

face the facts



Some Questions and Answers about Immigration, Refugees and Indigenous Affairs

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foreword

Face the Facts was first produced in 1997 at a time of heated debate over "race issues" in Australia. The booklet addressed some of the prevailing myths concerning immigration, refugees and Indigenous peoples by presenting the basic facts in a straightforward manner. Importantly, it set out to counter the inaccurate and misleading information that inspires much racial intolerance.

Since then, there have been widespread debates about the reconciliation process, the separation of Indigenous children from their families, native title, responses to the arrival of "boat people" and Australia's immigration program.

These are undoubtedly debates that Australia needs to have. The question we need to answer in these debates is how do we, as a nation, protect the basic human rights of all Australians. Debate must be based on facts rather than prejudice. We need debate to produce solutions to these most pressing issues, not to encourage intolerance or vilification.

While the debates may have moved onto new ground since Face the Facts was first published, there remains a need for simple, current information. In particular, there is still a need to counter the myths and misinformation that surround these issues.

Face the Facts has been fully revised and updated, taking into account new research and the latest available statistics. Once again, it is based on Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC) reports, government information, academic research and other sources, which are listed for those who want to find out more. The new edition also refers people to useful websites for further information and an expanded version of the booklet is available on HREOC's website: www.humanrights.gov.au.

This booklet is not only a resource for those who want to know more about Indigenous Australians, immigration and refugees. It is a reminder to all of us that when we discuss these issues, we have a responsibility to inform ourselves of the facts and to speak on the basis of reason and not unfounded myths.

In the year of the United Nations World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance, we will be called on to examine how racism and intolerance are reinforced by stereotypes and inaccurate information. It is my hope that Face the Facts will be a useful resource for those working to counter intolerance in Australia.

Dr William Jonas
Acting Race Discrimination Commissioner



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section 1

**Migrants, Immigration
and Multiculturalism**

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Questions and Answers about Migrants, Immigration and Multiculturalism

How diverse are Australians?

- Four in ten Australians are migrants or the children of migrants
- One in four Australians was born overseas
- People from over 200 countries live in Australia
- 14.2% of Australians were born overseas in non-English speaking countries
- 15% of Australians over five years of age speak a language other than English at home
- Over 350,000 people identified as Indigenous in the 1996 Census
- The 1996 Census counted 50 separate major Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages.

What is the composition of Australia's migrant population?

At 30 June 1998, 23.3% of people living in Australia were born overseas.

6.2% of the population were born in the UK, 11.9% in Europe and the former USSR, 5.3% in Asia, 2.3% in Oceania, 1.2% in the Middle East and North Africa and less than 2% in other regions.

In recent decades Australia's overseas-born population has diversified. In 1947, 81% of the overseas-born population came from English speaking countries, mainly from the United Kingdom and Ireland. By June 1997, only 39% of the overseas-born population were born in the main English speaking countries.

What is multiculturalism?

Australia is made up of people from diverse cultures and backgrounds. Multiculturalism seeks to recognise and celebrate this diversity, and to address the challenges and opportunities arising from it.

Multiculturalism is a policy based on rights and responsibilities. The important overriding principles of multiculturalism can be summarised as follows:

- **loyalty to Australia:** all Australians should have an overriding and unifying commitment to Australia's interests and future, first and foremost;
- **acceptance of the Australian system:** all Australians are required to accept the basic structures and principles of Australian society - the Constitution, Australia's laws, parliamentary democracy, tolerance, equality, democracy, freedom of speech and religion, English as the national language and equality of the sexes; and

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- **mutual respect:** all Australians have the right to express their culture and beliefs within the law, and this involves a reciprocal responsibility to accept the right of others to express their views and values.

Multiculturalism is about the inclusion and recognition of all Australians. It recognises the right of all Australians to enjoy their ethnic identity and cultural heritage (including language and religion), and the right to equal treatment and opportunities regardless of their backgrounds. Multiculturalism also aims to ensure the diverse skills and talents of all Australians are developed and used to produce economic, social and cultural benefits.

What are the current levels of immigration?

Australia's migrant intake changes annually. Levels of immigration have been lower in the last five years than most of the levels recorded since World War II.

Over 84,000 settlers arrived in 1998-99 (including refugees and New Zealanders). In 1997-98, over 77,000 settlers arrived from more than 150 countries, a decrease of nearly 10% on the year before. It is also important to recognise that large numbers of people leave Australia each year. For example, nearly 32,000 left the country permanently in 1997-98. Therefore the net migration figure that year was 45,342, the lowest net migration level for 20 years.

Countries of origin

Most settlers in 1998-99 were born in New Zealand (22.2%), the United Kingdom (10.4%), mainland China (7.3%), South Africa (6.0%) and the Philippines (3.9%).

Between 1993 and 1997, the top countries of birth for people settling in Australia were: New Zealand, United Kingdom and Ireland, China, Vietnam and Hong Kong.

How many people are in Australia unlawfully?

People who have overstayed their visas are called unlawful non-citizens. The total number of overstayers at 30 June 1999 was estimated at over 53,000, compared with 82,000 in December 1992.

Overstayers are made up of three main groups - visitors, students and temporary residents. Most of the people who have overstayed arrived on visitor visas.

The greatest numbers of unlawful non-citizens at 31 December 1998 were from the United Kingdom (10.8%) and the USA (8.7%). Other countries with smaller numbers of overstayers included China (6.6%), Indonesia (6.3%), the Philippines (5.5%) and Japan (5.0%).

Migration legislation provides for the removal of people who are in Australia illegally and who are not taking steps to obtain a valid visa. In 1998-99, over 13,000 unlawful non-citizens were located and over 8,300 were forced to leave the country. Overstayers are not

normally allowed to return to Australia for up to three years, regardless of whether or not they leave voluntarily.

Who is accepted to migrate to Australia?

There are two main 'streams' in Australia's migration program: the **Skill Stream** and the **Family Stream**. All migrants must meet strict selection criteria, including health and character requirements.

People who come to Australia under the Skill Stream must meet criteria based on their skills, age, education, work experience and English-language ability. Migrants in the Family Stream must be sponsored by a close family member who is an Australian resident or citizen.

The 2000-2001 Migration Program provides:

- 34,400 places for family migrants (people sponsored by family members already in Australia);
- 40,000 for skilled migrants (who gain entry essentially because of their work skills); and
- 1,600 for special eligibility migrants (people in several other categories, including those with special talents such as sportspeople).

The migration program is separate from the humanitarian program, which is intended for refugees and people who have left their countries because of war, civil strife or human rights abuses.

What is the Family Stream in the migration program?

Under the Family Stream, all Australian citizens and permanent residents are entitled to sponsor close family members for migration. 47% of migrants selected in 1998-99 were in the Family Stream.

The Family Stream consists of four main categories:

- Partner - spouse, prospective marriage partner, interdependent partner
- Child - dependent or adopted child, orphan relative
- Parent - aged or working age
- Other family - including an aged relative who is dependent on an Australian relative or the sponsor's remaining relative.

Nearly 70% of the 1998-99 Family Stream places were allocated to spouses. Other places were allocated to fiancé(e) visas (10%), parent visas (10%), child visas, including adoption (6%) and other family visas, including orphan relatives (5%). Because significantly more spouse and fiancé visas are given to women than to men, women make up 61% of all Family Stream visas.

In 1998-99 the top 10 source countries for family migrants were: China, the United Kingdom, the Philippines, Vietnam, Fiji, India, Indonesia, Lebanon, the USA and Thailand.

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How skilled are the people migrating here?

Over half of the people who migrated to Australia in 1998-99 were in the workforce in their home country before they migrated. The breakdown of their skills is as follows:

- Professionals 30.9%
- Tradespersons 13.1%
- Managers/administrators 10.6%
- Associate professionals 8.1%
- Semi skilled 16.1%
- Unskilled 6.7%

Overall, 62.5% of migrants who were in the labour force before they migrated in 1998-99 were skilled. This compares with 53.7% of people in the broader Australian workforce in August 1998 who were skilled.

Skill Migration Stream

Since 1996, the migration program has focussed more strongly on targeting skilled migrants. Today, approximately half of the people who migrate here are chosen because they have skills or abilities that will contribute to the Australian economy.

Selection of migrants on the basis of abilities or skills

Within the migrant population as a whole, a higher proportion of people born outside Australia held post-school qualifications (53%) than those born in Australia (47%). Recognition and acceptance of overseas qualifications, however, remains a problem for many migrants.

What are the English skills of migrants and refugees?

The majority of migrants speak English well. In 1996-97 more than 75% of people entering under the migration program had a high level of English.

All applicants for the Skill Migration Stream must have a vocational level of English. 80% of occupations listed under the Skill Stream require a high level of English-language comprehension, speaking and writing ability.

People who arrive in Australia under the humanitarian program generally have a lower level of English skills than migrants do. Humanitarian entrants and refugees are forced to leave their countries, unlike migrants who plan to come to Australia and apply on the basis of their skills.

The 1996 Census found that 23% of people born overseas in a non-English speaking country spoke only English at home.

Is there a program to help people learn English?

The Federal government provides new migrants and refugees with up to 510 hours of English tuition, or the number of hours it takes to reach functional English, through the Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP).

In 1999-2000, the AMEP assisted nearly 36,000 people from 99 language backgrounds. The program has been operating for over fifty years.

What is the level of inter-marriage in Australia?

52% of marriages in Australia in 1998 were mixed marriages, that is, marriages between people from different birthplace groups. The different birthplace groups have been described as:

- The country of birth of a person who was born overseas and migrated to Australia;
- Second-generation Australians - a person born in Australia with at least one parent born overseas; and
- 'Long-time Australians' - a person born in Australia and whose parents were also born in Australia.

Among marriages involving overseas-born brides or grooms, about 30% in 1996-98 were between partners from the same country. 80% of all second-generation brides and grooms married a partner from a different birthplace group.

Do many migrants become Australian citizens?

The 1996 Census statistics indicated 67.8% of the overseas-born population had become Australian citizens. The highest citizenship rates were among migrants from Greece (96.1%), Vietnam (88.5%), the former Yugoslavia (87.5%) and Italy (78.8%). People from New Zealand are least likely to take up citizenship (32.3%).

In 1998-99, over 76,000 people became Australian citizens. Of these people, the majority had been citizens of the United Kingdom (17.7%), China (14.3%), New Zealand (8.3%), Vietnam (4%) and India (3.5%).

Some 970,000 people would currently be eligible to become citizens if they wished.

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How does immigration affect the economy?

Research shows that immigration has not harmed the Australian economy and in some areas it has done the economy good.

Immigration stimulates the economy, including through increased tax revenue, the contribution of funds from overseas, participation by migrants in employment, increased consumption of food and household goods and services and spending on housing.

Business migration

Business migrants, who enter Australia under the Skill Stream, inject significant funds into the Australian economy. Surveys of business migrants show that within three years of their arrival in Australia:

- 86% are engaged in business and over three quarters of these are new businesses;
- each new business employs an average of five people;
- 64% of businesses are involved in exports; and
- the average money invested in the business is \$600,000.

Business migrants who arrived between 1994 and 1996 created 7,700 jobs and generated \$348 million in exports.

Diversity and the economy

Research indicates that immigration enhances Australia's export possibilities. The fact that Australians speak almost every language in the world creates opportunities for economic and social development. The skills of our multicultural workforce have been cited by a number of major multinational companies as a significant factor in choosing Australia for their regional headquarters.

Immigration is also likely to increase Australia's income by stimulating tourism - an industry which is worth more than \$16 billion to the economy and employs 700,000 people.

Does immigration lead to higher unemployment?

Research clearly shows that immigration does not cause higher unemployment. Immigration stimulates the economy and all migrants are themselves consumers. This increases the demand for goods and services, which in turn creates more jobs. Migrants create at least as many jobs as they take.

Rates of unemployment for recent arrivals are generally higher than for those people who have been in Australia for some time, but these rates do not have an impact on the overall national unemployment rate. For example, in January 1999 migrants who arrived in 1997-98 had an unemployment rate around 17.5%. Longer established migrants (23 years or more) had an unemployment rate of 6%, compared with the Australian-born at 7.7%.

Do migrants face barriers in gaining employment?

For some migrants, particularly those from non-English speaking countries, barriers to employment include their level of English language skills, unfamiliarity with the Australian labour market, lack of contacts, difficulty having their overseas qualifications recognised and racial discrimination. For some refugees there can be an additional barrier dealing with after-effects of torture and trauma.

Nearly 50% of recent migrants who were not employed reported that their main difficulty in finding work was their level of English language skills.

Unemployment and length of time in Australia

The rates of unemployment for recent arrivals drop dramatically as their length of residency increases. For example, one survey of migrants who came to Australia between September 1993 and August 1995 found an unemployment rate for the principal applicant of 37%, about five months after arrival. The unemployment rate for migrant women was slightly higher than it was for men. After about 18 months the same migrants had an unemployment rate of 19%, dropping to 14% two years later.

Do many migrants work in lower skilled positions?

Research has found that 50% of recent migrants who had jobs were rarely, if ever, using their highest qualification. 24% had work that required a lower level of skills or experience than their last job before they migrated. This 'downward mobility' was greatest, at least in the short-term, for migrants from non-English speaking countries and for managers and administrators, who had problems adapting the skills from their former countries.

In November 1996, 23.4% of migrants were employed in manufacturing industries compared with 11.7% of Australian-born people. Earlier research indicated that migrant women are over-represented in manufacturing and labouring occupations, although as a group migrant women were also more likely than Australian-born women to be employers or self-employed. In general the rate of migrants working in manufacturing is lower among migrants who have been in Australia for longer.

What social security benefits can migrants claim?

Research, allowing for the age distribution of the overseas-born population, has shown that in the longer-term migrants actually make fewer demands on social security and health services than the Australian-born.

New migrants have to wait two years before they can receive most Social Security payments, including unemployment and sickness benefits, student allowances and a number of other payments. The two year waiting period starts the day they arrive in Australia or when they are granted permanent residence, whichever is later.

Migrants who are not sponsored by a family member or employer are expected to be able to support themselves and their families for at least their first two years in Australia. Some Family Stream applications require a sponsor or other person to lodge a bond of at least

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\$3,500, to pay for any social security payments made to a sponsored relative in the first two years after they migrate. A migrant generally has to live in Australia for 10 years before being eligible for age and disability pensions.

Do migrants have to undergo health checks?

All migrants meet stringent health requirements and undergo health screening before they are approved to come to Australia. This includes a physical examination and a chest x-ray if over 16 years. The requirement can only be waived for some close family members or for humanitarian applications, such as refugees, where there is no risk to public health.

Applicants who are found to have, or who are suspected of having, tuberculosis undergo treatment prior to arrival in Australia and sign an undertaking for further monitoring after arrival in Australia. Screening for Hepatitis B is mandatory for some applicants, for example where the applicant is pregnant or a child for adoption, and screening can also be required when a doctor thinks it is justified. The risk of Hepatitis B transmission from newly-arrived migrants is low. Most of those who test positive for Hepatitis B, however, are required to give an undertaking to report to health authorities on their arrival in Australia. All applicants are tested for HIV/AIDS.

How healthy are migrants?

The health of migrants is better than the Australian-born population across measures including lower death rates and hospitalisation rates, and lower prevalence of risk factors related to lifestyle, such as being overweight, having high blood pressure and high alcohol consumption. Overseas-born Australians have been found to have fewer and less serious chronic illnesses, although they do suffer higher rates of some conditions such as diabetes and tuberculosis. Surveys comparing recently arrived migrants with the Australian-born population have shown that a substantially higher percentage of the Australian-born are in fair or poor health.

In general, migrants have better health than people born here because they must pass health checks before they are allowed to come, and because people who are in poor health are less likely to have the ability and economic resources to migrate.

Do people from migrant backgrounds commit more crime?

In 1998, the imprisonment rates for the overseas-born and Australian-born were almost the same. People born in Australia were imprisoned at a rate of 105 per 100,000, while those born overseas had a rate of 110 per 100,000 (based on 1998 National Prison Census, and Australian Demographic Statistics, December, 1998).

Some ethnic minority communities have higher crime rates and some have lower rates than the Australian-born population. This does not mean crime is linked to ethnicity. Earlier research has shown a correlation between unemployment rates in ethnic communities and their imprisonment rates. Ethnic groups with higher unemployment also

had higher imprisonment rates, while groups with the lowest unemployment rates had lower rates of imprisonment. What matters is not their ethnicity but their social and economic circumstances.

Do young people from ethnic minorities commit more crime?

A recent study of over 5,000 Australian secondary school students looked at self-reporting of behaviour including involvement in crimes related to property, violence and drug use. The study also recorded the students' ethnicity. It found that factors like school performance, truancy, family supervision, alcohol and drug use were related to offending behaviour. Ethnicity was not significantly related to any offence except for property damage, where young people from an ethnic minority were less likely to commit these offences. The report concluded that the popular view that young people from ethnic backgrounds were more likely to be involved in crime was inconsistent with the results of the research.

Are ethnic 'youth gangs' a problem?

There is no common definition of what a gang is or who belongs to one, although gangs are commonly described in terms of the ethnic backgrounds of their members. Sometimes the term is used to describe groups of young people simply spending time together in public places while at other times it refers to groups of young people coming together specifically for criminal activities.

Studies have found that young people form a wide variety of groups for the overriding reason of social interaction. Most 'gangs' are transient, informal and based on networks of friends, and many have members from a range of ethnic backgrounds. They are not based on crime. When groups of young people are involved in criminal activity, it is usually not crime against the broader community but rather it tends to be inward-looking and linked to self-destructive behaviour such as substance abuse.

A New South Wales Parliamentary Committee investigation found that there was no evidence to suggest that young people were extensively involved in criminal activity. While some street gangs and graffiti gangs existed, their number and prevalence was greatly exaggerated by the media.

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section 2

**Asylum Seekers
and Refugees**

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Questions and Answers about Refugees

Who are refugees? How do they differ from migrants?

The international definition of a refugee is someone who has a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership of a particular social group. To be a refugee, a person must have fled their country of origin, and be unable or unwilling to return to that country.

In Australia, there is a process to determine whether or not someone is a refugee under the international definition. People who have applied for Australia's protection and are awaiting a determination of their status are referred to as asylum seekers. They are described as refugees when they have been granted protection. If a person is found to be a refugee, Australia is obliged under international law to offer support and to ensure that the person is not sent back unwillingly to their country of origin.

Refugees and migrants

Refugees are not in the same situation as migrants, although the two groups are often confused. Migrants choose to leave their country to seek a better life. They choose where they migrate to and they can return whenever they like. Refugees are forced to leave their country and cannot return unless the situation that forced them to leave improves. Some are forced to flee with no warning; significant numbers of them have suffered torture and trauma. The concerns of refugees are human rights and safety, not migration.

Why does Australia have a refugee program?

All people are entitled to have their basic human rights respected, including the right to be free from persecution on the basis of their ethnic group and their political or religious beliefs. When these rights are violated, many countries participate in a global humanitarian response, providing aid and helping to resettle people who cannot return to their countries.

As a signatory to the United Nations Refugee Convention, Australia accepts these human rights standards. The Convention defines who is considered a refugee and what obligations other countries have towards them. Australia is committed to the fundamental principle underlying the Convention - namely, that all participating countries have an obligation not to return people to places where they will face persecution. Australia has a duty to protect people who have a well-founded fear of persecution on the grounds set out above. Refugees have a right under international law to claim that protection.

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How many refugees does Australia take? Where do they come from?

Australia allocated 12,000 places for refugees and other displaced people under the 2000-2001 Humanitarian Program.

The 2000-2001 program includes:

- 4,000 places for **refugees** - people selected overseas who are outside their own country and have a well-founded fear of being persecuted for the reasons set out by the United Nations (includes approximately 420 places for women at risk);
- 4,000 places for the **Special Humanitarian Program** (for people with close links to Australia who have experienced substantial discrimination amounting to gross violation of their human rights) and the **Special Assistance Category** (for people with close links to Australia who are displaced or otherwise in situations of hardship and special need). The Special Assistance Category will be phased out in 2000-2001; and
- a nominal 4,000 places for '**onshore applicants**' - people who apply in Australia and are found to be refugees. The actual number of places granted depends on how many applications are approved.

The majority of refugees arrive through one of Australia's resettlement schemes. This means that they may have already spent several months or even years in a refugee camp overseas. Many people also come to Australia under the special humanitarian categories but they are not technically "refugees".

At present, the majority of humanitarian entrants come from the former Yugoslavia, the Middle East and Africa, Australia's priority resettlement regions.

During 1998-99, 9,526 people overseas were granted permanent visas under Australia's Humanitarian Program, mostly from the following regions:

- Europe 49.7%
- Middle East and South West Asia 30.6%
- Africa 16.3%

Applications in Australia

People can apply to be recognised as refugees when they are already in Australia. During 1998-99 more than 7,200 refugee applications were completed and 85% were refused.

Australia received 9,450 applications for refugee status during 1999, compared with Germany (over 95,000 first-time applications), the United Kingdom (over 71,000) and Canada (nearly 29,400).

What health checks do refugees undergo?

Refugees undergo thorough medical examinations, the same as those required of migrants. These examinations are conducted by qualified physicians and radiologists who are approved by the Australian government.

Is Australia being flooded with 'boat people' and refugees?

No. Boat people make up a tiny proportion of people who enter Australia each year. Between November 1989 and 3 January 2001, 10,156 people arrived by boat, without valid travel documents. A further 98 babies were born to this group in Australia, bringing the total number to 10,254 people.

Since 1998 there has been an increase in the number of people arriving by boat, many in organised groups. In 1999-2000, 4,174 people arrived, more than four times more than the year before.

All people who arrive unlawfully are held in detention until their status is resolved. Of the 10,254 people who arrived since November 1989, 12.3% (1,265 people) were permitted to stay in Australia on refugee or other humanitarian grounds. 31.0% (3,179 people) were allowed into Australia on temporary protection visas. 31.7% (3,252 people) were removed and the remainder are awaiting decisions on their status or awaiting repatriation to their source country.

The 4,174 people who came by boat in 1999-00 stand in contrast to the 53,000 people illegally in the community after overstaying their visas. In the same year, 1,695 unauthorised arrivals came by air.

Refugee numbers

Given that mainland Australia shares no land border with any other country, and is a long way from most major conflicts, it is unlikely that it will ever have to deal with the numbers of refugees that some countries face. In 1998-99, 1,834 places were granted to refugees and humanitarian entrants who applied from within Australia. In 1998, Tanzania hosted 543,900 refugees from neighbouring countries. The 13 countries of Eastern Africa between them hosted 1.5 million refugees.

What happens when 'boat people' arrive?

Every person who arrives in Australia without a valid visa or travel document is deemed to have arrived illegally and is held in immigration detention. Detention is mandatory, whether a person arrives by boat or by aeroplane. If they make a claim to stay in Australia on the grounds that they are a refugee, they are held in detention until their claim for refugee status is assessed. While asylum seekers in detention receive priority in the decision-making process, they can still be held for a number of years while applications and appeals are considered. Detention, for all practical purposes, cannot be reviewed by the courts. The only provisions for release are for children (but not their parent or caregiver), the elderly and victims of severe torture/trauma, but in practice these provisions are rarely used.

Failed asylum seekers, and unlawful arrivals who do not apply for refugee status are held in detention until they are removed from Australia.

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Temporary protection

Under new regulations from October 1999, anyone who arrives in Australia 'illegally' who is subsequently recognised as a refugee will be granted only a temporary three year protection visa. During this time, they are not able to bring their families to Australia and their visa will cease if they leave Australia. After 30 months, a person in Australia on a temporary protection visa can apply for permanent refugee status but their application will be considered as if it was a new application. In general, people who are entitled to protection in another country cannot lodge a refugee claim in Australia, for example if they have dual citizenship.

What assistance is provided to help refugees settle in Australia?

Settlement services

The On-Arrival Accommodation program provides initial short-term accommodation for up to 13 weeks, or 26 weeks in cases of hardship. Other services provide information, support and referrals to health care, specialist trauma counselling organisations and English language classes.

The Australian government funds and works with a range of community groups to provide the specialised services refugees need to assist them to settle in the community. The government also runs a network of 250 voluntary groups in the Community Refugee Settlement Scheme (CRSS). These groups support refugees for their first six months in the country, from meeting them at the airport to providing ongoing assistance with schools, public transport, language classes and other information that will help them adjust to life in Australia. In 1997-98 CRSS groups assisted around 4,920 new arrivals.

Refugees and other humanitarian entrants are entitled to up to 510 hours of English tuition under the Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP). If they are assessed as having special needs, they are provided with up to 100 additional hours of tuition before they join the mainstream AMEP program. They have immediate access to Social Security payments since, unlike migrants, they cannot make any preparations to support themselves when they arrive in Australia. Humanitarian entrants are also eligible to receive Medicare on arrival, entitling them to basic hospital and medical cover.

Temporary protection

Anyone who has been granted a three year temporary protection visa cannot receive full settlement assistance provided to permanent refugees. They are not entitled to Centrelink income support payments but they are able to work and to obtain Medicare benefits and the Special Benefit payment.

What sort of support do asylum seekers receive?

People who enter Australia on valid visas and apply for asylum are issued a bridging visa which allows them to remain legally in the country while their application is being considered. If they lodge their application within 45 days of arrival they may be entitled to a work permit and Medicare assistance. If they apply after this time, they have no right to work and receive no Medicare benefits.

The government provides limited support to asylum seekers who are unable to meet their most basic needs while the Department considers their application for refugee status. The Asylum Seeker Assistance Scheme (ASA) is available to eligible asylum seekers who have waited six months for a decision. It provides assistance with meeting costs for food, accommodation and limited health care. The ASA scheme is administered under contract by the Australian Red Cross. If an application is rejected an asylum seeker is usually no longer eligible for support. Assistance is available for a small number of asylum seekers in urgent need who are applying for a review of a negative decision.

Some asylum seekers in financial need and those in detention are also entitled to legal advice when lodging refugee applications and applying for a review of a negative decision. It is not available to lodge court appeals. Legal aid programs provided by state and territory governments assist with refugee applications.

Asylum seekers are not eligible for any other government welfare or support programs.

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**Aboriginal People and
Torres Strait Islanders**

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Questions and Answers about Aboriginal People and Torres Strait Islanders

Who is an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander person?

The Federal Government defines an Aboriginal person as someone who:

- is of Aboriginal descent;
- identifies as an Aboriginal person; and
- is accepted as such by the Aboriginal community in which he or she lives.

Each requirement must be satisfied. Physical appearance and lifestyle are irrelevant.

The definition rejects the purely racial classification of the past and includes contemporary social and cultural factors. At the same time it ensures that people cannot easily make false claims by requiring proof of Aboriginal descent and acceptance as a member of an Aboriginal community.

For the purposes of the *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission Act*, Torres Strait Islanders identify themselves as those of Torres Strait Islander descent.

The term 'Indigenous' is also used to refer to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. It is a term that has evolved through international law to acknowledge the particular relationship of the original inhabitants of a country or geographical region to their lands. Indigenous peoples are the descendents of those who inhabited a country or territory at the time when people of different cultures or ethnic origins arrived, the new arrivals later becoming dominant through conquest, occupation, settlement or other means. Indigenous peoples have retained social, cultural, economic and political characteristics that are clearly distinct from those of the other segments of the national populations. They also suffer greatly disproportionate levels of disadvantage in the territories where they live as a result of colonisation.

How many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people are there?

352,970 people identified as Indigenous in the 1996 Census, or 2.1% of the total Australian population. This was an increase of 33% from the number of people who identified as Indigenous in the 1991 Census.

Over half (55.8%) of Australia's Indigenous people were counted in two states: New South Wales and Queensland. A further 14.4% were counted in Western Australia and 13.1% in the Northern Territory. Indigenous people represent 3% or less of the total population in each state, and 26.4% of the population in the Northern Territory.

It is estimated that the Indigenous population is likely to exceed 427,000 in 2001. In addition to the greater number of people identifying as Indigenous, a significant factor contributing to the high growth rate of the Indigenous population is its younger age

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structure. In 1996 Indigenous people aged 15-29 years represented 2.6%, and Indigenous children up to 15 years of age represented 3.9% of the total Australian population for these age groups.

Where do Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people live today?

Australia's Indigenous population is becoming increasingly urbanised. While the 1991 Census recorded 67.6% of Indigenous people as living in urban areas, this figure had increased to 72.6% by the time of the 1996 Census. By contrast, the total Australian population recorded a marginal increase from 85.1% to 85.9% living in urban areas across the same period.

These statistics do not necessarily reflect a mass movement to cities and towns by Indigenous people. Urban and rural classification is population based, and some of the increase is a result of changes in classification of some smaller urban centres. The increase also relates to higher rates of Indigenous identification on the census form, particularly in urban areas.

The types of urban centres in which Indigenous Australians are likely to reside differ from those favoured by the general population. In 1996 Indigenous Australians were less likely than the general population to be living in major urban areas of 100,000 or more people (30.3% of Indigenous people compared to 62.7% of the total population). 42.3% of Indigenous people were living in smaller centres of between 1,000 and 99,999 people, in contrast to 23.2% of the total population. 27.4% of Indigenous people were living in rural areas in centres of less than 1,000 people.

There are also widely differing figures as to population spread across different states. For example, in the Northern Territory, over 60% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples live in rural areas, and in Victoria, South Australia and the Australian Capital Territory, a large percentage live in major urban areas.

Are Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people disadvantaged?

There are clear disparities between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians across all indicators of quality of life. Indigenous Australians experience the lowest standards of health, education, employment and housing, and are over-represented in the criminal justice system.

Health

- Life expectancy for Indigenous people in the year 2000 is the same as it was for non-Indigenous Australians in 1900. Life expectancy in 1996 was estimated to be 56.9 years for Indigenous males and 61.7 years for Indigenous females, compared to estimates of 75.2 years for all Australian males and 81.1 years for all Australian females.

- The death rates for Indigenous people exceeded those for all Australians in every age group, with the risk of death for those aged 35-54 being 6 to 8 times greater than the national average.
- Indigenous infant mortality is 3-5 times higher than that for other Australian children.
- Infectious diseases are 12 times higher among Indigenous people than the Australian average.
- In 1997-98, the age standardised rate of hospitalisation for the Indigenous population was twice as high as that for the total Australian population (540 per 1,000 as compared with 291 per 1,000).

Education

- Only 32% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children completed schooling compared with 73% of all Australian youth in 1998.
- In 1996, 23.6% of Indigenous adults possessed post-school qualifications, compared with 40.2% of non-Indigenous adults.
- Indigenous students are 1.3% of students in higher education. 40% of these are in non-degree courses such as diplomas and certificates, compared with 5% of non-Indigenous students.

Employment

- In 1996, 52.7% of Indigenous people aged 15 and over were in the labour force, compared with 61.9% of the total population of the same age group.
- The unemployment rate at the time of the 1996 census was 23% for Indigenous adults, compared with 9% for non-Indigenous adults.
- In 1996, 14.9% of all Indigenous employment was through participation in the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP), which is a forerunner of the 'work for the dole' program.
- The mean weekly income in 1996 for Indigenous individuals 15 years and over (\$190) and families (\$502) was lower than that for non-Indigenous individuals in the same age group (\$292) and families (\$730).

Housing

- In 1996, only 31% of Indigenous families owned their own home compared with 71% of all Australian families.
- In 1996, 17.8% of Indigenous households were overcrowded by accepted Australian standards, compared with 3.8% of other Australian households. Indigenous households occupied almost 50% of private dwellings with 10 or more occupants.

Criminal justice system

- The imprisonment rate for Indigenous adults in 1997 was over 14 times that for non-Indigenous adults, with almost 19% of the adult prison population being identified as Indigenous.
- In 1996, an Indigenous youth was 21 times more likely to be detained in custody than a non-Indigenous youth. In 1998, the rate of imprisonment for Indigenous males aged 20-29 was 1 in 20 compared to 1 in 200 for non-Indigenous males of the same age.
- The Indigenous prisoner population has doubled since 1988, increasing by an average of 6.9% per annum, which is 1.7 times greater than the rate for the non-Indigenous prisoner population.

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- The number of Indigenous deaths in custody since the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody has been 150% of the rate in the decade prior to the Commission. 17.2% of prison deaths in the 1990s have been Indigenous people, compared to 12.1% in the 1980s.

Do Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people receive special treatment from the Government?

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people do not receive higher social security benefits than other Australians and many in fact work for their benefits. Specific programs have been introduced in recognition of the fact that they are the most economically and socially disadvantaged group in Australia today. These programs seek to address the additional needs of Indigenous people, and to reduce the inequalities that they face.

Indigenous people also tend not to use mainstream services at the same rate as non-Indigenous people. For example, Indigenous people do not access the main health programs such as the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme, Medicare and aged care services at anywhere near the rate of other Australians. Consequently, programs and services have been designed specifically to meet Indigenous cultural needs. Examples of programs specifically designed for Indigenous needs include: the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) scheme, ABSTUDY, Aboriginal Medical Services and Aboriginal Legal Services. These programs operate as 'substitutes' for those available to the mainstream population. Non-Indigenous people are not disadvantaged because these programs exist for Indigenous people.

Special programs that set out to address inequalities between different groups in society or to protect cultural diversity are not racially discriminatory. These programs are necessary since some groups of people suffer disadvantage as a result of the racial discrimination they have experienced in the past. In addition to special programs that seek to recognize inequalities or cultural difference, it is legitimate to adopt special measures to bring disadvantaged groups up to the same level as the rest of society. Special measures usually operate to meet specific requirements within a set time-frame. Once this goal has been achieved the different treatment must end. Clearly Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders qualify for special programs and measures at this point in time.

Education

Public expenditure on education for Indigenous people is 18% higher per capita than for non-Indigenous people in the 3-24 age groups. A number of significant factors contribute to the higher than average outlay on education for Indigenous people, including location (per capita costs of delivering education services are higher in rural and remote locations) and lower than average incomes (leading to a greater average need for assistance to students). In light of these factors and the background of pressing need in this area, the additional 18% per capita is a very modest contribution to reducing Indigenous educational disadvantage.

Health

Funding per head, including privately and publicly funded health care, is 8% higher for Indigenous people. The different rates of expenditure on health services for Indigenous

and non-Indigenous people reflect differences in disease incidence, income, location and preference for services delivered in a culturally sensitive manner. Given the very poor health status of Indigenous people, allocation of public expenditure according to need would still require more resources for health services for Indigenous people. The underlying causes of Indigenous health problems need to be addressed, including long-standing issues such as provision of adequate housing and infrastructure, particularly drinking water, to communities; inadequate nutrition and natal care; and alcohol and substance abuse.

Housing

Indigenous people get between 9 and 21% less in public housing benefits when expressed on a per person basis. This is because Indigenous households have a higher number of residents on average than other households. Indigenous households are also more likely to be in an inadequate state of repair, and to lack available and functioning services.

What does it mean when it is said that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were dispossessed?

Dispossession refers primarily to loss of land. In the Mabo decision the High Court stated that, following the assertion of *terra nullius* - or 'land belonging to no-one' - at the time of colonisation, Indigenous people were dispossessed of their land parcel by parcel to make way for expanding colonial settlement. In effect, their dispossession underwrote the development of the nation.

Given the spiritual ties that Indigenous people have to their land, the resulting dislocation dispossessed them of their cultures, languages and religions as well as their economic welfare and independence. Well into the twentieth century, many policies and laws forced Indigenous people to be segregated and denied them fundamental human rights, including the right to vote and access to social welfare. From the time of settlement up until early this century, large numbers of Indigenous men, women and children died in random killings and massacres.

The forcible removal of Indigenous peoples from their lands was supplemented by policies for the removal of children from Indigenous families. The continuing effect of dispossession was recognised by the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody, which stated: "*Aboriginal people's current circumstances, and the patterns of interactions between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal society, are a direct consequence of their experience of colonialism and, indeed, of the recent past.*"

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Were Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children forcibly removed from their families?

Indigenous children were forcibly removed from their families and communities in Australia from the early nineteenth century onwards. They represented a potential source of labour to squatters and pastoralists and a target for the evangelising efforts of the churches. As the Indigenous population increased in the late nineteenth century, Government policy began to promote the removal of Indigenous children of mixed descent to ensure that this population would 'merge' over time with the non-Indigenous population. These children were liable to be removed for training in institutions as domestics or farm labourers, to be reared as if they were white in orphanages and children's homes or to be fostered or adopted by non-Indigenous families. The application of assimilationist welfare policies by States and Territories during the 1940s to the 1960s saw even greater numbers of Indigenous children removed from their families on pretexts such as alleged neglect, poor school attendance, and for medical treatment.

Removals on the basis of race continued into the 1970s. While forced removal affected every region of Australia, its intensity varied according to the period, the available resources, and the 'visibility' of children of 'mixed descent'. The legacy of forcible separation remains in the lives of Indigenous individuals and communities today.

How many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people were affected by separation policies?

There are difficulties in determining exactly how many Indigenous people were removed from their families. Many records have not survived and others do not record the children's Aboriginality. Making estimates based on surviving records and surveys is difficult as forcible removal varied according to the period, the region and the available resources.

A national survey conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics in 1994 found that 1 in every 10 Indigenous people aged over 25 (i.e. born before 1970) had been removed from their families in childhood. The results of this survey were probably understated due to the number of Indigenous people affected by such policies who had died prior to the survey. There were also likely to be many people of Indigenous descent who did not participate in the survey because they were unaware that they were of Indigenous descent. Other surveys within New South Wales and Victoria indicate that the proportion is around 30%.

In 1997 HREOC released *Bringing Them Home*, the report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families. On the basis of the available information, the report concluded that between 1 in 10 and 1 in 3 Indigenous children were forcibly removed from their families and communities during the period 1910 to 1970. It also found that most Indigenous families have been affected, in one or more generations, by the forcible removal of one or more children.

What is reconciliation?

Reconciliation is about understanding how history has shaped the relationship between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians, and developing more harmonious and co-operative relations for the future. This includes addressing longstanding inequities and disadvantage experienced by Indigenous people, promoting respect for Indigenous cultures, and giving greater recognition to Indigenous aspirations. Reconciliation is important not only to Indigenous people but also to Australia's future as a cohesive nation.

The process of reconciliation formally began in 1991 as a result of the recommendations of the Report of the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody. The Federal Parliament unanimously supported reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians and the establishment of an independent body called the Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation. The Council's role has included consulting the community on ways to improve relations between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, education and developing strategies to encourage co-operation. The Council reported to Parliament in December 2000 with the final strategies for the ongoing process of reconciliation.

What is self-determination?

Self-determination is the right of all peoples to 'freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development'. In accordance with this right, '[a]ll peoples may, for their own ends, freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources', and there is an obligation that governments will not under any circumstances deprive a people 'of its own means of subsistence' (Article 1, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights).

The right of Indigenous peoples to self-determination has been given considerable support in international treaties, and many governments support the right of Indigenous self-determination in some form. Effective representation and participation is at the heart of Indigenous self-determination. In common with many other Indigenous peoples around the world, Indigenous Australians have never been able to participate as full and equal partners in the political process, and often lack others' ability to use democratic means to defend their fundamental rights and freedoms.

Recognition of self-determination in terms of the right of Indigenous people to demand full democratic partnership in Australian society creates responsibilities for Indigenous and non-Indigenous people alike. For Indigenous people, it entails a responsibility to try to reach agreement as to participation in the nation State in good faith. For the broader community, it means a responsibility to accommodate the aspirations of Indigenous people into the fabric of society, including through constitutional reform if necessary.

Some fears have been expressed that giving Indigenous peoples the right to self-determination will lead to the secession and creation of new nation States. Ordinarily, the citizens of an established and independent State must try to express their aspirations through its national political system rather than through the creation of new States. This requirement continues unless the national political system becomes so exclusive and non-democratic that it no longer can be said to be 'representing the whole people'.

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What is ATSIC? What does it do?

The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) is a Commonwealth statutory authority that was established in March 1990. It provides an avenue towards Indigenous self-determination through the participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander representatives in the administration of their own affairs.

ATSIC is directed by a Board of Indigenous commissioners who are elected by Indigenous Regional Councils. The Regional Councils are in turn elected by Indigenous people across Australia. ATSIC's Chair plays a senior role in representing Indigenous Australians and advocating Indigenous issues to the government of the day. ATSIC's functions include participating in the process of government, developing and implementing policies and programs for Indigenous people, assisting and advising Indigenous communities nationally and providing advice to other government agencies and ministers.

What funding is ATSIC given?

The budget for ATSIC for 2000-2001 is \$1.033 billion. This is approximately half of the Commonwealth Government's expenditure on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander programs of \$2.3 billion (around 1.5% of total Commonwealth allocations).

Most of the ATSIC budget is spent on housing and employment needs:

- \$304.9 million will be used to address Indigenous housing needs through the expansion and maintenance of Indigenous housing stock and essential community infrastructure, and to provide home loans to support the home ownership aspirations of Indigenous people; and
- \$523 million will be used for economic development programs and around two thirds of this is dedicated to the CDEP scheme.

There is an expectation on the part of some governments that ATSIC should take full responsibility for Indigenous program and service delivery. But ATSIC was intended to be a 'supplementary funder' to make up for the lack of appropriate programs and services to Indigenous peoples. Service delivery to Indigenous Australians is meant to be the shared responsibility of all levels of government. In 1992 the Council of Australian Governments (Commonwealth, State and Territory) in conjunction with the Australian Local Government Association, made a National Commitment to improve outcomes in this area.

Is ATSIC accountable?

ATSIC is subject to the usual processes of public accountability that apply to all public sector spending such as Senate Estimates, scrutiny by the Auditor-General and relevant Parliamentary Committees. Spending by ATSIC and some other portfolio agencies is also subject to scrutiny by the Office of Evaluation and Audit (OEA), which reports to the Minister for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs and ATSIC on evaluations, audits and relevant accountability issues.

What did the Mabo decision say?

In the Mabo decision the High Court rejected the doctrine of *terra nullius*, the legal fiction that Australia did not belong to anyone at the time of European settlement. The rejection of *terra nullius* meant the Australian legal system *recognised* that Indigenous ownership of land may have continued after the British colonisation of Australia.

Indigenous ownership of land and waters is based on Indigenous laws, customs and traditions. When the High Court said that Australian law recognises 'native title', it meant that the law recognises the ongoing existence of these customs and traditions through which Indigenous people have a connection to their land. 'Native title' is not a new form of title created by the High Court but legal recognition of those rights that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have always had.

The High Court also confirmed that when Britain gained sovereignty over Australia, it gained 'radical title' over, but not 'full beneficial title' to, the land. This means that while the government has the ultimate power over the land, it does not automatically gain full ownership of it. The government is able, however, to extinguish native title to land when it uses its sovereign power in a way that shows a 'clear and plain intention' to do so.

In the Mabo decision, the High Court said that native title has been extinguished on all freehold land and certainly the vast majority of leasehold land. The Fejo case confirmed that a grant of a freehold title to land extinguishes native title to that land permanently. Native title can also be recognised over water, though the full extent of this recognition remains undecided by the courts.

Does the Mabo decision mean that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people will be given land for nothing?

Indigenous people are not given any land as a result of the Mabo decision or the Native Title Act. Native title is the recognition by Australian law of Indigenous rights to land and waters. The Mabo decision did not grant any new rights, it merely declared that certain rights already existed under Australian common law and continue into the present day.

What does the Native Title Act do?

Because the Mabo case dealt only with the rights of the native title-holders of Murray Island, it could not resolve all the questions raised by the broader application of native title in the rest of Australia. The 1993 *Native Title Act* (the NTA) responded to the need to resolve some of these questions and to create a framework for the recognition of native title.

The NTA endorsed the principle of native title established in the Mabo decision. The Act also validated past acts of government granting interests in land that extinguished native title. It established that native title holders whose native title was thus validly extinguished after the enactment of the *Racial Discrimination Act* in 1975 were entitled to compensation.

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The Act created a procedure for the determination of native title claims, including the establishment of the National Native Title Tribunal (the NNTT). The NNTT mediates native title claims, and if the mediation is not successful, claims may be decided by the Federal Court.

The original NNTT also provided a framework for future dealings affecting native title. Native title claimants were given the procedural 'right to negotiate' over future uses of land potentially subject to native title.

The *Native Title Act* came into operation on 1 January 1994. In July 1998 amendments were made to the *Native Title Act* that wound back the rights of native title holders significantly. These amendments override much of the existing protection available for native title holders under the *Racial Discrimination Act*, and cannot be challenged on grounds of inconsistency with this Act. Some of these changes involve:

- weakening the right to negotiate;
- confirming and validating the extinguishment of native title on a range of leases;
- limiting native title holders' access to pastoral leases; and
- increasing the difficulty of registration of native title claims.

One of the more positive amendments involved the capacity to make 'Indigenous land use agreements' (ILUAs) as an alternative to settling claims through formal determination procedures.

The United Nations International Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (the 'CERD Committee') has found that some of the amendments to the Native Title Act are racially discriminatory as they prefer the rights of non-Indigenous title holders.

What did the Wik decision say?

The Wik case relates to a claim of native title on land that included pastoral leases granted by the Queensland Government. The High Court said that native title can only be extinguished by a law or an act of the Government which shows a clear and plain intention to extinguish native title. The laws creating pastoral leases in Queensland did not reveal an intention to extinguish native title.

The Court found that Queensland pastoral leases had been created to meet the needs of the emerging pastoral industry. The rights and interests of a pastoral leaseholder had to be determined by looking at the relevant statute and at the lease itself. This process showed that the leases in question did not give the leaseholders a right to exclusive possession of the land. Therefore, the granting of a pastoral lease did not necessarily extinguish native title. Native title could co-exist with the rights of the leaseholder.

However, where there was a conflict in the exercise of those rights, native title rights were subordinate to those of the pastoral leaseholder. The rights of pastoralists prevail over any rights of the native title holders.

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Pritchard, S., *Setting International Standards: An Analysis of the United Nations Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples*, ATSI, March 1999, http://www.atsic.gov.au/default_ie.asp.

Reynolds, H., *Dispossession*, Sydney, Allen and Unwin, 1989.

United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, *Fact Sheet No.9 (Rev.1), The Rights of Indigenous Peoples*, <http://www.unhchr.ch/html/menu6/2/fs9.htm>.

Wik v Queensland (1997) 141 ALR 129.

useful human rights websites

Human rights

Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission
Australian Government Human Rights Manual
United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
Australian Human Rights Information Centre
Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade
Attorney-General's Department

www.humanrights.gov.au
www.dfat.gov.au/hr/hr_manual
www.unhchr.ch
www.austlii.edu.au/au/other/ahric
www.dfat.gov.au
www.law.gov.au

Racial discrimination

Race Discrimination Commissioner
Racial Discrimination Act
International Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination
Racism, No Way - schools page

www.humanrights.gov.au/racial_discrimination/index.html
www.austlii.edu.au/au/legis/cth/consol_act/rda1975202/
www.unhchr.ch/html/menu3/b/d_icerd.htm
www.racismnoway.com.au

Immigration

Department of Immigration & Multicultural Affairs
Federation of Ethnic Communities' Councils
Department of Immigration fact sheets

www.immi.gov.au
www.fecca.org.au
www.immi.gov.au/facts/index.htm

Refugees and asylum seekers

Refugee Council of Australia
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
Department of Immigration fact sheets

www.refugeecouncil.org.au
www.unhcr.ch
www.immi.gov.au/facts/index.htm

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander social justice

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Justice Commissioner
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission
Australian Institute for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies
Australians for Native Title and Reconciliation
Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research
Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation
Reconciliation and Social Justice Library
Foundation for Aboriginal and Islander Research Action
Minister for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Affairs
National Native Title Tribunal

www.humanrights.gov.au/social_justice/index.html
www.atsic.gov.au
www.aiatsis.gov.au
www.antar.org.au/
www.online.anu.edu.au/caepr/
www.reconciliation.org.au/
www.austlii.edu.au/au/special/rsjproject
www.faira.org.au
www.doratsia.gov.au
www.nntt.gov.au/

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www.humanrights.gov.au/racial_discrimination/face_facts/index.html