EMILY's List was founded in Australia in 1996 with the aim of increasing women's substantive as well as descriptive representation in parliament. It has helped increase the descriptive representation of women in parliament through its advocacy role with the Australian Labor Party and its mentoring and other support for endorsed candidates. But its support for candidates is conditional on commitment to substantive issues of concern to women such as work/family issues and abortion rights. This paper will explore, through Hansard analysis and in other ways, how successful EMILY's List has been in contributing to the substantive representation of women in Australian parliaments or at least in parliamentary discourse. For the purpose of the analysis, three key terms are examined: paid maternity leave, unpaid work and domestic violence/violence against women.

Introduction

In the 1990s the issue of the parliamentary representation of women became the focus of much international and national attention. The arguments for increasing women’s representation often added the appeal of ‘making a difference’ to basic equal opportunity arguments. Nonetheless, it is widely recognised the presence of women in legislatures does not necessarily result in increased attention to issues of special concern to women—i.e., the ‘substantive’ representation of women. Researchers have examined the circumstances in which women legislators do act as advocates for women as a group. They have identified factors such as the relative proportion of women in legislatures (‘critical mass’), party ideology, self-identification of legislators as feminists, existence of
women’s caucuses within parliamentary parties or within parliament, membership of and
association with women’s movement organizations.

One representational issue that has been identified is the lack of accountability of
individual women MPs for achieving outcomes of specific concern to women as a group.
This paper examines the role of one extra-parliamentary feminist organization both in
increasing the number of women in parliament with a feminist group perspective and in
providing some form of accountability for them.

EMILY’s List—an acronym for Early Money is Like Yeast (it makes the dough rise)—
was first established as a fund-raising vehicle for pro-choice Democrat women candidates
in the US in 1985. It was established in Australia in 1996 by prominent Labor women and
uses the slogan ‘When women support women, women win’. Is goals were first to ensure
that more Labor women were elected to Australian parliaments and second that these
women were committed to pro-choice positions on abortion and to gender equity issues
including childcare and equal pay.

By April 2004 EMILY’s List claimed to have helped 91 new women enter Australian
parliaments, through financial and mentoring support, including Australia’s first
Indigenous women parliamentarians. The descriptive representation of women in
Australian parliaments reached an all-time high, at 30 per cent of all parliamentarians and
35 per cent of Labor parliamentarians. The question of the substantive representation of
issues of particular concern to women is a more difficult one to track. The approach of
this research is to assess substantive representation via the incidence in parliamentary
debate of issues of particular concern to women.

The research was conducted on the electronic Hansard of the two chambers of the federal
parliament for the two parliaments elected before EMILY’s List was created and the
subsequent two parliaments.1 The particular issues selected were those of paid maternity
leave, domestic violence /violence against women and unpaid work. The use of gender-
inclusive language was also analysed for these parliaments. In the case of one issue, that
of violence against women, the earliest parliament for which electronic data was available was also analysed, to highlight the changes brought about by increased numbers of women. Aside from the analysis of parliamentary discourse the paper looks at the research and advocacy role of EMILY’s List in relation to gender equity issues and its impact on party policy.

**Separate institution-building and substantive representation**

For more than a hundred years it has been suggested that separate women’s organisations become superfluous once women have acquired the right to participate directly in the political system. Contrariwise, feminists have seen the importance of having institutions where women can find their own voice, and which can provide leverage in the wider system. Without such public space, free of male supervision, women are less able to sustain women-centred and oppositional discourses (Freedman 1979).

When the second wave of the women’s movement widened the door for women entering parliament, there was again a tendency to believe the presence of women in ministerial office would make women’s institution-building superfluous. The first woman cabinet minister in Victoria remarked: ‘Why join a women’s group to lobby government ministers when you can become a minister yourself?’ (Toner 1982). This was to become a common refrain among women ministers on both sides of politics. For example, a Liberal front bencher took issue with Women’s Electoral Lobby (WEL) because the name implied that they just went ‘cap in hand to some man, the minister, asking for what they want. But I want to be the minister’ (Baylor 1985).

In an era when women are to be found behind a ministerial desk, why should separate women’s organisations or structures be necessary? The answers lie partly in the multiple accountabilities of politicians and the need for organised pressure on gender issues to counter-balance other pressures of political life. Otherwise the descriptive representation of women is unlikely to be accompanied by substantive representation.
Structures with a mandate to focus on issues of gender or the status of women, help women parliamentarians maintain collective identity and awareness of gender implications of policy (Sawer 2002; Mackay 2004). Substantive representation of women as a group requires being able to articulate a group perspective, one that is generated collectively, through deliberation within a group (Weldon 2002). As Susan J. Carroll has observed, women’s organizations can provide legislators with ongoing access to such a group perspective (Carroll 2003).

Separate institutions inside and outside parliaments provide woman-centred policy space and opportunity for feminist discourse. Recent Canadian studies have argued the importance of such structures in reinforcing collective identity and aspirations, finding that even feminist parliamentarians with a commitment to making a difference get isolated from each other by the competing pressures of constituency work and government priorities (Burt, 2000; Tremblay, 1998).

The forms taken by such separate institution-building are manifold. In some countries parliamentary committees have been created with a mandate to promote gender equity or to ensure the ‘equality-proofing’ of legislation as in Scotland. In other countries an important role is played by the women’s caucuses found within parliamentary parties, particularly those on the Left. In Australia a status of women committee was created within the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party in 1981 and meets weekly when parliament is sitting. A similar body exists within the New Zealand Parliamentary Labour Party.

Outside parliament, separate institution-building has long taken place in the form of the non-party women’s advocacy bodies that succeeded the suffrage organizations of first-wave feminism. For example the Australian Federation of Women Voters rated political candidates and lobbied politicians for many decades on issues such as equal pay and equal opportunity. In 1982 it handed over the baton to a second-wave women’s organization, WEL, which had similarly been rating candidates and party policies since 1972— although adding sexuality-related issues to the longstanding log of claims.
Women’s bodies within political parties were also reinvigorated after the arrival of second-wave feminism while new parties created from the 1970s onwards reflected the impact of the women’s movement in their attitudes and structures. EMILY's List is an example of an additional forum within professionalised party politics where gender perspectives can be identified and promoted.

Origins of EMILY’s List

Feminists within the Labor Party had campaigned energetically from the 1970s to make the party less of a male bastion and to make it more woman-friendly. The results of a voluntary affirmative action policy adopted in 1981 had been patchy to say the least. In 1994 the party adopted a new target that women should constitute 35 per cent of all parliamentary Labor parties by 2002. This time the sanction of national intervention was to be applied if the target was not achieved. There was most resistance in Queensland where a number of prominent women ended by leaving the ALP in 1995 to form the Australian Women’s Party.

Meanwhile, the defeat of the federal Labor government in 1996 led to two distinct outcomes, both of which contributed to the creation of EMILY’s List. On the one hand more than half the Labor women MPs were swept out of parliament, a function of the marginality of their seats. On the other hand an anti-feminist backlash emerged, with prominent Labor identities blaming feminists and other ‘special interests’ for the defeat. The new conservative government promised to end the era of political correctness.

The struggle to set up EMILY’s List, led by former State Premier Joan Kirner, was a prolonged one. The struggle was with the National Executive of the Party and revolved around issues of control. Those setting up the new organisation pointed out that it could never hope to attract financial and other support from women in the community if it were perceived to be under the thumb of the male structures of the party. The question of whether the male-dominated National Executive would control the new body was related to the issue of how it fitted into the formal factional structure of the party. While
EMILY’s List aspired to be a non-factional body, the dominant Right faction saw it as a tool of the Left and prevented its members joining in some instances. More generally, the need to make commitments on abortion presented difficulties for the Catholic-based Right.

Hostility by party power-brokers towards EMILY’s List was expressed in a number of ways, including a ban on mentioning it in the Labor Herald and a decision in 1997 to create a rival Labor Women’s Network under the control of the National Executive. Some of these organizational tensions were finally defused in 2002 by party reforms that increased internal party democracy. Meanwhile EMILY’s List was launched around Australia in 1996 with its independence intact. By the end of 1998 it had 1000 members, including around 100 founding members at $1,000 each, a significant amount in the Australian context. By 2004 it had around 2000 members. Although EMILY’s List is regarded by the Australian Electoral Commission as an ‘associated entity’ of the ALP in terms of disclosure requirements, its membership is by no means confined to the party. Over 40 per cent of its members are not party members, although some are ex-members. It has a ‘corporate’ look and draws on a constituency of high-earning feminist women supportive of putting more feminists into parliament.

To become eligible for EMILY’s List funding candidates needed both to have gained pre-selection and to demonstrate their commitment to women’s rights. They had to satisfy an interview panel on issues such as childcare, equal pay and abortion. In return for support they were expected to advocate 'EMILY’s List principles' when elected. Support included campaign advice, training and mentoring as well as modest financial assistance.

During its first year of operation EMILY’s List also embarked on research and advocacy on the electoral advantages of targeting women voters and brought over US Democrat pollster Celinda Lake for this purpose. Lake achieved saturation media coverage for a National Press Club Address on how President Clinton’s re-election had been achieved. Democrat gender gap strategists had found that women voters were more likely than male
voters to perceive themselves as economically and socially vulnerable and could be mobilised to vote against the small government policies of the Republicans.

Lake pointed out that the ALP was failing to target those juggling work and family responsibilities and suggested it was the only social democratic party in the western world to be supported more by men than by women. Australian Election Studies in the 1990s showed a persistent if fluctuating shortfall in female support for Labor of between two and six points. By contrast in New Zealand women were nine points more likely to support Labor than men by the end of the decade. While party research showed that Australian women also placed more importance on government intervention than did men, particularly in areas such as health, unemployment and childcare, the ALP had not mobilised support from women on this basis (Lawrence 1997: 20-21).

EMILY’s List proceeded to commission gender-gap research for use in the 1998 federal campaign, as it has also done for subsequent campaigns. It was particularly please with the outcomes of gender-gap research undertaken for a Victorian State election in 2002. As a result of the research the Labor Party’s election platform emphasised work-life-family balance and made a number of specific commitments, including $1000 re-entry to the workforce grants (to help with retraining) and a new Royal Women’s Hospital.

**Substantive representation of women in parliamentary debate**

As we have seen, by April 2004 EMILY’s List claimed to have helped 91 new women enter Australian parliaments and the descriptive representation of women had reached an all-time high of 30 per cent of all parliamentarians across the nine parliaments. An unprecedented number of Labor women also held safe seats, insulating them somewhat from the electoral misfortunes of their predecessors. In 2004 the ALP held government in all six states and both territories in Australia, being in opposition only at the federal level.

To test the extent to which the increased presence of committed women made a difference to the substantive representation of Australian women I undertook an on-line
search for the incidence of some key terms and for the use of gender-inclusive language in parliamentary debate in the federal parliament. The increased presence of women in the federal parliament in the period since 1996, particularly in the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party, can be seen in Figures 1 and 2. By 2004 women constituted 34 per cent of the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party and of these Labor women parliamentarians 71 per cent were supported by EMILY’s List.
The search is limited to debate on the floor of the House of Representatives and the Senate, and does not extend to parliamentary committees. While some would argue that women parliamentarians are at their most effective in the less adversarial forums of parliamentary committees, or in behind-the-scenes lobbying in their own parties, it still seems valid to examine the extent to which the representation of women is refracted through the most public form of parliamentary discourse. In this study I examine debate in the two federal parliaments which immediately preceded the founding of EMILY’s List (the 37th and 38th parliaments of 1993–96 and 1996–98) and in the two federal parliaments that followed its founding (the 39th and 40th parliaments of 1998–2001 and 2001–04). The Parlinfo search engine provides the number of documents in which the search term appears, and can provide breakdowns by party but not, unfortunately, by gender. It should be noted that there may be repeated references to the term within any given document, whether it is a speech or parliamentary question, but what is recorded in the following analysis is simply the number of documents.

The terms used for the search are ‘paid maternity leave’; ‘unpaid work’; ‘domestic violence/violence against women’. All of these have been major issues for the women’s movement; they have been selected as a representative sample because of their differing
political connotations and constituencies. ‘Paid maternity leave’ is generally regarded as central to equal opportunity for women, to the combining of work and family, to maternal and infant health and the recognition of women’s right to be in the paid workforce. For all these reasons it is the kind of issue we would expect to form part of the ‘substantive representation’ of women.

Paid maternity leave is also a redistributonal issue, particularly in the context of a non-contributory social security system. This means it is less likely to be supported by conservative or free-market politicians. Another possible issue of this type would have been equal pay or pay equity.

‘Unpaid work’ is a term that stems from feminist discourse. The older term ‘domestic duties’ had implied that the disproportionate share of unpaid work performed by women was part of a natural or God-given order of things. It was a private matter and less worthy of attention than the paid work performed by men. Hence the presence of the term in parliamentary discourse reflects the demand for greater recognition of the economic role of ‘women’s work’. Unlike paid maternity leave it is an issue that has been taken up by organizations representing women in the home, as well as by groups more oriented to women in the workforce.

The issues of domestic violence and violence against women were also issues put on the public agenda by the women’s movement. However they are issues that conservative governments have generally been more comfortable with than directly redistributonal issues, in part because of their congruence with law and order themes. Hence we might expect that conservative governments wishing to demonstrate credentials in relation to the status of women would place considerable emphasis on this issue area.

Apart from examining the incidence of these substantive issues I decided to explore the use of inclusive language in parliamentary debate, as indicating an awareness of the gendered nature of the electorate. Sensitivity to the impact of language and the effects of linguistically erasing women had been strongly promoted by feminists inside and outside
government in the 1970s and 1980s. The use of the terms “woman*” or “women*” by politicians appeared to be a useful indicator of awareness of such issues. It could not be assumed that women would be ‘represented’ in parliamentary debate even at this level.

Paid maternity leave

Australia is one of only two OECD countries that does not provide paid maternity leave on a comprehensive basis and it has been a long-standing issue for the women’s movement. When the Whitlam government introduced paid maternity leave for public servants in 1973 this was intended to be the first step in its extension to all women workers. One problem (apart from the sacking of the Prime Minister by the Governor General) was that, like New Zealand, Australia does not have a contributory social insurance system. Moreover women workers are very unevenly spread across industries and it would have discriminated against employers of women for them to be obliged to pay maternity leave. So unlike other conditions included in industrial awards, such as paid sick leave, it was clear from early on that maternity leave would have to be funded out of general revenue. There never seemed to be a good time to do this, particularly for belt-tightening governments. As an issue it barely featured in parliamentary debate. For example, it was mentioned only once in the 32nd parliament (1980–83)—by a feminist Senator asking how far it had been made available in statutory authorities which were not staffed under the Public Service Act.

Even when a new Labor government was elected in 1983 and Australia ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), it did so with a reservation on the provision of paid maternity leave. While most public sector employees had gained access to paid maternity leave, as had some private sector employees, the majority had not, particularly lower paid workers. While 65 per cent of managers and administrators in 2001 had access to paid maternity leave, only 18 per cent of those employed in clerical, sales and service positions did so and 38 per cent of women in the workforce as a whole. Organizations such as Women’s Electoral Lobby and the National Women’s Consultative Council and statutory officers
such as the federal Sex Discrimination Commissioner continued to raise the issue, but it barely registered on the public agenda.

Three months paid maternity leave was finally included in an agreement between the Keating Labor government and Australia’s peak union body, the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU), before the 1993 federal election. The ACTU President, however, was happy for it to be dropped in 1995 when Budget savings were required, seeing it as an example of ‘middle-class welfare’. Instead a much smaller baby bonus was introduced, means-tested on ‘family’ income. Despite these dashed expectations, paid maternity leave was barely registering in parliamentary debate, as can be seen in Table 1. The arrival of the first women ACTU presidents in the second half of the 1990s was to change the attitude of the peak union body. Paid maternity leave became more clearly seen as a core industrial issue. The two-year review of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention on Maternity Protection leading to the adoption of Convention 183 on the subject in 2000 was also a significant international influence. The new standard included 14 weeks paid leave and guaranteed right of return with reduced hours or breaks for breastfeeding.

Table 1: Documents mentioning paid maternity leave in 37th and 38th Parliaments (1993–1998)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paid maternity leave finally began to feature in a substantial way on the parliamentary agenda in the 40th parliament (covered by Table 2). This was in part because the Clark Labour government in New Zealand moved on the issue in 2001, leaving Australia as an outrider along with the USA. It should be noted that in New Zealand it was a minor party (the Alliance) that put paid parental leave on the parliamentary agenda. Laila Harré had promoted paid parental leave since her election in 1996 and introduced a private

In Australia another minor party, the Australian Democrats, was also playing an agenda-setting role. The feminist leader of the Australian Democrats, Senator Natasha Stott Despoja, campaigned on paid maternity leave in the 2001 federal election and introduced a private senator’s bill on the subject the following year. In 2002 the ALP also announced a new commitment to paid maternity leave, although as we shall see this was to be short-lived.

Even more important in terms of the public agenda was the campaign undertaken by the Australian Sex Discrimination Commissioner, Pru Goward. This came as a surprise to many as Goward was previously known as a close friend and biographer of the Prime Minister and as a conservative appointment to head the federal office of the Status of Women. After taking up her new position in 2001 she turned her considerable media skills to the cause of paid maternity leave. She issued a final report “A Time to Value” in December 2002 and took to the airwaves, with strong support from the ACTU and women’s organizations. She adopted an effective discursive strategy, focusing on the bodily welfare of women, and physical after-effects of giving birth, to ward off claims of discrimination against men in the workforce (Curtin 2003).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nats</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19*</td>
<td></td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# In all cases Hansard searches were conducted 23 April 2004, so the record for the 40th parliament is not complete.
* Includes many ‘procedural’ documents relating to the Democrats’ Private Member’s Bill on paid maternity leave.
The Hansard data clearly shows that the issue did not become salient in parliamentary debate until after the 2001 election and the initial catalyst was the Australian Democrats Workplace Relations Amendment (Paid Maternity Leave) Bill 2002. The Bill was investigated by the relevant Senate legislation committee, which provided opportunities for public input from a range of women’s organizations and unions as well as employer organizations. The Greens and ALP also made proposals for amendments. The Bill returned to the Senate in March 2004 for Second Reading speeches; the tone of speeches made by the Opposition parties congratulating Stott Despoja for her dedication to the issue was similar to the cross-party support attracted by Harré in New Zealand.

In terms of parliamentary debate, the Australian Democrats, reduced to seven Senators in the 40th Parliament, raised the issue of paid maternity leave at twice the rate as the ALP with their 28 Senators. Senator Stott Despoja raised the subject most often (19 times). Apart from her legislative activity she launched a national petition on paid maternity leave, in conjunction with Women’s Electoral Lobby and other women’s groups and followed it up with a postcard campaign.

In terms of attention to the issue Stott Despoja was followed by Labor Senator Trish Crossin, who made eight parliamentary interventions on the subject. Senator Crossin was Chair of the Caucus Status of Women Committee as well as a member of the National Committee of EMILY’s List (her personal web page was in the EMILY’s List colours of purple and gold). She commissioned her own research on paid maternity leave in 2002 for the use of the Status of Women Committee. The next highest number of interventions (five) was by another EMILY’s List member, Senator Sue Mackay.

Of the Labor references to paid maternity leave in the Senate, 72 per cent were made by women, although they made up only 39 per cent of Labor Senators in the 40th parliament. In the House of Representatives 55.5 per cent of the Labor references to the subject were made by women, who constituted 31 per cent of Labor MPs. In the House the debate tended to be dominated by frontbench members, of which Jenny Macklin, the Deputy Leader, had the largest number of references (8). Greens parliamentarians, whose
numbers rose to three in 2002, took a position similar to the Australian Democrats in seeking at least the ILO standard of paid maternity leave with associated rights of return and reduced hours to accommodate breast-feeding.

The issue never became salient for the rural-based National Party, while in general the Liberal-National Party Coalition made only hostile references to the subject. Paid maternity leave was described as a ‘one size fits all’ statutory solution that ran contrary to the flexible labour market policies favoured by the Coalition, whereby individual workers could negotiate such conditions with employers. Coalition members also said the key issue was choice rather than workplace entitlements, and that paid maternity leave would advantage one group of women over another. The one exception to this hostility was Liberal Senator Judith Troeth, who spoke in support of the Sex Discrimination Commissioner’s Report, *A Time to Value*.

The Prime Minister maintained his stance that paid maternity leave would discriminate against women in the home. Despite the momentum that had built up for paid maternity leave, in the end both Government and Opposition abandoned it in favour of a payment for new mothers regardless of their workforce status. As the Sex Discrimination Commissioner pointed out, this was not paid maternity leave in the accepted sense of income replacement for working women for a mandatory period of leave, with associated guarantees of return to work and other conditions. So while the issue had achieved considerable saliency, the willingness of the government to depict it as a form of discrimination against women in the home encouraged the ALP to abandon it (again).

While EMILY’s List women undoubtedly played a significant role in the adoption of the policy in 2002, and in ensuring it was prominent in parliamentary debate, they were not able to prevent the dumping of the policy two years later. On the other hand, the issue had achieved enough saliency to push a conservative government to commit to a payment to all new mothers, a payment not income tested on partner’s income, although about half the amount generally agreed to be reasonable income replacement for 14 weeks.
Unpaid work

The second term examined in this study is that of ‘unpaid work’. This term stems from feminist discourse and disrupts traditional assertions about gender roles. It replaces the term ‘domestic duties’ which had implied that household work performed by women was part of a natural or God-given order of things and not worthy of public attention. The term ‘unpaid work’ is associated with recognition that unpaid work is real work, that it is often highly skilled and demanding and that it is vital to the functioning of the economy (Grey 2004). It also draws attention to the impact of unpaid work on workforce participation and its impact on female poverty.

Women’s movements across the world have called for unpaid work to be made visible through being counted and for its value to be included in national accounts. This demand appears to have been first raised in the Australian Parliament by a feminist Labor Senator in 1982 (Giles 1982: 2830). It was included in the Forward Looking Strategies adopted at the Third World Conference on Women in Nairobi in 1985 and enthusiastically endorsed by the Australian government of the day. It is an issue characteristically raised by women parliamentarians, who were responsible for more than half the references to it between 1993 and 1998, although they constituted only about a seventh of federal parliamentarians 1993–96 and a fifth 1996–98.

The findings of the pilot time-use survey of 1987 were widely promoted by the Office of the Status of Women, using cartoons by a feminist cartoonist to help get the message across. The first national time-use survey took place in 1992. Australia’s time-use methodology was regarded as very advanced in international terms, including the recording of simultaneous as well as primary activities in the 48-hour diaries distributed to members of some 3000 households across the nation over a 12-month period to capture seasonal variations.

The government was also committed to the preparation of satellite national accounts, incorporating the value contributed by unpaid work. Using the individual replacement function approach to calculating value the Australian Bureau of Statistics found that the
value of unpaid work amounted to 58 per cent of GDP and that 65 per cent of this value was contributed by women (ABS 1994: 88). Such findings became part of the Sharing the Load community education campaign, designed to raise awareness of the need to take unpaid work into account in the design of paid work and to enable men and women to share in it more equally. The time-use survey was designated as a ‘core social survey’—one of those undertaken every five years. The comparative salience of the issue in this period is reflected in Table 3.

Table 3. Documents mentioning unpaid work in 37th and 38th parliaments (both houses)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Second National Survey duly took place in 1997. By 2000, however, a decision was taken to downgrade the status of the survey and to postpone it. The rationale was that the policy applications of the data were limited and that it was not cost-effective. Of course without it there is no way to measure the value of informal care or of home production of goods and services. While organizations such the Women’s Action Alliance, representing women as mothers, wives and homemakers took up the issue, the Office of the Status of Women under a very conservative federal government was no longer an effective advocate for it.

In parliament Senator Brian Harradine, a Catholic Independent, raised the issue of the cessation of the time-use surveys. He had been calling for the inclusion of unpaid work in the national accounts since the 33rd Parliament (1983-84), an interesting example of how feminists and those with a conservative family ideology had a shared interest in increasing the visibility of women’s household work. Labor politicians continued to raise the issue of unpaid work but in general, it faded (see Table 4). The rural-based National Party members, particularly impervious to feminist discourse, had never mentioned it. It may seem paradoxical that a conservative government seeking to encourage voluntary work and traditional family values should cease collecting statistics on the incidence and value to the economy of unpaid work. The answer must be sought in the women’s movement focus on
the distribution of unpaid work and its effects. In 2004 the Prime Minister defended restricting tax cuts to those earning more than $52,000; he said the government was rewarding those ‘who want to better themselves and work harder’. The distribution of unpaid work makes it difficult for women to earn more than $52,000 (the average earnings for women were $30,000 at the time), regardless of how hard they are working.

Table 4. Documents mentioning unpaid work in 39th and 40th parliaments (both houses)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third terms used for the search are ‘domestic violence’ and ‘violence against women’. The violence issue illustrates very well the impact of women entering parliament and bringing women’s movement discourses with them. Most of the early debate on domestic violence in the federal parliament was undertaken by feminist Labor Senators who had been active in WEL before entering parliament.

If we go back to the 32nd parliament (1980–83) we find only 12 documents in total, for both houses (Table 5), despite the turbulence in this policy area. In 1981 women refuge workers were camping outside parliament house in protest against the devolution of federal funds for refuges, rape crisis centres and women’s health centres to unsympathetic state governments. As a result all women’s services had been lost in the Northern Territory and refuges in Queensland and Western Australia were struggling to survive in the face of attacks from hostile state governments. In separate incidents a federal minister had caused outrage by trying to obtain addresses of refuges in Victoria and over 60 women were arrested for protesting against rape in war at an ANZAC Day ceremony in Canberra. Despite all this, and the efforts of the first feminist Labor Senators, the issue barely registered in parliamentary debate.

Table 5. Documents mentioning domestic violence/violence vs women in the 32nd parliament (1980–83)*
Once established on the policy agenda, the issue of violence against women tends to attract conservative support. While paid maternity leave is a redistributational issue, likely to be favoured more by parties on the Left than on the Right of politics, the issue of violence against women can mesh well with conservative law and order themes. When conservative governments have been elected in Australia, whether at state, territory or federal levels they have generally changed the priorities of women’s units to play down redistributational issues such as equal pay and to refocus on issues such as entrepreneurship. Violence against women has, however, been an issue that conservative governments have in the past been comfortable to maintain as a policy priority. This may now be changing with the inroads into conservative politics of the men’s rights movement, with its insistence that women are as violent as men.

Table 6. Documents mentioning domestic violence/violence vs women in 37th and 38th parliaments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Electronic Hansard only dates from 1981 so there may be some missing data in this table.

The Howard government had significantly raised Budget allocations for domestic violence projects, allocating $50 million to ‘Partnerships against Domestic Violence’ pilot programs. In 2003 a $13 million dollar community awareness and prevention program called ‘No respect, no relationship’ was planned, directed at young people. But ten days before the television and magazine ads were due to start they were cancelled, as a result of an adverse report from the (all-male) Government Communications Unit.
Apparently the Senator who chaired it regarded it as “unfair” that men were portrayed as the perpetrators and women as the victims and that verbal violence was included. Later the government also said it needed to set up a dedicated hot-line using one of its preferred service providers — rather than using the 24-hour hotlines in existence in all of the States, presumably because they were run by feminists. This incident exacerbated an earlier decision to divert $10 million from the government’s Partnerships against Domestic Violence program to pay for anti-terrorism fridge magnets telling all householders to “Be Alert Not Alarmed.”

Table 7. Documents mentioning domestic violence*/violence vs women in 39th and 40th parliaments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>515</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Some 46 of these documents related to the domestic violence clause in the Constitution, i.e., defence against internal threats.

The assumption that violence against women would be an issue with which conservative parties would be relatively comfortable appears to be borne out by the data from Hansard, with Liberal Senators raising the issue more often than Labor Senators (Tables 6 and 7), although the figures are reversed for the House of Representatives. Violence against women is again an issue raised disproportionately by Australian Democrats Senators, who have raised the issue twice as often as the Liberals, taking into account relative numbers. Interestingly about half of the Democrats interventions on the subject are made by male Senators, who have challenged gender norms in a variety of ways. While one male Democrat Senator was famous for knitting in the Chamber during Wool Week, other activities have included wearing the ribbons of Men Against Sexual Assault.

As a whole the issue of violence against women has risen in salience since 1998, particularly for Labor members of the House of Representatives. In the House the two Labor members raising the issue most frequently were EMILY’s List members—
Michelle O’Byrne (21 times) and Tanya Plibersek (14 times) followed by Nicola Roxon who was not an EMILY’s List member but as Shadow Minister for the Status of Women raised the issue regularly in 2004.

In the Senate, women were responsible for 47 per cent of the Labor references to the subject, while they averaged 35 per cent of Labor Senators over the two parliaments. As with paid maternity leave, it is Senator Trish Crossin who raises the issue with the most frequency (nine times), but other EMILY’s List supported Senators have also played a prominent role. Senators Sue Mackay and Kate Lundy both raised the issue seven times.

**Table 8. Mentions of woman* or women* 37th and 38th parliaments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>1127</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>3646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1664</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1346</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>3593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>2791</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2694</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>805</td>
<td>7239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 9. Mentions of woman* or women* 39th and 40th parliaments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Party</th>
<th>AD</th>
<th>ALP</th>
<th>Greens</th>
<th>Lib/CLP</th>
<th>NP/Nat</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>1665</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>3995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H of R</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1698</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1268</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>3670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>3363</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>2468</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>872</td>
<td>7665</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Has the increase in feminist-identified women in the Australian parliament resulted in more gender-inclusive language? It can be seen from Tables 8 and 9 that during the period since 1996 the discourse of Coalition (Liberal and National MPs) has actually tended to become less gender-inclusive in both houses, while Labor discourse in the Senate has become more gender inclusive. During this period conservative discourse has become more inflected by populist themes of ‘governing for the mainstream’ and disparaging the claims of elites and special interests (for example, women, Indigenous Australians and ethnic minorities).
Women’s policy machinery within government, intended to analyse gender-specific impacts of policy, has largely been dismantled. There has been an erosion of previous policies directing family assistance to primary carers rather than primary breadwinners and new policies have been promoted to ‘strengthen’ traditional families. These trends may account for the decreasing inclination on the part of conservative politicians to specify women as the objects of government policy, rather than directing appeals to families or taxpayers. It is not only in Australia that these kinds of developments have been taking place in conservative parties. A recent survey of State legislators in the USA has shown that between 1988 and 2001 the proportion of Republican women Representatives who identified as feminist has reduced by half (Carroll 2003: 11).

Conclusion

Can we say that EMILY’s List has contributed to the substantive representation of women in the Australian Parliament as well as to their increased presence? The evidence from parliamentary debate is inconclusive on its own, although it raises a number of interesting questions. The issue of unpaid work tended to fade from parliamentary debate, despite a marginal increase in Labor mentions of the issue. The issue of paid maternity leave did take off in the 40th parliament but while EMILY’s List women were working hard on this behind the scenes, its appearance on the parliamentary agenda was due to the initiative of the then Leader of the Australian Democrats. Exogenous factors such as the high profile campaign by the Sex Discrimination Commissioner were also important. Labor women continued to pursue the issue energetically, but in the end their party bowed to the populist agenda-setting of the government—that framed paid maternity leave as ‘special treatment’ for working women.

The issue of violence against women was even more complex, with the Coalition government at first pushing hard on this issue, but with Labor then making the running on government failures. Labor also made commitments to wrestling the issue away from the men’s rights groups, whose impact was largely responsible for government policy failures. The capacity of women’s services for effective advocacy, was to be restored
with the funding of a new peak body. At the level of the nature of parliamentary language, the increased presence of feminist women on one side of politics was having detectable partisan effects. The increased use of gender inclusive language by Labor, particularly in the Senate, stood out in the context of the retreat from such gender inclusive language by the Coalition.

In general Labor women, regardless of whether they are supported by EMILY’s List, have to contest with historic suspicion of feminism within the party, as well as more recent populist currents and the pervasive demands of factional loyalty. This has led one leading feminist author and former femocrat to describe them as “political eunuchs” who fail to be outspoken in defence of their sex. She alleges that while EMILY’s List has been able to exert some pressure on the women they helped get elected, it is not enough to ‘galvanise the women once they are elected’ (Summers 2003: 214–15). The more recent post-materialist minor parties present less obstacles to the articulation of feminist discourse, and as we have seen, this has been true of both women and men, including the Greens and Democrats Senators who are the only openly gay men in the parliament.

On the other hand, the existence of bodies such as EMILY’s List and Status of Women Committees within Parliamentary Labor Parties have an important role in maintaining some form of feminist collectivity. Twenty years ago many of the Labor women politicians entering Australian parliaments came straight from a background in the women’s movement, most notably WEL. They introduced new discourses into parliament as we can see from their first speeches. Today new women entering parliament are more likely to come from backgrounds similar to those of their male colleagues, often having legal qualifications and a background in electorate offices or as ministerial staffers. This means that having bodies connected to their professional political careers, but providing them with a mandate to work collectively with other women, becomes even more important if they are to be able to articulate a group perspective.

The Status of Women Committee in the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party has played a significant role over the 23 years of its existence in focusing attention on the gender
impact of public policy issues of the day. This was true both when Labor was in
government and while in opposition and it has been notably effective in bringing women
together across factional barriers. During the period in opposition its Post-Budget
Breakfast Briefings in Parliament House, bringing representatives of women’s
organizations together with Labor women parliamentarians and shadow ministers, have
been remarkably successful. The documentation accompanying these events has
provided detailed critiques of the gender impact of Budget initiatives and other
government policy, such as tax cuts pitched above the level of women’s earnings.

EMILY’s List has meanwhile played a major role in supporting the increased entry of
Labor women to parliament and as an advocacy organization for reform in the party. Its
membership includes many former parliamentarians who are allocated to candidates to
provide mentoring and campaign advice. The importance of its support has been
acknowledged in the first speeches of new women parliamentarians. For example: “I
acknowledge the support and solidarity I have experienced from EMILY’s List. This
organization, formed by strong women with experience in the political system and
personified by Joan Kirner, has given many of us practical help when making the
decision to be involved, and guidance when taking office, in the system that our sisters
organising for suffrage knew was rightfully ours.” (Moore 2002: 3805). Its role as an
advocacy organization in maintaining pressure for the preselection of women candidates
has been written up in some 106 press articles captured by Parlinfo between February
2000 and 23 April 2004. In particular its success in achieving renewed ALP commitment
to quotas in 2002 received wide attention.

The role of EMILY’s List in providing a form of accountability is more difficult, and an
issue with which the organization has been grappling. As we have seen, candidates are
interviewed as to their track record and commitments on gender equity before EMILY’s
List endorsement is provided and are reinterviewed prior to endorsement or support for a
subsequent term of office. So far, there has not been any dedicated accountability
measure for their parliamentary performance. Currently (May 2004) there is a proposal to
have a mid-term review of the achievements of EMILY’s List parliamentarians with an
instrument for self-assessment of activity and outcomes that would capture some quantitative data for an EMILY’s List data base.

There is also the ‘weak’ form of accountability of which Susan J Carroll has written in the US context (2003). This is provided by regular meetings between EMILY’s List and its parliamentarians, where progress of parliamentary work on EMILY’s List issues is discussed. Such contact means continued exposure to group expectations and reminders of feminist values. This is important in the context of competing pressures of constituency, party, faction, government, parliament and personal priorities. It is particularly important in the context of the pull of populist discourse within Australian politics from the 1990s and the shift away from the equal opportunity agendas of the preceding decades.

EMILY’s List is an adaptation of the separate institution-building long engaged in by feminists to new circumstances—the professionalisation of political careers. In other words, it provides an institutional base for feminism within professionalised party politics. This includes selective benefits for those who can demonstrate track record and commitment to gender equity, as well as exposure to women-centred policy perspectives and a degree of accountability for performance.

References


My thanks to Senator Kate Lundy for providing access to the intranet Parlinfo search engine for the purposes of this analysis and to Janet Wilson and Karen Mow for generous advice