Commonwealth of
AUSTRALIA
Public Administration
Country Profile

Division for Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM)
Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)
United Nations

January 2006

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Australia

Click here for detailed map

Source: The World Factbook – Australia

Government type
democratic, federal-state system recognizing the British monarch as sovereign

Independence
1 January 1901 (federation of UK colonies)

Constitution
9 July 1900, effective 1 January 1901

Legal system
based on English common law; accepts compulsory ICJ jurisdiction, with reservations

Administrative divisions
6 states and 2 territories

Source: The World Factbook – Australia

Aboriginal settlers arrived on the continent from Southeast Asia about 40,000 years before the first Europeans began exploration in the 17th century. No formal territorial claims were made until 1770, when Capt. James COOK took possession in the name of Great Britain. Six colonies were created in the late 18th and 19th centuries; they federated and became the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901.

The Constitution of the new Commonwealth had been drawn up by various contemporaries of colonial parliamentarians during the 1890s. It was endorsed by the people at referendums and embodied in a Act of the British Parliament in 1900, which authorised Queen Victoria to proclaim the establishment at federation. This was the result of a system of government that had evolved progressively, from the time when the country had been proclaimed as a British possession in 1788, to the point where it comprised a collection of six self-governing British colonies, effectively under the control of the United Kingdom.

Upon Federation, the Constitution made provision for a national level of government referred to as the Commonwealth, with legislative power exercised through a federal Parliament comprised of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The former six colonies became six states. Each retained its own Parliament, able to exercise legislative powers, except as limited by the new federal Constitution.

The new country took advantage of its natural resources to rapidly develop its agricultural and manufacturing industries and to make a major contribution to the British effort in World Wars I and II. In recent decades, Australia has transformed itself into an internationally competitive, advanced market economy. It boasted one of the OECD's fastest growing economies during the 1990's, a performance due in large part to economic reforms adopted in the 1980's. Long-term concerns include pollution, particularly depletion of the ozone layer, and management and conservation of coastal areas, especially the Great Barrier Reef

Source: World Fact book – Australia & Parliament of Australia: Senate (2005) (edited)

1. General Information

1.1 People	Australia	New Zealand	Indonesia	[1]
Population				[a]
Total estimated population (,000), 2003	19,730	3,876	219,884	
Female estimated population (,000), 2003	9,906	1,964	109,975	
Male estimated population (,000), 2003	9,824	1,912	109,909	
Sex ratio (males per 100 females), 2003	99	97	100	
Average annual rate of change of pop. (%), 2000-2005	0.96	0.77	1.26	
Youth and Elderly Population				[b]
Total population under age 15 (%), 2003	20	22	30	
Female population aged 60+ (%), 2003	18	17	9	
Male population aged 60+ (%), 2003	16	15	7	
Human Settlements				[c]
Urban population (%), 2001	91	86	42	
Rural population (%), 2001	9	14	58	
Urban average annual rate of change in pop. (%), '00-'05	1.42	0.85	3.59	
Rural average annual rate of change in pop/ (%), '00-'05	-3.76	0.03	-0.63	
Education				[d]
Total school life expectancy, 2000-2001	16.8	16.4	10[i]	1
Female school life expectancy, 2000-2001	17	15.7	10.4[i]	1
Male school life expectancy, 2000-2001	16.6	17.2	9.6[i]	1
Female estimated adult (15+) illiteracy rate (%), 2000	..	..	18.1[ii]	2
Male estimated adult (15+) illiteracy rate (%), 2000	..	..	8.2[i]	2
Employment				[e]
Unemployment rate (15+) (%), 2000	6.6	6[i]	5.5[iii]	1
Female adult (+15) economic activity rate (%), 2000	55[iv]	72[iv]	52[iii]	2
Male adult (+15) economic activity rate (%), 2000	72[v]	72[v]	85[iii]	2

Notes: [i] 1994; [ii]1990 [iii]1999; [iv] De jure population, [v] Excluding conscripts.

1.2 Economy	Australia	New Zealand	Indonesia	[2]
GDP				[a]
GDP total (millions US$), 2002	410,590	58,178	172,911	
GDP per capita (US$), 2002	20,969	15,033	817	
PPP GDP total (millions int. US$), 2002	543,501	27,757	664,409	
PPP GDP per capita(int. US$), 2002	27,757	20,452	3,138	
Sectors				[b]
Value added in agriculture (% of GDP), 1994	3.4	7.6	15.4[i]	
Value added in industry (% of GDP), 1994	28.1	27.8	43.7[i]	
Value added in services (% of GDP), 1994	68.5	64.6	40.9[i]	
Miscellaneous				[c]
GDP implicit price deflator (annual % growth), 2004	3.5	5.1	7.1	
Private consumption (% of GDP), 1994	60.0	58.9	65.1[i]	
Government consumption (% of GDP), 1994	18.6	17.6	8.2[i]	

Notes: [i] 2004

[1] United Nations Statistics Division:
[a] Statistics Division and Population Division of the UN Secretariat; [b] Statistics Division and Population Division of the UN Secretariat; [c] Population Division of the UN Secretariat; [d1] UNESCO ; [d2] UNESCO; [e1] ILO; [e2] ILO/OECD
[2] World Bank - Data and Statistics:
[a] Quick Reference Tables; [b] Data Profile Tables ; [c] Country at a Glance

1.3 Public Spending	Australia	New Zealand	Indonesia	
Public expenditures				3
Education (% of GNP), 1985-1987	5.1	5.4	0.9[i]	a
Education (% of GNP), 1995-1997	5.5[ii]	7.3[ii]	1.4[iii]	a
Health (% of GDP), 1990	5.3	5.8	0.6	
Health (% of GDP), 1998	6	6.3[iv]	0.8[iv]	
Military (% of GDP), 1990	2.2	1.8	1.3	b
Military (% of GDP), 2000	1.7	1	1.1	b
Total debt service (% of GDP), 1990	..	..	8.7	
Total debt service (% of GDP), 2000	..	..	12.2	

Notes: [i] Data refer to period other than that specified, Data refer to the ministry of education only; [ii] Data may not be strictly comparable with those for earlier years as a result of methodological changes; [iii] Data refer to central government only;[iv] 1999.

1.4 Public Sector Employment and Wages						
Data from the latest year available		Australia 1991-1995	Australia 1996-2000	Eastern Asia and the Pacific 1996-2000	South Regional average[4] 1996-2000	High income group average[4] 1996-2000
Employment						
Civilian Central Government[4]	(,000)	234	150			
	(% pop.)	1.4	0.8	0.63	..	2.8
Sub-national Government[5]	(,000)	404	389			
	(% pop.)	2.3	2.1	0.63	..	2.8
Education employees	(,000)	399	427			
	(% pop.)	2.3	2.3	0.76	0.4	1.3
Health employees	(,000)	299	276			
	(% pop.)	1.7	1.5	0.16	0.5	1.1
Police	(,000)	..	..			
	(% pop.)	..	..	0.26	0.62	
Armed forces	(,000)	56	..			
	(% pop.)	0.3	..	0.53	0.7	0.5
SOE Employees	(,000)	..	..			
	(% pop.)	..	..	1.18	..	..
Total Public Employment	(,000)	..	..			
	(% pop.)	..	..	..	..	..
Total Central gov't wage bill	(% of GDP)	1.6	2.1	9.4	2.1	4.2
Total Central gov't wage bill	(% of exp)	2.2	2.6	24.4	16.2	16.4
Average gov't wage	(,000 LCU)	29	39			
Real ave. gov't wage ('97 price)	(,000 LCU)	..	39			
Average gov't wage to per capita GDP ratio		1.2	1.3	2.9	2.9	..

Source: World Bank - Public Sector Employment and Wages

[3] UNDP - Human Development Report 2002

[a] Data refer to total public expenditure on education, including current and capital expenditures.

[b] As a result of a number of limitations in the data, comparisons of military expenditure data over time and across countries should be made with caution. For detailed notes on the data see SIPRI (2001).

[4] Excluding education, health and police – if available (view Country Sources for further explanations).

2. Legal Structure

Australia has nine parliaments-the Federal Parliament in Canberra and one in each of the six states and the two mainland territories. This is related to the fact that Australia is a federation, joining together several political entities.

Under the Constitution each state retained its own parliament and some of its original powers and a new Federal Parliament was established with exclusive power to make laws on national matters such as defence, trade and immigration. On some matters, such as taxation and social welfare, both the Federal Parliament and the states could make laws, but if there were to be a conflict between the laws the federal law would prevail.

Source: Parliament of Australia: Senate (2005)

2.1 Legislative Branch

bicameral Federal Parliament consists of the Senate (76 seats - 12 from each of the six states and two from each of the two mainland territories; one-half of state members are elected every three years by popular vote to serve six-year terms while all territory members are elected every three years) and the House of Representatives (150 seats; members elected by popular preferential voting to serve terms of up to three-years; no state can have fewer than five representatives) [5]
Women in parliament: lower house 37 out of 150 seats (24.7%) and upper house 27 out of 76 seats (35.5%)[6]

Fact box:
elections: Senate - last held 9 October 2004 (next to be held no later than June 2008); House of Representatives - last held 9 October 2004 (next to be called no later than November 2007)
election results: Senate - seats by party (for session beginning on 1 July 2005) - Liberal Party-National Party coalition 39, Australian Labor Party 28, Democrats 4, Australian Greens 4, Family First Party 1; House of Representatives; seats by party - Liberal Party-National Party coalition 87, Australian Labor Party 60, independents 3

The powers of the two houses of the Commonwealth Parliament, the Senate and the House of Representatives, are defined by the Australian Constitution. All proposed laws must be passed by both houses. The Senate's law-making powers are equal to those of the House of Representatives except that it cannot introduce or amend proposed laws that authorise expenditure for the ordinary annual services of the government or that impose taxation.

Under the Constitution, each state of the Australian federation, regardless of its population, has an equal number of senators. This weighting of parliamentary representation in favour of less populous states was designed to ensure that their views were not neglected.

The Senate currently consists of 76 senators, twelve from each of the six states and two from each of the mainland territories, elected by a system of proportional representation for a period of six years. A system of rotation, however, ensures that half the Senate retires every three years. The four senators who represent the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory are elected concurrently with members of the House of Representatives and the duration of their terms of office coincide with those for that House (a maximum of three years).

[5] Source of fact boxes if nothing else stated: The World Factbook - Australia
[6] Inter-Parliamentary Union - Women in National Parliaments

The House of Representatives has 150 Members. Each Member represents an electoral division. Members are elected by a system known as preferential voting, under which voters rank candidates in order of preference. Each House of Representatives may continue for up to three years, after which general elections for a new House must be held. Elections are often held before the end of this period. The main political parties represented in the House are the Australian Labor Party, the Liberal Party of Australia and the National Party of Australia. In recent years there has also been a number of independent parties and Members.

Source: Parliament of Australia: Senate (2005) & The House of Representative of Australia (2005) (edited)

2.2 Executive Branch

elections: none; the monarch is hereditary; governor general appointed by the monarch on the recommendation of the prime minister; following legislative elections, the leader of the majority party or leader of a majority coalition is sworn in as prime minister by the governor general

Fact box:
chief of state: Queen of Australia ELIZABETH II (since 6 February 1952), represented by Governor General Maj. Gen. (Ret.) Michael JEFFERY (since 11 August 2003)
head of government: Prime Minister John Winston HOWARD (since 11 March 1996); Deputy Prime Minister Mark VAILE (since 6 July 2005)
cabinet: Prime Minister nominates, from among members of Parliament, candidates who are subsequently sworn in by the Governor General to serve as government ministers

Australia is a constitutional monarchy with the Queen as the formal Head of State. The Governor-General, appointed by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister, is the Queen's representative in Australia, and fulfils the traditional role of 'advising, encouraging and warning' in relation to the government of the day. The Governor-General exercises formal executive powers subject to the principles of responsible government and on the advice of Ministers. The Governor-General also performs a range of ceremonial and other functions.

Commonwealth Ministers are appointed by the Governor-General on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. They have responsibility for administering the various. Commonwealth Portfolios assigned to each Cabinet Minister. Each portfolio may contain one or more agencies. An example is the Foreign Affairs and Trade portfolio. The agencies that constitute this portfolio are the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, the Australian Trade Commission, the Australian Agency for International Development, the Australian Secret Intelligence Service and the Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research. The makeup of portfolios may change over time as governments review their policy priorities, with agencies moving between portfolios or new agencies being created.

Exercise of executive powers occurs in a similar manner in the Australian states, whose Parliaments generally comprise two legislative chambers (commonly titled Legislative, or House of, Assembly and Legislative Council). The Queen's representatives in the states are the state Governors with roles similar to those of the Governor-General. In practical terms, the principal decision-making bodies at both Commonwealth and state government levels are the respective federal and state Cabinets, comprising senior Ministers of the governments in office at any given time.

Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

2.3 Judiciary Branch

High Court (the chief justice and six other justices are appointed by the governor general)

The High Court is the highest court in the Australian judicial system. It was established in 1901 by Section 71 of the Constitution. The functions of the High Court are to interpret and apply the law of Australia; to decide cases of special federal significance including challenges to the constitutional validity of laws and to hear appeals, by special leave, from Federal, State and Territory courts. Other cases which come to the High Court for final determination involve appeals against the decisions of the Supreme Courts of the States and Territories, of the Federal Court of Australia and of the Family Court of Australia and these are dealt with by a full court of not less than two Justices. In addition there are certain matters which can be heard and determined by a single Justice.

Source: High court of Australia (2005)

In addition to the high court, the Federal Court of Australia was created by the *Federal Court of Australia Act 1976*, began to exercise its jurisdiction on 1 February 1977. The Federal Court of Australia Act provides that the Court consists of a Chief Justice and other judges as appointed. The Chief Justice is the senior judge of the Court and is responsible for ensuring the orderly and expeditious discharge of the business of the Court. The Court has a substantial and diverse appellate jurisdiction. It hears appeals from decisions of single judges of the Court, and from the Federal Magistrates Court in non-family law matters. The Court also exercises general appellate jurisdiction in criminal and civil matters on appeal from the Supreme Court of Norfolk Island.

There are also District Registries for the following federal tribunals: the Australian Competition Tribunal, the Defence Force Discipline Appeal Tribunal and the Federal Police Disciplinary Tribunal. The registries of the Court are also registries for the Industrial Relations Court of Australia until the work of that Court is completed, and for the Federal Magistrates Court in relation to non- family law matters.

Source: Federal court of Australia (2005) & Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform (edited)

2.4 Local Government

The Constitution of Australia does not limit the subjects on which the states may make laws with the exception that the states are precluded from imposing duties of customs and excise. State parliaments may pass laws on a wider range of subjects than the Commonwealth Parliament, on any subject of relevance to the particular state. Hence, primarily state laws regulate important areas such as education, health, roads, and criminal law.

A large measure of self-government has been conferred on three territories, namely the Australian Capital Territory (location of the federal capital city, Canberra), Australia's largest mainland territory, the Northern Territory, and Norfolk Island. The remaining territories, which include the Australian Antarctic Territory, are offshore and sparsely populated.

Local government has around 700 local governing bodies and some 147500 local employees. Functions vary, but typically include local public works and services, town planning, licensing and inspection of community and business activities, and

the delivery of certain community health and welfare services. State governments retain control of all major public works, and of policies of wider significance for all communities in areas such as education and health. Funding of local government derives substantially from charges imposed on communities for the delivery of basic services, and revenue (rates) from varying forms of property taxes. Commonwealth and state governments provided additional funding in excess of A$2 billion in 2002.

Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

3. The State and Civil Society

3.1 Ombudsperson

In Australia, there is a Commonwealth Ombudsman as well as state and territory ombudsman. The core activity of the Ombudsman's office is to handle complaints and inquiries from members of the public about government administrative action. The immediate concern of the office is to assist people in resolving their complaints. This objective is to achieve equitable outcomes for complaints from the public and foster improved and fair administration by Australian Government agencies.

The complaints investigated by the ombudsman ranged across the spectrum of government activity. Role and functions of the ombudsman are to (i) Complaint investigation *(*the investigation and review of the administrative actions of Australian Government); (ii) Own motion investigation (the investigation, on the initiative or 'own motion' of the Ombudsman often arising from insights gained from handling individual complaints); and (iii) Compliance auditing (inspection of the records of agencies such as the Australian Crime Commission and Building Industry Taskforce, etc.)

In addition, a number of industry ombudsman have been appointed, whose responsibility it is to protect citizens' interests in their dealings with a variety of service providers, especially in industries previously owned or regulated by governments, for example telecommunications, energy, banking and insurance. Furthermore, and among others, there is a Defence Force Ombudsman—handling grievances lodged by serving and former members of the Australian Defence Force Taxation Ombudsman**—**handling complaints about the Australian Taxation Office.

Source: Commonwealth Ombudsman Australia Annual Report (2005)

3.2 Civil Society

There are an estimated 700,000 nonprofit organizations in Australia, most of which are small and many depend on voluntary commitment as well as employ 35,000 about employ staff. For 1999-2000 the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) estimated the nonprofit sector's total revenue at $33.5 billion.

Source: Australian Government – Department of Family and Community Development – Giving Australia: Research on Philanthropy in Australia (2005)

4. Civil Service

The Australian Public Service Commission is a central agency within the Australian Public Service (APS) with a critical leadership role in contributing to the future capability and sustainability of the Service. It promotes good practice in managing people, support leadership and learning and development in the APS, foster ethical behaviour and workplaces that value diversity.

The mission of the Commission is to promote, review and evaluate a values-based APS and to foster its capability by: (i) promoting the APS Values and Code of Conduct and evaluate agency systems and performance in this area; (ii) developing, reviewing and evaluating APS employment policies and practices; (iii) promoting indigenous employment in the APS; (iv) facilitating continuous improvement in people management throughout the APS; (v) coordinating and support APS-wide training and career development; (vi) fostering leadership in the APS; (vii) providing advice and assistance on public service matters to agencies on request; (viii) providing external review of actions by the Merit Protection Commissioner; (ix) advancing Senior Executive Service (SES) employment matters.

Source: The Australian Public Service Commission (2005)

4.1 Legal basis

The Public Service Act 147 of 1999 is the principle Act governing the establishment and operation of, and employment in, the Australian Public Service.

Source: The Australian Public Service Commission (2005)

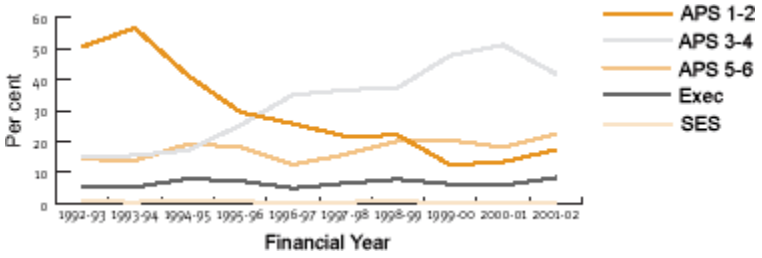
4.2 Recruitment

Most recruits to the Australian Public Service (APS) entered at junior or base level jobs with few opportunities for entry to the Service at middle level or higher classifications. Since the late 1980s, recruitment has been gradually devolved to agencies, and changing technology and increasing complexity of work has led to falling demand for lower levels of clerical staff. This has been reflected in a very significant and long-term drop in recruitment numbers at the lowest levels (APS 1–2) from 85 per cent of all recruits in 1981–82, to 53 per cent in 1991–92 and just 17 per cent in 2001–02. In association with this, the proportion of recruits aged less than 20 has also dropped—from 8 per cent in 1991–92 to only 2 per cent in 2001–02—though those aged 20 to 24 have increased.

In 2000, centralised recruitment ceased in 2000 as a response to both the declining number of opportunities and the increased autonomy of agency heads. Each agency head is responsible for all recruitment and selection in their agency, though some choose to manage their graduate recruitment programs cooperatively with other agencies. Within the provisions of the Public Service (PS) Act and other guidance, they may tailor recruitment and selection methods to meet their organisation's unique operational needs.

While agencies have considerable flexibility in how they design their job structures, the typical structure groups jobs into eight classification levels up to the Senior Executive Service (SES)—from APS 1, the lowest, through to APS 6 then Executive Levels 1 and 2—and three levels within the SES. There are also training classifications—for graduates, cadets and administrative trainees and other trainees—where employees who complete the training programs are then allocated an appropriate classification in the APS 1 to APS 6 range.

Figure 8: Recruits by classification 1992–93 to 2001–02



Source: APSC 2002, State of the Service report, 2001-02

The level at which most employees enter the Service has risen, and the base, in the sense of the typical base entry level, is mostly at APS 3–4 levels, with these making up almost 42 per cent of all recruits. These are typically graduates, or people with considerable work experience, rather than school leavers. Agencies also recruit many suitably qualified people at higher levels more commonly than in the past. The numbers of lateral recruits at APS 5 and above have more than doubled in the last decade.

As required by the merit principle, agencies must give the community reasonable access to jobs in the APS and around 99 per cent of all career employment opportunities are open to the public. Around 45 per cent of all employees recruited during 2001–02 were working in the private sector prior to entering the APS. Some temporary vacancies are not open to the public but provide opportunities for career development of APS staff to move within or between agencies.

Selection methods vary for recruitment. The traditional method is a comparative assessment of applications, interview performances and comments from referees. While this is still used for most vacancies, agencies are increasingly adopting new methods such as use of assessment centres, online recruiting, psychometric testing and work-based testing— depending on suitability for particular jobs and the labour market.

Source: The Australian Public Service Commission (2005)

4.3 Promotion

The Australian Public Service (APS) recruitment and advancement on the basis of merit, which is includes: (i) open advertising to ensure all eligible applicants in the community have a reasonable opportunity to apply for APS employment (ii) the selection process is transparent, and is seen to be applied fairly to all applicants; (iii) the assessment process is able realistically to match the qualities of the applicant to the qualities genuinely required for the job; (iv) there is no patronage or favouritism and no Ministerial involvement in individual staffing decisions. These principles are embodied in the PS Act and the Public Service Commissioner's Directions.

Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

4.4 Remuneration

There is no single approach to remuneration and rewards in the Australian Public Service (APS). Agencies have considerable scope to develop approaches to suit their culture and business needs within a government policy framework that establishes the boundaries of action. This is a direct consequence of the 1996 Workplace Relations Act which did away with a centralised system for managing employment conditions in the workforce and instituted one that devolved to individual organizations in all sectors, responsibility for negotiating, within limits, agreements setting employment conditions and pay arrangements within their organisations.

Since 1996 there have been no formal government–public sector union consultative mechanisms, although government representatives do on occasion meet with representatives of public sector unions to discuss various issues. This reflects the replacement of the single Service-wide union-negotiated employment agreement of the early 1990s with a workplace relations environment in which each agency is separately responsible for determining its terms and conditions of employment. However, agency heads are required to ensure consultative arrangements encompass all employees, whether they are union members or not.

The Certified Agreements (CAs) or Australian Workplace Agreements (AWAs)—have legal force and the processes and arrangements included in them must be consistently followed. Certified Agreements in the APS are collectively negotiated and, at this stage, tend to cover most staff between APS 1 and EL 1. AWAs are individually negotiated between each employee and their agency, can take into account the particular circumstances of each individual and, to date, have tended to be used primarily for some middle managers and the SES.

Since 1997 agencies have been required to link improvements in pay and conditions to improvements in organisational productivity, and to fund any increases from within agency budgets without increasing prices or reducing the quality of services they deliver. All APS agencies link remuneration to individual performance. The two most common approaches to performance-based remuneration are: (i) performance-linked advancement—a base salary increase for satisfactory or higher performance, usually in terms of either incremental progression through pay points or through a percentage increase and/or; (ii) performance-linked bonus—usually a one-off bonus payment in recognition of higher than satisfactory performance.

Most remuneration schemes link salary, rewards or bonuses, skill development and the work environment in their agency agreements. Agencies may give non-monetary rewards to individual employees in recognition of high achievement, such as formal

awards, certificates or plaques, gift certificates, development opportunities, or conference attendance. Some agencies have adopted team-based reward systems, although not all have been successful.

Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

4.5 Training

The Australian civil service commission promotes several initiative to train at different levels of the civil service structure, including the Senior Executive Leadership Capacity (SELC) and the public sector training package. In addition, the Australia and New Zealand School of Government (ANZSOG) also provides learning opportunities to civil servants.

The Senior Executive Leadership Capability (SELC) Framework has become the 'standard' for Senior Executive selection and development within the Australian Public Service (APS). Building on this framework the Integrated Leadership System (ILS) has been developed to provide a common language for leadership development in the APS. The ILS provides capability development guidance for individuals and agencies in the form of descriptions and behaviours for Executive and Senior Executive levels in the APS. It contains practical tools for individuals and agencies to chart leadership development.

The Public Sector Training Package is a collection of nationally agreed skills, or competency standards, required to carry out public service work effectively. The competency standards are packaged into nationally recognised qualifications which range from entry-level to senior management. The Commission promotes the Training Package as an important training and development option for Australian Public Service (APS) agencies.

The Australia and New Zealand School of Government (ANZSOG) provides an opportunity for learning, networking, collaboration and research in the areas of public policy, public management and public administration. The ANZSOG was established in 2002 by a consortium of Australian and New Zealand Governments, universities and business schools who share a vision of creating a world-class institution which focuses on the needs of the government and community sectors. ANZSOG provides teaching programmes for current and emerging public sector leaders to enhance the breadth and depth of policy, leadership and management skills needed in today's public sector. It delivers two flagship programmes – the Executive Fellows Program (EFP) and the Executive Master in Public Administration (EMPA) through partner universities and business schools.

In addition, there are programmes to address the particular training and development needs of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander APS employees.

Source: The Australian Public Service Commission (2005) & Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

4.6 Gender and Diversity

The Australian Public Service values require agencies to provide 'a workplace that is free from discrimination and recognises and utilises the diversity of the Australian community it serves' and one that 'promotes equity in employment'. Each agency is required to develop a workplace diversity program that includes measures to prevent all forms of discrimination, whether direct or indirect, consistent with federal law.

In particular, each agency must take action in relation to those groups that have been disadvantaged in Australian society and establish measures to eliminate employmentrelated disadvantage on the basis of: (i) being an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander; (ii) gender; (iii) race or ethnicity, or; (iv) physical or mental disability.

The effectiveness of some aspects of these workplace diversity programs can be assessed by monitoring and evaluating demographic trends in the employment of these four groups in the APS. In 2002, the APS-wide database showed, for example, that as the number of women in the Service has increased—to the current 52 per cent of all ongoing staff—so has their representation at more senior levels, though this remains well below 50 per cent. Women continue to outnumber men in graduate entry programs and comprise 37 per cent of those at EL 1–2 levels and 28 per cent of the Senior Executive Service (SES). The figure below shows the change in the number of women at different classification levels between 1993 and 2002. The numbers have been weighted to eliminate the effects of changes in the overall size of the Service.

Source: Australian Public Service Commission (2005) – The Australian experience of Public Sector Reform

5. Ethics and Civil Service

5.1 Corruption

2003 CPI Score relates to perceptions of the degree of corruption as seen by business people and country analysts and ranges between 10 (highly clean) and 0 (highly corrupt).

Corruption Perceptions Index							
		2003 CPI Score	Surveys Used	Standard Deviation	High-Low Range	Number Inst.	90 percent confidence range
Rank	**Country**						
1	Highly clean	9.7	8	0.3	9.2 - 10.0	4	9.5 - 9.9
8	Australia	8.8	12	0.9	6.7 - 9.5	7	8.3 - 9.1
133	Highly corrupt	1.3	8	0.7	0.3 - 2.2	6	0.9 - 1.7

Source: Transparency International - Corruption Perceptions Index 2003

Surveys Used: Refers to the number of surveys that were used to assess a country's performance. 17 surveys were used and at least 3 surveys were required for a country to be included in the CPI.
Standard Deviation: Indicates differences in the values of the sources. Values below 0.5 indicate agreement, values between 0.5 and c. 0.9 indicate some agreement, while values equal or larger than 1 indicate disagreement.
High-Low Range: Provides the highest and lowest values of the sources.
Number Institutions: Refers to the number of independent institutions that assessed a country's performance. Since some institutions provided more than one survey.
90 percent confidence range: Provides a range of possible values of the CPI score. With 5 percent probability the score is above this range and with another 5 percent it is below.

Breaches of laws, other than the Public Service Act, are usually dealt with by the criminal prosecution process. Investigation of alleged breaches is conducted by the Australian Federal Police, usually in conjunction with staff of internal fraud control units. The most frequent areas for investigation are breaches of the Crimes Act, the Taxation Act, the Customs Act and the Social Security Act, for example relating to fraud, illegal use of seized goods or unauthorised access to, or release of, personal information. Cases for the prosecution are prepared by the Director of Public Prosecutions, in close co-operation with agency representatives. Cases of this kind are generally heard in the Federal Court.

Breaches of the Public Service Act and Regulations are managed within the employee's agency. Investigation of allegations is conducted initially by an Authorised Officer, to establish the existence of a prima facie case. In that event, an Investigation Officer from within the employee's current agency is appointed to complete the investigation and to determine the type and quantum of the sanction that will apply. The types of sanctions available range from a reprimand, through fines, reduced salary, transfer or dismissal. Significant sanctions may be appealed to a Disciplinary Appeals Committee of the Merit Protection and Review Agency. Appeals against dismissal are dealt with by the Industrial Relations Commission and, as necessary, by the Industrial Relations Court.

Where a public servant has been convicted of a criminal offence, his or her employing agency may decide to take action under the Public Service Act to apply a further sanction, particularly where the agency believes that the reputation of the APS has been damaged by the criminal finding. A similar range of sanctions, including dismissal are available. These cases are dealt with in a similar, but usually more streamlined, manner than other breaches of the Public Service Act.

Source: OECD- ethics and corruption – Australia Case study

In addition, some states within Australia have their own bodies to fight corruption, like the New South Wales which was the Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC). This institute was created by the ICAC Act 1988. Its aims are to protect the public interest, prevent breaches of public trust and guide the conduct of public officials.

The principal objectives of the Act are to promote the integrity and accountability of public administration through the establishment of the ICAC to: (i) investigate, expose and prevent corruption involving or affecting public authorities or public officials; and (ii) educate public authorities, public officials and members of the public about corruption an d its detrimental effects on public administration and on the community. The ICAC is a public authority, but is independent of the government. It is accountable to the New South Wales Parliament.

The ICAC has three main functions: (i) investigating and publicly exposing corrupt conduct so lessons may be learned and its recurrence minimized; (ii) actively preventing corruption by giving advice and assistance to build resistance to corruption in the public sector; and (iii) educating the community and the public sector about corruption and its effects.

Source: Independent commission against corruption

5.2 Ethics

Australia has the *Guidelines on Official Conduct of Commonwealth Public Servants*, which were revised in 1995. This initiative has been undertaken by Public Service Commission (PSC) under the guidance of the Management Advisory Board (MAB). The *Guidelines* set out the standards of conduct required of public servants, with particular emphasis on acting with honesty, integrity and probity, being responsive to the public, making fair and equitable decisions and working professionally.

The *Guidelines* have been structured around the professional relationships that public servants have with: (i) the Government; (ii) the Parliament; and (iii) the public and public service colleagues. The Guidelines cover areas such as: (i) dealing with Ministers and members of Parliament; (ii) public comment; (iii) participation in political and industrial activities; (iv) financial and other interests; (v) whistleblowing; and (vi) fraud.

The code of conduct encompassed in the Guidelines does not envisage exceptions. The code derives from ethics and ethos but it is specific - its purpose is to regulate behaviour. Infringements of the code are taken to be misconduct and can lead to disciplinary action.

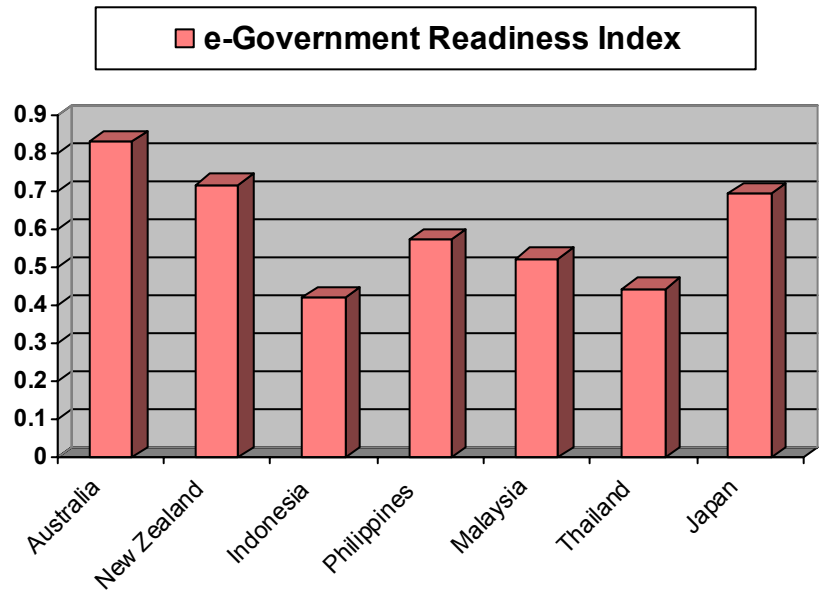
Source: OECD- ethics and corruption – Australia Case study

6. e-Government

e-Government Readiness Index:

The index refers to the generic capacity or aptitude of the public sector to use ICT for encapsulating in public services and deploying to the public, high quality information (explicit knowledge) and effective communication tools that support human development.

The index is comprised of three sub-indexes: Web Measure Index, Telecommunications Infrastructure Index and Human Capital Index.



Source: United Nations – World Public Sector Report 2003

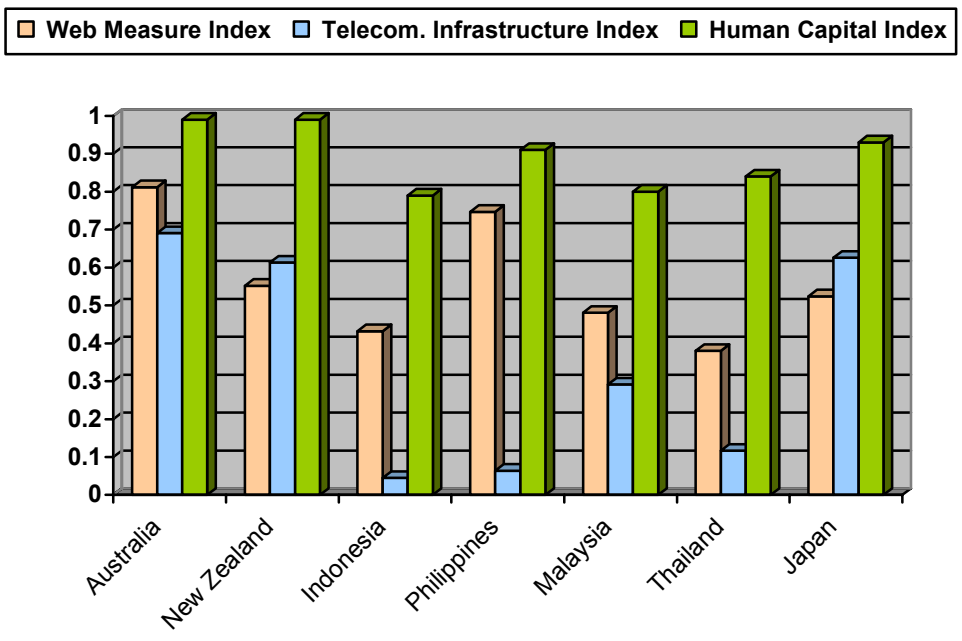
Web Measure Index:

A scale based on progressively sophisticated web services present. Coverage and sophistication of state-provided e-service and e-product availability correspond to a numerical classification.

Telecommunications Infrastructure Index:

A composite, weighted average index of six primary indices, based on basic infrastructural indicators that define a country's ICT infra-structure capacity.

Primary indicators are: PC's, Internet users, online population and Mobile phones. Secondary indicators are TVs and telephone lines.



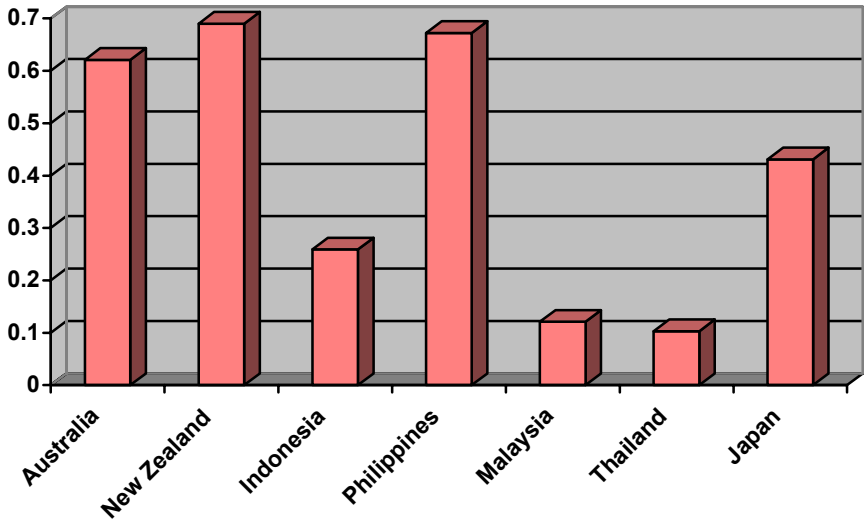
Source: United Nations – World Public Sector Report 2003

Human Capital Index:

A composite of the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio, with two thirds of the weight given to adult literacy and one third to the gross enrolment ratio.

e-Participation Index:

Refers to the willingness, on the part of the government, to use ICT to provide high quality information (explicit knowledge) and effective communication tools for the specific purpose of empowerring people for able participation in consultations and decision-making both in their capacity as consumers of public services and as citizens.



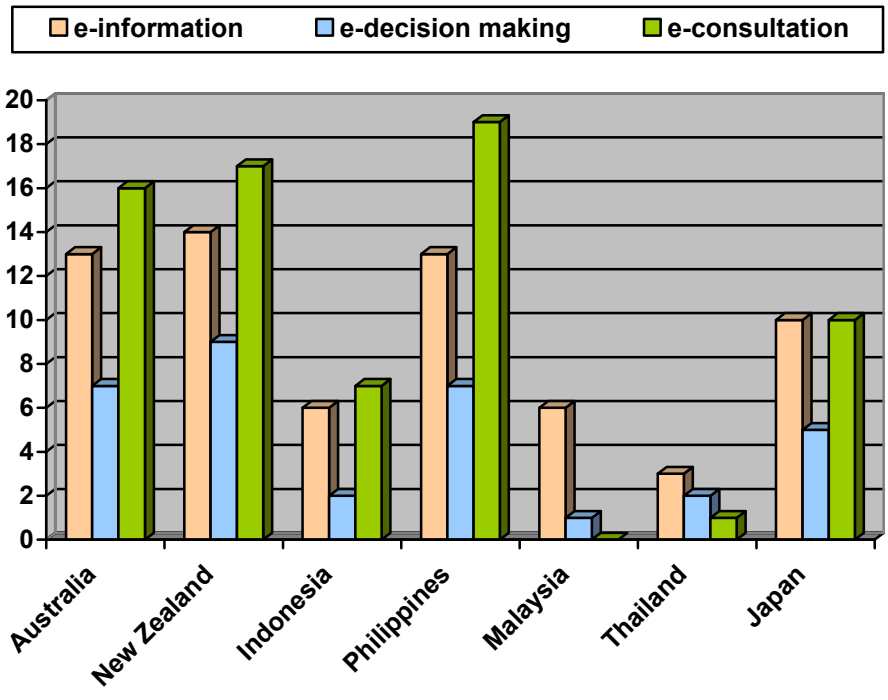
Source: United Nations – World Public Sector Report 2003

e-information:

The government websites offer information on policies and programs, budgets, laws and regulations, and other briefs of key public interest. Tools for disseminating of information exist for timely access and use of public information, including web forums, e-mail lists, newsgroups and chat rooms.

e-decision making:

The government indicates that it will take citizens input into account in decision making and provides actual feedback on the outcome of specific issues.



Source: United Nations – World Public Sector Report 2003

e-consultation:

The government website explains e-consultation mechanisms and tools. It offers a choice of public policy topics online for discussion with real time and archived access to audios and videos of public meetings. The government encourages citizens to participate in discussions.

7. Links

7.1 National sites	
Authority	Topic
The Australian Public Service Commission	http://www.apsc.gov.au/
Commonwealth Ombudsman Australia	http://www.ombudsman.gov.au
Australian Government	http://www.australia.gov.au
Federal court of Australia	http://www.fedcourt.gov.au/
High court of Australia	http://www.hcourt.gov.au
Parliament of Australia: Senate	http://www.aph.gov.au/senate/
The House of Representative of Australia	http://www.aph.gov.au/house/
Independent commission against corruption	http://www.icac.nsw.gov.au/

7.2 Miscellaneous sites	
Institution	Topic
OECD	http://www.oecd.org
World Bank	http://www.worldbank.org
Asia Pacific Parliamentary Forum	http://www..appf.org.pe