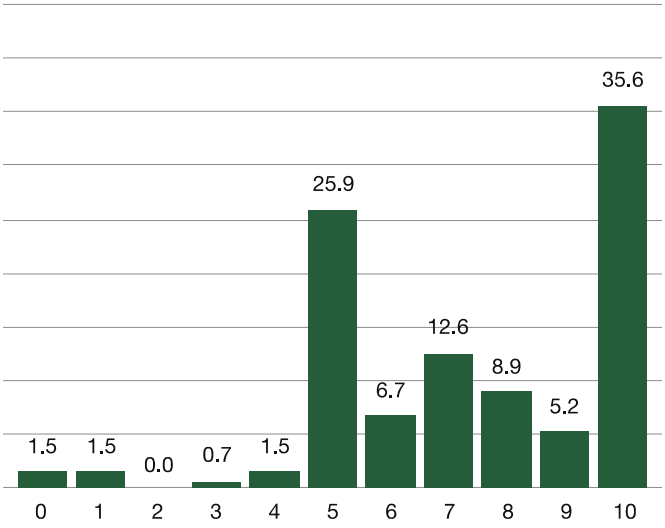


Figure 13.8: Life satisfaction, Myanmar, wave 1, per cent (n=135)



While the data on life satisfaction between, and even within, study samples is interesting, the variation in results suggests there may cultural effects which need to be accounted for and that this is not an adequate measure by which to determine success in settlement outcomes or people's life satisfaction. Therefore, caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions from this data.

Self-esteem and self-efficacy

BNLA includes a measure of self-esteem (feeling of self-worth) and a measure of self-efficacy (confidence in one's abilities to achieve intended results). Each measure is based on three questions about how respondents see themselves, with responses on a four-point scale. Self-esteem questions were only asked in wave 1 and self-efficacy questions in waves 1 and 3. Scores are the mean of the responses to the four questions and range from one to four expressed to one decimal place where a score of four reflects high self-esteem or self-efficacy.[42]

Overall, respondents report high scores in these measures with mean scores for the sample of 3.3 out of four for both self-esteem and self-efficacy in wave 1. Figure 13.9 shows the effect of characteristics on self-esteem scores when they are considered simultaneously. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a negative effect on self- esteem scores and bars to the right show a positive effect. Figure 13.10 shows the same information for self-efficacy. More information on interpreting the data is on page 110.

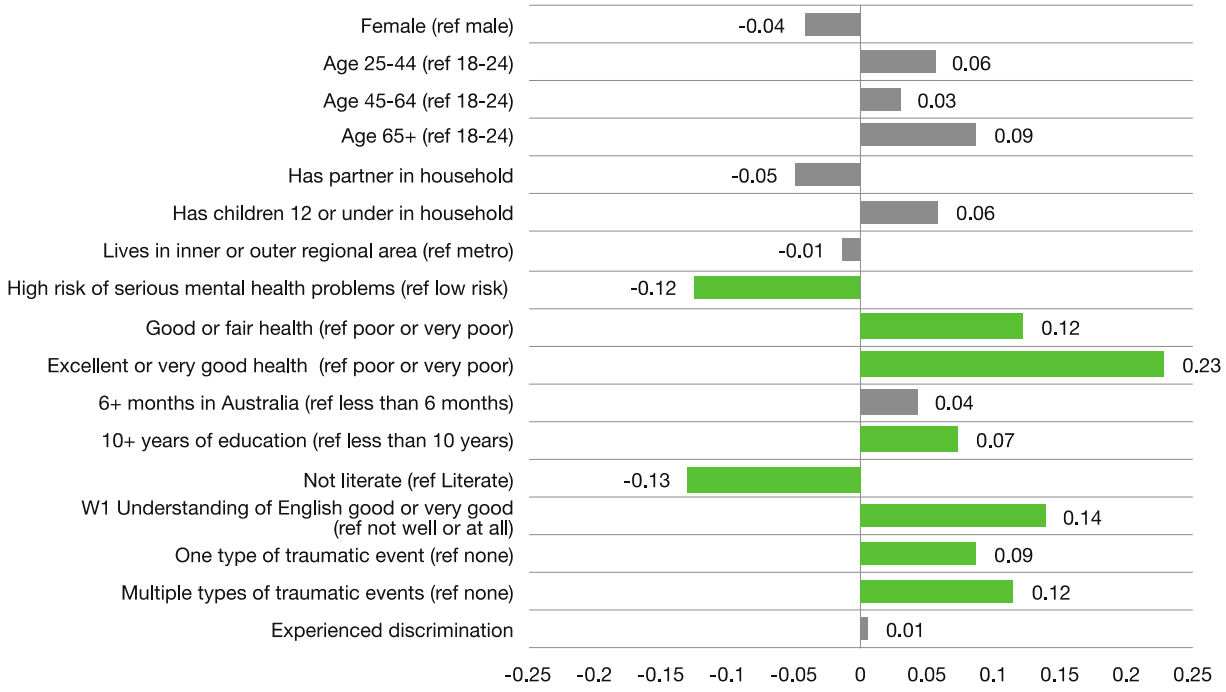
"I can see law and order which is good. I feel safe here"

The figure shows that having a high risk of mental health problems and being not literate are both associated with lower

[42] For this analysis, scores have been coded so higher scores mean greater self-esteem/self-efficacy.

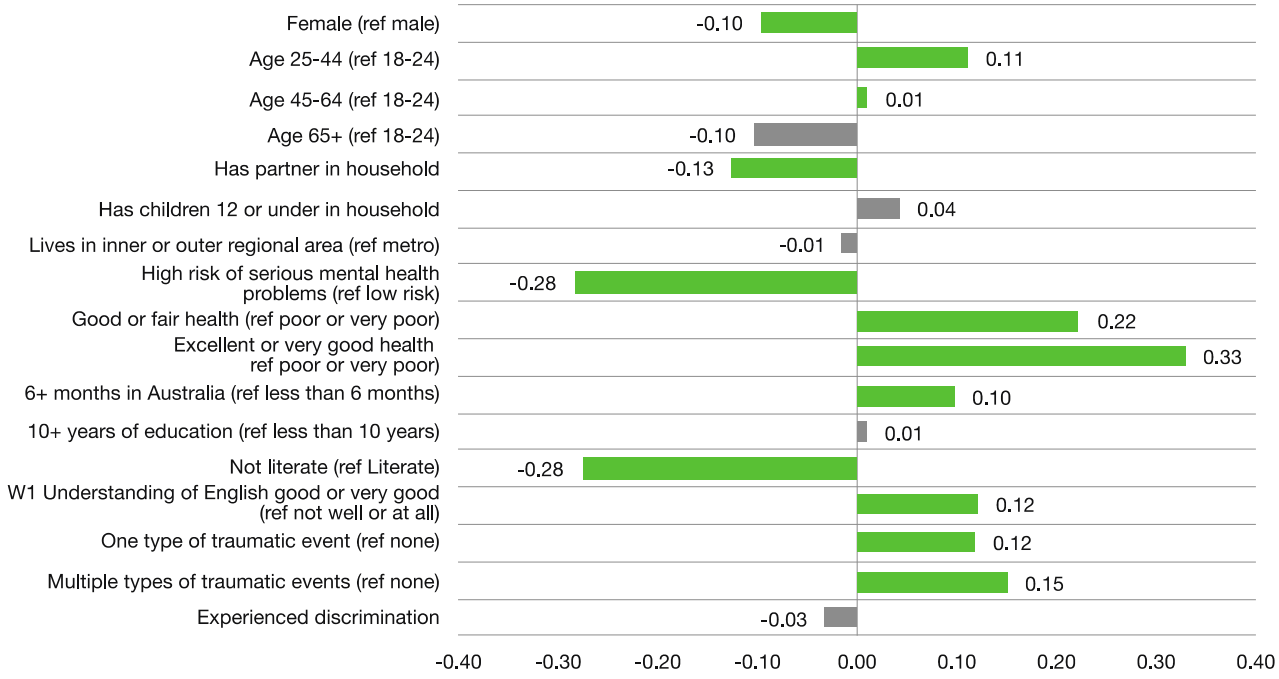
mean self-esteem scores (by 0.12 and 0.13 points respectively). This is out of a possible score ranging between 1 and 4, which means an increase of 4.0 and 4.3 per cent. Those with good or fair health have mean scores 0.12 points higher than those with poor or very poor health. This increases to 0.23 points for those with excellent or very good health. Having more education and better comprehension of spoken English are also associated with higher mean self-esteem scores. Pre-arrival experience of one or more types of traumatic events is significantly associated with higher self-esteem but the difference between those who experienced one type and those who experienced multiple types is not statistically significant. Other factors accounted for in this model do not show a significant association with self-esteem scores.

Figure 13.9: Characteristics associated with self-esteem scores in wave 1, OLS regression (coefficients) (n=1 585)



Note: Green bars indicate statistically significant characteristics. Grey bars indicate characteristics that are not statistically different. Adjusted R^2=0.0890. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Literacy is defined here as being able to read and write in at least one of the languages spoken by the respondent. This is defined in greater detail on page 110. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared to those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

Figure 13.10: Characteristics associated with self-efficacy scores in wave 1, OLS regression (coefficients) (n=1 595)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<<0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. Adjusted R^2=0.1467. Risk of serious mental health problems is based on the K6 measure of non-specific psychological distress. Respondents with scores over 19 are in this group. Literacy is defined here as not being able to read and write in any languages spoken by the respondent. This is defined in greater detail on page 110. Responses for those living in inner and outer regional areas, as defined by the ABS 2011 Remoteness Area Index, are combined in one category and compared to those living in metropolitan areas. Experience of traumatic events is based on responses in wave 3.

Compared with Figure 13.9 showing the effect of characteristics on self-esteem scores, Figure 13.10 shows that more of the characteristics used in these two models have a significant association with self-efficacy than self- esteem and that the size of the effect is greater. Being a woman and having a partner in the household were significantly associated with lower self-efficacy scores. As with self-esteem, having a high risk of serious mental health problems and not being literate are both significantly and negatively associated with self-efficacy but their effect is much larger (0.28 points in both cases). Respondents 25 to 44 years of age had significantly higher mean self-efficacy scores than the other three age groups. As with self-esteem, having better health, better comprehension of spoken English and pre-arrival experience of one or more traumatic events are all significantly associated with higher self-efficacy scores. Additionally, respondents who had been in Australia for six months or more at the time of interview, had scores 0.1 point higher than those who had arrived more recently.

While the characteristics examined in this model do not explain much of the variance of self-esteem scores or self-efficacy scores between individuals (8.9 per cent and 14.7 per cent respectively), there are nonetheless several significant relationships. Despite the two measures being highly correlated (correlation of 0.52), overall the observed characteristics seem to have more of a relationship with self-efficacy scores and can explain more of the variation. This is perhaps not surprising given that self-esteem reflects how individuals feel about themselves while self-efficacy is the belief in the ability to handle a range of situations, that is, to function in the outside world.

Pre-arrival expectations of life in Australia

In wave 1, principal respondents were asked questions to identify if pre-arrival expectations were met (Figure 13.11).

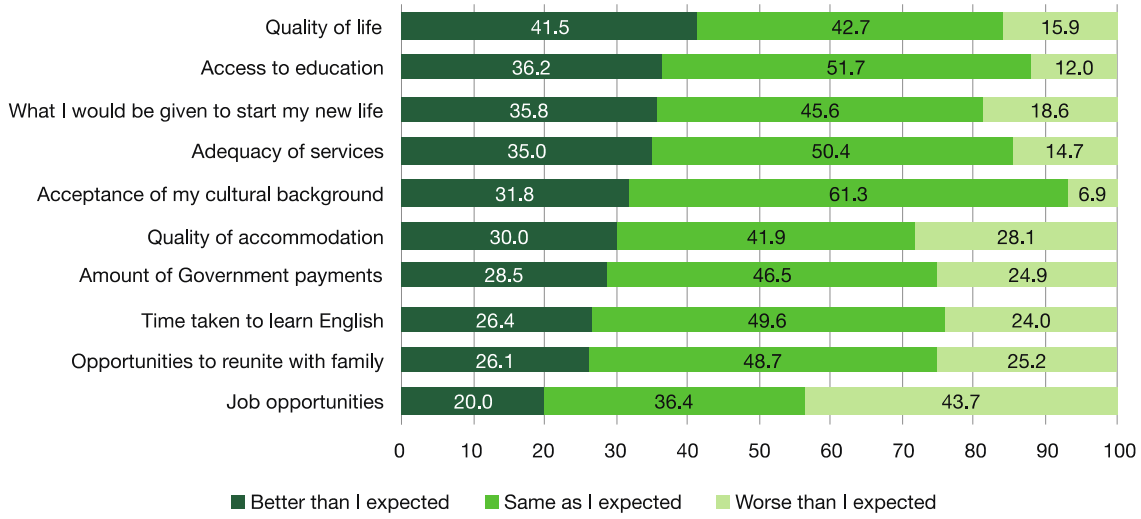
On all measures, more than half the respondents said their expectations were met or exceeded. Lack of job opportunities was the greatest disappointment in meeting expectations. Respondents who were currently in paid work were significantly more likely to say that job opportunities were better than they had expected than those not in paid work (27.5 per cent compared to 19.0 per cent). Even so, nearly one-third of those working said job opportunities were worse than they expected (32.5 per cent). Respondents with lower levels of English were more likely to respond that it was taking longer to find work than expected (30.5 per cent of those with lower levels compared to 13.3 per cent of those with good English comprehension).

“We received better support than we thought”

Principal respondents were asked in each wave if they wanted to stay in Australia. The overwhelming majority said they did. Only six respondents in wave 1 said they did not want to stay, two in wave 2 and one in wave 3. Some said they were unsure (36 in wave 1 and 28 and 19 in the two subsequent waves) and a few gave a non-specific response (8, 1, 6

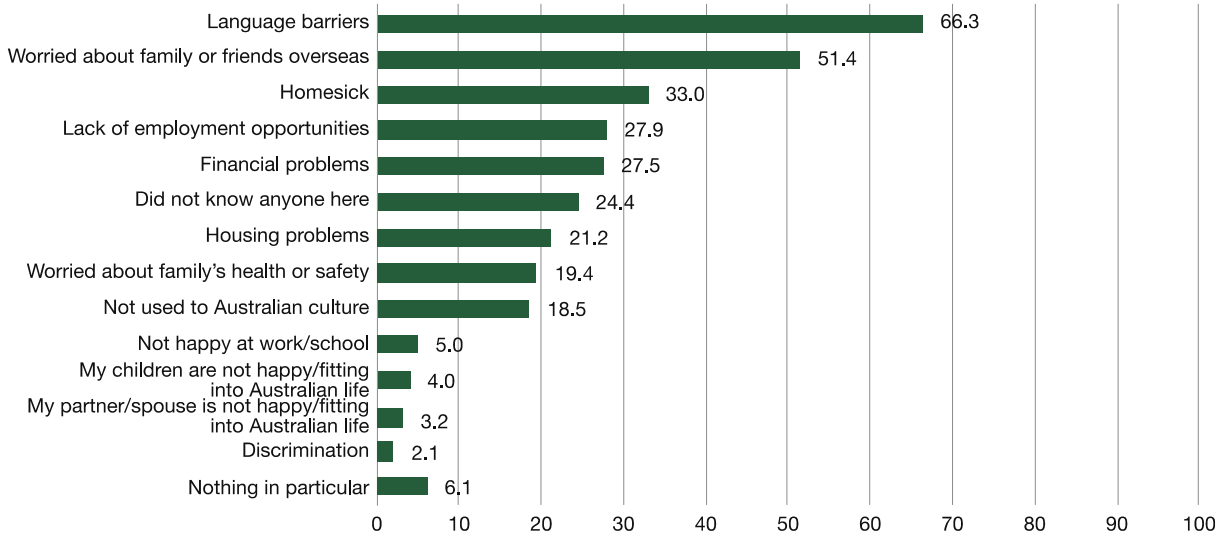
in the three waves respectively).

Figure 13.11: Degree to which pre-arrival expectations were met, per cent



Note: n=1,072-1,394.

Figure 13.12: Barriers to settling into life in Australia in wave 1 (n=2 327), per cent



Note: n=944 (for question about children).

Barriers and supports to settling into life in Australia

Respondents were asked about what made settling into their new life in Australia difficult. They could select multiple responses or a single response of 'nothing in particular' (Figure 13.12).

The most common barriers were language, worrying about family or friends overseas, homesickness, lack of employment opportunities and financial problems.

The greatest difficulty by far was the language barrier. Not surprisingly, respondents with better levels of English comprehension were less likely to select this as being a difficulty (44.4 per cent who had good English comprehension compared to 77.8 per cent who had poor comprehension). More than half the respondents had difficulty settling into life in Australia due to worrying about family or friends overseas.

Generally, these reasons do not occur in isolation. Only one-quarter of respondents (excluding those who responded 'nothing in particular') identified one difficulty with the remaining 75 per cent identifying between two and 12 difficulties.

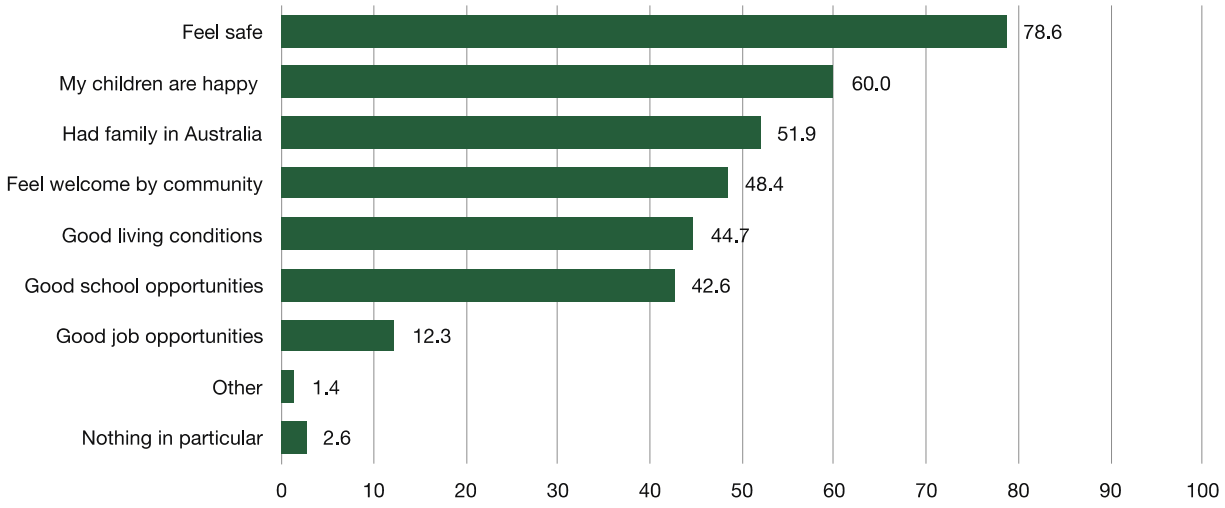
Figure 13.13 shows responses to questions about what had assisted respondents to start their new life in Australia. Again, they could select all that applied. Questions pertaining to children were only asked of those who lived with children.

Feeling safe and the happiness of their children were the two most commonly selected reasons that made it easier to settle into life in Australia. A relatively small proportion of respondents selected ‘good job opportunities’. One-third who selected ‘other’ went on to specify community and government services as something that helped them settle into life in Australia.

Key findings and observations

- While life satisfaction levels were lower for BNLA respondents compared to other Australians, respondents were generally happy with their overall settlement experience.
- Most respondents in wave 1 (82.5 per cent) rated their overall settlement experience as ‘very good’ (23.4 per cent) or ‘good’ (59.1 per cent). By wave 3, this had risen to 89.1 per cent with 35.5 per cent rating their experience as ‘very good’ and 53.6 per cent rating it as ‘good’.
- Language barriers, worrying about family and friends overseas, being homesick, lack of job opportunities and financial problems were most often identified as making it difficult to settle in.
- Factors assisting settlement were feeling safe, children being happy, having had family in Australia and feeling welcome by the community. Good living conditions and good school opportunities were also important.
- For each aspect of life in Australia, more than half the principal respondents said their pre-arrival expectations had been met or exceeded. Employment opportunities was the area that principal respondents were most likely to report not meeting their pre-arrival expectations.

Figure 13.13: Factors assisting settlement in Australia (n=2 344), per cent



Note: n=956 (for question about children).

CHAPTER 14

CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Children and youth

General background

A notable feature of wave 3 is the module on children. This module comprises two components; a parent report module and child self-report module.

Parents[43] (in most cases mothers) were invited to answer questions for up to two children 5 to 17 years of age. Parents completed the questionnaire for 689[44] children in this age group. Survey questions covered how the children were progressing at school, whether they were making friends, their health and wellbeing, and how they were adjusting to life in Australia.

The child self-reported module was completed by 423[45] children 11 to 17 years of age. Questions focused on mental health and behavioural outcomes. A major part of the child module was the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ), completed by the parents about their children and a self-report version by the children. Children also completed the same PTSD measure as their parents.[46] However, data from the module can be combined with information collected from other family members for a better understanding of experiences prior to arrival and interaction with family characteristics and settlement experiences.

"My wish is for my daughters to be very successful and reach their dreams"

The children who responded to the child module comprise 52.2 per cent males and 47.8 per cent females with an average age of 14 years. Most (70.4 per cent) responded to the questionnaire in English, 19.4 per cent in Arabic and nearly all remaining children in Persian or Dari.

Strengths and difficulties

The SDQ was developed by Robert Goodman for the behavioural screening of those 3 to 16 years of age (Goodman 1997). It comprises 25 questions.

The SDQ is used widely in Asia, Australia, Europe and the United States in social research, clinical assessments, epidemiology, evaluations of outcomes of everyday practice, and specific interventions in child and adolescent mental health services. It has also been used in other surveys in Australia, including the LSAC and the LSIC.

The SDQ can provide valuable information about children's behaviour, and can be used as a major outcome measure of children's social and emotional behavioural development. It attributes a score for the child's social and emotional behaviour across five scales: emotional symptoms; conduct problems; hyperactivity; peer problems; and prosocial behaviour. The first four scales measure aspects of behavioural difficulties. The prosocial scale measures strengths.

The score for each scale is based on five statements which respondents rate 'not true', 'somewhat true' or 'certainly true'. Scores for each statement are summed to create the scale scores.[47] For the first four subscales, higher scores indicate a greater risk of problems, so lower scores reflect a good outcome. The prosocial scale provides a score for strengths, so higher scores indicate less risk and reflect better prosocial skills.

Scores for the emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity and peer problems scales can be summed to provide an overall difficulties score ranging between 0 and 40.[48] The prosocial scale is analysed separately.

Scores can be divided into four categories identifying the relative risk of children developing social and emotional behavioural difficulties. Cut-off points for categories are based on a large United Kingdom (UK) population dividing scores such that 80 per cent of children had scores in the 'close to average' range, 10 per cent 'slightly raised' risk of developing difficulties, 5 per cent 'high' risk and 5 per cent 'very high' risk. Cut-off points vary for each scale and questionnaire type.[49] The UK norms have been chosen for this analysis as the best available for a sample from a diverse

[43] Some parents may not be the biological parents but they are responsible for the child in loco parentis.

[44] There were also parent responses for three children 18 years of age and two for whom age information was missing. These have been excluded from subsequent analyses.

[45] There were also child responses from one child 10 years of age and three 18 years of age. These are excluded from subsequent analyses.

[46] For more information see page 109.

[47] If responses for one or two items within a subscale were missing, the score for that scale was calculated by scaling up the sum of existing responses. In the cases where three or more items within a subscale were not completed by the respondent, the scale score was set to missing.

[48] If one or more of the four scale scores was missing, the total score was also set to missing.

[49] This system was developed only as a rough guide for screening for disorders. Also note that cohorts from other countries may have different cut-off

range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Self-reported overall difficulties scores were calculated for 413 children and prosocial scores for 420 children. Table 14.1 shows the proportion of children with scores in the close to average range for each scale for self-reported scores and parent-reported scores for each age group. Thus, proportions greater than 80 per cent indicate where on average the group is doing better than would be expected (based on the UK cohort) and proportions less than 80 per cent indicate where on average the group is having greater difficulties.

Overall, greater proportions of older children were in the close to average range than younger children. Both children and parents reported more than 80 per cent of older children had scores within the close to average range and just under 80 per cent of younger children were reported by their parents to be in that range. However, except for the peer problems scale, older children were more likely than their parents to report better outcomes. Table 14.1 shows that compared to UK norms, peer problems were the greatest difficulty across all three scores.

Including the same scale in LSAC and LSIC enables BNLA children to be compared to other Australian children. Table 14.2 shows the proportion of children in the close to average range in each scale across the three studies. LSAC and LSIC data was collected from parents when children were 6 to 7 years of age and BNLA data includes parent responses for children 5 to 10 years of age.

Table 14.2 shows that the proportion of BNLA children in the close to average range is more similar to the proportion of LSAC children than to those of LSIC children. The data is for comparative purposes only and it is likely that a complex set of circumstances affect scores for Indigenous children. BNLA children have the lowest proportions in the close to average range for both peer problems and prosocial behaviour domains. However, they also have slightly higher proportions in the conduct problems and hyperactivity domains.

Table 14.1: Children in the 'close to average' range for each domain scale based on UK norms, per cent

	Parent reported (5 to 10 years of age)	**Parent reported (11 to 17 years of age)**	**Child reported (11 to 17 years of age)**
Emotional symptoms	76.0	72.8	79.7
Conduct problems	78.4	82.7	89.2
Hyperactivity	84.3	88.9	95.9
Peer problems	60.3	58.6	55.8
Total difficulties score	78.9	82.5	84.7
Prosocial behaviour	68.6	71.4	81.9

Note: Parent reported 5 to 10 years n=204; Parent reported 11 to 17 years n=451-452; Child reported n=413-420).

Table 14.2: Children in the 'close to average' range for each scale based on UK norms across three Australian children's studies, per cent

	BNLA (humanitarian migrant children 5 to 10 years of age) (n=204)	**LSAC (Australian children 6 to 7 years of age) (n=8 548)**	**LSIC (Indigenous children 6 to 7years of age) (n=1 269)**
Emotional symptoms	76.0	83.6	68.5
Conduct problems	78.4	77.3	56.8
Hyperactivity	84.3	82.2	60.6
Peer problems	60.3	76.3	64.5
Total difficulties score	78.9	83.9	60.7

points to produce these groups.

	BNLA (humanitarian migrant children 5 to 10 years of age) (n=204)	LSAC (Australian children 6 to 7 years of age) (n=8 548)	LSIC (Indigenous children 6 to 7years of age) (n=1 269)
Prosocial behaviour	68.6	70.4	79.5

Note: LSAC data is population weighted. Total difficulty scores are the sum of four individual scores and proportions calculated separately.

Table 14.3 compares the distribution of total difficulties scores for the same children in BNLA, LSAC and LSIC. It shows the full distribution of proportions of children, not just those in the close to average range.

Table 14.3 shows that BNLA children aged 5 to 10 years closely follow the expected distribution for the first two categories although they have a higher representation in the 'very high' category than the expected norm. However, given the smaller sample size in BNLA, this is only a difference of a few children. The results suggest there is no great difference between LSAC and BNLA children. The age range for BNLA data is obviously greater than the 6 to 7 years age group for both LSAC and LSAC. However, when BNLA data is used to compare its 6 to 7 years age group (n=70) with its 5 to 10 years age group, there is no statistically significant difference in proportions for any of the four SDQ classification categories.

The range of child reported scores for those 11 to 17 years of age also closely followed the expected distribution for this scale with 84.7 per cent of children falling into the 'close to average' category, 7.5 per cent in 'slightly raised', 4.6 per cent in 'high' and 3.1 per cent in 'very high'.

Children in school and the community

School

As with all children in Australia, children of humanitarian migrants are required to go to school or sometimes, in the case of older children, participate in other training or employment. According to the parents' report, of the 689 children 5 to 17 years of age, 676 (98.1 per cent) were enrolled in school. Of the remaining 13, four were 5 years of age and three were 17 years of age. Further questions to both child and parents indicate how well children are settling into school and their new life in Australia.

Parents were asked about their children's overall achievements at school. Of the 678 children whose parents responded, 28.5 per cent had their achievement rated as 'excellent', 27.7 per cent as 'above average' and 37.8 per cent as 'average'. Only 6.0 per cent of parents thought their child was achieving below the average level.

Parents were also asked about the number of days their child had been absent from school in the previous four weeks of school. This question had a high non-response rate, with nearly one-quarter of parents (24.1 per cent who indicated their child was enrolled in school) not answering. Out of the 513 children for whom a response was provided, more than half (54.4 per cent) had not been absent and 32.6 per cent had been absent one or two days.

Those 11 to 17 years of age were also asked if in the last 12 months they had skipped school for a whole day. Of the 420 who responded, 76.4 per cent said they had never skipped school for a day. When asked a similar question, 84.8 per cent of LSAC children 14 and 15 years of age said they had never skipped school for a day in the last 12 months (Table 14.4).

"My childrens' education is one of the important issues"

It is important to note that, while the data shows that BNLA children are more likely to skip school than LSAC children, several factors may influence results. LSAC children are 14 or 15 years of age while BNLA children are 11 to 17 years of age. Differences may also exist in interpretation of the question between native English speakers and non-native English speakers. In response to a similar question about the number of times they had been suspended or expelled from school, 94.3 per cent of children said they had never been suspended or expelled, while 4.0 per cent had once and the remaining 1.7 per cent had multiple times. Of LSAC children 14 and 15 years of age, 90.9 per cent said they had never been suspended or expelled from school, 5.2 per cent had once and the remaining 3.9 had multiple times.

Table 14.3: Children in each category for total parent reported difficulties scores across three studies of Australian children, per cent

	Norms	BNLA (humanitarian children 5 to 10 years of age) (n=204)	LSAC (Australian children 6 to 7 years of age) (n=8 548)	LSIC (Indigenous children 6 to 7 years of age) (n=1 269)
Close to average	80.0	78.9	83.9	60.7
Slightly raised	10.0	9.8	8.2	15.7
High	5.0	3.9	4.2	11.3
Very high	5.0	7.4	3.7	12.3

Note: LSAC data is weighted. It was collected in 2006 and 2010. LSIC data was collected in 2011 and 2013. BNLA data was collected in 2015 and most children had been in Australia for 2.5 to 3 years.

Table 14.4: Children skipping school for a day in BNLA and LSAC, per cent

	BNLA (n=420)	LSAC (n=3 342)
Never skipped school for a whole day	76.4	84.8
Skipped school one or two days	11.7	9.2
Skipped school three or more days	11.9	6.0

Note: LSAC data is weighted.

Community

Information about children's involvement in school, sporting and community activities was collected through questions about regularly attending different types of activities. Proportions of children regularly attending various types of activities are reported in Table 14.5.

Table 14.5: Children regularly attending activities, per cent

Activity	Children regularly attending (n=423)
Team sport	57.0
Individual sport	49.6
Musical instruments or singing	23.9
Religious group	20.6
Ballet/dance	11.3

Children were most commonly involved in sporting activities with more than three-quarters involved in individual or team sports. Only 53 (12.5 per cent) did not regularly attend any of the activities asked about. Another 41.8 per cent attended one activity and 45.6 per cent more than one. Children who regularly attended any activity had average total difficulties scores of 2.6 points lower than those who did not.

Children overall said they enjoyed physical activity with 84.1 per cent saying they enjoyed it 'a lot' (56.7 per cent) or 'quite a lot' (27.4 per cent). Most children (two-thirds of those who responded) said they had engaged in physical activity that lasted 60 minutes or more at least once during the past week.

Children may have their achievement or participation acknowledged through awards, which engender feelings of self-worth and belonging. An award acknowledges that efforts have been seen and appreciated thereby building confidence. Confident children are more likely to be engaged, positive, enthusiastic and persistent (Raising Children, accessed 22 October 2017). BNLA children were asked if they had received any awards for participating in school, sporting or community activities (Table 14.6).

Table 14.6: Children who had received any awards, per cent

Achievement	Children receiving awards (n=423)
Sports award	39.7
Academic award	22.2
Selected to represent the school	18.7
Music, art or drama award	14.4
Community service award	7.1

Of the children who participated in individual or team sports (322, or 76.1 per cent of child respondents) nearly half (48.4 per cent) had received a sports award. Just over two- thirds (67.8 per cent) of all child respondents had received at least one award with 23.9 per cent receiving more than one type of award.[50]

English language skills

The child module does not include much detail about children's English proficiency but a few pieces of data offer some clues. As previously stated, 70.4 per cent of children completed the questionnaire using English despite the option to complete it in another language. This suggests a high level of confidence in English reading and comprehension ability. This contrasts with their parents with only 6.6 per cent completing the parent response child module in English.
The English comprehension skills of the parents who responded were examined, with 68.1 per cent saying that they did not understood English well or at all.

While there is no statistically significant difference between whether children responded in English or another language and their participation in activities, there is a difference with achievement. Of the children who completed the questionnaire in English, 73.2 per cent had received some type of award compared to 55.2 per cent who completed the questionnaire in another language.

When asked about the language they use to communicate, 77.9 per cent of children 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that they often used English (for example, talking to friends and family, reading books, watching television, using the Internet) and 57.2 per cent 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that they often used the language of their family. This suggests that the children were making the shift to English. However, there was still a high prevalence of bilingualism with 49.6 per cent of children saying they used both English and the language of their family.

Experience of racism or discrimination

The child module included four questions about experience of discrimination. Of those who responded to each question, 14.9 per cent said they had been treated unfairly due to language or accent, 5.7 per cent due to skin colour, 9.3 per cent for religious beliefs and 10.1 per cent due to cultural background. Of those who answered all four questions, 22.2 per cent experienced one or more type of discrimination. Children who said they had experienced any form of discrimination had an average of 3.9 points higher total difficulties scores than those who had not experienced any.

Experience of traumatic events

Children were asked two questions about their experience of dangerous or traumatic events. About one-fifth (20.3 per cent) said they had been exposed to traumatic events (such as extreme living conditions, direct experience of combat, or forced separation from family) and 17.3 per cent said they had experienced an event in which their safety or life was badly threatened. However, some did not respond to these two questions (7.6 per cent and 7.3 per cent respectively). Of the whole sample, including those who did not respond, 13.0 per cent responded yes to one question or the other and 12.3 per cent responded yes to both. Those children who responded yes to either question or both questions had an average of 1.8 points higher total difficulties scores than those who answered no to both questions.

Physical and mental health

Children were asked to rate their overall health, as were their parents in the main survey. Parents were also asked about their child's general health. Table 14.7 compares the children's responses and those of their parents.

[50] Note that the children were asked only about the type of awards and not the number.

Table 14.7: Child health rating (11 to 17-year cohort), per cent

Health status	Child report (n=397)	Parent report (n=397)
Excellent	41.6	40.1
Very good	34.3	33.0
Good	19.1	19.9
Fair	3.8	4.5
Poor	1.3	2.5

While the table shows little difference between the overall proportions in each group, a cross tabulation of the two groups shows that only 41.3 per cent of 397 parent/child groups concurred between the two sets of answers, 27.5 per cent of children rated their health lower than their parents and 31.2 per cent rated it higher than their parents. Children who reported good, fair or poor health had average total difficulties scores of 3.6 points higher than the children who reported excellent or very good health.

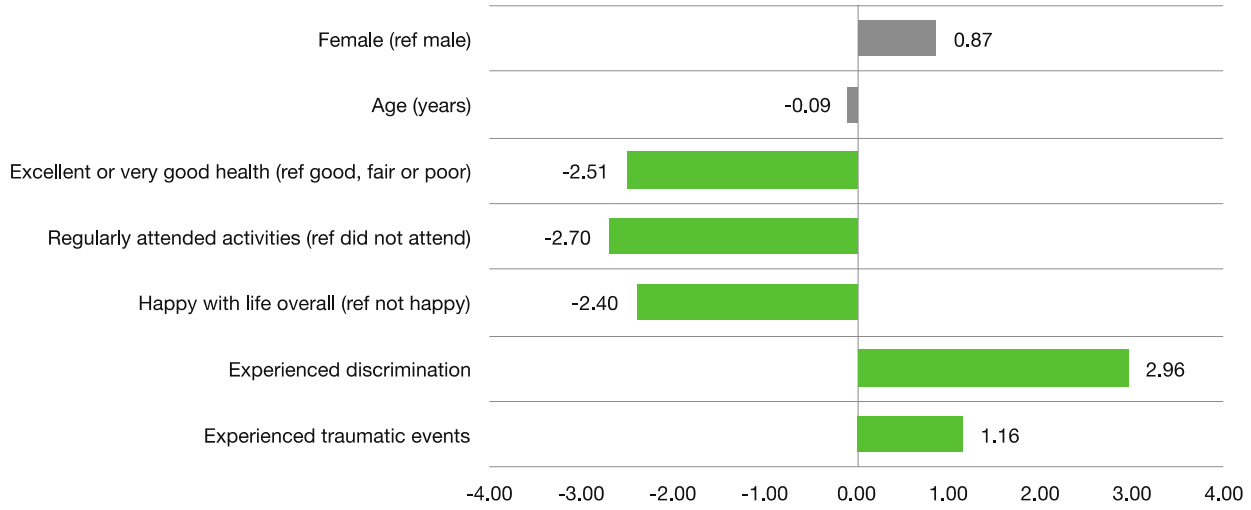
In addition to the SDQ, children's mental health was measured using the same PTSD measure as their parents. Of the 398 children who answered enough questions to create the measure, 15.6 per cent reported symptoms of PTSD in the week prior to completing the survey. While this is less than half of the proportion of the adult respondents (32.9 per cent) it is still high.

Children were asked the extent to which they agreed with the statement 'In general, I am happy with how things are for me in my life right now.' Most (86.3 per cent) 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed', while 13.7 per cent 'strongly disagreed', 'disagreed' or 'neither disagreed nor agreed'. Children who agreed or strongly agreed had average total difficulties scores 3.9 points lower than those who strongly disagreed, disagreed or neither disagreed nor agreed.

Characteristics affecting children's outcomes

Figure 14.1 shows the difference in total difficulties scores in the presence of particular characteristics when all characteristics are considered simultaneously. Bars to the left of 0.0 on the horizontal axis indicate a decrease in SDQ difficulties scores and therefore reflect a positive effect and bars to the right show an increase in SDQ difficulties scores and therefore reflect a negative effect.

Figure 14.1: Characteristics affecting 11 to 17-year cohort self-reported SDQ total difficulties scores, OLS regression (coefficients) (n=374)



Note: Green bars indicate statistical significance at p<0.05. Grey bars indicate the characteristic is not significant. Adjusted R^2=0.2053. Respondents are assumed not to have experienced traumatic events unless they responded positively to either question or both questions about the experience of traumatic events or having their life or safety threatened.

The figure shows the results for which characteristics retain a significant association with children's total difficulties scores when all characteristics are considered together. It shows that children regularly attending activities had mean

SDQ total difficulties scores 2.7 points lower than those not regularly attending and that children who are happy with life have mean difficulties scores 2.4 points lower than those who are not happy. Likewise, children with 'excellent' or 'very good' health had mean difficulties scores 2.5 points lower than those with 'poor', 'fair' or 'good' health. Experience of discrimination had the strongest association with total difficulties scores; children who had experienced discrimination had mean total difficulties scores nearly 3 points higher than those children who had not experienced it. Similarly, children who had experienced traumatic events before their arrival to Australia had higher difficulties scores (by 1.2 points) than those who had not. When all factors are considered simultaneously, gender and age did not have a significant association with SDQ difficulties scores.

The multivariate model accounts for 20.2 per cent of the variation in children's social and emotional difficulties scores.

Key findings and observations

- Overall, the children in BNLA were not at greater risk of social and emotional behavioural difficulties than other Australian children. However, they did experience more difficulties in their peer interactions.
- More than one-fifth (22.2 per cent) of the children had experienced some form of discrimination. This experience was the greatest contributor to increased social and emotional behavioural difficulties scores (3.0 points) in the model in Figure 14.1.
- Almost all BNLA children interviewed attended school. BNLA parents reported that most of their children were performing at an average, above average or excellent level in school.
- The children were also engaged in a range of activities, most commonly, individual or team sports.
- The children were shifting to using English while still maintaining their family's language.
- Despite having lower prevalence of experiencing PTSD symptoms than their parents, prevalence among BNLA children 11 to 17 years of age was still higher than is generally found in the wider population. This is worth considering when tailoring services for humanitarian migrant children.
- Regular attendance at sporting and cultural activities and having better health were associated with lower risk of social and emotional behavioural difficulties and experience of discrimination was associated with increased risk. Experience of discrimination and traumatic events was significantly associated with increased difficulties scores.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A — SETTLEMENT SERVICES

Settlement services provided by the Department of Social Services[51]

Settlement services and support for humanitarian entrants are designed to assist humanitarian entrants and eligible migrants in the first five years of arrival in Australia. These services are intended to complement the services available to all Australians. They are also designed to support the needs of each entrant and link them to appropriate support services. The services provided are listed here.

Australian Cultural Orientation Course

Humanitarian entrants over the age of five years are eligible to attend an Australian Cultural Orientation (AUSCO) course before departing for Australia. The program gives practical advice about the journey to Australia and information about what to expect after arriving. It helps ensure a successful start to the settlement journey.

Humanitarian Settlement Services program

Until 29 October 2017, the Humanitarian Settlement Services (HSS) program provided early practical support to humanitarian entrants on arrival and throughout their initial settlement, generally for the first six to 12 months.

Services included meeting clients when they arrived, help finding suitable accommodation, providing initial orientation and providing a package of basic household goods. HSS providers also assisted humanitarian entrants to register with Centrelink, Medicare, health services, banks and schools.

The HSS included an Onshore Orientation Program to assist with understanding Australian society, laws, values, rights and responsibilities.

Complex Case Support program

Until 29 October 2017, the Complex Case Support (CCS) program provided specialised and intensive case management services to eligible humanitarian entrants (including temporary and permanent protection visa holders) with exceptional needs that were beyond the scope of other settlement services.

CCS was generally available for up to five years after arrival (this could be longer in exceptional circumstances). It included access to various services including mental and physical health, disability services, family violence intervention, and support to manage accommodation, financial and legal issues.

Humanitarian Settlement Program

The Humanitarian Settlement Program (HSP) started on 30 October 2017. It merges the HSS and CCS programs into a streamlined, comprehensive program that assists clients to build the skills and knowledge needed to become self-reliant and active members of Australian society. The HSP has a renewed focus on English language, education and employment, and introduces new methods to track outcomes over time.

Under the HSP, humanitarian entrants receive a case management plan tailored to their needs and more intensive one-on-one support. Individual case managers help identify needs and goals and provide support to achieve outcomes. This includes support in the areas of physical and mental health and wellbeing, community participation and networking, family functioning and social support, language services, education and training, and employment.

Settlement Grants program

The Settlement Grants program assists humanitarian entrants and other vulnerable migrants in their first five years in Australia to become self-reliant and participate equitably in society. Services focus on fostering social participation, economic wellbeing, independence, personal wellbeing and community connectedness. Funded activities include casework and coordination, community coordination and development, youth settlement services and support for ethno-specific communities.

Free Translating and Interpreting Services

The Free Interpreting Service assists approved service providers to communicate with non-English speaking Australian

[51] More information on settlement services: https://www.dss.gov.au/settlement-and-multicultural-affairs/programs-policy/settlement-services

citizens and permanent residents. Providers include non-government organisations providing casework or emergency services, real estate agencies, local government authorities, Members of Parliament and trade unions. The service is also available to private medical practitioners and pharmacists to support them in communicating with non-English speaking Medicare card holders.

The Free Translating Service enables people settling permanently in Australia to have up to 10 personal documents translated within their first two years of arrival or eligible visa grant date.

Settlement services provided by other Australian government agencies

The Adult Migrant English Program[52]

The Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) provides up to 510 hours of English language tuition to eligible migrants and humanitarian entrants. This supports them to learn Functional English language and settlement skills so they can participate socially and economically in Australian society. Migrants must start tuition within 12 months of arrival and complete it within the first five years (Department of Education, 2015). From 1 July 2017, migrants with significant learning or other issues may also be eligible for additional English language support through AMEP sub-programs, including up to an additional 490 hours of tuition. The AMEP is administered by the Department of Education and Training.

jobactive[53]

jobactive connects job seekers with employers. It is delivered in more than 1,700 locations across Australia. Services are generally available for people on a working age income support payment, such as Newstart Allowance, Youth Allowance (other), or Parenting Payment. Mutual obligations are required, which are activities needed to be undertaken in return for a payment, like looking for work.

Upon arrival in Australia, many humanitarian migrants receive a working age income support payment, at least initially.

jobactive providers work closely with job seekers tailoring services to the job seeker's needs so they can find and keep a job. A jobactive provider does this in part through a facetoface meeting held with the job seeker to develop a job plan. The job plan could include:

- activities to help job seekers get the skills local employers are looking for
- ways job seekers can overcome or manage non- vocational issues
- requirement for job seekers to look for up to 20 jobs a month (this can be tailored to the job seeker's circumstances and local labour market conditions)
- approved activities job seekers can participate in, such as Work for the Dole, part-time work, part-time study in an eligible course, and participation in accredited language, literacy and numeracy training or volunteer work (for six months each year).

Services for job seekers from *jobactive* providers include:

- help to look for work, write a résumé and prepare for interviews
- referrals to jobs in the local area and help to relocate for work
- help to become job ready, including targeted training suited to the skills local employers need
- individualised case management support to complete Work for the Dole, or other eligible activities that provide work-like experiences, help to learn new skills and improve the job seeker's chances to find a jobfunding to pay for work-related items, professional services, relevant training and support after starting work.

jobactive is administered by the Department of Employment.

Program of Assistance for Survivors of Torture and Trauma[54]

The Program of Assistance for Survivors of Torture and Trauma (PASTT) provides specialised support services to permanently resettle humanitarian entrants and those on temporary substantive humanitarian visas living in the community who are experiencing psychological or psychosocial difficulties associated with surviving torture and trauma before coming to Australia. PASTT is administered by the Department of Health.

[52] More information on AMEP: https://www.education.gov.au/adult-migrant-english-program

[53] More information on *jobactive*: https://www.employment.gov.au/jobactive-help-job-seekers

[54] More information on PASTT: http://www.health.gov.au/internet/main/publishing.nsf/Content/mental-torture

APPENDIX B — STATISTICAL METHODS, SCALES AND TERMS USED IN THIS REPORT

Statistical terms

Balanced panel

A balanced panel restricts the sample used in the analysis to individuals who responded in all waves for the period of examination. In BNLA, 1,704 individuals responded in all of the first three waves, 2,009 in waves 1 and 2 and 1,894 in waves 1 and 3.

Coefficient

The result of a regression model is expressed as a coefficient, which quantifies the amount by which the outcome variable changes with each point increase in the explanatory variable. In understanding the magnitude of a coefficient, it is important to understand the scales of both the outcome and explanatory variable.

Cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis

Using data from one time point, cross-sectional statistical analysis can describe associations between variables at a specific point in time. However, using longitudinal data makes it possible to explore the effect of differences between individuals in the sample as well as what happens if circumstances for individuals change. For example, cross- sectional analysis may show that individuals with poor mental health are less likely to be working. Longitudinal analysis can distinguish the effects for those whose mental health is consistently good as opposed to consistently bad, as well as for those whose mental health improves or worsens over time.

Dichotomous variable

A dichotomous variable has two categories, for example good or bad, male or female, above or below the mean.

Logistic regression

Logistic regression is a type of regression analysis that uses dichotomous outcomes variables, that is, variables that only have two categories (employed/not employed, speaks English well/does not speak English well). Some explanatory variables may also be categorised (examples: male or female; level of education; living in major urban area, inner, or outer regional area). In such cases, one category is used as a reference category and results for the other categories are reported relative to the reference group.

Results of logistic regression analyses in this report are presented as marginal effects, which estimates by how many percentage points the outcome is more or less likely to occur for those with a particular characteristic.

Longitudinal analysis

See cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis.

Non-specific response

In this report, ‘non-specific response’ describes response options that indicate the respondent has chosen not to provide a definitive response. In BNLA, these response options include ‘don’t know’, ‘prefer not to say’ and ‘does not apply’. These categories are only assigned to respondents eligible to answer the question. Most of the data and analysis shown in this report excludes these responses.

Regression models

A regression model is used to identify associations between an outcome variable, such as employment, English proficiency or self-sufficiency score, and one or more explanatory variables, such as age, gender, length of time in Australia or work experience. A regression model shows how the value of the outcome variable changes when any explanatory variable changes holding others explanatory variables unchanged.

Statistical significance

This indicates the probability that the observed difference has occurred by chance. This report uses a 5 per cent significance benchmark, that is, if a result has a less than 5 per cent likelihood of occurring by chance, it is considered statistically significant.

Scales and measures

Kessler 6

The Kessler 6 (K6) is a measure of non-specific psychological distress. It is a tool often used for screening mental health issues in a general adult population. The scale was designed to be sensitive around the threshold for the clinically significant range of the distribution of non-specific distress to maximise the ability to discriminate cases of serious mental illness from the rest.

Respondents are asked to indicate how often in the last four weeks they felt;

- nervous
- hopeless
- restless or fidgety
- that everything was an effort
- so sad that nothing could cheer them up
- worthless

Responses are on a five-point scale ranging from 'none of the time' to 'all of the time'. Scores range from 6 to 30 where a score of 6 indicates no psychological distress and a score of 30 indicates extreme psychological distress. These scores can be used as a continuous scale or divided into two groups indicating whether an individual has a high risk of serious mental health problems. Those who scored 19 or above on the scale are classified as having a high risk of serious mental health problems.

PTSD

The measure of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) used in BNLA is based on the PTSD-8, an eight-question scale developed as a screening tool to be used by health professionals for initial identification of likelihood of PTSD. The scale has been shown to work effectively in varying trauma samples characterised by different periods of time elapsed post trauma and with varying prevalence rates of PTSD (Hansen et al., 2010). These characteristics make it a suitable choice for administration within the BNLA survey. It should be noted, however, that it is a measure of likelihood and not a diagnosis although it has been shown to be an accurate predictor. The measure divides respondents into two categories; those who meet the criteria for PTSD; and those who do not. Respondents are asked the extent to which they experience eight PTSD symptoms. Four of the questions measure intrusion, two avoidance and two hypervigilance. Respondents meet the criteria for PTSD if they respond 'sometimes' or 'most of the time' to one or more of the questions in each of the three domains.

However, the BNLA measure does not use the correct period, using the last week instead of since the event. The outcome therefore cannot be used to measure 'meeting the criteria for PTSD' as intended. It is more accurately a reflection of whether respondents have experienced symptoms of PTSD in the week before interview.

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)

The SDQ allows attribution of a score for a child's social and emotional behaviour across five scales: emotional symptoms; conduct problems; hyperactivity; peer problems; and prosocial behaviour. The first four scales measure various aspects of behavioural difficulties, while the prosocial scale measures strengths.

The score for each scale is based on five statements. For each statement, respondents provide a rating on a three-point scale ('not true', 'somewhat true' and 'certainly true') giving each statement a score between zero and two. Scores for individual items are summed to create the five scale scores.[55] For the first four subscales, higher scores indicate a greater risk of problems in each area so lower scores reflect a good outcome. The prosocial scale provides a score for strengths, so higher scores indicate less risk.

The scores for emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity and peer problems scales can be added together to provide an overall difficulties score.[56] The prosocial scale is analysed separately.

Self-sufficiency scale

This scale is based on a set of questions asking if respondents would know 'well', 'fairly well', 'know a little' or 'not know at all' how to

- look for a job
- find a school or childcare (only asked of respondents with children)

[55] If responses for one or two items within a subscale were missing, the score for that domain was calculated by scaling up the sum of existing responses. In the cases where three or more items within a subscale were not completed by the respondent the scale score was set to missing.

[56] If one or more of the four scale scores was missing, the total score was also set to missing.

- how to use public transport
- get help in an emergency
- use bank services
- find out about government benefits and services
- find out about their rights
- get help from the police

A score is applied to each question ranging from zero for responses of 'not know at all' to three for 'know well'. Scores for the eight questions are summed to give a score of between 0 and 24 where higher scores indicate a greater level of self-sufficiency. The questions are not a recognised scale for measuring self-sufficiency. They have high internal consistency[57] suggesting they work well used as a scale.

Self-esteem scale

The self-esteem scale is based on responses ('strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree') to these statements:

I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

I am able to do things as well as most people.

I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Scores for the three statements are averaged giving a score ranging from one to four (to one decimal place) with a score of four reflecting high self-esteem. These questions were only asked in wave 1.

Self-efficacy scale

The self-efficacy scale is based on responses ('strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree') to these statements:

I am certain I can accomplish my goals.

If I am in trouble, I can think of a good solution.

I can handle whatever comes my way.

Scores for the three statements are averaged giving a score ranging from one to four (to one decimal place) with a score of four reflecting high self-efficacy. These questions were asked in waves 1 and 3.

Literacy

Respondents are defined as being not literate if they responded 'not at all' to all questions about how well they can read and write in all languages they can speak, including English. Questions about the main language spoken at home and English ask about reading and writing separately so a respondent who said they could read a little and write not at all would not be designated as not literate. Proficiency in additional languages was asked in a single combined question about reading and writing.

Interpreting regression analysis in this report

This report includes charts showing results from regression analyses which may be unfamiliar to some readers. This section provides additional explanation on reading such charts.

A regression analysis is used to identify what characteristics predict differences in outcomes. It shows the associations between an outcome variable such as employment, English proficiency or self-sufficiency and one or more explanatory variables such as age, gender, length of time in Australia or work experience. It shows how the value of the outcome variable changes when any explanatory variable changes while holding other explanatory variables unchanged. Regression analyses in this report present information about the size of the difference and if the difference is statistically significant. All regression analyses in this report take into account multiple relevant characteristics simultaneously.

The type of regression analysis used depends on whether the outcome variable is dichotomous (has only two possible values, for example male/female or not working/working) or continuous (many possible values, for example age

[57] Cronbach's alpha of 0.9149 and 0.9267 in waves 1 and 3 respectively.

or scores).

Two types of regression analyses are used in this report:

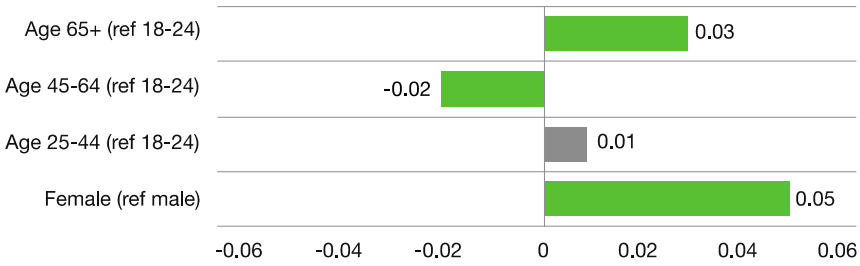
Logistic regression (marginal effects) shows the likelihood in percentage points that a respondent with a particular characteristic is more or less likely to have the outcome. The outcome is dichotomous. Results are presented as a positive or negative number between 0 and 1. For example, in a model measuring the likelihood of being able to understand spoken English well or very well, a result of -0.2 for women means that women are 20 percentage points less likely than men to understand English well or very well. A result of 0.2 would mean that women are 20 percentage points more likely than men to understand English well or very well.

Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression shows similar relationships between outcome and explanatory variables as a logistic regression, but uses a continuous outcome variable and expresses the result as a coefficient. A coefficient shows the difference in the mean outcome score for respondents with a particular characteristic compared to those without. For example, in a model measuring the effect on self-esteem, a result of -0.2 for women means that women have mean scores 0.2 points lower than men. The size of the coefficient needs to be considered in the context of the scale of the both the explanatory and the outcome variables. A 0.2 point difference is much larger if the outcome variable varies between zero and five than if it varies between zero and ten. The following provides an example:

Suppose the outcome variable measures whether people say they are happy or not. We want to see how gender and age affect how people respond. Results are compared against reference categories. In the case of gender, females are compared to the reference category of males and in the case of age, results for respondents 25 to 44 years of age, 45 to 64 years of age and 65 years of age and over are compared against the results for respondents 18 to 24 years of age. Results are shown in Example 1.

Bars to the left of 0.00 on the horizontal axis indicate characteristics associated with lower likelihood of being happy and the bars to the right indicate characteristics associated with greater likelihood of being happy. The blue bars indicate results that are significantly different from the reference category (males and respondents 18 to 24 years of age in this example). Grey bars indicate where the difference is not significant. Therefore, the example figure tells us that women are five percentage points more likely than men to be happier and this is a significant difference. Respondents who are 25 to 44 years of age are not significantly happier than those 18 to 24 years of age, but those 45 to 64 years of age are significantly less likely to be happy (by 2.0 percentage points) than are respondents 18 to 24 years of age. On the other hand, respondents 65 years of age and over are 3 percentage points more likely than those 18 to 24 years of age to be happy.

Example 1: Characteristics associated with being happy, logistic regression (marginal effects)



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