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POPULATION AGEING AND THE A-B-C OF EDUCATIONAL DEMAND: A FOCUS ON TASMANIA AND SOUTH AUSTRALIA

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The ageing of the population will accompanied by significant declines in the population of school, tertiary, and working age. This will mean substantial competition between tertiary education and labour markets for young participants. This situation will vary in different regions, and though it will create strains, not all of the effects will be negative. Indeed, young people — and perhaps lecturers in tertiary institutions — should be able to look forward to a more agreeable future, especially in the demographically older regions. This paper outlines the situation for Australia, with a focus on Australia's two demographically oldest States: Tasmania and South Australia.

Almost globally, the focus of population ageing is the forthcoming increase in the numbers and proportions of elderly, and the associated decline in the Potential Support Ratio (PSR) — the ratio of those at 'working age' (15-64 years) to those over the age of 65. Attention is also increasingly being given to the projected decline — both proportionate numerical — in the working population itself, and to the sorts of strategies that might prevent this decline from becoming too severe.1 By contrast, somewhat less attention is being paid to the channel through which the working age population must first pass, and where an equally profound impact of structural ageing is manifesting itself: the educational sector.² Specifically, school and tertiary education rolls in many regions are projected to decline by even greater magnitudes than the projected increases in the numbers and proportions of elderly. By contrast, at this moment, the primary concern in the educational sector appears to be the forthcoming loss of 'baby boomer' teachers to retirement, raising concerns of a looming 'crisis' in education as student numbers exceed available teachers.³

This concern is not without substance in some regions. However, the marked regionality of population ageing in Australia will see the 'crisis in education' take very different forms in each State and Territory. In the regions where age structure is relatively young, projected student numbers may well mean that staff student ratios will fall for a period. But in regions where the age structure is older the declining numbers of students who have not been — and are not being — born will generate the opposite situation, fewer students per staff member instead of more. Additionally in the older regions, fairly imminent interactions between declining student numbers and declining numbers of labour market entrants are likely to generate significant competition between higher education and labour markets for the participation of the young.

These regionally divergent trends will have many implications, some negative, some positive, but most running counter to popular views that anticipate everincreasing numbers of students in higher education together with ever increasing levels of participation. This paper outlines the argument, with a focus on the projected trends in Australia's two demographically oldest States, South Australia and Tasmania. The effects of structural ageing on these States' current public/private division of primary and secondary schooling are also noted.

BIRTH RATES, COHORT SIZES, AND REGIONAL DISPARITIES IN PROJECTED SCHOOL AND TERTIARY POPULATIONS

Although Australia's total fertility rate has been falling almost monotonically for four decades, actual numbers of births have, until recently, changed very little. This is because of the 'momentum effect' — an increase in the numbers of women arriving at reproductive age each year, due in part to higher and more universal fertility when the women themselves were born, and in part to international migration. However, the momentum effect is now almost played out; total numbers of births are now falling, and are projected to continue to decline slowly across at least the next half century. 5

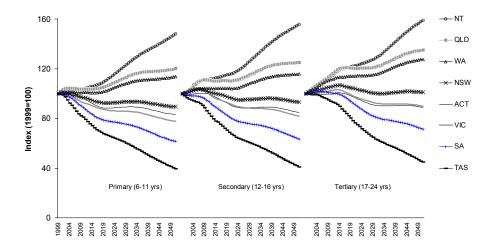
The situation at the national level is not, however, evenly reflected across Australia's States and Territories. Total fertility rates range from 1.6 in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) to 2.2 in the Northern Territory (NT), and are applied to markedly different age structures, these two regions being Australia's youngest. Australia's second-highest fertility rate (1.9) in Tasmania is, conversely, applied to Australia's second-oldest region (in terms of age structure) and, moreover, to an age structure with a significant deficit of people of reproductive age, the result of recent net migration losses. 6 Together these regional differences, along with those assumed for future migration and fertility, mean that projected trends in the numbers of births and thus of future cohorts of school and tertiary age — differ markedly.

Using the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) medium variant (Series II) projections, Figure 1 shows projected numbers of young people aged 6-11, 12-16, and 17-24 years (indexed to 1999) as these represent the main age groups in

primary, secondary, and tertiary education. The patterns and trends are almost identical for each age group, reflecting relevant time lags. Across the projection period, the numbers in the three age groups plummet in Tasmania by an average of 58 per cent and those in South Australia by an average of 35 per cent. They fall substantially in Victoria (average of 17 per cent) and the ACT (average 14 per cent), but remain relatively stable in New South Wales (minus six per cent), and increase in Western Australia (19 per cent), Queensland (27 per cent), and the Northern Territory (54 per cent). The projected experience of New South Wales most closely approximates the situation for Total Australia; this draws attention to the increasing importance of regionally-disaggregated analyses of population ageing.

Two points of qualification are needed here. First, although Tasmania is currently Australia's second-oldest state, the above-noted disproportionate loss of population at the key reproductive ages is causing it to age faster than any other State or Territory, and it is soon expected take over from South Australia as the oldest — hence the greater decline in Tasmania's school and tertiary age populations. Second, these medium case trends assume an overall annual net international migration gain for Australia of 90,000 persons. During 2002-03 the intake of permanent migrants is to be increased to 117,000, and this number may continue to be increased in the future. It is possible then that net overseas migration may rise above 90,000 p.a. However, without substantial changes to the current regional distribution of migrants,8 the relative patterns are likely to remain similar. For example, if Tasmania were to experience the ABS 'high variant' assumptions, which

Figure 1: Projected primary, secondary, and key tertiary education ages (indexed to 1999), by state/territory, (ABS series II)



for Total Australia involve a net migration gain of 110,000, the average decline in Tasmanian school and tertiary age populations would be 35 per cent, almost identical to that shown for South Australia on the medium case assumptions. Such a significant relative increase in net migration for Tasmania would also imply a marked change in Tasmania's historical experience.

PROJECTED REGIONAL TRENDS IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL PARTICIPATION

In Australia, primary and secondary school participation is distributed between Government or public schools (approximately 73 per cent) and non-Government private schools (27 per cent), although these proportions differ somewhat at primary and secondary levels and regionally. The division between these delivery systems or, rather, the degree to which Federal and State/ Territory Governments contribute to each sector, is the

locus of much debate. While the actual funding formula is complex, by and large the almost complete underwriting of public schools by the Federal and State/Territory Governments, and the subsidisation of private schools, is undertaken on a per capita basis, with adjustments for regional rates of growth. Regions with low or negative growth are not penalised by the funding formula, but those with higher than average growth rates have additional funds directed to them. 10 This has implications for the relative ability of schools with slower growing or stable populations to keep abreast of new developments in teaching and learning and in equipment and technology. Accordingly, for many schools, the significance of the projected declines in student numbers will be large, and may call into question the continued viability of some — at least under present funding arrangements — and many hundreds or even thousands of down-line jobs.

Table 1 shows the current public/ private division of South Australian and

Table 1: Institutional distribution (public/private) and total age-specific participation rates of primary and secondary school students, by key age group, South Australia and Tasmania, 2000, per cent

	S	outh Aust	ralia		Tasman	ia
	Public	Private	Participation Rate	Public	Private	Participation Rate
Primary						
Age 5*	73.1	26.9	102.7	71.8	28.2	48.3
Balance Primary**	72.4	27.6	99.4	77.6	22.4	95.4
Secondary						
Age 12	-	-	-	73.9	26.1	99.0
Age 13	67.1	32.9	99.5	71.0	29.0	99.8
Age 14	67.3	32.7	97.9	72.8	27.2	97.9
Age 15	65.9	34.1	94.1	72.6	27.4	98.9
Matric						
Age 16	63.1	36.9	81.6	70.1	29.9	79.9
Age 17	58.8	41.2	59.6	68.9	31.1	61.8
Total Number	172,186	74,538	246,724	60,681	20,439	81,120

Source: Compiled from *Schools 2000*, ABS Cat. no. 4221.0 and ABS Population Estimates 2000

Tasmanian primary and secondary school students by key age group. As would be expected, total participation is more or less universal up to age 15 (or Year 10), although at age five it is noticeably lower in Tasmania than South Australia. From age 15 (Matriculation), participation declines rapidly, with the decline substantially greater in public than private schools. Between ages 15-17 (that is, Years 10 and 12), South Australian total age specific participation rates fall by 37 per cent, and their Tasmanian equivalents by 38 per cent. The underlying data (not shown) indicate that for South Australia these declines are 44 and 23 per cent for public and private schools respectively, and for Tasmania, 41 and 30 per cent. However, as Table 1 shows, between Years 10 and 12, the public/private mix also alters in favour of private schools, with proportions attending private schools

increasing from 34 to 41 per cent in South Australia, and from 27 to 31 per cent in Tasmania.

Primary Schools

Tasmania

In the year 2000 there were approximately 43,705 Tasmanian primary-school students aged 5-11 years. Table 2 shows the effects of structural ageing on enrolments for each type of institution (public/private), by projecting current age specific participation rates through to 2050 according to ABS population projections Series I and II — the 'high' and 'medium' variants. The specific participation is a specific participation of the specific participation rates through to 2050 according to ABS population projections.

Table 2 shows that under the medium variant (Series II) projections, total numbers of primary school students are projected to decline to fewer than 18,000 by 2050, a fall of more than 26,000 students(60 per cent). Should, instead, the

Notes:

^{*} Called 'Reception' in South Australia; 'Pre-Year One' in Tasmania. Age Five Total Participation Rates in South Australia exceed 100 per cent due to the numerator including students aged less than five.

^{**}In South Australia, primary school includes Year Seven (average age 12); in Tasmania Year Seven students attend secondary school.

Table 2: Primary schools: projected numbers aged 5-11 years, by ABS projection series and public/private institution, Tasmania, 2000-2050

		Series I		Series II		
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total
2000	33,835	9,873	43,707	33,833	9,872	43,705
2005	31,083	9,084	40,168	30,666	8,958	39,624
2010	29,290	8,545	37,835	27,433	8,007	35,440
2015	28,121	8,206	36,327	24,569	7,173	31,742
2020	27,342	7,977	35,319	22,771	6,643	29,414
2050	21,777	6,354	28,130	13,691	3,996	17,687
Decline (no.)	12,058	3,519	15,577	20,142	5,876	26,018
Decline (%)	36	36	36	60	60	60

Source: Calculated from ABS Cat. nos. 4221.0 and 3222.0 Notes: Series I; Annual Net Migration -313; TFR 1.8 constant; Life Expectancy increases 1 year for every 10 years Series II: ANM -1870; TFR falling to 1.65 by 2009 then constant, same Life Expectancy as Series I

ABS 'best case' (Series I) situation prevail, total numbers would decline to around 28,000, a loss of more than 15,500 students or 36 per cent. In both cases, numbers are already declining, and will fall below 38,000 before the end of the present decade, reflecting a 13 per cent decline under Series I and a 19 per cent decline under Series II. It is highly unlikely that this situation can be arrested in the short term, as even an abrupt reversal of Tasmania's recent migration expe-

rience to positive levels would be unlikely to deliver the required number of children in the required time — nearly 6,000 under the best case scenario, or 8,000 in the medium case. Alternatively such numbers would require the total fertility rate to rise immediately to between 2.1 and 2.2.

The quantum and tempo of the trends are almost identical for public and private schools. Given that Tasmanian students of primary school age are currently divided among some 142 public and 33 private primary schools,¹³ the thorny question of the continued viability of some — even in the short term — must be raised. The problem is that — in addition to Tasmania's historical experience of net migration loss - it is simply not possible to

create more five, or six, or 10 year olds; with structural ageing, the 'lost' births are, indeed, lost forever.

South Australia

Reflecting similar dynamics, South Australian primary schools (Table 3) are also projected to decline across the projection period, by between 31 to 38 per cent respectively under Series I and II. These trends, which are also already underway, represent losses of some

Table 3: Primary schools: projected numbers aged 5-12 years, by ABS projection series and public/private institution, South Australia, 2000-2050

	Series I			Series II			
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	
2000	114,883	43,635	158,518	114,882	43,635	158,517	
2005	110,235	41,874	152,109	110,228	41,876	152,104	
2010	104,163	39,568	143,731	102,029	38,761	140,790	
2015	99,958	37,971	137,929	94,575	35,927	130,502	
2020	96,512	36,661	133,173	90,149	34,244	124,393	
2050	79,151	30,066	109,217	71,348	27,103	98,451	
Decline (no.)	35,732	13,569	49,301	43,534	16,532	60,066	
Decline (%)	31	31	31	38	38	38	

Source: See Table 2

Notes:

Series I: ANM -600; TFR 1.7 constant; Life Expectancy increases one year

for every 10 years

Series IÍ: ANM 700; TFR falling to 1.55 by 2009 then constant, same Life Expectancy as Series I

49,000-60,000 primary school aged students respectively by 2050. In each case, public school numbers will decline to below 100,000 within 15 years, and private numbers to below 38,000, representing relatively imminent declines of 13 to 17 per cent. South Australian primary students are currently divided between 452 public and 119 private primary schools, and 126 combined

primary/secondary schools (74 public, 52 private). 14

Secondary Schools

With a small time lag, and assuming current age-specific participation rates, the same trends are evident at the main secondary school ages (12-17 years in Tasmania, and 13-17 in South Australia). By 2050, Tasmanian secondary school student numbers will decline by 35 and 57 per cent under Series I and II (Table 4), and South Australian numbers by 30 and 35 per cent (Table 5).

Again, this overall scenario of substantial decline in the student population

must be considered to be more or less inevitable. Within the senior secondary school population, however (that is, at ages 16 and 17, or Years 11 and 12), participation is currently somewhat less than universal. This means that institutions concerned about declining numbers have — at least in the short term — the potential to increase them.

Tables 6 and 7 show

Table 4: Secondary Schools: projected numbers aged 12-17 years, by ABS projection series and public/private institution, Tasmania, 2000-2050

	Series I			Series II			
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	
2000	26,847	10,566	37,413	26,848	10,567	37,415	
2005	25,728	10,111	35,839	25,495	10,020	35,515	
2010	24,167	9,521	33,688	23,565	9,284	32,849	
2015	22,538	8,859	31,396	21,014	8,269	29,284	
2020	21,730	8,548	30,277	18,895	7,441	26,336	
2050	17,396	6,842	24,238	11,459	4,511	15,970	
Decline (no.)	9,451	3,724	13,175	15,389	6,056	21,445	
Decline (%)	35	35	35	57	57	57	

Source: See Table 2

Notes: See Table 2 for Series I and II assumptions

the participation rates that would be required to keep current senior secondary school populations at their current levels. 15 As implied, percentages over 100 (denoted by the shaded cells) confirm the short-term nature of the capacity to offset declining numbers with rising participation rates. Within a few decades, total cohort sizes will be smaller than total enrolments today. Indeed, even under the high variant or 'best case' situation, present enrolment numbers will exceed cohort size at age 16 by 2025 in both Tasmania and South Australia. At age 17, where participation is lower, there is more room for increase.

Table 5: Secondary schools: projected numbers aged 13-17 years, by ABS projection series and public/private institution, South Australia, 2000-2050

	Series I			Series II				
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total		
2000	57,303	30,902	88,205	57,304	30,903	88,207		
2005	56,146	30,246	86,392	56,239	30,295	86,535		
2010	54,526	29,432	83,958	54,848	29,605	84,453		
2015	51,147	27,590	78,737	50,806	27,444	78,251		
2020	49,139	26,515	75,654	47,079	25,434	72,513		
2050	40,119	21,649	61,768	37,068	20,016	57,084		
Decline (no.)	17,184	9,253	26,437	20,236	10,887	31,123		
Decline (%)	30	30	30	35	35	35		

Source: See Table 2

Notes: See Table 3 for Series I and II assumptions

Table 6: Age-specific participation rates required to maintain senior secondary school population (16 and 17 Years) at current size, Tasmania,

	per cent _{series I}			Series II			
	Age 16	Age 17	Total	Age 16	Age 17	Total	
2000	79.9	61.8	70.9	79.9	61.8	70.9	
2005	84.9	67.2	76.1	85.5	67.8	76.8	
2010	86.3	68.0	77.3	88.4	69.7	79.1	
2015	96.0	77.4	86.9	100.1	80.8	90.7	
2020	99.5	77.2	88.3	112.0	86.2	99.1	
2025	103.4	80.5	91.9	124.9	96.5	110.7	
2030	105.8	82.7	94.3	132.3	102.9	117.6	
2035	109.2	85.0	97.1	141.0	109.5	125.2	
2040	113.4	88.2	100.8	152.1	117.9	135.0	
2045	118.9	92.4	105.7	167.6	129.5	148.5	
2050	124.2	96.7	110.5	186.3	143.6	164.9	
Current	5,639	4,370	10,009				

Table 7: Age-specific participation rates required to maintain senior secondary school population (16 and 17 years) at current size, South Australia,

	7					
	per cen	Series I				
	Age 16	Age 17	Total	Age 16	Age 17	Total
2000	81.6	59.6	70.7	81.6	59.6	70.7
2005	85.4	61.3	73.4	85.2	61.2	73.3
2010	86.8	61.1	73.9	86.3	60.8	73.5
2015	93.0	65.7	79.3	92.1	65.0	78.5
2020	96.5	68.1	82.2	99.7	69.9	84.7
2025	100.6	70.9	85.7	107.2	75.4	91.2
2030	103.5	73.2	88.3	109.8	77.7	93.7
2035	106.1	75.0	90.5	112.0	79.2	95.6
2040	109.1	77.0	93.0	115.1	81.2	98.1
2045	113.4	79.9	96.6	120.4	84.6	102.4
2050	118.2	83.3	100.6	127.2	89.3	108.1
Current	17,068	12,131	29,199	•		

UNIVERSITY PARTICIPATION REQUIRED TO MAINTAIN CURRENT UNIVERSITY POPULATION SIZES

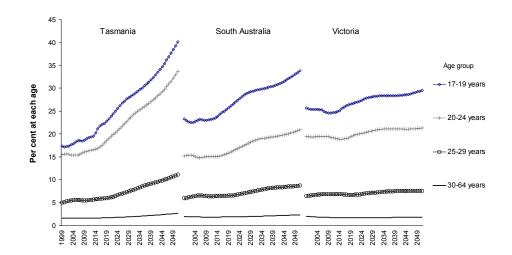
Similarly, it would take a substantial increase in age-specific participation ratios¹⁶ to even maintain the university populations of these States at or near their current sizes. Using ABS Series II data (the medium case), Figure 2 illustrates the point for Tasmania and South Australia, adding in Victoria, Australia's third-oldest State, for comparison.

In order to maintain the university student populations of these States around their current sizes, the participation rates of 17-19 and 20-24 year olds — who currently account for 60 to 64 per cent of students would have to increase across the projection period by 132 and 117 per cent (Tasmania), 45 and 38 per cent (South Australia), and 15 and 10 per cent (Victoria) respectively. The comparison with Victoria reinforces the argued inevitability of the trends. Victoria receives a disproportionate share of Australia's international migrants (approximately 23 per cent of the net gain). Despite this, structural ageing will soon see the same downward pressures on Victoria's school- and university-age populations as will occur in Tasmania and South Australia in the shorter term.

In the absence of such increases in participation rates, Figures 3 and 4 illus-

trate the projected trends in university student numbers for Tasmania and South Australia according to ABS Series I and II. Little immediate change is forecast, but in Tasmania student numbers decline substantially from 2012 under both Series I and II. Equally noteworthy in the case of South Australia is that, although there is a longer lead time until numbers begin to decline, the trends are almost identical under each projection series, indicating that they are highly likely to eventuate.

Figure 2: Age-specific participation ratios* required to maintain current University numbers, selected states, (ABS series II)



Source: constructed from DETYA students 1999, Selected higher education statistics and ABS population projection series II

* Student data include overseas students

COMBINED HIGHER EDUCATION LABOUR MARKET IMPLICATIONS

We cannot assume that the 'required' increases in tertiary participation will eventuate. The same structural ageing that is driving down the supply of students is also bringing with it a substantial decline in the ratio of labour market entrants to exits, that is, those aged 15-24 and entering the labour market, to those aged 55-64 and approaching retirement. Thus an increase in competition between employers and tertiary institutions for the participation of the young is also unfolding.

Regionally, the trends will develop in tandem. In the older regions by the early 2020s entry:exit ratios as low as 0.7 will accompany declining school and tertiary populations (see Figure 5), while in the younger regions student numbers will still be increasing — at least for a few more decades. In Tasmania by 2015 there will be

eight young people (15-24 years) approaching labour market entry for every ten leaving it, and by 2023, seven for every ten. By contrast, in the Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory, entry:exit ratios will not decline below 1.0 before the end of the projection period. Added to this scenario will be absolute declines in the total working age populations (people aged 15-64 years) in the older regions, which will add to demand for younger workers, against medium- to longer-term increases in the working age populations of the younger regions. ¹⁷

This situation is unprecedented. The extent to which it is likely to result in competition between educational and labour force institutions for youthful participants has yet seen very little investigation. However, there are strong

Figure 3: Projected number of Tasmanian university students at current age specific participation rates (ABS series I and II)

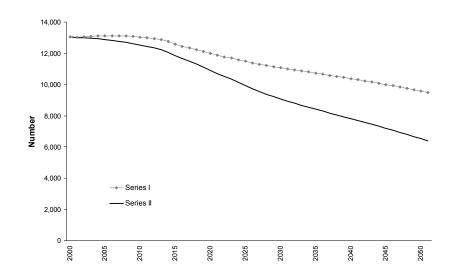
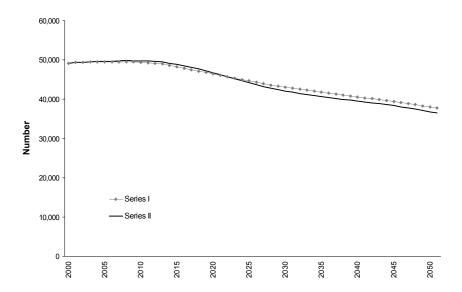


Figure 4: Projected number of South Australian university students at current age specific participation rates (ABS series I and II)



indications that at least some of the recent increase in tertiary education has reflected hidden unemployment, rather than a true upsurge in demand for tertiary participation. The above trends could thus well foreshadow a forthcoming decline in university and other tertiary student numbers, emerging first in the oldest regions.

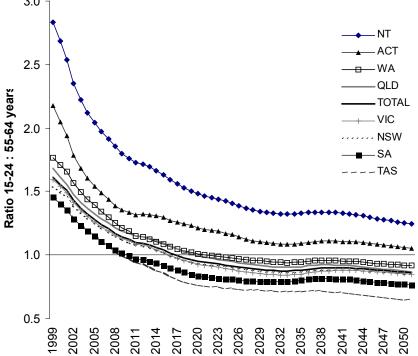
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Population ageing is bringing with it considerably more than the well-publicised increases in the number and proportions of elderly. Significant declines in the school, tertiary, and working age populations are also slowly emerging. Together these will generate a very new situation at the young adult ages — substantial competition between tertiary education and labour market institutions for the participation of the voung.

At first these changes are going to appear 'shocking' for institutions that have become used to growth, but it is not difficult to see the potential positives that will also emerge. The past few decades have been very frustrating for young people. On the one hand they are exhorted to remain longer at school and to gain higher qualifications and, on the other, they find that not even a graduate or post-graduate degree necessarily delivers a job or good income. The emerging trends indicate that all of this is about to change. At secondary and tertiary institutions, currently overloaded

State/Territory (ABS series II) 3.0

Figure 5: Projected labour market entry: exit ratios (15-24: 55-64 years) by



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teachers and lecturers may find that more time can be spent on quality rather than mass-produced education, as those students for whom these institutions have really comprised an educational parking lot move on to the jobs they would have preferred to have all along. For employers there may well be an increase in labour costs, but this in turn implies better paid young consumers, potentially offsetting the decline in consumption that will otherwise come with populations growing at a slower rate, and in some areas declining. And for those who do stay on to gain higher qualifications, demand should quickly exceed supply, with attendant advantages in income and conditions of employment.

Certainly there is likely to be some initial angst as public and private primary and secondary schools and then tertiary institutions compete over declining cohorts, but here perhaps it is the 'product' that is being offered that needs to be re-thought. The present duplication of courses and curricula reflects an historical moment in which school age populations grew and ever more schools were built to house them, especially in rural areas. As structural ageing causes school populations to decline, might not specialisation be at least one answer? Why should not a global student pick and choose academic subjects from a variety of schools and institutions, with local campuses becoming both education providers and on-line facilitating venues.

In the short term, older populations like Tasmania and South Australia can offset their declining cohort sizes in more conventional ways, for example in Tasmania by increasing the participation rate of five year olds, and in both States by increasing participation at matriculation years, and by increasing the recruitment of overseas students. Both States

could also look at incorporating newly emerging demands, such as the needs of the University of the Third Age (U3A); in China the transference of redundant primary schools (and/or classrooms) into U3A networks is notable. But over the longer term declining school rolls are likely to be seen as less of a problem as the 'capital deepening' (investment in social and human capital) as opposed to 'capital widening' (provision of ever-more infrastructure) possibilities opened up by depopulation emerge. A successful transition from growing to declining school rolls will of course require strong political leadership, in terms of gaining changes to current federal funding which is so strongly per capita based.

We might see these endeavours as the A-B-C of future educational demand. Let 'A' stand for acceptance. While short term fluctuations in the three main dynamics of population change (births, deaths and migration) may deliver short term fluctuations in educational demand, the profound structural changes occurring as a result of the demographic transition are inevitable, and must be prepared for. Let 'B' stand for buffer — the short-to medium-term measures that might be taken to maintain school and university (and labour force) populations at or near their current sizes. And let 'C' stand for celebrate — the idea that for the first time in human history we can look forward to deepening investment in the human capacity, rather than always having to stretch limited dollars across more and more people.

Overall, the opportunities engendered by the changing demography may be much greater than the perceived losses; only time and creative forward planning will tell.

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- ⁴ The main effect of international migration is to add to the numbers of men and women at reproductive age, not to increase the birth rate. Typically, the birth rate of immigrants falls to and even below that of the host population. See M. Abbasi-Shavazi and P. McDonald, 'Fertility and multiculturalism: immigrant fertility in Australia 1977-1991', Paper presented to the International Population Conference, Beijing, 1997.
- ⁵ Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Population Projections 1999-2100, Cat. no. 3222.0, 2000
- Tasmania's decline in total population numbers is considerably smaller than the net loss at ages 18-38 years 22,000 in the decade to 2001 the magnitude of this loss having been largely offset by natural increase. For the decade to 1999 see N. Jackson and R. Kippen, 'Whither Tasmania? A note on Tasmania's population problem,' *People and Place*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 27-37, 2001.
- The detailed fertility, mortality, and migration assumptions underlying the Series II projections can be found in ABS, op. cit. 2000,, Ch. 4. In brief, fertility assumptions range from a TFR of 1.41 in the ACT to 1.92 in the Northern Territory; life expectancy increases by approximately 1 year for every ten years projected for all States and Territories; while the bulk of net international migration gains are assumed to go to NSW (42 per cent), Victoria (23 per cent), Queensland (16 per cent), and Western Australia (14 per cent). For projected educational trends with Series I projections see Aungles et al. op. cit., 2000, where the patterns are almost identical.
- Australia's current population distribution, and net international migration to each region, are approximately as follows. New South Wales (34 per cent; 42 per cent), Victoria (25 per cent; 23 per cent), Queensland (18.3 per cent; 16 per cent), Western Australia (10 per cent; 14 per cent), South Australia (8 per cent; 3.5 per cent), Tasmania (2.6 per cent; 0.2 per cent), the ACT (1.7 per cent; 0.3 per cent) and the Northern Territory (one per cent; 0.7 per cent). See also G. Hugo, 'Declining fertility and policy intervention in Europe: some lessons for Australia?', Journal of Population Research, vol. 17, no.2, 2000, pp.175-197.
- ⁹ These assumptions are given beneath Tables 2 and 3.
- Aungles et al. op. cit., 2000
- Numbers differ slightly to B. Thompson, Projecting Educational Demand in Tasmania, unpublished Honours Thesis, University of Tasmania, 2001, in that the present study includes those aged five years.
- With each successive Series assuming a higher net migration loss for Tasmania, the high and medium variants may be considered the 'best' and 'medium' case scenarios. The Series III 'worst case' scenario is not presented as it would require an average annual net migration loss of 3,430 across the entire projection period, which feedback mechanisms indicate is unlikely to eventuate. It should be noted, however, that the Series II migration assumptions of -1,870 per year are somewhat 'better' than Tasmania's actual experience of an average net migration loss of 2,400 per year over the past decade.
- ¹³ In 2000 a further 52 combined primary/secondary schools existed in Tasmania; 26 were Government (public) and 26 non-Government. There were also nine special schools, eight of which were Government schools. See ABS, Schools, Cat. no. 4221.0, 2000
- 14 ibid., p. 12
- ¹⁵ Current numbers attending secondary school at each age are calculated as a percentage of each future cohort.
- These data include overseas students attending university in each State. The data thus give ratios of numbers of students at each age to numbers of population at each age in each State, rather than rates.
- Here the short-term is considered to be the forthcoming 20 years, the medium term, 20-40 years, and the longer-term, 40-60 years. These time-frames are justifiable, given that demographic trends have, in general, long term predictability. For example, births occurring now permit their resulting cohort size to be 'predicted' for as much as 100 years.
- But see R. Easterlin, Birth and Fortune, 2nd Edition, New York, University of Chicago Press, 1988, who raised these issues theoretically.