The Indigenous Economic Progress Report 2019

The National Indigenous Economic Development Board

10 Wellington St., 17th floor
Gatineau, Quebec K1A 0H4
(819) 953-2994

MESSAGE FROM THE CHAIR

On behalf of the National Indigenous Economic Development Board (NIEDB), I am pleased to present the 2019 Indigenous Economic Progress Report. The 2012 Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report was the first ever comprehensive effort to identify, assess, and compare a series of core and underlying indicators, and it represented the first attempt to capture the state and progress of the Indigenous economy in Canada. Three years later, the 2015 Progress Report demonstrated that between 2006 and 2011, small gains had been made towards the 2022 target. The report revealed that large gaps remained between the core and underlying social and economic indicators of Canada's Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.

The 2019 Report is intended primarily as an update to the 2015 Aboriginal Economic Progress Report, comparing data from the 2006 Census and the 2016 Census. The goal of these reports is to identify trends in the Indigenous economy in Canada over a ten-year period and make recommendations. The NIEDB strongly believes that Indigenous peoples are making economic and social progress, but most importantly, making important contributions to the Canadian economy. It is essential to maintain this momentum by enacting policies and programs that will drive economic development and contribute to closing the gap.

The NIEDB's vision is for Indigenous peoples to be healthy, well-educated, economically self-sufficient and full participants in the Canadian economy. The 2012 Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report set the bold target of **closing the gap in economic outcomes between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples by 2022**. The 2019 Indigenous Economic Progress Report shows however that while the situation has improved for all, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians remains large. In fact, Indigenous peoples in Canada are currently not on track to achieving parity with non-Indigenous Canadians. More efforts by all are required to make these results attainable. For this reason, I hope that this report – like its predecessors – will be used by Indigenous peoples in Canada, the private sector, academics and governments, Indigenous and non-Indigenous alike, to influence decisions that will help achieve meaningful improvements in the economic participation of First Nation, Inuit and Métis peoples.

To enrich the value of the report, an NIEDB Economic Development Index was derived to assess how the overall core and underlying outcomes for the Indigenous population have compared with the non-Indigenous population. In order to better reflect the changing economic landscape, a specific focus on Indigenous youth and regional outcomes has been included to better reflect the differences in the age

structures and the differences in indicators by province and territory for both the Indigenous and the non-Indigenous population.
Finally, for the first time ever, the 2019 report also provides a **gender analysis and an Infrastructure Index**. The infrastructure index compares the state of infrastructure in 200 remote Indigenous and 36 non-Indigenous communities, for 7 types of infrastructure. The gender chapter provides key evidence on the social and economic disparities between Indigenous women and men and their non-Indigenous counterparts.

The Board strongly believes that there is a need to focus on better data collection and assessment of policy measures that stimulate economic development. Indeed, better data collection will provide more detailed insight into where things stand and what needs to be done. Indigenous peoples, and particularly First Nations on reserve, require drastic action in order to close the gaps and address increasing disparities with the non-Indigenous population.

The NIEDB is concerned that much of the economic potential of Indigenous peoples remains unrealized. It is clear that there is still much work to be done before Indigenous peoples are in the same position as other Canadians to contribute to and benefit from one of the world's wealthiest economies. The state of Indigenous economic and social well-being will inform the Board's recommendations to the Government of Canada, and will identify critical data gaps to effectively evaluate progress.

Finally, I would like to sincerely thank our sub-committee, Ms. Dawn Madahbee and Dr. Marie Delorme, for their invaluable guidance and advice in leading the development of this report.

Sincerely,
Chief Clarence Louie
Chair, National Indigenous Economic Development Board

THE NATIONAL INDIGENOUS ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT BOARD

Established in 1990, the National Indigenous Economic Development Board (NIEDB) is a national, non-partisan, board mandated to advise the Government of Canada on Indigenous economic development issues. The Board holds a vision of vibrant Indigenous economies, characterized by economic self-sufficiency and socio-economic equality with the rest of Canada. Comprised of First Nations, Inuit, and Métis community and business leaders from across Canada, the Board plays an important role in helping the federal government develop and implement policies and programs that respond to the unique needs and circumstances of Indigenous peoples. The Board also provides a vital link between policy makers, federal departments, and Indigenous and non-Indigenous business and community leaders.

Information about the NIEDB can be found online at: **http://www.naedb-cndea.com**

The Board members are:

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Chairperson
Chief, Osoyoos Indian Band

Dawn Madahbee Leach
Vice-Chairperson
General Manager, Waubetek Business Development Corporation

Hilda Broomfield Letemplier
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Dr. Marie Delorme
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CEO, Membertou Development Corporation

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Sandra Sutter
Manager, Aboriginal Partnerships for PTW Group of Companies

Victoria LaBillois
President, Wejipeg Excavation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The *2019 Indigenous Economic Progress Report* was made possible by the contributions of a wide range of individuals, organizations, and communities.

The NIEDB is especially grateful to the academics who participated on the Expert Review Panel, who offered their generous and insightful feedback to help guide the selection of data and analysis of this report.[1]

Dr. John Borrows
Canada Research Chair in Indigenous Law, University of Victoria

Dr. David Newhouse
Associate Professor, Business Administration Chair, Indigenous Studies, Trent University

Dr. Andrew Sharpe
Executive Director, Centre for the Study of Living Standards

Dr. Fred Wien
Professor Emeritus, Dalhousie University

This report would not have been possible without the contribution of countless reports and surveys by First Nations, Inuit, and Métis peoples across Canada. We wish to thank them for their participation in these important initiatives.

[1] Changes to the report were made based on recommendations received. The contents of the report are the sole responsibility of the NIEDB.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Indigenous economic development is an integral component of reconciliation, holding huge potential to fuel Canadian economic growth. The *Truth and Reconciliation Commission*'s Calls to Action (#92) identify respectful relationships, equitable access to opportunities, and education of non-Indigenous management as key components of economic reconciliation. Indigenous economic development and participation are keys to closing the significant opportunity gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians which if addressed would boost Canada's economy by $27.7 billion annually.[2] Further, with a young and growing Indigenous population, Indigenous economic development is a powerful untapped resource to drive Canada's future economic growth.

Indigenous populations face deeply rooted systemic barriers embedded in the Canadian economic landscape, notably the *Indian Act* and its restrictive land regime, inadequate implementation of the treaties, and systematic exclusion of Indigenous peoples from economic systems. This has resulted in Indigenous overrepresentation in low paying jobs, higher unemployment rates, and lower educational attainment than their non-Indigenous counterparts. Indigenous populations are more likely to live in crowded homes that are in need of repairs, and in communities lacking adequate water, transportation, and connectivity infrastructure. These factors are community barriers to economic development in that low-quality or absent infrastructure and a less-educated labour force are impediments to attract and retain businesses. A complete assessment of these factors is required to ascertain where the greatest shortfalls remain, where progress has occurred, and where to focus efforts towards closing the gaps.

The 2019 National Indigenous Economic Development Board (NIEDB) Economic Progress Report provides a thorough and in-depth analysis of the economic realities of Indigenous peoples in Canada. The report includes three core indicators: employment; income; and, community well-being. These core indicators are examined through 13 separate measures. Additionally, five underlying indicators are considered: education; entrepreneurship and business development; governance; lands and resources; and, infrastructure, with these underlying indicators examined through 18 measures. Of the 31 measures examined, 11 are new to the 2019 report, including: several which examine workforce representation; enhanced income and educational attainment measures; community financial certification; and, the crowding and condition of housing. The 2019 Report also for the first time includes a Gender-Based Analysis, as well as two new composite indices: the NIEDB Economic Development Index and the Infrastructure Index. This report serves to provide the most complete and robust picture of Indigenous economic well-being in Canada to date.

In general, outcomes for Indigenous peoples in Canada are improving and some gaps are decreasing, but to varying and sometimes small degrees. Economic outcomes have improved for most Canadians since the economic crisis in the last decade, with some Indigenous outcomes showing greater improvements than for those of non-Indigenous Canadians. Some of the greatest gains were in median individual income where the deficit gap between non-Indigenous and Indigenous groups narrowed by 9.3

[2] National Aboriginal Economic Development Board (2016). Reconciliation: Growing Canada's Economy by $27.7B, http://naedb-cndea.com/reports/naedb_report_reconcilation_27_7_billion.pdf

percentage points between 2005 and 2015 (the remaining gap is 26.2 percentage points). High school completion rates also demonstrated a strong gap reduction of 4.5 percentage points between 2006 and 2016 (the remaining gap is 14.8 percentage points), and college/trades completion for Indigenous students grew to surpass the non-Indigenous population by 2.6 percentage points in 2016. Similarly positive findings have been made in entrepreneurship (gap reduction of 0.9 percentage points in the self-employed labour force levels between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples), governance indicators (24% increase in First Nations communities with taxation bylaws), and infrastructure (58% of long term water advisories lifted).

Although there has been progress, not all indicators have shown improvement, and improvements have not occurred equally across all Indigenous identity groups. The gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous employment rates remained essentially unchanged at 8.4 percentage points, and the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous university completion rates grew to 18.8 percentage points in 2016 (gap increase of 1.7 percentage points). While Métis populations demonstrate the highest outcomes among Indigenous identity groups in most indicators (including comparisons with non-Indigenous in some measures), First Nations on reserve populations continue to demonstrate persistent and sometimes worsening outcome deficits. First Nations on reserve employment rates, median income and educational levels are the lowest of all identity groups, demonstrating a strong need for increasing levels of targeted support through policy and programming.

The new additions to the 2019 Progress Report have produced some interesting findings. The gender based analysis revealed that Indigenous populations demonstrate greater gender parity than non-Indigenous populations and that while Indigenous women would benefit from support in areas of employment and income, Indigenous men would benefit from support in education. The newly included workforce representation measures revealed that Indigenous populations are more frequently working in high-income industries than non-Indigenous populations (but Indigenous populations are still more likely to be working in lower-paying occupations across all industries). The newly introduced Infrastructure Index demonstrates that remote Indigenous communities have significant infrastructure deficits even when controlling for remoteness and small community size.

The 2019 NIEDB Economic Progress Report provides evidence to indicate that while gaps are closing, they are not on track to meet the 2022 targets of Indigenous economic parity laid out in the 2012 NIEDB Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report. This report offers recommendations towards meeting the 2022 targets, such as: targeting First Nations on reserve populations in areas of infrastructure, employment and education; the development of youth-focused educational supports; and, skills development programs to assist Indigenous employees to move into higher paying occupational roles. Only through targeting policy and programming supports can progress be expedited to close the existing economic gaps. Similar to the recommendations of the 2015 Report, the necessity of accelerating economic progress if the 2022 goals are to be met cannot be overstated. Indigenous economic development offers the potential to improve lives, fuel Canadian economic growth, further reconciliation and provide a growing young workforce to Canada's aging labour population. Investing in Indigenous economic development is an investment in a socially and economically prosperous Canada of the future.

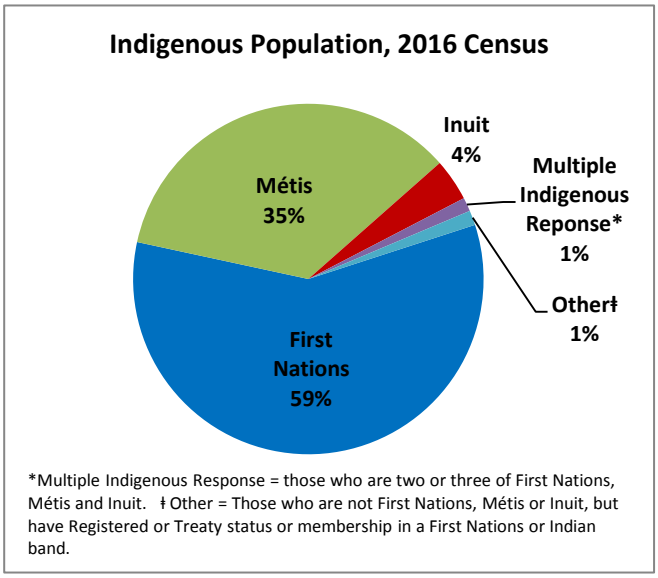
INTRODUCTION

INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN CANADA

Three unique identity groups of Indigenous peoples are recognized by Canada's Constitution: First Nations, Inuit, and Métis. Within each of these groups are found many unique sets of spiritual beliefs, cultural practices, and distinctive languages, with each population experiencing various economic needs and circumstances. This report is a component of the National Indigenous Economic Development Board's (NIEDB) broader efforts to measure and track changing economic landscapes for Indigenous peoples in Canada.

In this report, identity groups are based on individuals' self-identification on the 2006 and 2016 Census of Population. In 2016, over 1.6 million people in Canada self-identified as Indigenous, comprising 5% of the total Canadian population. Inuit account for almost 4% of the total Indigenous population, Métis account for over one third of the Indigenous population, and First Nations comprise approximately 60% of the overall Indigenous population. Statistics Canada projects that, in the next 20 years, the Indigenous population in Canada is likely to exceed 2.5 million[3] (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Indigenous Population, 2016 Census



*Multiple Indigenous Response = those who are two or three of First Nations, Métis and Inuit. † Other = Those who are not First Nations, Métis or Inuit, but have Registered or Treaty status or membership in a First Nations or Indian band.

First Nations

First Nations people in Canada include both Status and Non-Status Indians. According to the 2016 Census, there were approximately 977,235 First Nations people in Canada. There are 634 First Nation communities across the country, representing more than 50 Nations, cultural groups, and Indigenous languages.

Inuit

Inuit means "the people" in Inuktitut. Inuit largely inhabit the northern regions of Canada. In 2016, there were approximately 65,025 Inuit in Canada, the majority living in 53 communities in one of four regions known collectively as Inuit Nunangat, meaning "the place where Inuit live": Nunatsiavut (Labrador); Nunavik (Quebec); Nunavut; and, the Inuvialuit Settlement Region of the Northwest Territories. Each of these four Inuit groups has settled land claims that together cover one-third of Canada's land mass.

[3] Statistics Canada, "Aboriginal peoples in Canada: Key results from the 2016 Census," http://www.statcan.gc.ca/daily-quotidien/171025/dq171025a-eng.htm.

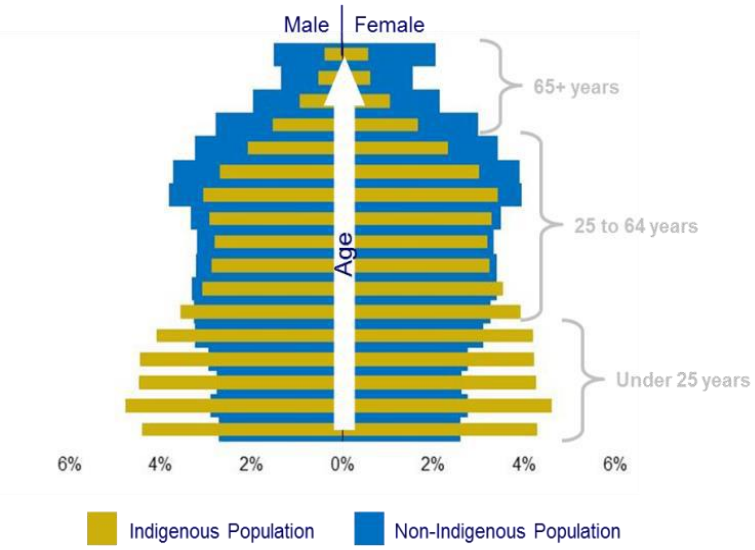
Métis

The Métis are Indigenous peoples who trace their descent to mixed First Nation and European identity, who are members of a present day Métis community, and have ties to a historic Métis community. The 2016 Census of Population identified 587,545 Métis people, comprising approximately one third of all Indigenous peoples in Canada. The Métis Nation recognizes the Métis Nation Homeland as including the three Prairie provinces (Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta), as well as, parts of Ontario, British Columbia, the Northwest Territories and the Northern United States.

A young and growing population

The Indigenous population is young and growing. According to the 2016 Census, Indigenous peoples represent 4.9% of the population, a 42.5 % increase since 2006. This is more than four times the growth rate of the non-Indigenous population.[4] In 2016, the median age in years for the Indigenous population was 29.1, and 41.3 for the non-Indigenous population. Canada's aging population will result in a decline in labour-force participation rates and limitations on economic growth. [5] The young Indigenous population will be key to Canada's future economic growth (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Age Pyramid by Gender (Indigenous vs Non-Indigenous), 2016



Source: Statistics Canada, 2016 Census, ISC/CIRNA Tabulations

Ethnic mobility and Indigenous population growth

While Indigenous populations do exhibit high birth rates, the steep demographic growth also includes those who have more recently started to self-identify as Indigenous. In 2017, the Fraser Institute concluded that due to ethnic mobility, the Registered Indian population is now at least 40% larger than it has been in the past. This growth has been influenced by recent repeals of some of the severe legal disabilities associated with Indian status, (e.g. not having the right to vote), combined with reconciliation efforts and diminished stigmatization. These shifts have been prompted by several court decisions such as the adoption of equality rights in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982) and the recognition by Order-In-Council of landless bands such as the Qalipu Mi'kmak First Nation (2011). This is a trend that experts anticipate to accelerate and should be considered in both this and future progress reports.[6]

[4] Statistics Canada, "Aboriginal peoples in Canada: Key results from the 2016 Census," http://www.statcan.gc.ca/daily-quotidien/171025/dq171025a-eng.htm

[5] Advisory Council on Economic Growth (2017), *Pathway to Prosperity,* https://www.budget.gc.ca/aceg-ccce/pdf/pathway-to-prosperity-eng.pdf, pg.3.

[6] Incentives, Identity, and the Growth of Canada's Indigenous Population. By Tom Flanagan

INDIGENOUS ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Indigenous economic development is an integral piece of reconciliation, as well as Canadian economic growth. The *Truth and Reconciliation Commission*'s Calls to Action (#92) identify respectful relationships, equitable access to opportunities, and education of non-Indigenous management in intercultural competency, conflict resolution, human rights and anti-racism as key components of economic reconciliation. The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development defines economic development as "the process by which a community or nation improves its economic ability to sustain its citizens, achieve its sociocultural goals, and support its sovereignty and governance processes." The Harvard Project highlights the overall development strategy and key elements of a vibrant Indigenous economy. There are four components of focus according to their research[7]:

- Sovereignty: when indigenous communities have self-determination about what development approaches to take, they consistently out-perform over when external decision makers have taken the lead.
- Institutions: in order for economic development to advance, a community needs to have capable institutions of governance in place.
- Culture: In order to foster successful economic growth, as all Indigenous communities are diverse, there must be a governing structure, economic system, policies, and procedures that fit each community's distinct contemporary culture.
- Leadership: Economic advancement is not possible without leaders who bring knowledge and experiences, challenge assumptions, and propose change. They can be elected, community, or spiritual leaders, but their role is to convince people that things can be different and inspire action.

In addition to supporting Indigenous self-determination, Indigenous economic development also supports the broader Canadian economy. In 2016, the NIEDB published a report which found that closing the significant opportunity gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians would boost Canada's economy by $27.7 billion annually, or an approximate 1.5% boost to the nation's economy.[8] Furthermore, Canada's Advisory Council on economic growth predicts that if the country were to match participation rates achieved by leading countries that Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita could rise by as much as six percent.[9] Indigenous economic development and participation are keys to achieving this kind of growth.

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https://www.fraserinstitute.org/sites/default/files/incentives-identity-and-the-growth-of-canadas-indigenous-population-execsummary.pdf

[7] The Harvard Project on American Indian Economic Development. (2015). https://hpaied.org/about

[8] National Aboriginal Economic Development Board (2016), *Reconciliation: Growing Canada's Economy by $27.7B,* http://naedb-cndea.com/reports/naedb_report_reconciliation_27_7_billion.pdf

[9] Advisory Council on Economic Growth (2017), *Ideas Into Action: A Review of Progress Made on Recommendations of the Advisory Council on Economic Growth,* https://www.budget.gc.ca/aceg-ccce/pdf/ideas-into-action-eng.pdf, pg.8

Overcoming barriers

In 2017, Canada's Advisory Council on Economic Growth recognized that Indigenous peoples face "deeply rooted systemic barriers to inclusion in the workforce," and recommended that both the federal government and corporate Canada work to increase Indigenous inclusion in the workforce.[10] In particular, Indigenous peoples are under-represented in professional, scientific and technical services, and finance and insurance industry categories. This is in contrast to over-representation in public administration, construction, as well as mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction industry categories.[11] According to the 2016 Census, Indigenous men and women are over-represented in lower-paying jobs in these employment categories, and Indigenous men and women have a lower median employment income than non-Indigenous Canadians, within and across all occupations and industries.

The Government of Canada's Youth Employment Panel recently recognized the barriers that Indigenous youth in particular face, including the intergenerational effects of colonization, a lack of education infrastructure, discrimination and barriers to accessing education, employment and training. The Panel recommended that the Government of Canada work to create urban Indigenous healing and employment hubs, invest in infrastructure, develop distance education, enable mentorship, and invest in entrepreneurial Indigenous youth. [12]

Factors that bridge barriers and build success

Sound financial management practices lift First Nations reserves out from under third party management towards greater self-determination. Recent figures show that Financial Certification through the First Nations Financial Management Board has tripled since the 2015 Report (from 34 in 2014 to 101 in 2018), providing more communities with financial management capacity.

First Nations Communities who are able to leverage real property taxation or leverage own-source revenue are able to provide stable revenue streams to reinvest in infrastructure and services and make flexible spending decisions without the involvement of the federal government. Property taxation bylaws have increased by approximately 25% since the 2015 Report, enabling more First Nations communities to generate own-source revenues for community investments.

Control over Indigenous lands enables communities to benefit from economic development opportunities such as mining and development, and commercial ventures. Participation in the *First Nations Land Management Act*, which provides unrestricted access, control and management of lands, has increased by 37% since the 2015 Report. Additions to Reserves (ATR) are processes whereby a parcel of land is added to an existing reserve. Since the 2015 Report, 269 ATR files have been approved, adding four million acres (16187.4 square km)_to existing reserve lands. Increased access to and control over

[10] Advisory Council on Economic Growth (2017), *Tapping Economic Potential Through Broader Workforce Participation,* https://www.budget.gc.ca/aceg-ccce/pdf/workforce-marche-travail-eng.pdf, pg.5.
[11] National Aboriginal Economic Development Board, *Reconciliation: Investing in Canada's Future Prosperity* (2017), http://www.naedb-cndea.com/reports/reconciliation-investing-in-canada's-future-prosperity.PDF
[12] 13 Ways to Modernize Youth Employment in Canada: Strategies for a New World of Work (2017), pg.8.

Indigenous lands improves the climate for Indigenous economic development and supports Indigenous self-determination.

Increased financial management capacity, taxation revenue and access to land are all drivers of economic development that serve to address some of the barriers that Indigenous peoples face.

Celebrating success

Despite these barriers, Indigenous peoples are creating many economic opportunities across the country. Some examples of success include:

- In Nova Scotia, the Membertou Sports and Wellness Centre opened in 2016, providing the first facility of its kind in the area, attracting business from the surrounding municipality.[13]
- The Toquaht First Nation in British Columbia is constructing a $1.35 million marina.[14]
- Indigenous peoples are currently working on a tourism strategy in Newfoundland and Labrador.[15] The Indigenous tourism industry alone in Canada produces $1.4 billion of Canada's annual Gross Domestic Product, and employs more than 33,000 people.[16]
- Manitobah Mukluks is an Indigenous-owned Canadian footwear design and manufacturing firm that founder Sean McCormick describes as a private business that is almost a social venture.[17] The company's mission supports Indigenous artisans and people nation-wide, employing over 300 people with annual revenues of between $25 and $50 million.[18]
- The three Mi'gmaq communities of Gaspesie collaborated to build a 150 megawatt wind park located within the MRC d'Avignon, with projected revenue of $200M over 20 years. [19]
- Avataq Cultural Institute in Nunavik has pioneered a line of herbal teas called Northern Delights, sold across the country and in Europe. The goal of the product is to provide an opportunity for Southerners to learn about Inuit culture and identity with profits going back to assist Avataq in operating cultural programs. The project based in northern Quebec also hires local Inuit to harvest the plants used to make the herbal teas.[20]
- Owned and operated by Kitasoo/Xai'xais Nation, the Spirit Bear Lodge is a result of a land use/development plan whereby the community decided on a non-extractive eco-tourism focus for their economic development. Now the Lodge employs nearly 10 per cent of the local population, has increased opportunities for youth employment, and strengthens the protection of the territory by attracting new researchers.[21]

[13] http://www.membertousportandwellness.com/
[14] Tofino-Ucluelet Westerly News "$1.35 million marina in the works for Toquaht First Nation's Secret Beach near Ucluelet," March 8, 2018, https://www.westerlynews.ca/business/1-35-million-marina-in-the-works-for-toquaht-first-nations-secret-beach-near-ucluelet/
[15] CBC News "Indigenous groups work on tourism strategy for N.L.", February 18, 2018, http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/newfoundland-labrador/boosting-indigenous-tourism-strategy-1.4537052
[16] https://www.ictinc.ca/blog/survey-results-show-strong-support-for-indigenous-entrepreneurs
[17] https://haskayne.ucalgary.ca/files/haskayne/Colbourne-IRIS-Presentation-FINAL-2017.pdf
[18] https://www.eaglefeathernews.com/news/montreal-lake-business-ventures-acquires-share-of-manitobah-mukluks
[19] http://listuguj.ca/wind-farm-for-gespegewagi-becomes-a-reality/
[20] http://deliceboreal.com/en/avataq-social-entrepreneurs/
[21] https://coastfunds.ca/stories/the-success-of-spirit-bear-lodge/

THE INDIGENOUS ECONOMIC PROGRESS REPORT

The 2019 *Indigenous Economic Progress Report* is the third report released by the National Indigenous Economic Development Board, which started with the 2012 *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report*. In its 2012 Report, the NIEDB set a bold ten-year target: that by 2022, Indigenous peoples would have economic opportunities and outcomes on par with Canada's non-Indigenous population. In its first update, the 2015 *Aboriginal Economic Progress Report* highlighted that although progress had been made, large gaps remained between the economic indicators of Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in Canada. The 2019 report employs data captured by the 2006 and 2016 Census of Population to compare economic outcomes and further track this progress. The goal of this report is to identify trends in the Indigenous economy in Canada over a ten-year period and to make recommendations.

Previous reports

The release of the *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report* in June 2012 marked the first ever comprehensive effort to identify, assess, and compare a series of core and underlying indicators, and it represented the first attempt to capture the state and progress of the Indigenous economy in Canada. The NIEDB undertook this Report with the purpose of tracking and assessing the economic development of First Nations, Inuit, and Métis, identifying gaps in outcomes, and measuring the Government of Canada's progress in implementing the *Federal Framework for Aboriginal Economic Development*.

The 2015 *Indigenous Economic Progress Report* demonstrated that between 2006 and 2012, small gains had been made towards the 2022 target. For example, gaps between the Inuit and the non-Indigenous population were reduced for unemployment rates and average income, and employment and participation rates for the Métis population were slightly higher than the non-Indigenous population. Despite these achievements, however, the report revealed that large gaps remained between the core and underlying social and economic indicators of Canada's Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. The 2015 Report stressed the importance of accelerating economic progress if the 2022 goal set by the NIEDB was to be met.

Our focus

Government interventions and federal government policy have been targeted differently to each of the different Indigenous identity groups. As such, the *Progress Report* tracks how economic outcomes for all three Indigenous identity groups compare with those of the non-Indigenous population, and breaks down findings by identity group, and in the case of First Nations, further distinguishes between on and off reserve populations when data are available. It is important to measure the effectiveness of government interventions, thereby necessitating a comprehensive examination of economic conditions for each of the identity groups individually. The information obtained through this examination is particularly useful to the development and implementation of future policy and program supports, especially approaches directed towards the reduction of gaps between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.

In addition to the information presented in the original *Benchmarking Report* and updated in the 2015 *Progress Report*, this Report uniquely develops indices to compare core, underlying, and overall outcomes for the Indigenous population with the non-Indigenous population. New to 2019, this report adds two new sections on infrastructure and gender. Following the NIEDB's 2016 *Recommendations on Northern Infrastructure to Support Economic Development*[22], which called for bold investment in large, nation-building infrastructure, as well as greater investment in community level infrastructure, this report includes an infrastructure index. In addition, it disaggregates data by gender where possible to measure gender parity within and across the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. Infrastructure and gender are areas of interest to all Indigenous communities, governments and businesses alike. If the Canadian economy is to meaningfully include Indigenous peoples, it is important to first gain a clearer picture of the economic opportunities available to Indigenous peoples.

[22] http://www.naedb-cndea.com/reports/recommendations-on-northern-infrastructure.pdf

Purpose

The *Progress Report* has four purposes:

1. To present comparative information on the evolution of the economic outcomes of Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples compared to the benchmarks set in 2012;

2. To identify variations in the evolution of economic outcomes among Indigenous identity groups (First Nations, Inuit and Métis) and, where possible, between First Nations on and off reserve, compared to benchmarks set in 2012;

3. To measure the progress made toward meeting the 2022 objectives set by the NIEDB for Indigenous peoples to have comparable outcomes to those of non-Indigenous Canadians; and,

4. To inform federal policy and program direction.

SCOPE AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE STUDY

This report is intended primarily as an update to the 2015 Aboriginal Economic Progress Report, comparing data from the 2006 Census and the 2016 Census. As such, it does not cover all possible economic indicators. The report focuses on quantitative economic data and identifies areas that require further research in order to gain a more detailed picture of the Indigenous economy and a fuller understanding of the factors contributing to differences in Indigenous and non-Indigenous economic outcomes.

With the new First Nations Labour and Economic Development Survey which launched in 2018 (results available in 2021), there will be additional opportunities to conduct greater analysis of economic participation, labour mobility, entrepreneurship, education and training, sources of income, financial well-being, as well as physical and mental health.

Potential areas for future study include:

- Assessing economic outcomes for small, Northern and remote communities.
- Undertaking a qualitative analysis of the state of the Indigenous economy.
- Examining the extent and effects of ethnic mobility, changes in the way people self-identify.
- Deriving measures of financial constraint such as an Indigenous financial vulnerability index and a poverty line cut-off.
- Purchasing power on reserve compared to off reserve and other rural or remote areas.
- Producing in-depth regional analysis.
- Tracking progress in access to lands and resources for the Métis.
- Gender-based analysis of Indigenous entrepreneurship.
- Enhanced data and statistics on Métis and Inuit economic indicators.
- Enhanced data on youth (e.g. gender based analysis).
- Impacts of transportation barriers in remote, Indigenous communities.
- Measuring the level and impact of capital generated of own -source revenue
- The impact on growth and prosperity of the 2-year election cycle on reserve.

WHERE WE ARE AND HOW WE HAVE PROGRESSED: KEY INDICATORS OF THE INDIGENOUS ECONOMY

The Progress Report, like the Benchmarking Report, is organized around two sets of indicators: core indicators and underlying indicators. Each indicator is assessed through a number of measures. All of the indicators and measures from the Benchmarking Report, along with eleven new measures, are included in the Progress Report. These measures provide a clear picture of the Indigenous economy and support the future tracking of the evolution of Indigenous economic outcomes.

CORE INDICATORS

Core Indicators are aligned with the vision of the *Federal Framework for Aboriginal Economic Development*, released by the Government of Canada in June 2009, to track the most important measures of economic benefits and participation. The *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report* identified three Core Indicators that are central to measuring the true economic progress of First Nations, Inuit, and Métis in Canada. These indicators require particular attention to close the socio-economic gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians:

1. Employment

- Measure 1: Employment Rate
- Measure 2: Labour Force Participation Rate
- Measure 3: Unemployment Rate

2. Income

- Measure 1: Average Income
- Measure 2: Median Income (new measure)
- Measure 3: Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers
- Measure 4: Proportion of Population with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers (new measure)
- Measure 5: Workforce Composition by Occupation and Industry (new measure)
- Measure 6: Proportion of Workforce (new measure)
- Measure 7: Median Income within Occupation and Industry Categories (new measure)
- Measure 8: Education and Median Income (new measure)
- Measure 9: Income Inequality (GINI Coefficient Index)

3. Community Well-Being

- Measure 1: Community Well-Being Index

UNDERLYING INDICATORS

Underlying Indicators are aligned with the barriers identified in the *Federal Framework for Aboriginal Economic Development* to track the factors that have a direct impact on the ability of Indigenous peoples to improve the core indicators. For example, the growth and profitability of businesses, increases in educational attainment, as well as access to lands and resources all have an influence on the quality of jobs, earnings, and wealth accumulation. Not all of these measures are applicable to – or available across – all identity groups, but together they help to track the readiness of Indigenous peoples to seize economic opportunities. The NIEDB identified five underlying indicators that help track the progress of Indigenous peoples toward improving their Core Indicator outcomes.

1. Education

- Measure 1: High School Completion Rate
- Measure 2: College/Trades Completion (new measure)
- Measure 3: University Completion

2. Entrepreneurship and Business Development

- Measure 1: Self-Employment Rate
- Measure 2: Profit and Revenue of Indigenous-owned Businesses

3. Governance

- Measure 1: First Nations Community Intervention Status
- Measure 2: First Nations Property Taxation Status
- Measure 3: Communities Certified by the First Nations Financial Management Board (new measure)

4. Lands and Resources

- Measure 1: First Nations Land Management Act
- Measure 2: Comprehensive Land Claim and Self-Government Agreements
- Measure 3: Additions to Reserves (new measure)

5. Infrastructure

- Measure 1: Access to Clean Drinking Water and Wastewater Facilities
- Measure 2: Proportion of Population Living in Dwellings in Need of Major Repair (new measure)
- Measure 3: Proportion of Population Living in Crowded Housing (new measure)
- Measure 4: Education Facilities
- Measure 5: Health Facilities
- Measure 6: Connectivity
- Measure 7: Energy
- Measure 8: Transportation

GENDER BASED ANALYSIS

For the first time ever, the NIEDB Progress Report includes a gender based analysis of sex disaggregated data presented in the report. The analysis provides key evidence on the social and economic disparities between Indigenous women and men and their non-Indigenous counterparts. Findings focus on the differential impacts of socio-economic outcomes on Indigenous women and men by considering their different life situations and socio-economic realities.

NIEDB ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT INDICES

To assess how the overall core and underlying outcomes for the Indigenous population have compared with the non-Indigenous population, separate indices were derived by population group for each of the core and underlying indicators combined, respectively. As well, an overall NIEDB Economic Development Index consolidates the outcomes from the core and underling indicators together using available data for all identity groups reported in the Indigenous Economic Progress Report.

INDIGENOUS YOUTH

A section on Indigenous youth is provided using a selection of core and underlying indicators to examine labour force and education outcomes focusing on the Indigenous youth population aged 15 to 24 years, as differences in the age structures of the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations has an impact on economic outcomes.

INFRASTRUCTURE INDEX FOR REMOTE INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES

A new composite measure is included in the NIEDB Report which quantifies 13 measures of infrastructure for comparison across remote/urban communities, regional areas, and Indigenous/non-Indigenous communities (including disaggregation by identity group). The 13 measures are organized into 7 infrastructure types of: connectivity, transportation, energy, health care, education, water and housing. Indicators were combined to create two sub-indices of Quality of Life Infrastructure and Economic Infrastructure, which when combined create the overall Infrastructure Index.

TRENDS IN THE INDIGENOUS ECONOMY

Outcomes are improving and gaps are reducing, but only slightly.

Despite the economic decline over the past decade, overall economic outcomes for Indigenous peoples in Canada continue to improve. Average and median income for the total Indigenous population increased between 2005 and 2015, and Indigenous median income is now at 73.8% of the non-Indigenous population, up from 64.5% in 2005. Indigenous income received through government transfers is also declining slightly overall (from 18.1% in 2005 to 17.4 % of total income in 2015).

Education completion rates for the Indigenous population overall have increased since 2006. The college completion rate increased for all Indigenous identity groups, reducing the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples. However, gaps in university completion rates increased for all identity groups, and increased most for First Nations women on reserve and Inuit women. This widening gap is influenced by an increase in university completion rates for non-Indigenous women in particular.

Indigenous men and women experience varying economic outcomes.

The gender-disaggregated data in this edition of the progress report made clear that Indigenous men and women experience differing economic outcomes.

Overall, Indigenous men experience a slightly higher employment rate (53.2%) than Indigenous women (51.1%). This gender gap is not as large as the one for the non-Indigenous population, where men experience an employment rate of 64.2% and women experience an employment rate of 56.9%. However, Indigenous men also experience a higher unemployment rate (17.6%) compared to that of Indigenous women (12.8%). For all identity groups, Indigenous women have a lower unemployment rate than Indigenous men.

The gender gap in income is highest for Métis, where Métis men have a median income of $38,965, compared to $26,900 for Métis women. First Nations women on reserve and Inuit women have slightly higher incomes than their male counterparts.

It should be noted that Indigenous women on average receive almost a quarter of their income from government transfers, which is double the figure for Indigenous men. Indigenous women are more likely than Indigenous men to receive their main source of income through government transfers, but this figure is decreasing. These findings are influenced by higher child-related government transfers to women.

The economic gaps between Indigenous men and women are on average smaller than economic gaps between non-Indigenous men and women.

Indigenous women have higher education outcomes, but Indigenous men experience higher economic outcomes.

Indigenous women across all identity groups are more likely to complete high school and university than Indigenous men; however, Indigenous men have a median income that is $4,879 greater than that of Indigenous women and have a higher employment rate on average. However, First Nations women on reserve and Inuit women do have higher median income than their male counterparts. The higher male income in other Indigenous populations is associated with their greater likelihood of being employed in a resource industry or construction.

Although higher education rates should indicate greater employment and income opportunities, Indigenous women continue to experience barriers in achieving economic equality.

Gaps remain largest and outcomes remain lowest for First Nations on reserve.

In 2016, employment rates for First Nations on reserve were lower than other Indigenous groups. The gap in labour force participation rate and unemployment rates for First Nations on reserve increased more than for all other identity groups between 2006-2016.

Furthermore, First Nations on reserve have a median income that is half of what their non-Indigenous counterparts have, and which is the lowest median income of all identity groups. Median income for First Nations on reserve experienced only a marginal improvement from 2005 - 2015. The proportion of individuals with their main source of income from government transfers is significantly higher for First Nations women on reserve, at nearly 50%.

This suggests that the barriers to economic development on reserve remain difficult to overcome.

First Nations men on reserve experience the lowest economic outcomes.

In particular, First Nations men on reserve experience a significantly lower employment rate (35.5%) and labour force participation rate (50.7%) than the overall Indigenous male population (at 53.2% and 64.5%, respectively). The unemployment rate for First Nations men on reserve (30%) is nearly double that of the total Indigenous population (17.6%), and more than triple that of the non-Indigenous population (7.9%).

First Nations men on reserve also have the lowest average and median income of all identity groups. The median income for non-Indigenous men ($41,230) is nearly three times the income for First Nations men on reserve ($14,580).

Additionally, First Nations men on reserve experience lower high school and university completion rates than First Nations women on reserve. Between 2006 and 2016, First Nations women on reserve fared better in closing the gap in high school graduation rates than their male counterparts.

Inuit outcomes are improving, but Inuit continue to face barriers to fully participating in the economy.

Inuit were the only group to experience an increase in the labour force participation rate from 2006 to 2016. Despite this increase, the Inuit unemployment rate increased more than for other identity groups. This indicates that more Inuit were available and looking for work, but also unable to find employment.

Education outcomes for Inuit are improving, yet their high school, college and university completion rates lag behind First Nations and Métis. This could be due to the additional barriers that Inuit face in education attainment in Northern and remote communities.

Inuit median income increased from $16,969 in 2005 to $24,502 in 2015, or 70.8% of non-Indigenous median income. However, during this period the proportion of Inuit receiving their main source of income from government transfers increased slightly.

Métis continue to have the highest economic outcomes of all identity groups.

As noted in our previous Economic Progress Report, Métis continue to have better outcomes than First Nations and Inuit, and the gap has nearly closed. Métis have experienced the biggest gap reduction in high-school completion rates from 2006-2016, and Métis women experience the highest university completion rate of all Indigenous identity groups.

It should be noted that the increased economic outcomes of Métis overall could be due to the fact that 62.6% of Métis live in a metropolitan area of at least 30,000 people, which could increase employment opportunities relative to other identity groups.[23]

Urban Indigenous population is on the rise

In 2016, 867,415 Indigenous peoples lived in a metropolitan area of at least 30,000 people, accounting for over half (51.8%) of the total Indigenous population. From 2006 to 2016, this urban population increased by 59.7% with several metropolitan areas demonstrating notable increases. Communities with Indigenous populations that have more than doubled in size include St. John's (+237.3%), Halifax (+199.0%) and Moncton (+197.9%).[24] These increases have been interpreted as people moving into urban areas, but widespread Indigenous population growth both on and off reserve indicate that it is likely a combination of factors influencing increasing Indigenous urbanization. These may include birth rate growth, several court decisions including the adoption of equality rights in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982), ethnic mobility, as well as people moving for employment and educational opportunities. The numbers may have increased so dramatically in St. John's in particular due to the recognition by Order-in-Council of the Qalipu Mi'kmak First Nation in 2011.

[23] Statistics Canada, "Aboriginal peoples in Canada: Key results from the 2016 Census" http://www.statcan.gc.ca/daily-quotidien/171025/dq171025a-eng.htm

[24] Statistics Canada, "Aboriginal peoples in Canada: Key results from the 2016 Census" http://www.statcan.gc.ca/daily-quotidien/171025/dq171025a-eng.htm

TARGETS AT A GLANCE

CORE INDICATORS

INDICATOR	KEY MEASURES	2006 INDIGENOUS GAP	2016 INDIGENOUS GAP	2022 TARGET
EMPLOYMENT	Employment Rate Labour Force Participation Rate Unemployment Rate	9.0. percentage points below the non-Indigenous rate 3.9 percentage points below the non-Indigenous rate 8.5 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	8.4 percentage points below the non-Indigenous rate 4.0 percentage points below the non-Indigenous rate 7.8 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	The NIEDB target for **Employment** is Indigenous employment, labour force participation, and unemployment rates comparable to those of Canada's non-Indigenous population
INCOME (2005 & 2015)	Indigenous Median Income % of Income from Transfers Main source of income from Transfers	35.5 percentage points below the non-Indigenous median income 7.2 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate 9.6 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	26.2 percentage points below the non-Indigenous median income 5.9 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate 8.6 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	The NIEDB target for **Income** is Indigenous income and percent of income from transfers comparable to those of Canada's non-Indigenous population
COMMUNITY WELL-BEING	Community Well-Being Index	First Nations communities have a CWB score 18.4 below other Canadian communities Inuit communities have a CWB score 14.9 points below other Canadian communities	First Nations communities have a CWB score 19.1 below other Canadian communities Inuit communities have a CWB score 16.2 points below other Canadian communities	The NIEDB target for **Community Well-Being** is average community well-being scores comparable to those of Canada's non-Indigenous population

UNDERLYING INDICATORS

INDICATOR	KEY MEASURES	2006 INDIGENOUS GAP	2016 INDIGENOUS GAP	2022 TARGET
EDUCATION	High School completion rate College/Trades completion rate University completion rate	19.3 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate 0.4 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate 17.1 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate	14.8 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate 2.6 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate 18.8 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate	The NIEDB target for **Education** is Indigenous high school and university completion rates comparable to those of Canada's non-Indigenous population
ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT	Self-employment rate	5.3 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate	4.3 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate	The NIEDB target for **Entrepreneurship** is Indigenous self-employment rates comparable to that of Canada's non-Indigenous population
GOVERNANCE	Indigenous community intervention status	150 First Nations under intervention	147 First Nations under intervention	The NIEDB target for **Governance** is 0 First Nation communities under intervention
LANDS AND RESCOURCES	Participation in the FNLMA Participation in Comprehensive Land Claims and Self-Government Agreements	96 First Nations under the FNLMA 96 Indigenous Communities involved in Ratified Agreements	131 First Nations under the FNLMA (2018) 100 Indigenous Communities involved in Ratified Agreements	The NIEDB target for **Lands and Resources** is 50% of First Nation communities to be either participating in the FNLMA or having settled comprehensive land claim and self-government agreements.
INFRASTRUCTURE	Drinking water infrastructure Overcrowding of dwellings Proportion of population living in dwellings in need of major repair	46% of First Nations communities have drinking water infrastructure that meets prescribed standards 8.5 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate 16.4 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	92% of First Nations communities have drinking water infrastructure that meets prescribed standards 5.8 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate 13.4 percentage points above the non-Indigenous rate	The NIEDB target for **Infrastructure** is 100% of First Nations communities having drinking water infrastructure that meets prescribed Health Canada standards and overcrowding rates comparable to those of Canada's non-Indigenous population.

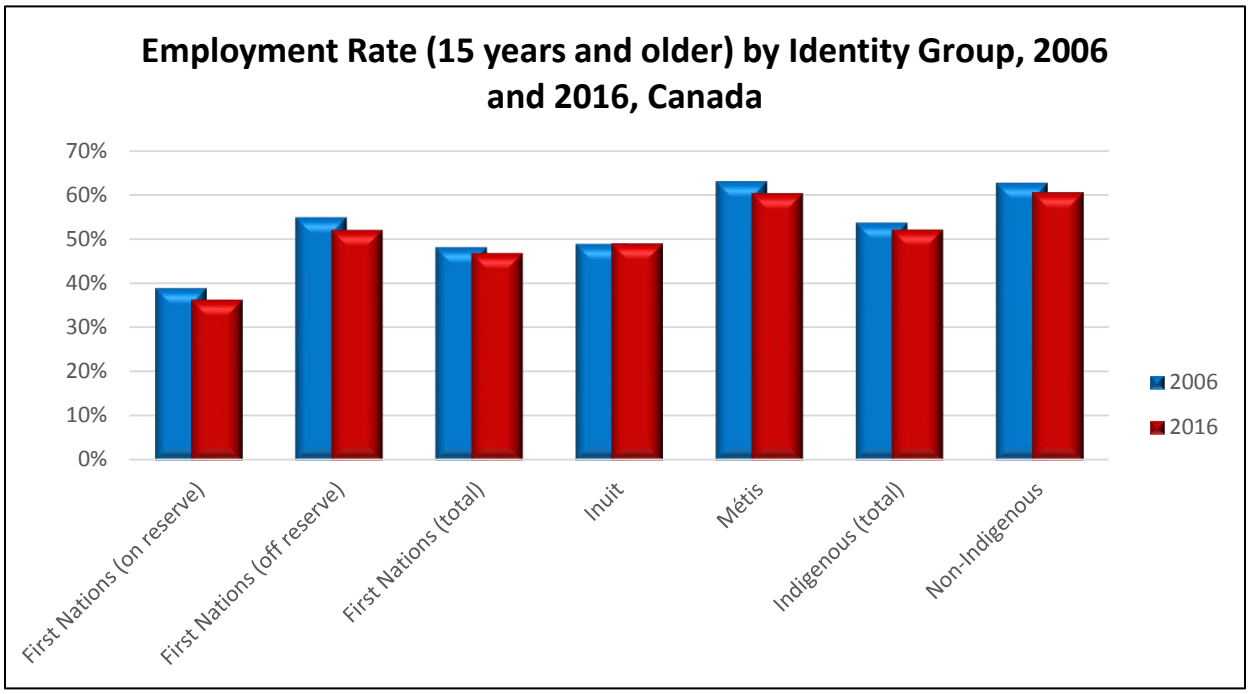
CORE INDICATOR #1: EMPLOYMENT

Indigenous Employment Rate

The employment rate measures the percentage of the total population age 15 years and older that is employed and earning an income. It is an important measure to assess economic progress, as a higher rate of employment signifies an increasing purchasing power and less dependency on government transfers.

Canadian employment rates overall decreased from 2006 to 2016.[25] During this time frame, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous employment rates narrowed only slightly, from a difference of 9 percentage points in 2006 to 8.4 percentage points in 2016 (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Employment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

The employment rate continues to be lowest for First Nations on reserve, with a gap of 24.2 percentage points below the non-Indigenous rate. Inuit were the only identity group to experience a minor increase in the employment rate, which when combined with a reduction in the non-Indigenous employment rate, contributed to a notable narrowing of the gap by 2.3 percentage points. For Métis, the overall employment rate decreased from 63.1% in 2006 to 60.3% in 2016; however, this decrease was similar to the non-Indigenous employment rate. Métis exhibit the highest employment rate of all identity groups, with rates close to or exceeding the non-Indigenous rate.

[25] Labour force status data are collected in one 'reference week' from Sunday, May 1 to Saturday, May 7, 2016 (for example, persons who were employed, unemployed, not in the labour force, unemployment rate, participation rate and employment rate). Information is not an annual average.

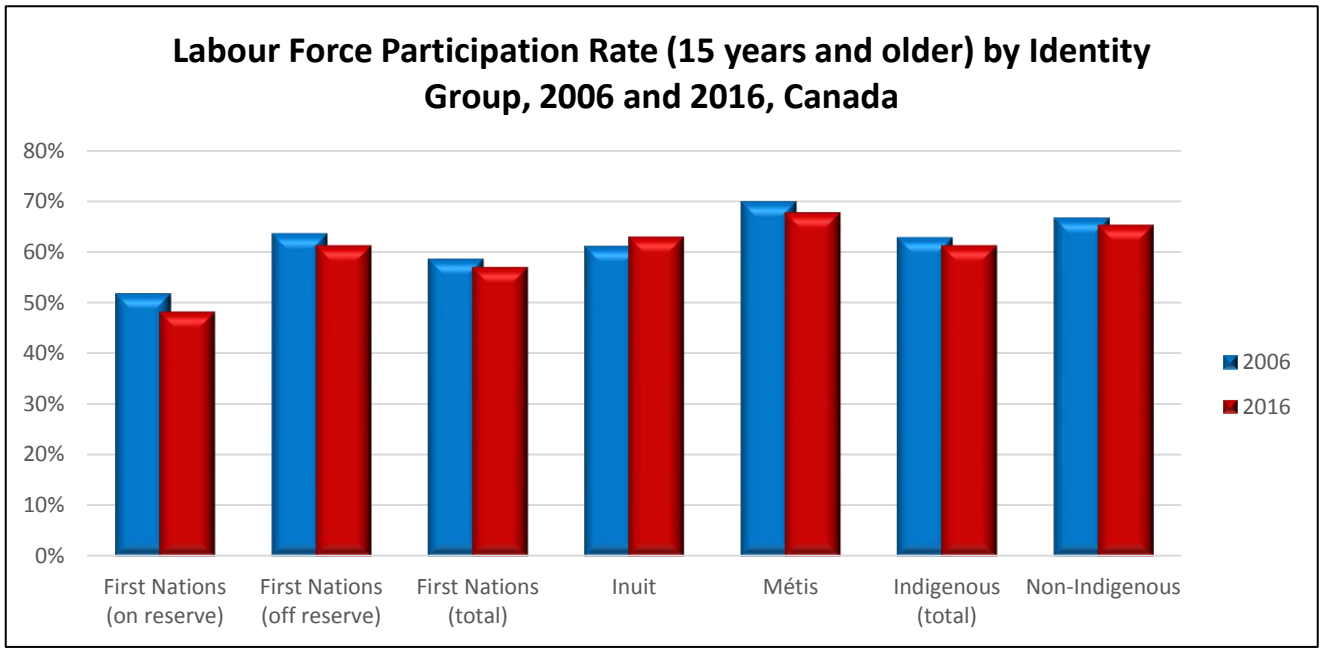
- Despite marginal improvements, a pronounced gap remains in the employment rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians.
- This gap is most pronounced for First Nations on reserve, where the employment rate is 24.2 percentage points lower than for non-Indigenous Canadians. Métis continue to have a higher employment rate than other identity groups. While Inuit employment rates are significantly lower than non-Indigenous employment rates, Inuit were the only group who did not experience a decline in employment rate from 2006-2016.

Indigenous Labour Force Participation Rate

The labour force participation rate is the percentage of the population aged 15 years and older that is either employed or unemployed and looking for work. The labour force participation rate indicates the availability of labour supply and the potential output that it can generate. A strong labour force participation rate signals that labour can be a key contributor to long-term economic growth.

Canadian labour force participation rates overall fell between 2006 and 2016. The labour force participation rate for Indigenous peoples mirrored this trend with an overall decrease from 63.0% in 2006 to 61.4% in 2016. This decrease had a negligible effect on the gap in the participation rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous labour force, which remained almost stable at 3.9 percentage points in 2006 and 4.0 percentage points in 2016 (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Labour Force Participation Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

The labour force participation rate continues to be lowest for First Nations on reserve, and the gap continues to widen. The drop in labour force participation rates was most significant for First Nations on reserve (-3.7 percentage points), and the drop was more than double that of the non-Indigenous

population (-1.5 percentage points). The gaps for First Nations off reserve also increased, but only slightly. Between 2006 and 2016, there was a small increase in the labour force participation rates for Inuit. This increase, in combination with a decrease in the non-Indigenous labour force participation rate, resulted in a narrowing of the gap from 5.6 percentage points in 2006 to 2.3 percentage points in 2016. Métis populations demonstrate strong labour force participation rates that exceed non-Indigenous Canadians.

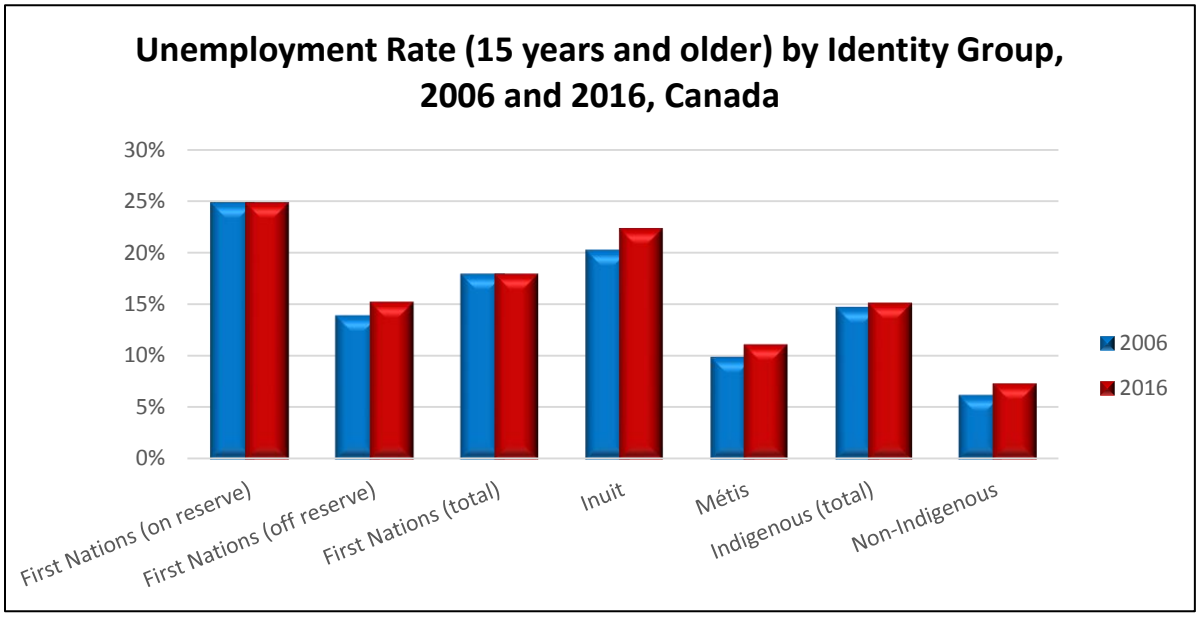
- The labour force participation rate for the Indigenous population decreased and the gap with the non-Indigenous population has not changed since 2006.
- First Nations on reserve continue to experience the lowest labour force participation rate. While the gap for First Nations on reserve increased, the gap for Inuit labour force participation decreased. Métis continue to have higher labour force participation rates than all other groups.

Indigenous Unemployment Rate

The unemployment rate is the proportion of those in the labour force who are not working. People are considered unemployed if they are available for work and are actively seeking employment but have not found a job. Generally, a lower unemployment rate reflects a stronger economy.

Canadian unemployment rates overall increased between 2006 and 2016. While these effects were small but variable across Indigenous identity groups, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous unemployment rates slightly narrowed from 8.5 percentage points in 2006 to 7.8 percentage points in 2016. Indigenous unemployment rates remain more than twice as high as non-Indigenous unemployment rates (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Unemployment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

From 2006 – 2016, the unemployment rate remained largely unchanged for First Nations. First Nations on reserve continue to experience the highest unemployment rates at three to four times higher than non-Indigenous Canadians with approximately one in four unemployed. Among Inuit, the unemployment rate increased slightly more than the non-Indigenous rate, resulting in a widening of the gap. The significant gap between non-Indigenous and Inuit unemployment rates persists, with approximately one in five unemployed, a rate which is three times higher than non-Indigenous Canadians. Among Indigenous peoples, the unemployment rate was lowest for Métis, at 11.2 % in 2016, an increase from 10% in 2006. The gap between Métis and non-Indigenous unemployment rates remains largely unchanged.

- The gap in unemployment rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations remains largely unchanged between 2006-2016.
- The unemployment rates remain highest for First Nations on reserve with approximately one in four unemployed, and Inuit with approximately one in five unemployed. The lowest unemployment rate among Indigenous identity groups is observed for Métis; this rate is still higher than the non-Indigenous rate.

Changes since 2006

To understand the observed changes between 2006 and 2016 in labour force measures, it is important to recall that labour force participation rates include both those who are employed and those who are unemployed and looking for work. Labour force participation rates therefore, represent the combined effects of both employment rate and unemployment rate and the strength of the changes in the employment and unemployment rates are reflected in the strength and direction of change of the labour force participation rate (Figure 6).

For First Nations on reserve, a declining employment and unchanged unemployment rate has generated the greatest negative change in labour force participation rate among the identity groups. These findings suggest that while fewer First Nations on reserve were employed, this did not result in a greater number of people looking for work. Those who leave the labour force but are not counted in the unemployment rate may have left for reasons such as pursuing education, family care, discouraged workers, or disability.

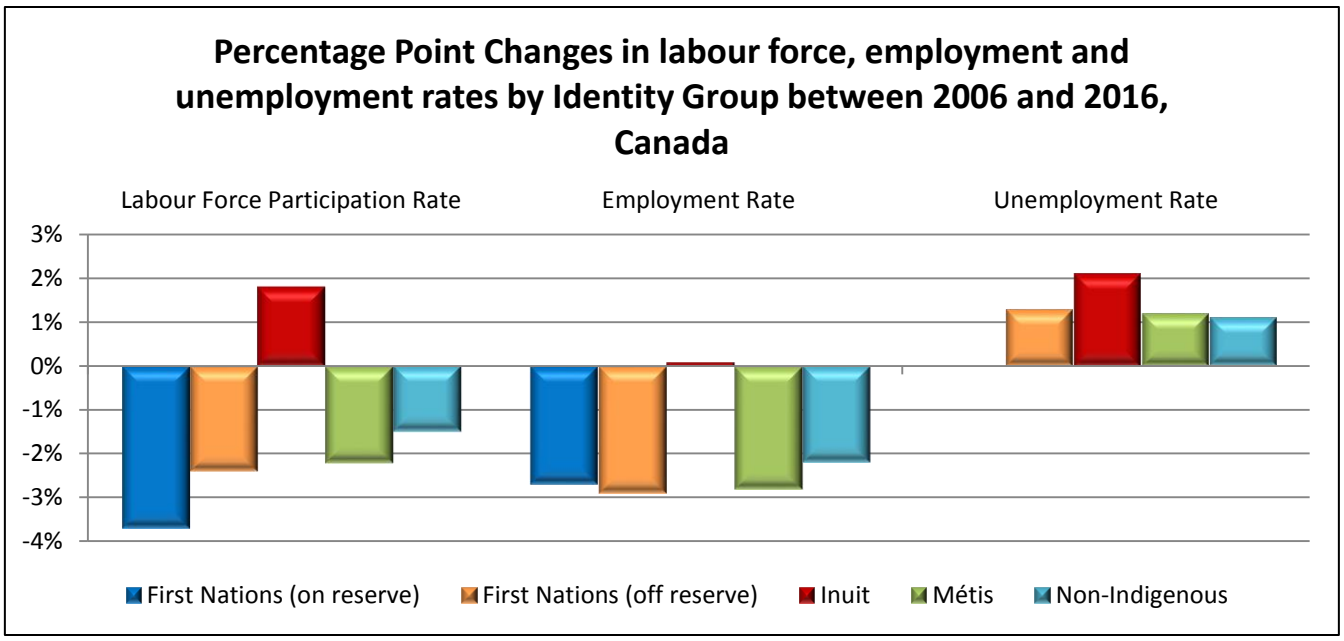
First Nations off reserve rates demonstrate the greatest decrease in employment rates of all identity groups, in addition to an increased unemployment rate. This resulted in a substantial decrease in the labour force participation rate. As First Nations off reserve employment rates fell, more people were seeking employment.

Inuit findings for all three rates demonstrated the greatest distinction of all identity groups. The Inuit employment rate was the singular identity group to increase, while all others fell substantially. Combined with the highest unemployment rate, the Inuit labour force participation rate demonstrated the only increase at 1.8% of all identity groups and non-Indigenous Canadians. These findings suggest

that a great number of Inuit entered the labour force during this time period and while some found employment in the tightening labour market, others were still seeking employment.

Métis rates demonstrated very similar findings to First Nations off reserve, with a decrease in employment rate, increase in unemployment rate, and corresponding decrease in labour force participation. During this time period from 2006-2016, both First Nations off reserve and Métis exhibited patterns of change similar to non-Indigenous Canadians, although the changes for non-Indigenous Canadians were not as extreme.

Figure 6: Percentage Point changes in labour force, employment and unemployment rates by Identity group between 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Conclusions

During the time period of 2006 to 2016, Canada experienced decreased employment rates and increases in unemployment rates for all identity groups. Inuit rates demonstrated unique findings of an increase in the labour force participation rate indicating a growing work force. First Nations (both on and off reserve) and Métis experienced changes similar to non-Indigenous Canadians, but their effects were amplified. This demonstrates an increased vulnerability to job market fluctuations that will need to be addressed to close the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians. Also, addressing these vulnerabilities will serve to strengthen and prepare Indigenous labour markets for future predicted labour challenges and opportunities due to factors such as increased automation and the uncoupling of work place and work force.

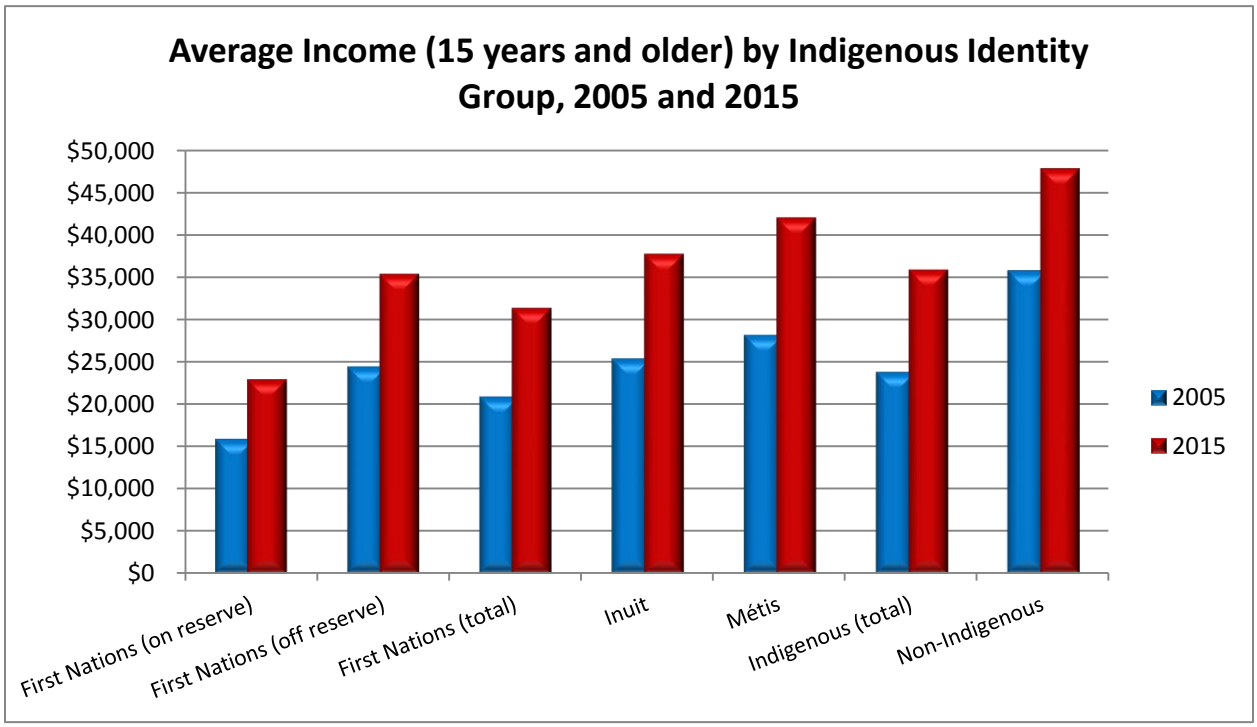
CORE INDICATOR #2: INCOME

Average Indigenous income

The average income of a population is calculated by dividing all available income in a region by the number of individuals with income. This is a critical measure of economic progress as it assesses the standard of living enjoyed by citizens. Income from employment, government transfers, pensions and investment sources are included in this calculation. Excluded are those without income. These values are for persons 15 years and over, with income values including pay or self-employment, full or part time, for all jobs held in 2015, even if only for a few hours.[26]

The average income for the overall Indigenous population was $36,043 in 2015, a 50% ($12,152) increase from the 2005 benchmark.[27] In comparison, the average income of the non-Indigenous population in 2015 was $47,981, a 34% ($12,109) increase from 2005. With a faster growth rate, the gap between average incomes for Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples has decreased from 33.4% in 2005 to 24.8% ($11,938) in 2016 (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Average Income* (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2005 and 2015, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 10 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

* Average income of a specified group is calculated by dividing the aggregate income of that group by the number of individuals in that group.

First Nations average incomes have experienced high growth rates of 45-50% between 2005-2015, however average incomes are still only 66% of the non-Indigenous average income. This is a reduction of

[26] https://www.itk.ca/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/Inuit-Statistical-Profile.pdf
[27] the change in dollar values over time does not take inflation into account.

the gap from 2005, when First Nations average incomes were 58% of non-Indigenous average incomes. First Nations on reserve average incomes are the lowest of the identity groups, with incomes of only 48% of non-Indigenous Canadians.

During the same time period, Inuit average incomes grew by 48%, but Inuit incomes were still only 79% of the non-Indigenous average income in 2015.[28] This disparity is demonstrated in public service positions in the North, where a Government of Nunavut report found that although Inuit make up approximately half of federal and territorial government employees in the region, Inuit representation is highest in lower-income administrative positions as opposed to lower Inuit representation in the higher-income positions in the management, scientific and professional fields. [29]

Métis had the smallest gap in average incomes, with an average income of 88% of the non-Indigenous value. Although all Indigenous growth rates exceed non-Indigenous rates, there are still significant gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous average incomes. The changes in the ratios however, have demonstrated reductions of the gaps between 3.7 and 9.2 percentage points.

- From 2005 to 2015, the gap in average income between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations aged 15 years and older remains, however all incomes have increased and the gaps have narrowed. High growth rates are also influencing improvements in reducing income differences.
- First Nations have the lowest average incomes of all identity groups with First Nations on reserve having less than half the average income of non-Indigenous Canadians in both 2005 and 2015. Métis are the highest income earners among the three identity groups, followed by Inuit and First Nations living off reserve.

Median Indigenous income

The median income is the point at which half of the population in the income distribution had higher income and half had lower income. The median is generally seen as a more robust indicator than the average because it is not affected by outliers, such as the income of a generally small group of high income earners that skews the average, making the economic status of the entire group appear higher than it is. Calculations of the median include income from the same sources as for the average – employment, government transfers and retirement and investment sources.

The overall median income for the Indigenous population was $25,526 in 2015, a 52% increase from the 2005 benchmark. In comparison, the median income for the non-Indigenous population was $34,604, which was a 33% increase over the 2005 value. Due to the faster growth rates, there is evidence that the gap is narrowing between median incomes; while in 2005 Indigenous median income was 64.5% of non-Indigenous values, in 2015 Indigenous median income increased to 73.8% of non-Indigenous values (Figure 8).

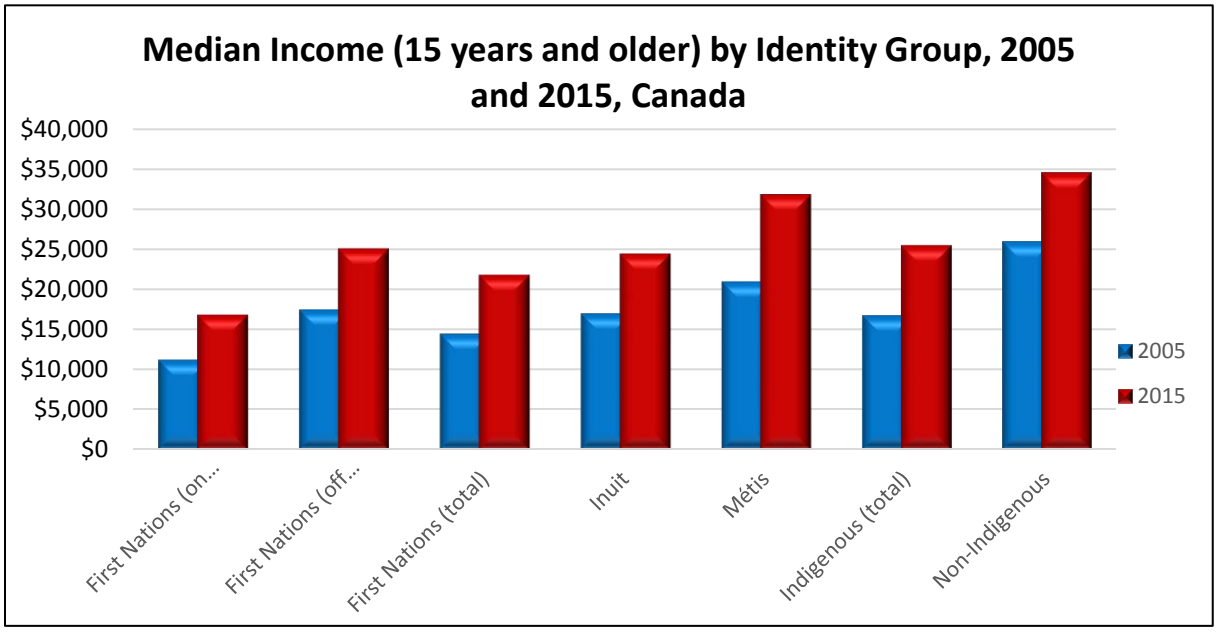
[28] Regarding income levels for Inuit, the high cost living in the North and often larger family size can influence the relative value of incomes

[29] Nunavut Inuit Labour Force Analysis Report. https://www.canada.ca/en/employment-social-development/corporate/reports/research/nunavut-inuit-labour-force-analysis-summary.html

First Nations demonstrate the largest gaps, with median incomes only 63% of the non-Indigenous median income, and with First Nations on reserve median income observed at less than half (48.9%) of non-Indigenous median income. Growth rates have varied between 44-51% for First Nations median incomes, serving to reduce the disparity ratio between 2005-2015 by approximately 5-7 percentage points. The gap in median income for Inuit was reduced between 2005-2015 as median incomes increased from 65.4% to 70.8% of non-Indigenous median incomes. The gap in median incomes was smallest for Métis, at 8 percentage points or $2,688 lower than non-Indigenous values (Figure 8).

In 2015, the gap with the non-Indigenous population was 4 percentage points smaller for the Métis when using median incomes (8 percentage points) instead of average incomes (12 percentage points), suggesting a large enough number of outliers (likely high-income non-Indigenous) to influence these results. There is less (~2.5 percentage points) difference in the gap between First Nations and non-Indigenous median and average incomes. Inversely for Inuit, the gap was greater for median income (29 percentage points) than for average income (21 percentage points), suggesting sufficient influence from high-income outliers (Inuit) to produce these results (Figures 7 and 8).

Figure 8: Median Income (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2005 and 2015, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 10 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

- The median income for the overall Indigenous population increased by 52% from 2005 to 2015. In comparison, the median income for the non-Indigenous population only increased by 33% for the same period. Despite this increase, the median income for the Indigenous population was about three quarters that of the non-Indigenous population in 2015.
- The median income was lowest for First Nations on reserve and highest for Métis among Indigenous groups in 2015.
- Gaps narrowed for all identity groups.

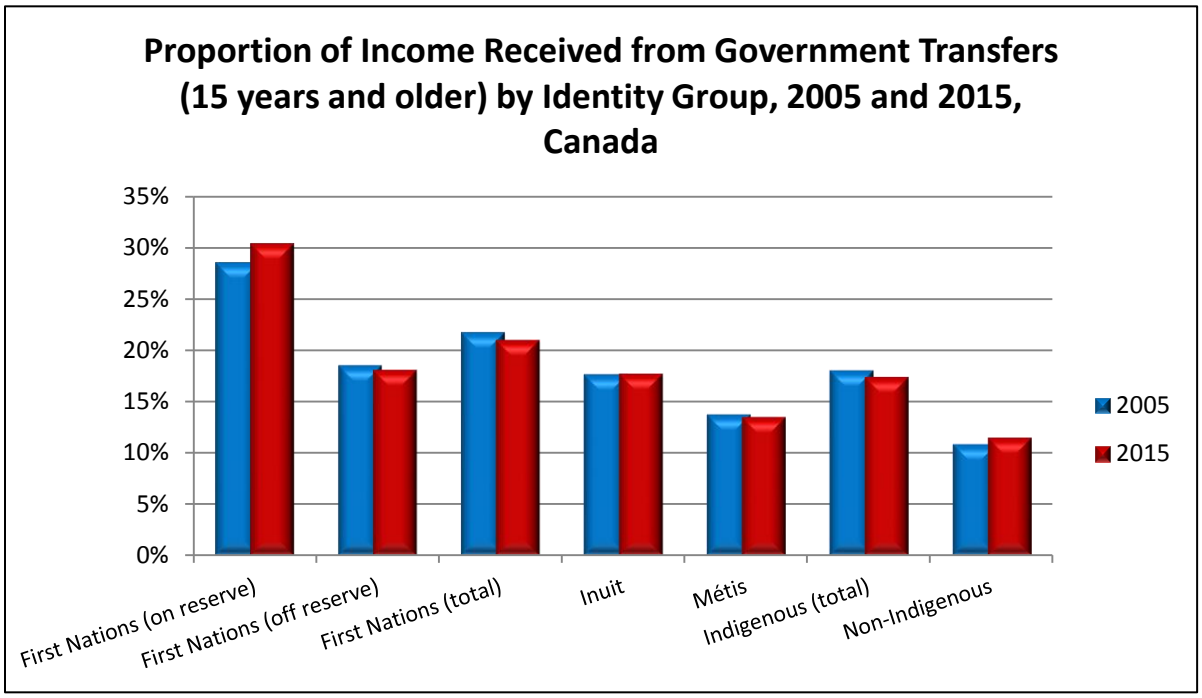
Indigenous income received through government transfers

Income received through government transfers measures the proportion of total income received from government sources, such as Old Age Security Pensions (OAS), Guaranteed Income Supplements (GIS), Canada or Quebec Pension Plan benefits (CPP/QPP), child benefits, Employment Insurance benefits, and other income from government sources including social assistance.

These data include individuals who are no longer participating in the labour force due to retirement and are receiving government transfers in the form of OAS, GIS or CPP/QPP. Given the significant differences in demographic age structure between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations (a younger Indigenous population in general), age-standardization of these values would likely only serve to amplify the differences between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. The greater proportion of older non-Indigenous Canadians is likely influencing (increasing) the non-Indigenous values for proportion of income received from government transfers and proportion of individuals with main source of income from government transfers. Without these differences in demographic structure, it is likely that the gaps would be even greater between Indigenous and non-Indigenous values.

Between 2005 and 2015, non-Indigenous Canadians received a greater proportion of their income from government transfers. However, the proportion of income received from government transfers decreased for Indigenous peoples during the same time frame, resulting in the gap narrowing by 1.3 percentage points. In 2015, the proportion of income received from government transfers for Indigenous individuals aged 15 years or older was 17.4% compared to 11.5% for the non-Indigenous population. The share of income from government transfers decreased for all identity groups except for First Nations on reserve, who saw a 1.8 percentage point increase from 2005 to 2015 (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers (15 years and older) by Identity Group, 2005 and 2015, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 14 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

- The proportion of income received from government transfers increased in 2015 only for First Nations on reserve and the overall non-Indigenous population. The overall gap is narrowing, as the proportion of income received from government transfers increased for the non-Indigenous population and decreased for the overall Indigenous population.
- The Métis population had the lowest proportion of income received from government transfers while First Nations on reserve had the highest. The share of income received from government transfers also increased the most for First Nations on reserve, and this was the only group to have a widening gap with the Non-Indigenous population.

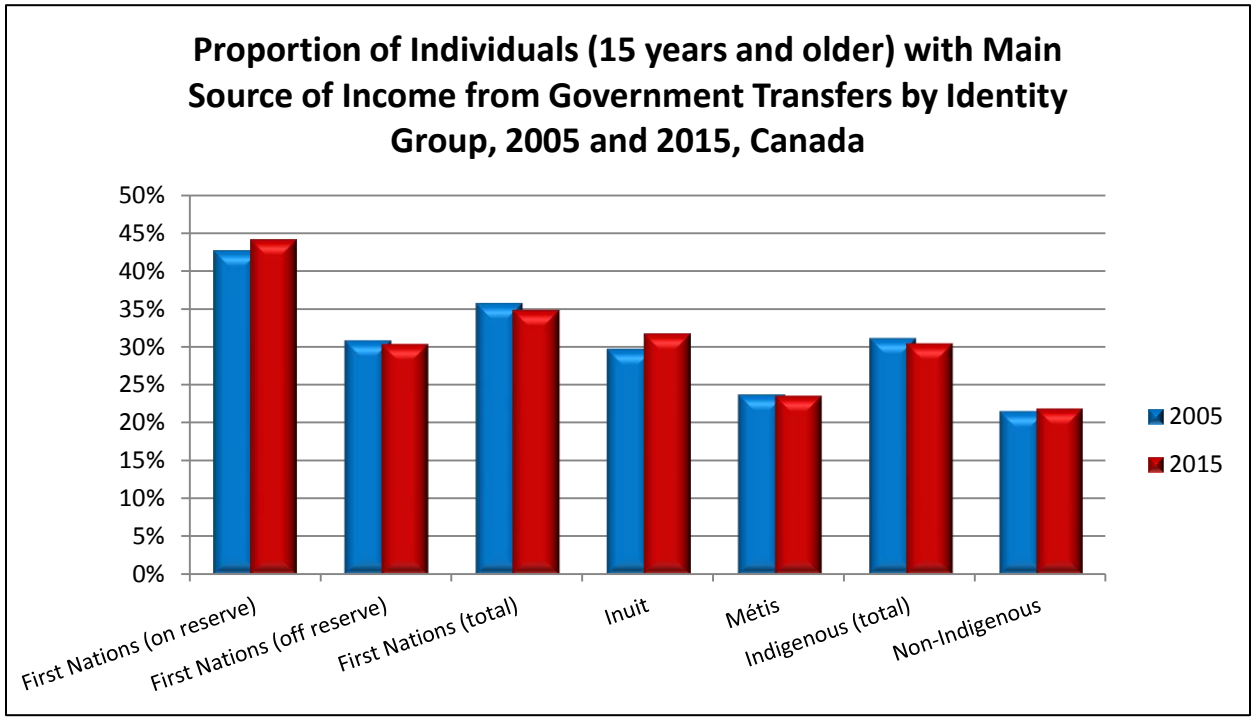
Main source of Indigenous income from government transfers

This measure provides another indicator of government dependency for income as it measures the percentage of the population in each identity group whose main source of income was from government transfers.

Between 2005 and 2015, there was minimal change in the proportion of individuals with their main source of income from government transfers. The proportion increased slightly for non-Indigenous people, and slightly more for First Nations on reserve and Inuit. Decreases were observed for First Nations off reserve and Métis. In 2015, the proportion of Indigenous individuals whose main source of income came from government transfers was 30.6% compared to 22.0% for the non-Indigenous population. First Nations on reserve continue to have the highest proportion of individuals with their main source of income from government transfers at 44.3%, up from 42.7% in 2005. All other identity groups with the exception of Métis have approximately one in three individuals who receive their main

source of income from government transfers. From 2005 to 2015, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples fell by 1 percentage point, from 9.6 to 8.6 percentage points (Figure 10).

Figure 10: Proportion of Individuals (15 years and older) with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers by Identity Group, 2005 and 2015, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 14 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

- While some improvements in the gaps have occurred, an average of one in three Indigenous compared to one in five non-Indigenous individuals continue to obtain their main source of income from government transfers.
- From 2005 to 2015, the proportion of the Indigenous population that relied on government transfers fell by 0.6 percentage points while that of the non-Indigenous population increased by 0.4 percentage points. As a result, the gap between the two decreased by 1 percentage point.
- Increased proportions of populations relying on government transfers occurred in two identity groups – Inuit experienced the highest increase, followed by First Nations on reserve. Both of these groups also saw an increase in the gap with the non-Indigenous population.

Workforce Composition by Occupation and Industry

Contributors to the observed disparity in incomes between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples include differences in occupational and industry representation. An analysis of 2016 census data revealed that Indigenous peoples are under-represented in the highest-paying occupations and over-represented in the lowest-paying occupations despite strong representation in high paying industries.

In comparison to the non-Indigenous workforce, Indigenous peoples are under-represented in the occupational categories of: management; business and finance; natural and applied sciences; and health occupations. In contrast, Indigenous peoples are over-represented in the occupational categories of: community and social services; sales and service; and trades, transport and equipment operators (Figure 11). In terms of industry, Indigenous peoples are over-represented in the industry categories of: construction; and public administration, and under-represented in industry categories of: manufacturing; finance and insurance; and professional, scientific and technical services (Figure 12).

Figure 11 - Percentage of employment income recipients by occupational category by Identity group

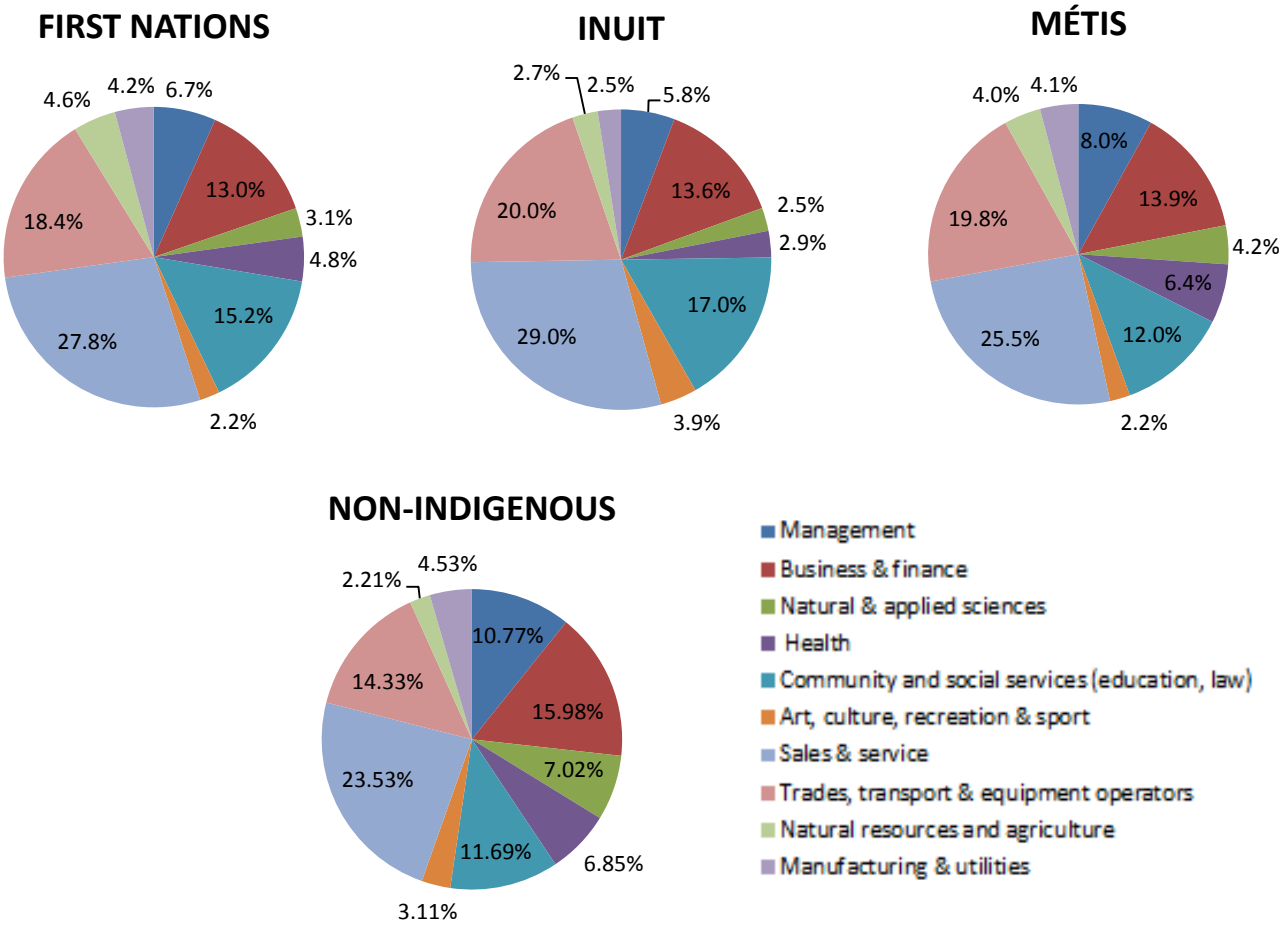
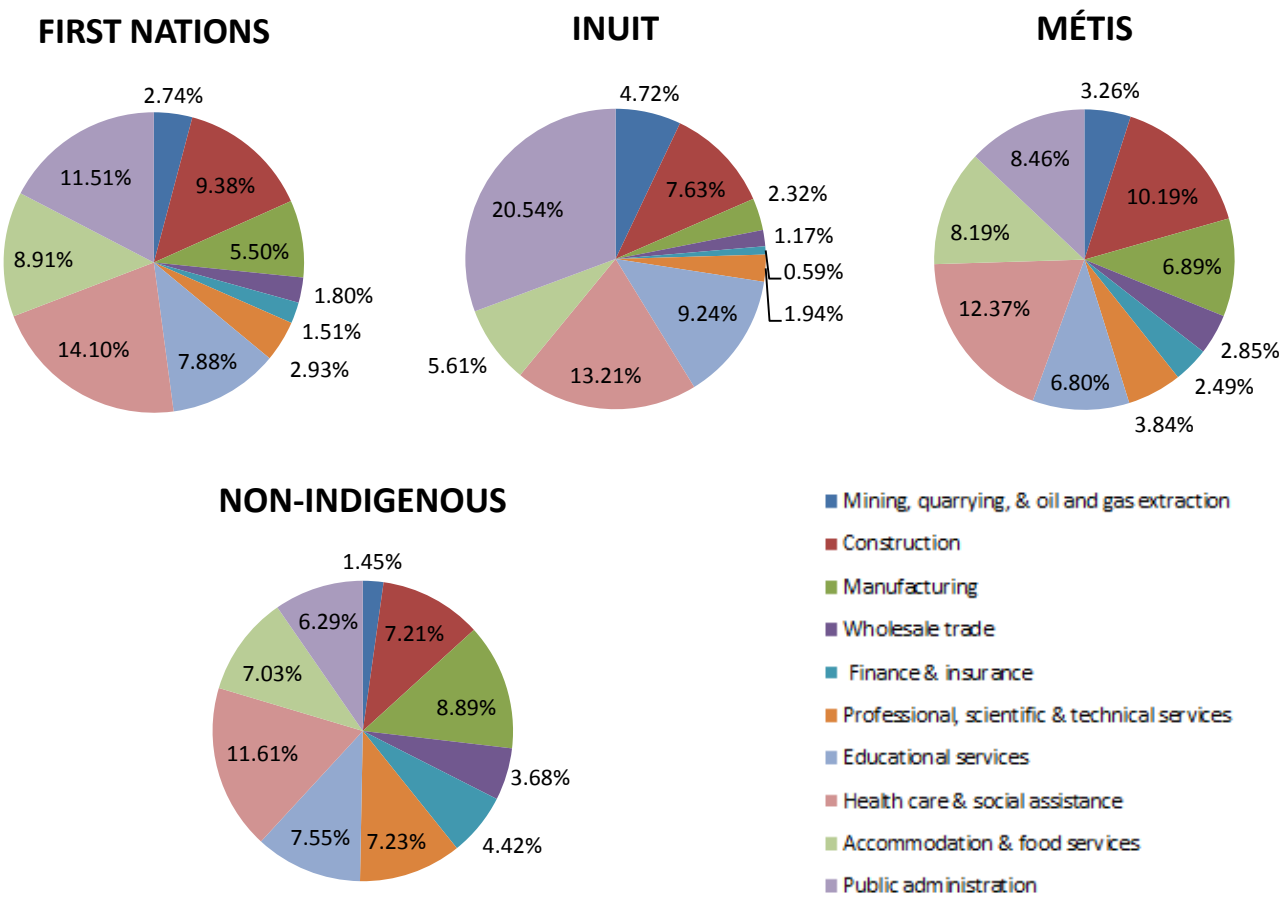


Figure 12: Percentage of employment income recipients by industry category by Identity group, only top 10 categories of difference displayed



Proportion of workforce

Median income by occupational and industry categories varies greatly, with management occupations and natural and applied sciences occupations exhibiting the highest median incomes at approximately $60,000 and $65,000 per year respectively. The lowest occupational categories for median income are sales and service occupations and occupations in art, culture, recreation and sport, with median incomes of approximately $18,000 and $19,000 respectively. Industry categories also demonstrate variability in median incomes, with ranges from a low of approximately $15,000 per annum in the accommodation and food services industry, to a high of approximately $96,000 per annum in the mining, quarrying, oil and gas extraction industry.

Of the ten occupational categories, three have a median income below $25,000 (art, culture, recreation and sport; sales and service; and, natural resources and agriculture occupations) five have a median income between $35,000 and $45,000 (business and finance; health; community and social services; trades, transport and equipment operators; and, manufacturing and utilities occupations), and two have a median income of $60,000 and above (management; and, natural and applied sciences occupations). Using these three categories (low, mid and high), Table 1 demonstrates the percentage of income

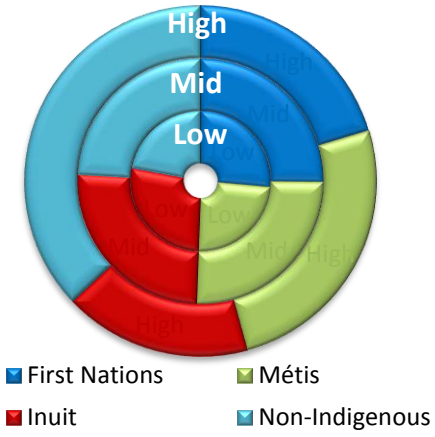
recipients from each identity group working in these occupational categories. Findings indicate that Indigenous groups, and in particular First Nations and Inuit, are over-represented in occupational categories with low median incomes. Approximately twice as many non-Indigenous Canadians are employed in occupational categories with the highest median incomes than First Nations and Inuit employees (Figure 13).

Table 1: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high occupational categories (2015)

Occupational category median income	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous
Low (<$25,000)	34.56%	35.72%	31.62%	28.84%
Mid ($35,000-$45,000)	55.67%	56.00%	56.17%	53.37%
High (>$60,000)	9.77%	8.28%	12.21%	17.79%

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Figure 13: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high occupational categories (2015)



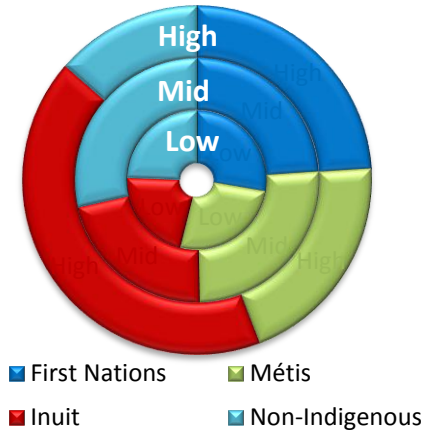
Of the twenty industry categories, five have a median income below $25,000 (agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting; retail trade; administrative and support, waste management and remediation; arts, entertainment and recreation; and, accommodation and food services) eleven have a median income between $26,000 and $50,000 (construction; manufacturing; wholesale trade; transportation and warehousing; information and cultural industries; finance and insurance; real estate, rental and leasing; professional, scientific and technical services; educational services; health care and social assistance; and, other services (except public administration), and four have a median income above $60,000 per year (mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction; utilities; management of companies and enterprises; and, public administration). Using these three categories (low, mid and high), Table 2 demonstrates the percentage of income recipients from each identity group working in these industry categories. Findings indicate that while the mid-income groups are those most occupied by all identity groups, non-Indigenous Canadians have the strongest representation in these industry categories and the lowest representation in the highest earning industry categories. Inuit demonstrate very strong representation in high earning industry categories, with more than one in four Inuit employed in a high earning industry category. This strong representation in the high-income category for Inuit is influenced by the highest (>20%) employment in the industry category of public administration (Figure 14).

Table 2: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high industry categories (2015)

Industry category median income	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous
Low (<$25,000)	31.21%	24.41%	29.50%	27.52%
Mid ($26,000-$50,000)	53.50%	48.64%	57.65%	63.83%
High (>$60,000)	15.29%	26.93%	12.86%	8.65%

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Figure 14: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high industry categories (2015



- Indigenous peoples are differently represented than non-Indigenous people within occupational and industry categories. First Nations and Inuit have the lowest representation in the high-income and the highest representation in the low-income occupational categories.
- All three Indigenous identity groups have higher representation than non-Indigenous in the high-income industry categories. Inuit in particular have representation in these high-income industry categories at rates three times higher than non-Indigenous Canadians.

Median Income within Occupation and Industry Categories

While Indigenous representation in occupational and industry categories differs from non-Indigenous populations, findings also indicate that Indigenous peoples have lower incomes than their non-Indigenous counterparts in the same occupations and industries.

First Nations working in management, business and finance, natural and applied sciences, and natural resources and agriculture occupations earn less than all other groups working in the same occupational category (Figure 15). Inuit median incomes are higher than all other groups, including non-Indigenous, in management, business and finance, and natural and applied sciences occupations (Figure 15). The most significant gap in income by industry is for Inuit managers of companies and enterprises, who have a median income that is only 36% ($23,435) of what non-Indigenous managers of companies and enterprises have ($65,877) (Figure 16). By occupation and industry, Métis tend to have higher incomes than First Nations and Inuit, and in a few occupations, higher than non-Indigenous Canadians.

Figure 15: Median employment income by Identity group and Occupation (2015)

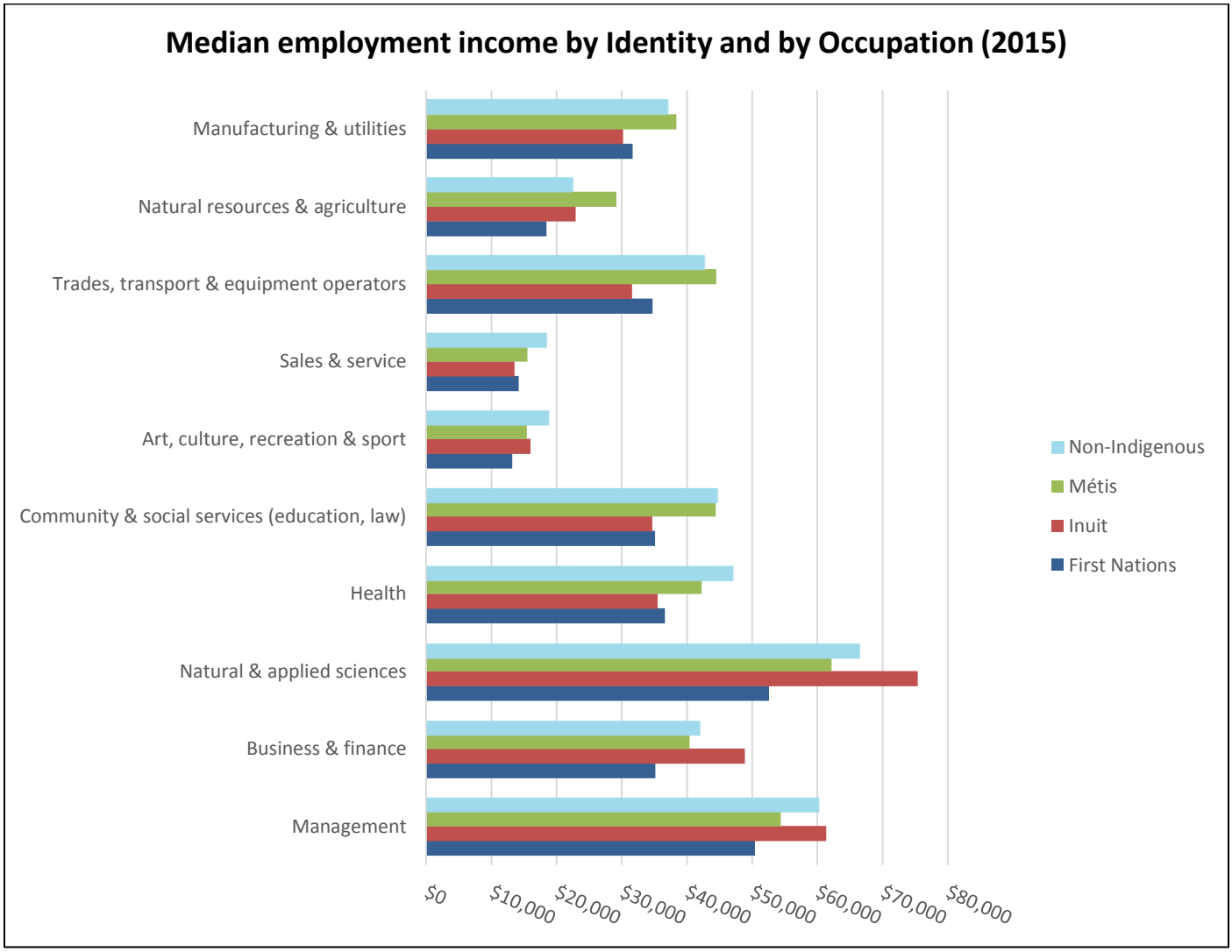
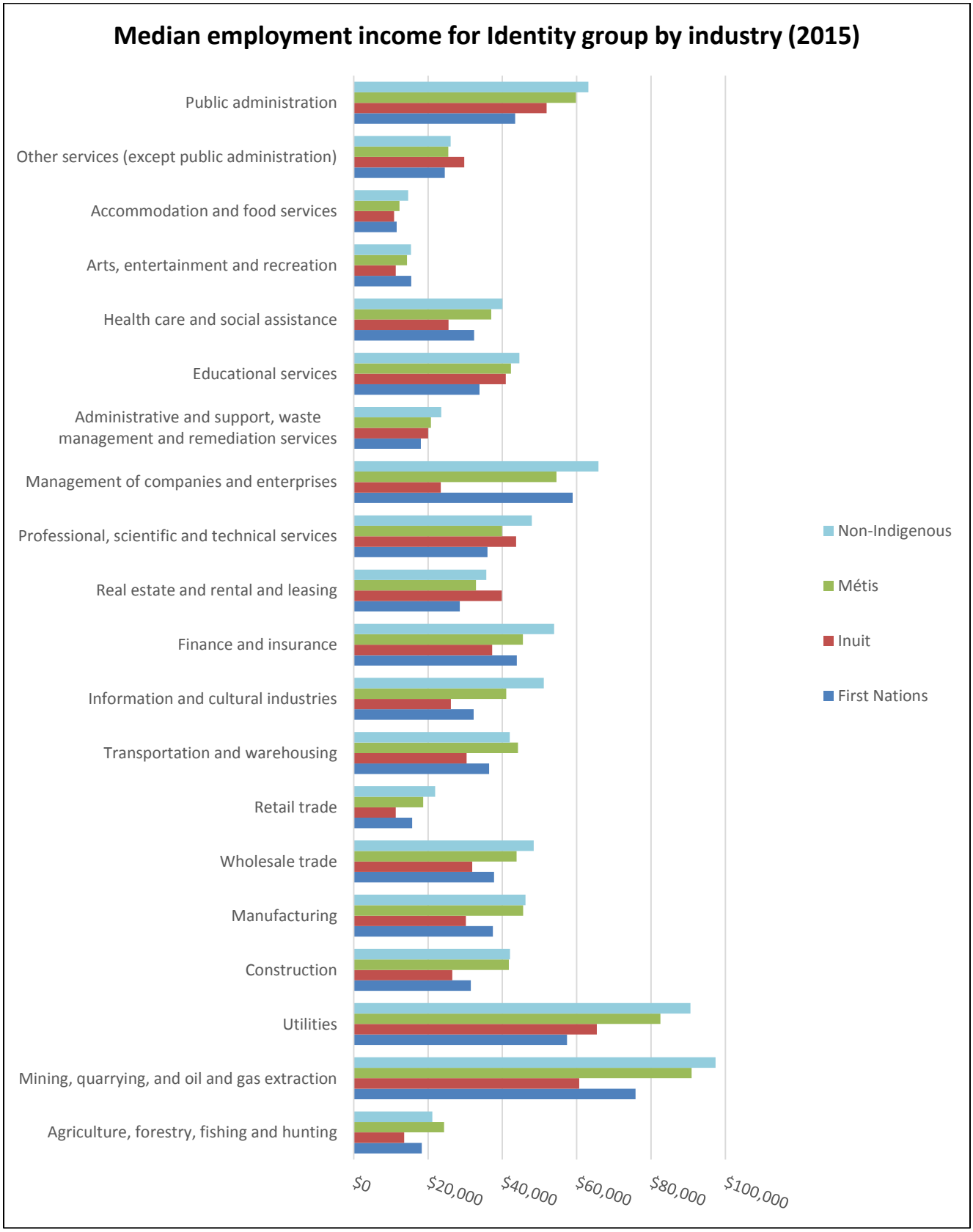


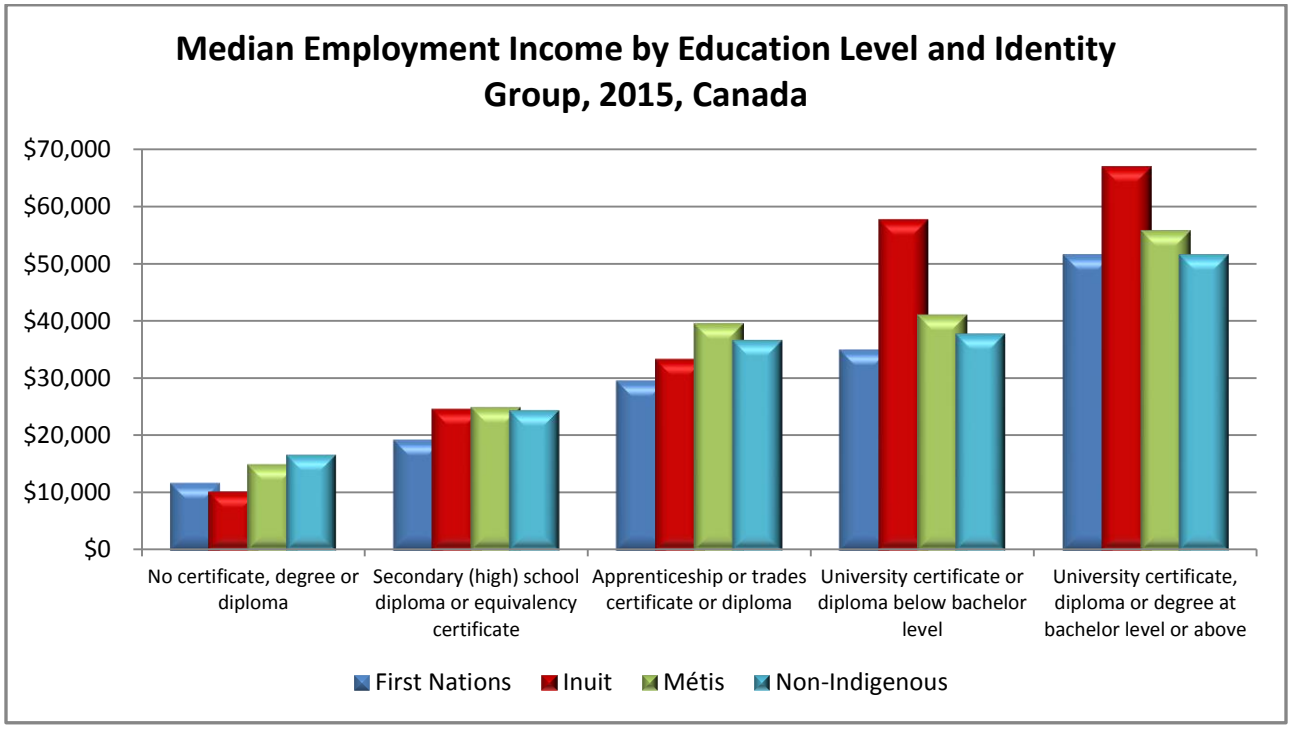
Figure 16: Median employment income by Identity group and industry (2015)



Education and Median Income

Although education levels may be a factor in the income differences observed, it should be noted that Indigenous peoples without any certificate, degree or diploma have a median employment income of $12,684, while non-Indigenous people without any certificate, degree or diploma have a median income of $16,751. This suggests that similar education levels do not necessarily lead to similar employment incomes in the lowest-paying occupations. However greater levels of education among Indigenous peoples serve to reduce or eliminate the median income gaps and in fact Indigenous peoples with a university certificate or diploma on average have higher median incomes than their non-Indigenous counterparts (Figure 17).

Figure 17: Median Employment Income by Education Level and Identity Group (2015)



Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

- Employment income between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples exhibits a wide range with First Nations earning the lowest median incomes and Inuit having the highest median incomes of all identity groups within the same occupational categories.
- On an industry level, non-Indigenous people have the highest median incomes in almost all categories, even those in which Indigenous peoples have high representation. Inuit demonstrate the lowest median incomes for thirteen of the twenty industry categories.
- Indigenous peoples have lower median employment income with lower educational levels yet equal or higher median employment income with higher levels of education.

Income inequality

Income inequality is an important indicator to consider when examining various measures of income, as inequality in income distribution can be masked by median and average income values. In Canada, the Standing Committee on Finance highlighted income inequality as a key issue requiring attention and heard that income inequality in Canada has grown over time, with the top 1% of income earners in Canada accounting for 33% of all growth in median income since the late 1990s.[30]

In general, income inequality is detrimental to economic growth as opportunities for economic development are concentrated in the hands of those with relatively greater amounts of purchasing power, or those with adequate income to afford education, credit and social services. Those without adequate income thus have greater challenges accessing such opportunities, further cementing the conditions that contribute to income inequality and eroding social cohesion within communities. Income inequality also interferes with long term economic stability through two mechanisms: first, those with lower incomes may become increasingly indebted to keep up; and second, the social and political instability associated with income inequality deter foreign or external investment.[31]

By understanding how wealth is distributed in and across communities, decision-makers are better positioned to promote policies or programs to address income inequality issues. Over time, assessing income inequality and wealth distribution are helpful tools to assess how effective federal government interventions are at closing income gaps. The Gini Index (named after Italian statistician Corrado Gini) is a standard tool used to assess income inequality; the index would register zero (minimum inequality) for a population in which each person received exactly the same income and it would register a coefficient of one (maximum inequality) if one person received all the income and the rest received none. These findings must be taken in combination with a stated median and/or average income value, as perfect income equality indicating that every person is receiving the average income could still indicate that everyone is earning an equal amount of income that is very low.

GINI Indices are calculated at national levels by national statistical offices like Statistics Canada, as well as on a comparative basis by the World Bank. National-level income distribution policies and programs can have significant lived experience impacts on social security, health and education, and overall quality of life; however, the GINI Index values themselves generally only fluctuate between 0.25 to 0.6 due to the large population sizes used in their calculations. For reference, some examples of National GINI Index values are: The United States at 0.415 (2016), Norway at 0.275 (2015), and Brazil at 0.533 (2017).[32]

Comparisons of GINI Index values across identity groups demonstrate slightly greater income inequality in First Nations populations compared to non-Indigenous populations. Among Inuit and Métis

[30] Income Inequality in Canada: An Overview. Report of the Standing Committee on Finance. 2013. https://www.ourcommons.ca/Content/Committee/412/FINA/Reports/RP6380060/finarp03/finarp03-e.pdf
[31] Income Inequality. The Conference Board of Canada. 2013. https://www.conferenceboard.ca/hcp/Details/society/income-inequality.aspx
[32] The World Bank. Databank: World Development Indicators. https://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=2&series=SI.POV.GINI#

populations, the GINI Index values are slightly lower, indicating greater income equality than among the non-Indigenous population. Due to the high representation of First Nations in the Indigenous (total) category, combined with their elevated GINI index value, the overall Indigenous GINI Index is also higher than the non-Indigenous value. Changes in GINI Index values between 2005 and 2015 are negligible and despite different income collection methods between 2005 and 2015, there is virtually no change in income inequality in any category over this time period (Table 3). Slightly higher income inequality in First Nations populations, combined with lower median incomes, demonstrate populations that are universally in need of income increases but also have high income earners that may be able to act as role models or support for First Nations advancement. Inuit and Métis populations both exhibit higher median incomes than First Nations along with greater income equality than both First Nations and non-Indigenous populations. Investments into these groups may ultimately be shared economically more equally than for other groups. However investigation can still be made on the benefits of investment into populations showing greater inequality.

Table 3: Gini Index of Adjusted Family Income by Identity Group, 2005 and 2015[33]

	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
2005 Gini Index	0.414	0.364	0.373	0.407	0.391
2015 Gini Index	0.417	0.374	0.372	0.407	0.394

Source: Statistics Canada, 2006 and 2016 Censuses of population.

In the compilation and construction of the GINI Index values, populations are ranked into deciles[34], with the total Canadian population being used as the benchmark for deciles. Using these values, each decile contains varying proportions of the populations analyzed. For example, while 9.4% of the total Canadian population occupies the lowest income decile, 21.5% of the Indigenous population occupies this same (lowest) income decile.[35] Using these deciles, the percentage of a population occupying the lowest (bottom 5 deciles) or highest (top 5 deciles) half of the income distribution are able to be identified by identity groups. These calculations demonstrate that 49.2% of the overall Canadian population is in the bottom half and 50.8% is in the top half. This is in contrast to Indigenous populations, as 81.9% of First Nations on reserve are in the bottom half of the income distribution, while only 18.1% are in the top half. For First Nations off reserve, 67.9% of the population is in the bottom half, while 32.1% are in the top half. For Inuit, 59.8% of the population is in the bottom half, while 40.2% are in the top half. For Métis, this population demonstrates results which are quite close to the overall Canadian figures, as 52.9% of the population are in the bottom half, while 47.1% are in the top half (Figure 18). These values support previous findings in this chapter highlighting the income distribution and inequality among identity groups in comparison to non-Indigenous Canadians. First Nations (both on and off reserve)

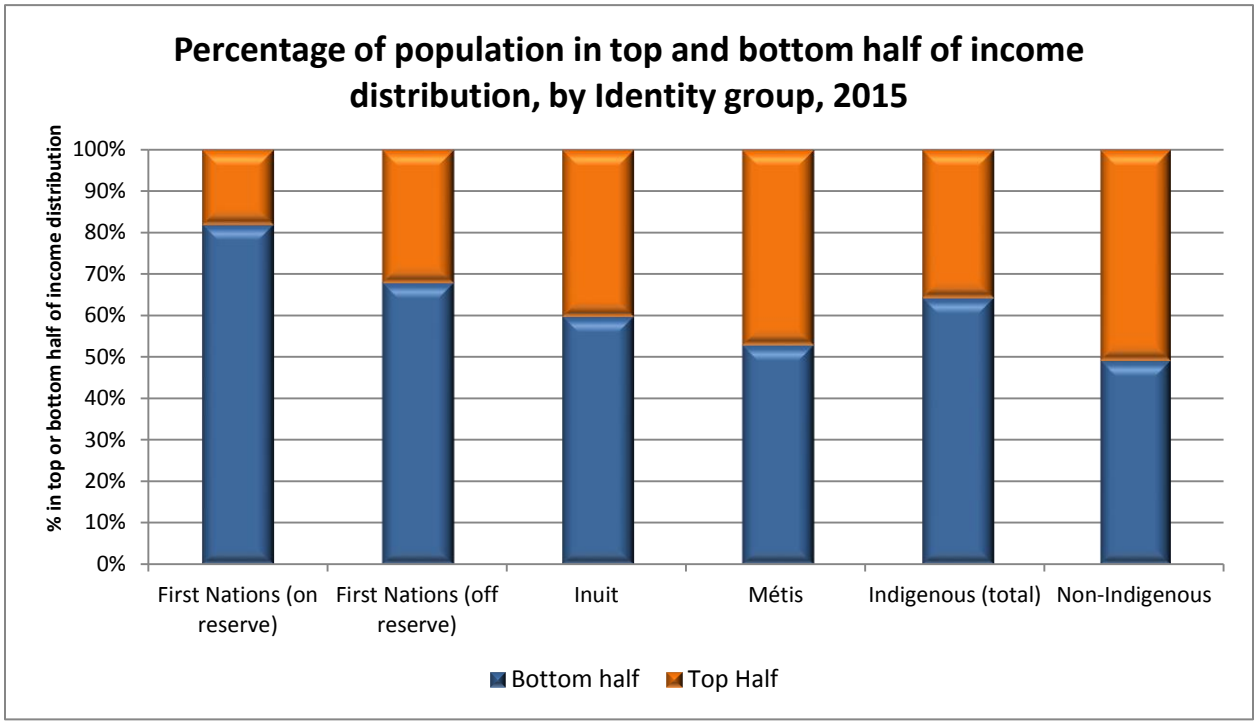
[33] 'Adjusted family income' refers to income values that are adjusted for economies of scale in consumption. The adjustment made to income addresses the fact that individuals living together can share resources and the marginal increase in need decreases as the number of individuals sharing resources increases.

[34] For Figure 18, income deciles divide all members of economic families and individuals aged 15 years and over who are themselves not in an economic family into ten equal-sized groups according to the rank of the total income for those economic families or individuals. Those in the bottom decile group are the ones who fall in the lower 10 percent of the total income distribution. Those in the top decile group are the ones who fall in the highest ten percent of the total income distribution.

[35] This value of 9.4% is due to the analysis level which, when specifically considering the 95% non-Indigenous/5% Inidgenous population ratio skews the upper and lower decile slightly.

demonstrate the starkest contrast with non-Indigenous income indicators, followed by Inuit and Métis populations.

Figure 18: Percentage of population in top and bottom half of income distribution, Indigenous identity-based designation, 2015

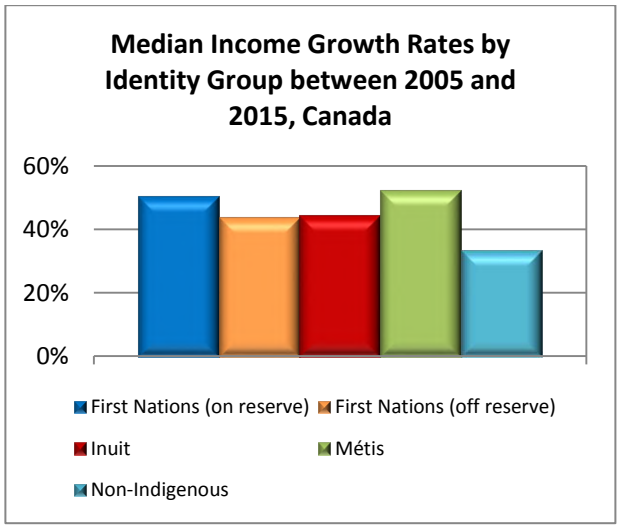


Source: Statistics Canada, 2006 and 2016 Censuses of population.

- Inuit and Métis populations demonstrate lower GINI Index values than those of non-Indigenous populations, indicating greater income equality within these populations. The GINI Index value for First Nations is higher than for all other populations, indicating greater income inequality. The GINI coefficient values have not significantly changed between 2005 and 2015.
- For First Nations on reserve, 81.9% of the population is in the bottom half of the distribution of total income for all Canadians while 67.9% of First Nations off reserve are in the bottom half of the distribution of total income for all Canadians. Corresponding values for Inuit and Métis are 59.8% and 52.9%, respectively. Pronounced income inequality is demonstrated between non-Indigenous and most Indigenous populations.

Changes since 2006

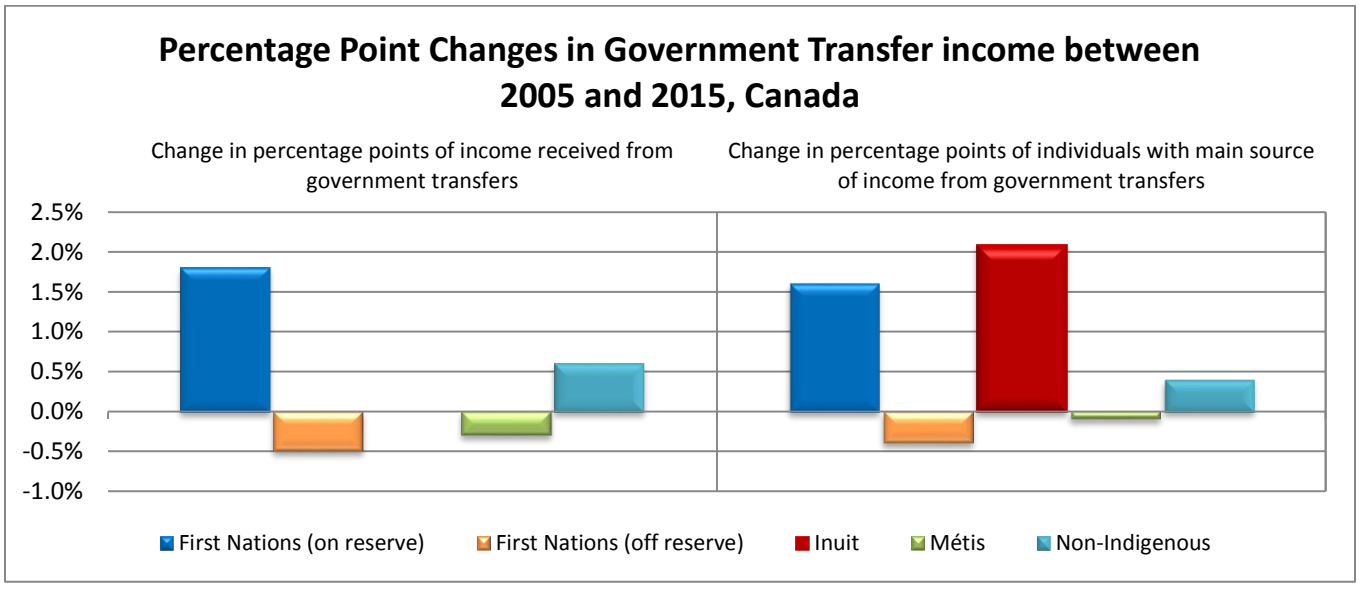
Figure 19: Median Income Growth Rates between 2005 and 2015, Canada



Average and median incomes increased across Canada between 2005 and 2015, with all identity groups demonstrating improvements. The gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians remain; however, relatively stronger growth rates for Indigenous incomes have reduced the size of the gap (Figure 19). In 2005 Indigenous incomes were approximately two-thirds of non-Indigenous incomes, whereas in 2015, Indigenous incomes were approximately three-fourths of non-Indigenous incomes.

Little change has occurred in the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians in the proportion of income received from government transfers or the proportion of individuals citing government transfers as their main source of income. Interestingly, findings demonstrate no change whatsoever in the proportion of income received from government transfers for Inuit, however there appears to be a notable increase in the proportion of individuals with government transfers as their main source of income. These findings suggest that while the proportion of income received from government transfers by Inuit is stable, a greater proportion now depends on government transfers as their main source of income (Figure 20).

Figure 20: Changes in Government Transfer income by Identity Group between 2005 and 2015, Canada



Conclusions

Data suggest that the narrowing yet persistent gap in income between non-Indigenous and Indigenous peoples may in part be due to the concentration of Indigenous peoples in lower-paying occupational categories, even though they may be highly-represented in some high-income industries. The income differences shown between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples support these findings, however lower income within similar occupational categories may also be suggestive of more substantial barriers affecting workplace equity. Given these findings it may be highly beneficial towards closing income gaps, to focus efforts on supports for Indigenous peoples to pursue employment in the high-income occupations, such as management and natural and applied sciences, and to ensure wage equality is addressed. With existing strong representation in high-income industries, and demonstrated high incomes for those with the educational qualifications to pursue these occupations, gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians could more rapidly be closed.

CORE INDICATOR #3: COMMUNITY WELL-BEING

The Community Well-Being (CWB) Index is a socio-economic measure designed to assess the well-being of individual communities based on the indicators of education, labour force activity, income and housing. A community's CWB index score is a single number that can range from a low of zero to a high of 100. Statistics for this index are derived from Statistics Canada's Census of Population (1981-2006, 2016) and the National Household Survey (2011). CWB scores provide a means to compare well-being over time for First Nations and Inuit communities with well-being scores in non-Indigenous communities. The CWB compared results from 623 First Nations communities and 50 Inuit communities with 3781 non-Indigenous communities. The complete methodology of the Index can be found in Appendix C.

Findings from the 2016 CWB demonstrate improvements across First Nations, Inuit and non-Indigenous communities; however, gaps remain essentially unchanged. For the overall CWB values, gaps between First Nations and Inuit communities in comparison with non-Indigenous communities continue at 19.1 points and 16.2 points, respectively (Table 4). The slight improvement in First Nations CWB average score (from 56.4 to 58.4) was driven by minor improvements in all component scores with the exception of housing quality. As these improvements were mirrored in the non-Indigenous scores, the gap narrowed very little, from 19.4 to 19.1 points. For Inuit communities, the CWB was more varied, with improvements in scores for high school completion, labour force participation, income and housing quality, but lower scores than 2011 in university completion, employment, and housing quantity. These findings resulted in an increase in the CWB average score from 59.8 to 61.3 points, but a slight increase in the gap between Inuit and non-Indigenous scores from 16.0 to 16.2 points (Table 5).

Table 4: Community Well-Being Scores, 2011 and 2016

	First Nations Communities	Inuit Communities	Non-Indigenous Communities
Benchmark: Average Score (2011)	56.4	59.8	75.8
Gap with non-Indigenous Communities	19.4	16.0	-
Average Score (2016)	58.4	61.3	77.5
Gap with non-Indigenous Communities	19.1	16.2	

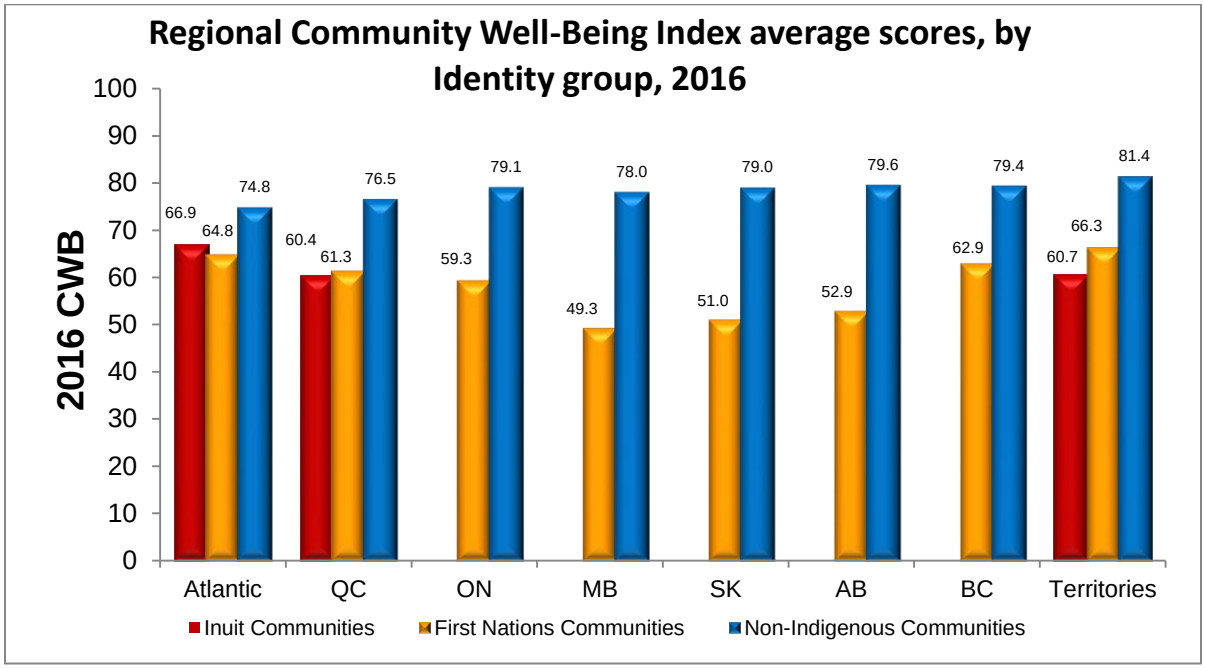
Sources: INAC

Regionally, First Nations CWB average scores are lowest in the Prairies, with Manitoba First Nations communities demonstrating gaps with non-Indigenous communities in excess of 25 points and all Prairie provinces demonstrating CWB average scores below 53.0 (in comparison with other regional areas with values all above 60.0) (Figure 21). Similar to patterns from previous years, 98 out of the bottom 100 communities are First Nations communities, indicating little change for Indigenous communities.

Table 5: Changes in Community Well-Being Component scores and gaps, 2011 and 2016

	CWB Components	2016 Gap	Score Change 2011-2016	Gap Change 2011-2016
First Nations Communities	Education	15.5	Increased +3.7	Narrowed -1.2
	High School Plus	20.1	Increased +5.1	Narrowed -1.9
	University	6.2	Increased +0.9	No change
	Labour Force	15.0	Increased +0.5	Narrowed -0.9
	Participation	16.1	Increased +0.8	Narrowed -0.8
	Employment	13.8	Increased +0.2	Narrowed -0.9
	Income	22.1	Increased +4.1	Narrowed -0.6
	Housing	24.0	Decreased -0.7	Widened +1.6
	Quantity	17.8	Increased +0.6	Narrowed -0.2
	Quality	30.2	Decreased -1.9	Widened +3.5
Inuit Communities	Education	20.2	Increased +2.7	Narrowed -0.3
	High School Plus	28.2	Increased +4.3	Narrowed -1.1
	University	4.0	Decreased -0.3	Widened +1.2
	Labour Force	8.6	Decreased -0.4	Widened +0.1
	Participation	4.3	Increased +2.6	Narrowed -2.6
	Employment	12.9	Decreased -3.4	Widened +2.8
	Income	7.8	Increased +2.6	Widened +1.0
	Housing	28.4	Increased +1.0	Narrowed -0.1
	Quantity	34.7	Decreased -1.6	Widened +2.0
	Quality	22.2	Increased +3.7	Narrowed -2.1

Figure 21: Regional Community Well-Being Index average scores, by Identity group, 2016



In the spring of 2018, The Office of the Auditor General of Canada issued a report examining socio-economic gaps on First Nations reserves. The report outlined data shortcomings needing to be addressed to measure progress and the Community Well-Being Index in particular was identified as not being sufficiently comprehensive as it focuses primarily on economic indicators. The CWB was found to have omitted several aspects of well-being that are important to First Nations, namely health, environment, language and culture. Further, the Auditor General report found that the CWB did not adequately utilize the large amounts of data provided by First Nations, and did not meaningfully engage with First Nations to measure and report on whether lives were improving.[36] The Department has committed to addressing all of the report recommendations through working with Indigenous organizations to co-develop a broad dashboard of well-being outcomes to reflect mutually agreed upon metrics. We look forward to these improvements in measuring outcomes of community well-being.

- Community Well-Being Index values provide confirmation that while many of the indicators used in the calculation of the Index have improved, their improvement across all communities continue to maintain the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities. First Nations communities continue to exhibit a gap of 19 points, while Inuit communities exhibit a gap in excess of 16 points.
- First Nations communities in the Prairies demonstrate CWB values of approximately 10 points below First Nations communities in other regions, increasing the gap to an excess of 25 points from non-Indigenous communities in corresponding provinces.

[36] The Office of the Auditor General of Canada. 2018. Report 5 - Socio-economic Gaps on First Nations Reserves-Indigenous Services Canada. http://www.oag-bvg.gc.ca/internet/English/parl_oag_201805_05_e_43037.html

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #1: EDUCATION

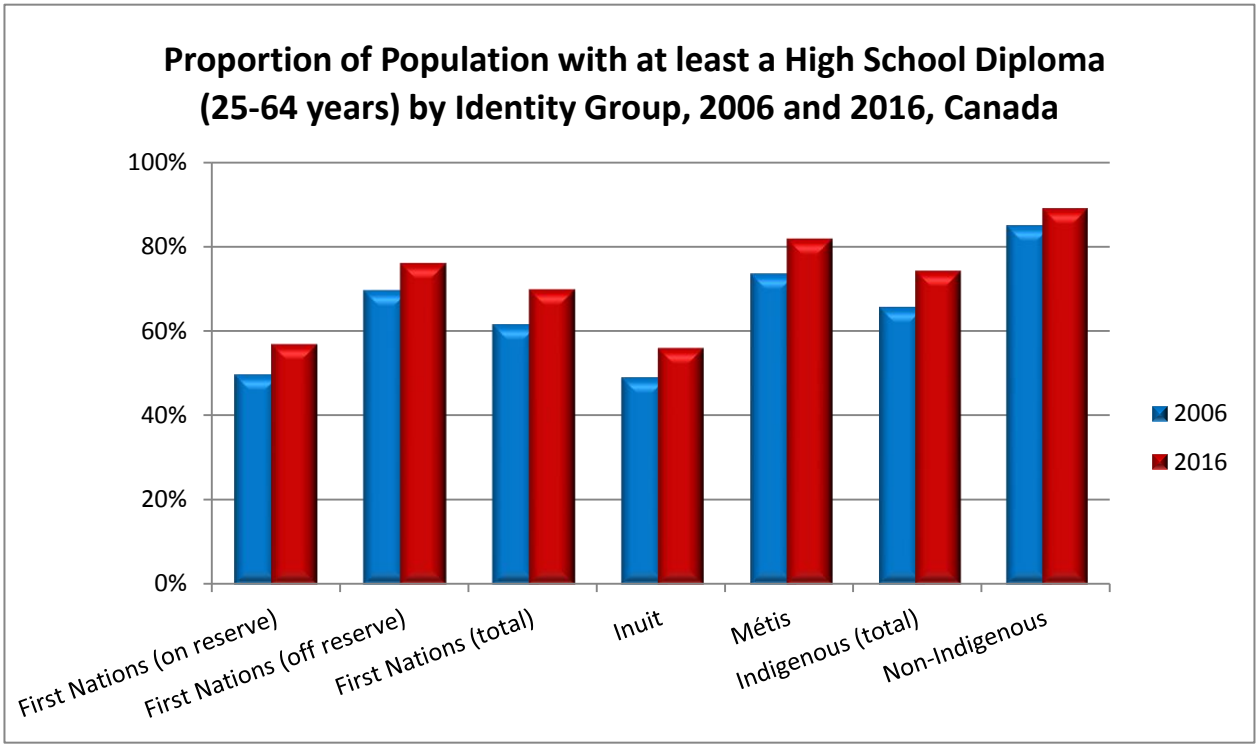
Indigenous high school completion

Completing high school can have long term economic impacts not only for individuals and families, but also for communities. Lower high school completion rates are strongly correlated with poorer economic outcomes, including higher unemployment rates and lower income levels. In turn, this has negative impacts on the economic development of communities or regions.

High school completion rates have increased nation-wide; however, Indigenous high school graduation rates increased more than non-Indigenous rates, reducing the gap by 4.5 percentage points to a difference of 14.8 percentage points. In 2016, 74.4% of the Indigenous population aged 25-64 completed high school, compared to 89.2% of the Non-Indigenous population.

First Nations on reserve and Inuit have demonstrated similar high school completion rates and similar changes since 2006. With completion rates in 2006 below 50%, both identity groups have demonstrated approximately 7 percentage point increases to 57.0% and 56.1%, respectively. Métis had the highest high school completion rate among Indigenous identity groups (82.0%), followed by First Nations off reserve (76.2%)(Figure 22).

Figure 22: Proportion of Population with at least a High School Diploma (25-64 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

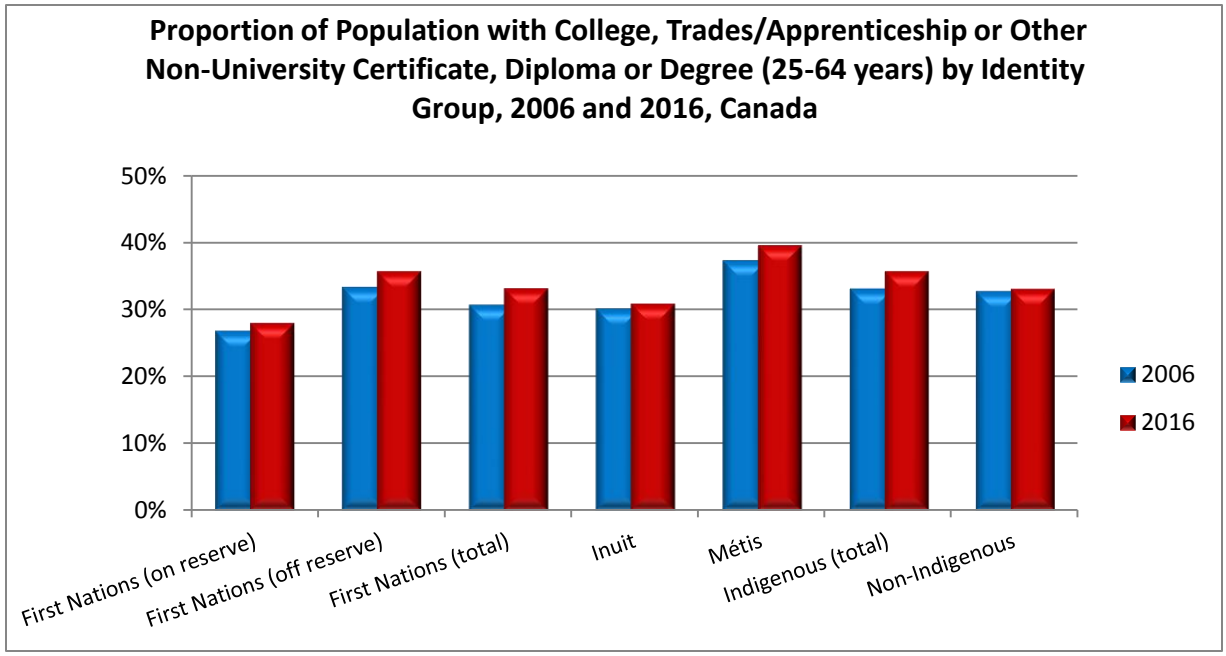
- High school completion rates improved for all Indigenous identity groups by at least 6.0 percentage points between 2006 to 2016. As well, the gap with the non-Indigenous population decreased for all identity groups. Despite this, Indigenous high school rates continue to be substantially lower than that of the non-Indigenous population.
- Among the Indigenous identity groups, Métis have the highest high school completion rate followed by First Nations off reserve. First Nations on reserve and Inuit continue to have high school completion rates that are in excess of 30 percentage points lower than non-Indigenous rates.

Indigenous college/trades completion

While high school completion is the minimum education requirement for most employment opportunities, successfully completing post-secondary education allows individuals to develop specialized skills that are required by higher-income employment in the knowledge-based economy of the 21st century. Thus, college/trades completion is correlated with better labour market outcomes and employment rates as well as stronger communities.

The Indigenous college/trades completion rate was slightly higher than for the non-Indigenous population in 2015, rising to 2.2 percentage points above the 2006 benchmark. First Nations on reserve demonstrate a completion rate approximately 5 percentage points lower than the non-Indigenous rate. The completion rates for Inuit are the lowest and demonstrate the smallest increase, increasing by only 0.8 percentage points to 30.9% in 2016. Métis completion rates continue to remain the highest, more than 6 percentage points above non-Indigenous rates, followed closely by First Nations off reserve completion rates. For all groups, gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations decreased (Figure 23).

Figure 23: Proportion of Population with a College, Trades/Apprenticeship or Other Non-University Certificate, Diploma or Degree (25-64 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

- The proportion of Indigenous peoples with a college/trades education was slightly higher than for the non-Indigenous population in 2015, increasing the gap by 2.2 percentage points from the 2006 benchmark.
- First Nations on reserve demonstrate the lowest completion rates followed by Inuit. Métis and First Nations off reserve demonstrate the highest rates and the greatest growth.

Indigenous university completion

Earning a university degree gives individuals a critical advantage in today's job market. In the 21st century knowledge-based economy, many jobs facing skills shortages require a university degree, such as positions for managers and engineers in architecture, science, health, and education. In addition, research has shown that university graduates have on average higher salary levels than trades and college graduates.

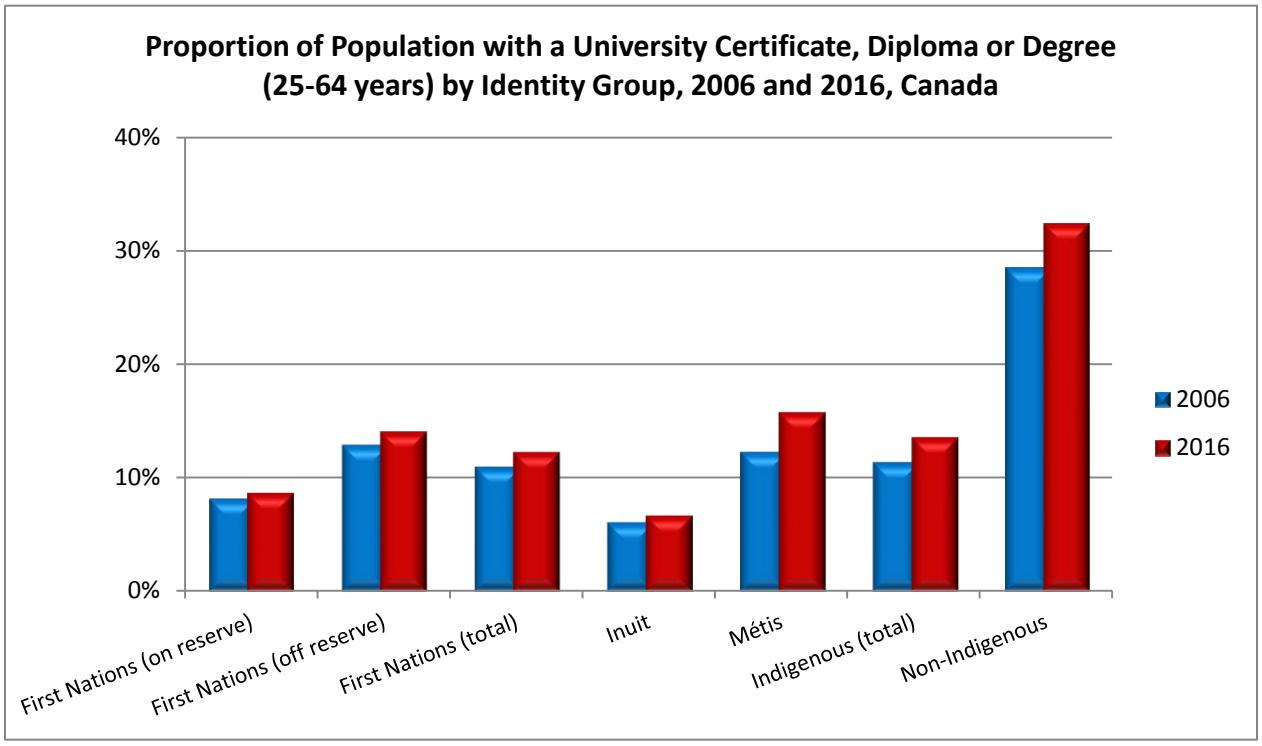
In 2016, the share of the overall Indigenous population with a university Certificate, Diploma, or Degree was 13.6% compared to 32.4% for the non-Indigenous population, demonstrating an increase in the gap of 1.7 percentage points since 2006, largely driven by faster growth rates in non-Indigenous populations. First Nations on reserve and Inuit demonstrated the lowest university completion rates in 2016 at 8.7% and 6.7% respectively and also saw the smallest increases at 0.5 and 0.6 percentage points respectively. The Métis population had the highest university completion rate at 15.8%, and also saw the largest increase from 2006 to 2016 of 3.5 percentage points (Figure 24).

There are several factors inhibiting Indigenous populations from pursuing post-secondary education including funding and distance. According to a recent study on The Education and Employment Experiences of First Nations People Living off Reserve, Inuit and Métis approximately "40% of off-reserve First Nations people, 50% of Inuit, and 42% of Métis with postsecondary credentials moved to pursue their education," particularly those attending university.[37] Financing is also a significant challenge as many Indigenous students do not have the money to attend university. Although the federal government provides support through the Post-Secondary Student Support Program (PSSSP), a report released in 2018 by the Assembly of First Nations (AFN) found this program to be chronically underfunded and subject to strict conditions on funding eligibility and priority allocation of funds for some students over others. The AFN report stated that "since 1996, the number of students funded through PSSSP has been capped at approximately 25,000 students."[38] This is despite the fact that more Indigenous students are graduating from high school, and therefore funding has not kept up with increased demand.

[37] Bougie, Evelyne, Paula Arriagada, and Karen Kelly-Scott. 2013. The Education and Employment Experiences of First Nations People Living off Reserve, Inuit and Métis: Selected Findings from the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey. Ottawa, ON: Statistics Canada, Social and Aboriginal Statistics Division.

[38] https://www.afn.ca/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/PSE_Fact_Sheet_ENG.pdf

Figure 24: Proportion of Population with a University Certificate, Diploma, or Degree Completion Rate (25-64 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

- Although the proportion of the Indigenous population that completed university increased between 2006 and 2016, the proportion is still less than half that of the non-Indigenous population.
- The proportion of the population with a completed university education increased for all Indigenous identity groups; Métis saw the largest increase while First Nations on reserve saw the smallest increase. Despite this upward trend, the share of Indigenous peoples completing university is falling further behind the share of the non-Indigenous population.

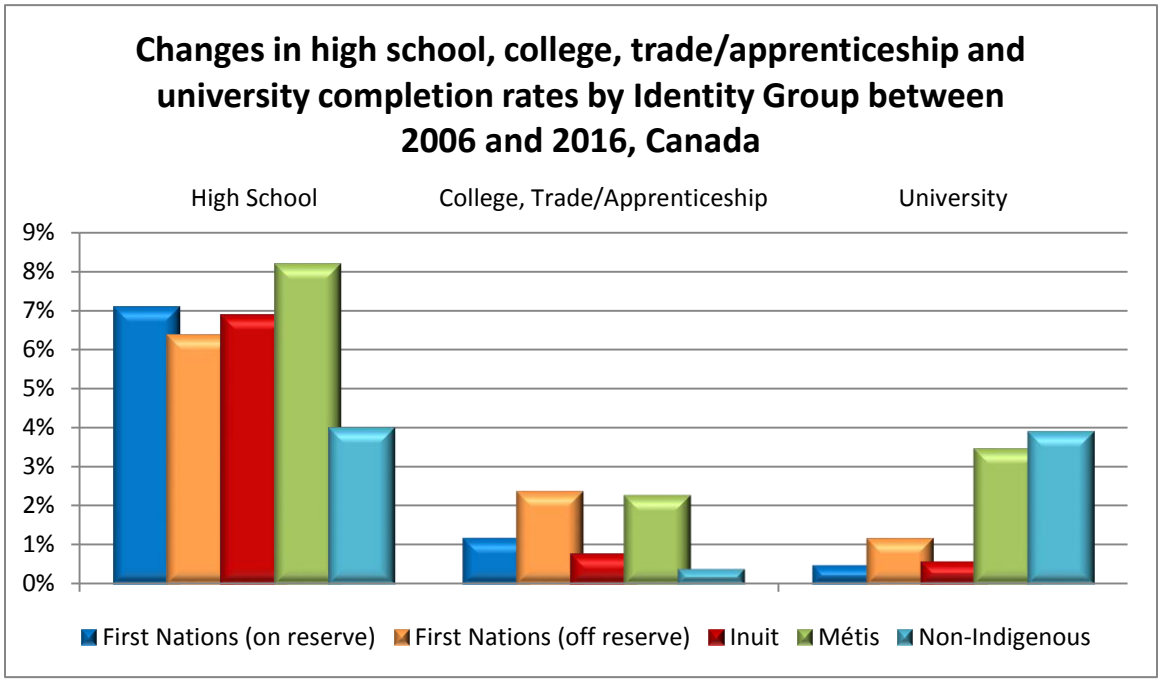
Changes since 2006

Educational attainment has improved across the entire population since 2006. These improvements have been more pronounced in high school and college, trades and apprenticeships among Indigenous populations than non-Indigenous populations. These trends have resulted in a narrowing of the deficit gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in high school completion rates (reduction in the completion rate gap by 4.5 percentage points overall), and an increase in the lead that Indigenous populations have over non-Indigenous populations in college, trades and apprenticeship completion rates (increase in the lead by 2.2 percentage points). University completion rates increased substantially within non-Indigenous and Métis populations, but much less significantly among other identity groups, resulting in a widening of the gap by 1.7 percentage points between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.

First Nations on reserve have demonstrated the strongest growth in high school completion rates with a 7.1 percentage point increase, but with less growth in college, trades and apprenticeships (1.2 point increase) and university completion rates (0.5 point increase). First Nations off reserve have the slowest growth of all Indigenous Identity groups in high school completion rates, but still demonstrate a 6.4 point increase. They demonstrate the highest growth for college, trades and apprenticeships completion with limited growth in the university completion rate. Inuit have demonstrated healthy growth in high school completions with a 6.3 percentage point increase, but diminished growth in higher levels of education. This impacts job potential as a study by the Nunavut government found that post-secondary education is in demand for a large share of vacant positions in government. "Of the 70 Government of Canada vacancies, 41% of the Government of Canada vacancies required some form of post-secondary education as a minimum requirement. In the Government of Nunavut, over half of vacant positions (54%) usually required university while one quarter (26%) usually required college or apprenticeship training."[39]

Métis have the highest growth rate in high school completion rates and some of the largest change in completion rates in higher levels of education, in particular, a growth rate that is comparable to the non-Indigenous population in university completion (Figure 25).

Figure 25: Changes in high school, college, trade/apprenticeship and university completion rates by Identity groups between 2006 and 2016, Canada



[39] Towards a Representative Public Service Report, Government of Nunavut, March 2017 https://www.canada.ca/en/employment-social-development/corporate/reports/research/nunavut-inuit-labour-force-analysis-summary.html

Conclusions

Data suggest that deficit gaps are narrowing between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in high school completion. In all Indigenous identity groups, more individuals are completing college, trades or apprenticeship degrees or diplomas than non-Indigenous individuals, and that lead is increasing. Even among the identity groups with lower completion rates, the gap is small (approximately 5%). A persistent gap remains and is widening between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in university completion rates. This finding is significant in light of information discussed earlier regarding *Core Indicator #2: Income*. Given that Indigenous populations are more highly represented in high income industry categories but low income occupational categories, higher levels of education would help to promote Indigenous workers into the higher occupational categories in the industries where they are already represented. Strategies to further support Indigenous educational attainment at higher levels would serve to capitalize on this existing representation and accelerate the reduction of income gaps.

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #2: ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT

Indigenous Self Employment

Indigenous businesses are increasingly becoming important and innovative contributors to the Canadian economy. Self-employment refers to individuals who are employed for themselves, or work without pay for a family business. While many self-employed individuals work alone, many are owners of small businesses and employ paid workers. Others still may own larger and growing businesses.

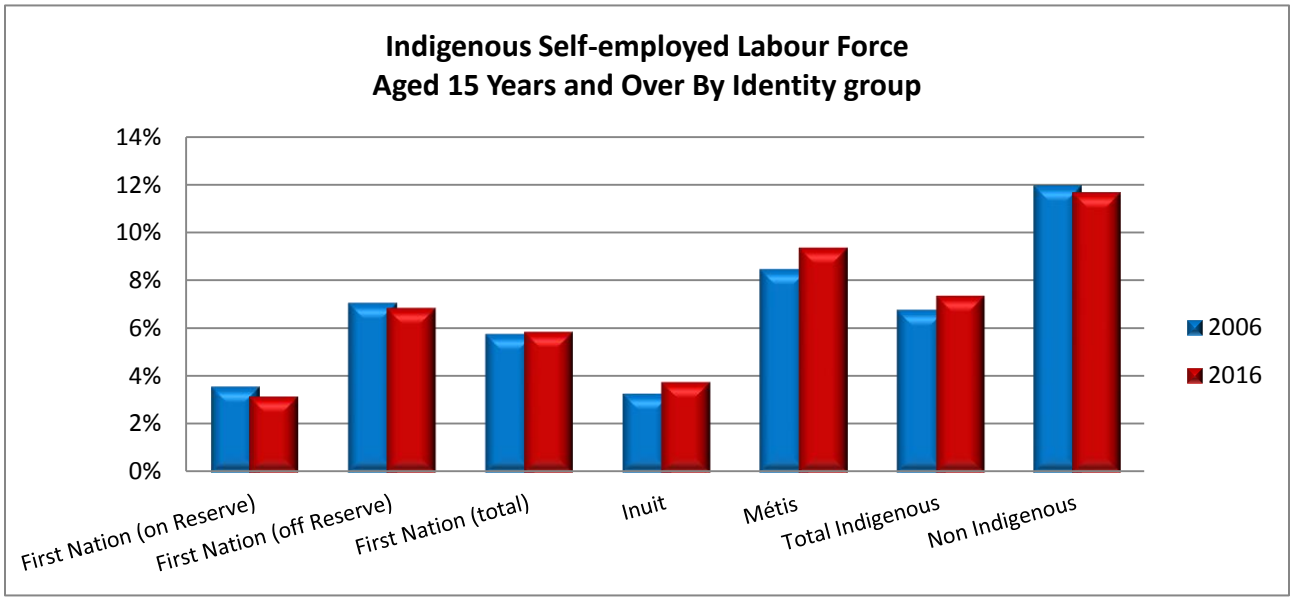
There has been a significant jump in Indigenous-owned and operated businesses in Canada. According to the 2001 Census the number of self-employed workers was 27,000 yet by 2006 that number had grown to over 37,000. This represents an increase of 38% which was five times that of self-employed non-Indigenous Canadians (7%).[40]

As the NIEDB has long maintained, a dynamic small business sector and strong entrepreneurship among Indigenous Canadians is critical in order to lessen the gap and improve living standards of Indigenous peoples. There have been longstanding barriers which continue to negatively influence the rates of entrepreneurship of Indigenous Canadians including finding and retaining talent, infrastructure deficits and access to capital. Despite these hurdles, the percentage of total Indigenous individuals embarking on entrepreneurial and business development has grown from 6.8% in 2006 to 7.4% in 2016 (Figure 26).

By identity group, the picture is variable with the self-employment rate for First Nations registering a small decline for communities both on and off reserve. The number of Métis entrepreneurs is growing the most across all identity groups, increasing by almost one per cent. Inuit self-employed numbers increased as well by half a percentage point from 2006, even though the total percentage of the population over 15 who identified themselves as self-employed was less than 4%.

[40] Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, The Aboriginal Business Survey: Promise and Prosperity, 2011

Figure 26: Indigenous Self-employed Labour Force Aged 15 Years and Over By Identity group*

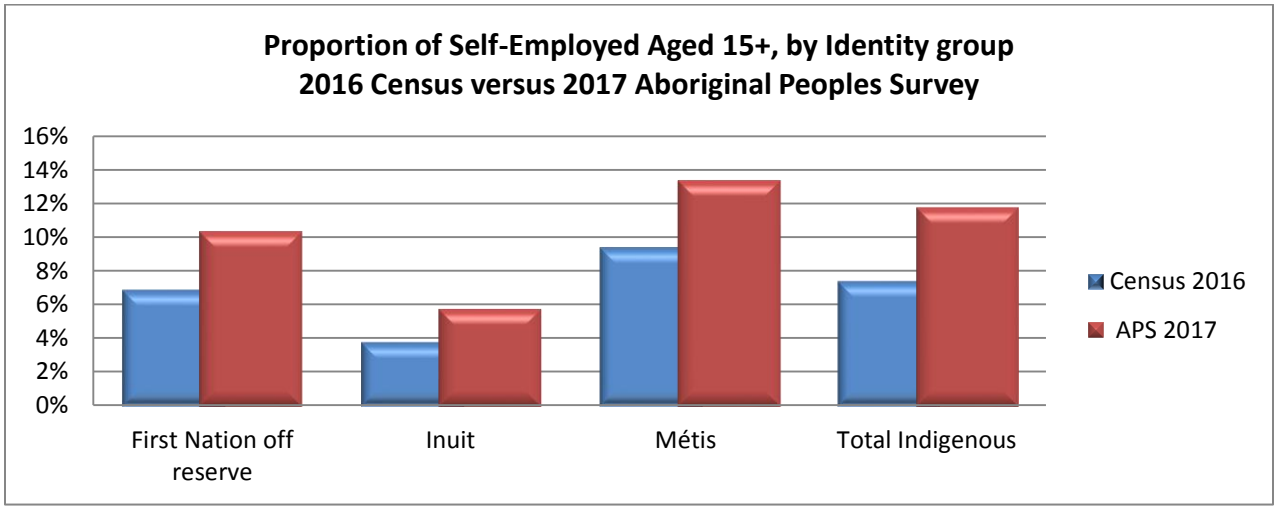


Sources: Statistics Canada, 2006 Census of Population and 2016 Census, INSTAT Tabulations
*Figure is calculated as a proportion of the total within group labour force

Aboriginal Peoples Survey: Self Employment

The 2017 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) provides another picture of Indigenous entrepreneurship and self-employment. This survey which is conducted every five years had a special focus in 2017 on Indigenous economic participation. Its results were different than the 2016 Census in that the APS excludes First Nation on reserve and the APS used a floating reference week over a 7-month period for the labour force question. In contrast, the 2016 Census used a fixed reference week for the labour force status question from May 1st to May 7th, 2016. Therefore the effects of seasonal work may not be reflected in the Census in the same way and in fact the APS did demonstrate higher self-employment values across all identity groups (Figure 27).

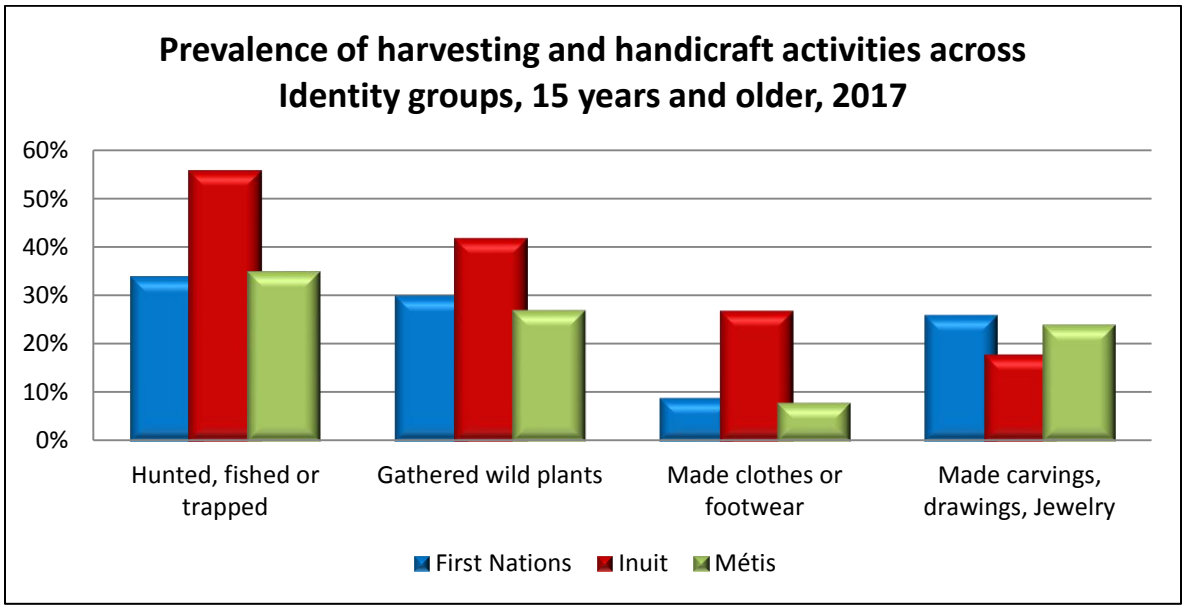
Figure 27: Proportion of Self-Employed Indigenous Aged 15+ by Identity Group



Sources: 2016 Census and Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (*Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT)

Also included in the 2017 APS survey was information about other labour activities that can contribute to economic well-being which may not be captured with conventional measures. The APS surveyed these other economic endeavors, which include hunting, gathering wild plants and making clothing or other kinds of artwork. The results of the APS found that 6 in 10 First Nations individuals[41] and Métis participated in these kinds of activities outside of their job.[42] Many respondents participated in more than one of the activities, as demonstrated in Figure 28. Six percent of First Nations individuals[43] reported doing these activities for money, whereas only 4% of Métis supplemented their income with these activities. The Inuit population demonstrated a greater involvement in these activities, with 78% of Inuit having participated in at least one harvesting and handicrafts activity and with 16% of Inuit participating in these activities for income.[44] This number has dropped from the 2012 APS survey when 20% of Inuit adults participated in these traditional activities for money.[45] Beyond the economic impact, engagement in these activities demonstrates how Indigenous peoples are enhancing their economic well-being, as well as maintaining their close connection with culture and traditions across all identity groups.

Figure 28: Prevalence of harvesting/handicraft activities across all Identity groups aged 15 years or older, 2017



Note: Individuals could indicate participation in multiple activity categories.

Source: Statistics Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Survey, 2017.

[41] Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT

[42] https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-653-x/89-653-x2018003-eng.htm and https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-653-x/89-653-x2018002-eng.htm

[43] Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT

[44] *More common in Inuit Nunangat than outside Inuit Nunangat (20% versus 7%)* https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-653-x/89-653-x2018004-eng.htm

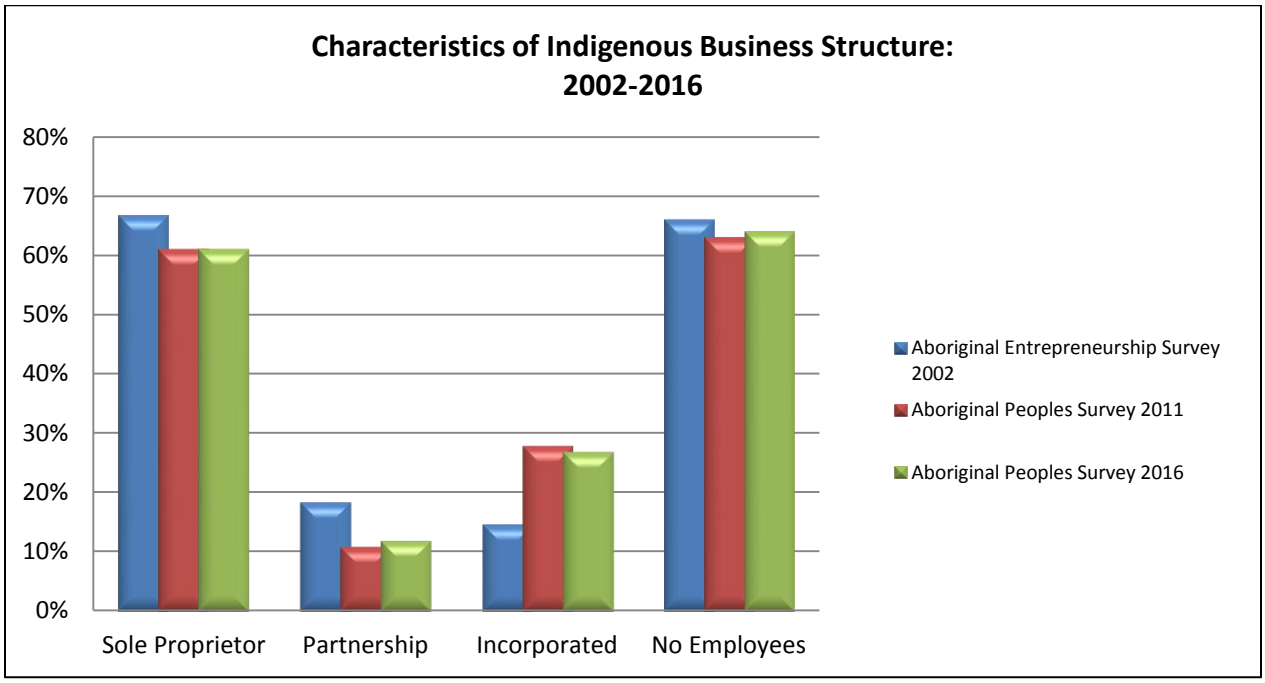
[45] https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/89-653-x/2013001/article/part-partie-b-eng.htm#a4

- Self-employment among Indigenous individuals rose from 6.8% to 7.4% from 2006 to 2016.
- Seasonal work may have a larger impact on self-employment/entrepreneurship as higher rates of self-employment are registered when it is not surveyed within a single fixed week.
- Inuit are two to three times more likely to pursue handicraft and harvesting work for income than other Indigenous identity groups.

Size, profit, and revenue of Indigenous-owned businesses

Indigenous entrepreneurship has only been a sporadic focus of data collection. In 2002, the Federal government conducted the Aboriginal Entrepreneurs Survey and in late 2018 the First Nations Labour and Economic Development Survey was launched (to be released in 2021).[46] In between, other business surveys, notably the Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business (CCAB) *Promise and Prosperity: The Aboriginal Business Survey,* conducted in 2011 and 2016, along with information collected in the 2016 Census give us a picture of how the size and profitability of Indigenous business is progressing across all identity groups.

Figure 29: Characteristics of Indigenous Business Structure: 2002-2016



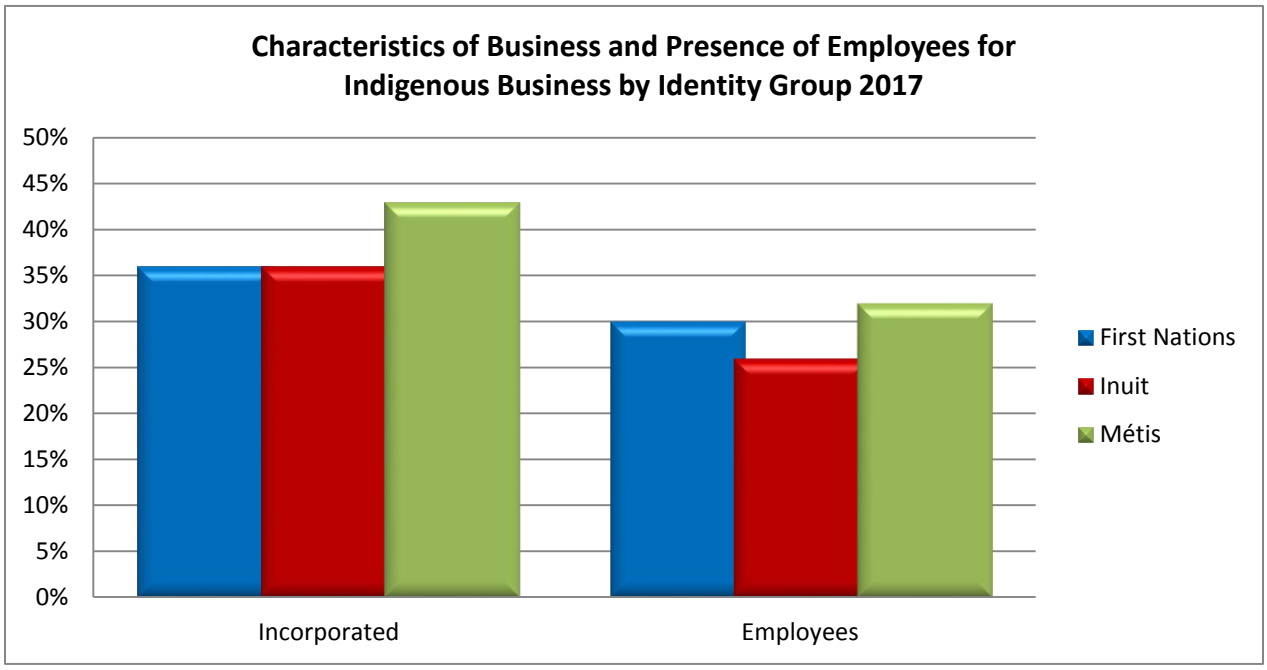
Sources: 2002 Aboriginal Entrepreneurs Survey; Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, *The Aboriginal Business Survey*2011 and 2016

These data, collected by two different surveys at three points in time, provide a solid foundation from which to assess the evolution or changes over time for the characteristics and size of Indigenous businesses across Canada and across identity groups. Findings show that there has been minimal change in characteristics for most Indigenous business. Most businesses remain small, often home-based with a single proprietor (Figure 29). The CCAB identifies that although this profile is similar to Canadian businesses as a whole, a significant difference is that Indigenous businesses are less likely to be

[46] https://fnigc.ca/first-nations-labour-and-employment-development-survey.html

incorporated than non-Indigenous enterprises.[47] This seems consistent with the incorporation status of business and presence of employees data observed in the Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (APS), which also provided the values by identity group.

Figure 30: Characteristics of business and presence of employees for Indigenous Business by Identity Group in 2017



Sources: Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT)

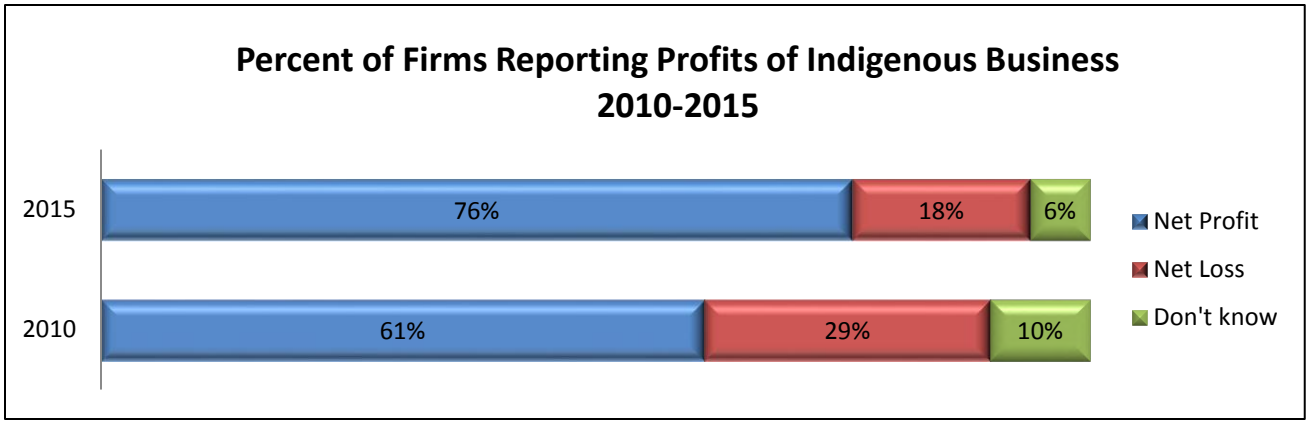
A much larger share in the percentage of incorporated businesses is reflected in the APS survey (Figure 29*)* in comparison to the Aboriginal Business Surveys (Figure 30). This may be explained by the APS survey population, which only includes populations off reserve. Businesses on reserve demonstrate the lowest levels of business incorporation due to restrictions of the *Indian Act*. Incorporated companies on reserve are not eligible for tax exemptions under Section 87 of The *Indian Act*, which acts as a disincentive to incorporate on reserve. The CCAB found in 2016 that 14% of businesses on reserve were incorporated vs. 32% of those located off reserve. As revenue growth is more likely for Indigenous businesses that are incorporated businesses with employees, these disincentives to incorporation on reserve may serve to reduce profitability of businesses on reserve.[48]

The APS also shows that a high percentage of businesses operated by Métis entrepreneurs have employees and are incorporated (43%). The CCAB demonstrated similar findings regarding this identity group indicating incorporated businesses were more common among Métis (34%) than among First Nations (19%) business owners. In Alberta over 56% of the small and medium sized enterprises run by Métis entrepreneurs were incorporated.

[47] Promise and Prosperity: The 2016 Aboriginal Business Survey, Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, pg. 16
[48] Promise and Prosperity: The 2016 Aboriginal Business Survey, Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, pg. 29

The percentage of Indigenous small businesses reporting a net profit and increased gross sales revenue has increased over the period from 2010-2015. As a large majority of Indigenous small businesses (76%) are reporting a net profit, this indicates a healthy small business sector. This is up from 61% in 2010 (Figure 31). It was more common for organizations to report a profit with annual revenues higher than $100,000 and those that had been in business for at least five years.

Figure 31: Percent of firms reporting Profits of Indigenous Business 2010-2015



Sources: Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, *The Aboriginal Business Survey* 2011 and 2016

The CCAB reports that in 2015 four in ten Indigenous businesses saw their sales revenues increase over the past year, an increase from one-third in 2010 (Table 6). Revenue growth is more likely to be reported by incorporated businesses, businesses with employees, firms with higher annual revenues, businesses located off reserve, and established companies focused on growth.

Table 6: Size, Profit and Revenue of Indigenous-owned Small Businesses

	% of Small Businesses with One or More Employees	% of Small Businesses Reporting a Net Profit in Previous Fiscal year	% of Small Businesses reporting Increased gross sales revenue for past year
2010	**37%**	**61%**	**35%**
2015	20% (unincorporated) 16% (incorporated) **36% (total)**	**76%**	**41%**

Sources: Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, *The Aboriginal Business Survey*, 2011 and 2016

The CCAB reports an extremely high level of optimism about achieving revenue growth in the near future on the part of Indigenous business owners. Eight in ten (79%) say they expect their business income to grow in the next two years, up slightly from 75 percent in 2010. A significant number of

Indigenous business leaders view their firms as either extremely successful (11%) or very successful (41%).[49]

This optimism is backed up by other Indigenous entrepreneurship data which indicate that perceptions and attitudes are improving:

- The Sodexo Canada Indigenous Business Survey, commissioned to shed light on attitudes about Indigenous businesses, finds 77 per cent of Canadians recognize the importance of thriving Indigenous enterprises to the creation of sustainable economic opportunities for Indigenous peoples. [50]
- A recent study, which focused exclusively on British Columbia, showed that Indigenous entrepreneurs are doing even better than their non-Indigenous counterparts: 78% of Indigenous entrepreneurs indicated their business was profitable versus 74% of non-Indigenous entrepreneurs.[51]
- The Indigenous tourism industry alone produces $1.4 billion of Canada's annual Gross Domestic Product, and employs more than 33,000 people.[52]

- Profitability of Indigenous businesses has increased with 76% indicating they have registered a profit in 2015 up from 61% in 2010.
- Revenue growth is more likely to be reported by Indigenous businesses that are incorporated and have employees.
- A considerable deterrent for incorporation of Indigenous business on reserve is Section 87 of the *Indian Act* which prevents corporations from being eligible for tax exemptions. This factor likely has a strong influence on the findings of only 14% of businesses on reserve being incorporated.

Business barriers

In terms of identifying the challenges that entrepreneurs face, the CCAB's 2016 Aboriginal Business Survey found that Indigenous business owners cite attracting quality talent (39%) and retaining valuable employees (29%) as their greatest challenges in conducting business. The second greatest barrier for Indigenous business owners was regarding funding. Access to financing, equity or capital (31%) was listed as being a major obstacle they face in growing their businesses.[53]

Although talent retention is a common issue for many businesses, geographic and educational barriers can make it a particularly challenging barrier for Indigenous enterprises. Educational attainment levels remain below the non-Indigenous population levels, making it more difficult for employers to find and hire skilled Indigenous workers. According to a TD Special Report on Indigenous Business released in

[49] https://www.ccab.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/CCAB-PP-Report-V2-SQ-Pages.pdf, 26
[50] https://ca.sodexo.com/home/media/news-and-press-releases/newsListArea/news-and-press-releases/aboriginal-day.html
[51] https://www.vancity.com/SharedContent/documents/pdfs/News/Vancity-Report-Indigenous-Entrepreneurs-2018.pdf
[52] https://www.ictinc.ca/blog/survey-results-show-strong-support-for-indigenous-entrepreneurs
[53] Indigenous economics have been referred to as "bungee economies" describing how economic gain flowing into communities often bounces back out to benefit non-Indigenous communities through service provision or spending.

2017, non-Indigenous businesses are not facing the same challenge as Indigenous businesses in this regard. "In contrast to Aboriginal businesses, surveys of Canadian business more broadly, completed around the same time as the CCAB survey (such as the Bank of Canada's Business Outlook Survey) suggest that Canadian firms were generally finding it easier to fill available positions"[54]

Regarding access to capital, insufficient funding of the Aboriginal Financial Institutions has resulted in a demand for loans that exceeds supply. The 2016 CCAB survey found that loans from Indigenous Financial lending institutions accounted for just 14% of financing used by Indigenous start-ups. More than half of Indigenous entrepreneurs noted that they relied on personal savings for their business start-ups, while 19% accessed either business loans/credit from a bank, or credit from other government programs.

The CCAB's findings are supported by the results of 2017's Aboriginal Peoples Survey which collected data on Indigenous businesses which seek or receive outside business assistance. "Outside business assistance" includes financial assistance, procurement programs, information on business opportunities, help establishing business contracts, and training/development programs. The Aboriginal Peoples Survey found that only 12% of First Nations (off reserve) and 9% of Métis received outside business assistance for their enterprises whereas 28% of self-employed Inuit accessed these services. The presence of strong community economic development corporations in Inuit communities could be the explanation for this difference. Almost half of the assistance that First Nations enterprises received came from Indigenous governments, Indigenous organizations or Aboriginal Financial Institutions. Métis businesses were far more likely to receive business support from private sector banks and institutions (29%) than from Indigenous organizations (16%).[55]

Findings from the CCAB's Aboriginal Business Survey, which included First Nations on reserve, are slightly different in that 40% of Indigenous business owners have used a government program in the past year. Although a higher percentage of Indigenous business owners are accessing government programs and services when populations on reserve are included in the survey data, some of the stated barriers to greater use were a lack of perceived value for such programs, difficulty locating appropriate programs, and programs requiring too much paperwork and administration to be worth the effort. [56, 57]

Additionally, the Procurement Strategy for Aboriginal Business, which was established to promote and support Indigenous business, may not be benefitting Indigenous business to its full potential. The Government of Canada developed the Procurement Strategy for Aboriginal Business (PSAB) to increase the number of Indigenous suppliers bidding for, and ultimately winning, federal contracts. According to the CCAB survey, only one in five businesses had bid or considered bidding on PSAB set-asides (percentage of reserved contracts for this program). Forty-three percent of respondents said the reason for this was that businesses felt "they did not need them, or the program had no value to them".

[54] Special Report TD Economics "Aboriginal Businesses Increasingly Embracing Innovation", June 19 2017
[55] Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT)
[56] Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, Promise and Prosperity, 2016, 41
[57] Special Report TD Economics "Aboriginal Businesses Increasingly Embracing Innovation", June 19 2017

Access to capital and financial services have been identified as a major barrier to Indigenous business with remote communities experiencing greater challenges with this issue. Many reserves experience limited banking access due to few bank branches being located on reserve. According to a report on Aboriginal Entrepreneurship by NACCA, access to financial institutions is limited as there are less than 50 branches, banking outlets, banking centres, and branches on-reserve offered by four out of the five major banks in Canada (RBC, BMO, CIBC and Scotiabank).[58] Toronto Dominion introduced the Aboriginal Community Banking Program in 2015 with the goal of bringing more banking services to remote and reserve locations. By 2017 there were five banks on reserve and telephone services offered in Cree Lakota, Ojibwe and Inuktitut.[59] For many communities in Nunavut there are limited banking services with only a minority having a physical bank presence in the community; there are only 16 banks branches across Nunavut and the Northwest Territories.[60] The sparse presence of any financial institution can make basic financial services (like having a bank account) more challenging.

Although the availability of local banks in remote or Indigenous communities may be lacking, Canada has been recognized by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) as a leader in Indigenous Economic Development through its number of Indigenous-owned Financial Institutions. These include a network of over 50 Aboriginal Financial Institutes (AFIs) across the country started in the late 1980s by Indigenous leaders and Government to address the lack of available capital to finance Indigenous small-business development. The AFI network has provided over 45,000 loans totaling over $2.5 billion to businesses owned by First Nations, Métis, and Inuit over the past 25 years. [61] From 2010 to 2016, AFIs provided an average of 1,241 loans per year to Indigenous businesses in Canada. Disbursements averaged $106 million per year with about three-quarters going to existing businesses.[62]

In addition to AFIs – there are a number of other independent banking and financial support organizations with the mandate to support Indigenous entrepreneurs.

- The First Nations Bank of Canada (FNBC) which had total assets of $443.78M in 2015, with nine full service banking centres (three on reserve and one in Nunavut) in 2019. The FNBC also has numerous community banking centres and electronic banking channels. The Bank's specialty is financing projects and operations for Indigenous governments, Indigenous-owned enterprises and non-Indigenous enterprises that are doing business with these groups. [63]

- Peace Hills Trust is Canada's largest First Nation Financial Institution – and it is Canada's only independent trust company. It is owned by the Samson Cree Nation, with 8 regional offices across the country. It has provided over $2.5 billion in financing for First Nations customers since it was founded in 1980. [64]

[58] https://nacca.ca/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/Research-Module-1_NACCA-BDC_Feb14_2017.pdf , 39
[59] https://www.td.com/document/PDF/corporateresponsibility/TD_Indigenous_Report2017-WEB.pdf
[60] https://cba.ca/Assets/CBA/Documents/Files/Article%20Category/PDF/stat_bankbranches_en.pdf
[61] https://nacca.ca/about/history/
[62] https://nacca.ca/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/Research-Module-1_NACCA-BDC_Feb14_2017.pdf, 32
[63] https://www.fnbc.ca/Business/
[64] https://www.peacehills.com/Personal/AboutUs/

- The Business Development Bank of Canada indicates that as of March 2018 it has invested $300 million in Indigenous businesses, it has nine account managers dedicated exclusively to Indigenous entrepreneurs and it has over 550 Indigenous clients across Canada[65]

- The Labrador Inuit Capital Strategy Trust (LICST) was created by the Nunatsiavut Government in 2006 to provide "financial, management, economic, and other assistance for the pursuit of economic and socio-economic strategies that establish, promote, assist, or otherwise foster employment, business and other relationships" to create wealth in trust for Nunatsiavut Beneficiaries by owning profitable, sustainable businesses. The group of companies recorded revenues of approximately $30 million in 2014.[66]

- The Quebec network of Indigenous Caisse Populaires, which was first established in Wendake in the 1970s, has approximately $730 million in assets[67]

- More than half of Indigenous entrepreneurs rely on personal savings for their business start-ups, and only 19% accessed either business loans/credit from a bank, or credit from other government programs.
- Finding skilled Indigenous workers for the job and retaining these employees on staff is one of the greatest challenges for Indigenous enterprises.

Conclusions

The Indigenous self-employment rate had seen a decline for all identity groups attributed to the 2008-2009 economic downturn; however, the number of Indigenous entrepreneurs has not only rebounded, but is growing. Entrepreneurship presents a solid alternative to more conventional employment options but requires additional policies and programs to support Indigenous entrepreneurs in the development and growth of their businesses. Access to capital and business services, as well as support for the hiring and retention of employees are areas which can continue to build and support Indigenous entrepreneurship. Businesses that are Indigenous-owned and operated can improve Indigenous outcomes both for individuals and for their communities and provide a valuable contribution to economic development.

[65] https://www.bdc.ca/en/i_am/aboriginal_entrepreneur/pages/campaign-indigenous-entrepreneur-loan.aspx?nurturingid=gf-c&searchterm=%2Bbdc%20%2Bindigenous&egs=google-ads&egc=Search_BDC_EN&egag=BDC_IEL&gclid=EAIaIQobChMIkZn4xryI4gIVxY2zCh31TAb4EAAYASAAEgItVPD_BwE

[66] https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/newfoundland-labrador/nunatsiavut-is-open-for-business-says-board-chairman-1.3035345

[67] http://macdonaldlaurier.ca/files/pdf/MLI_IndigenousCapital_F.pdf, pg 8

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #3: GOVERNANCE

Good governance plays a significant role in creating the right structural conditions for economic development on reserve lands. Identifying indicators of governance can be challenging given the variation in governance structures and systems that exist across and within Indigenous groups. For First Nations, property taxation and the acquisition of a Financial Management Board Certification have been identified as indirect measures of community governance, and while Community Intervention Status may not be an optimal indicator of governance, it will be used in this Report for the purposes of comparability over previous Reports. Strong and transparent financial management is also a key element of effective governance as well as the ability to generate own-source revenue to direct community investment for First Nations.

It is important to note that there is a lack of available measures for benchmarking governance across all Indigenous Identity groups. Although many Indigenous communities have revitalized and uphold many of their traditional governance systems and decision making processes, there is huge variability among communities. Due to the diverse history and large scope of Indigenous communities across Canada, there are also a diverse number of governance structures and decision making processes among First Nations, Métis and Inuit communities. We will begin this chapter by giving an overview of the governance structures and decision making processes of Métis, Inuit and First Nations people. We will then discuss indicators that provide First Nation's with strong financial management skills.

Métis Nation Organizational Structure

Métis settlements only exist in Alberta, and as such, Métis governance structures have evolved without a land base. Many Métis reside in urban centres and have developed their institutions in places such as Sault Ste. Marie, Winnipeg, Saskatoon, Edmonton and Vancouver. A greater part of their governance structures have been developed at the provincial level with regional community-based representation. The Métis National Council (MNC) and their provincial counterparts are the only Métis group currently recognized as Aboriginal under Section 35 of the Constitution, therefore we are describing the governance structures of the Métis who fall under the MNC. [68]

The Métis National Council and their General Assembly is the overarching governing body of Métis in Canada. It represents five provincial Governing Members: Métis Nation British Columbia, Métis Nation of Alberta, Métis Nation Saskatchewan, Manitoba Métis Federation and Métis Nation of Ontario. The MNC is made up of a Board of Governors (the Presidents of the provincial Governing Membership groups) and a Secretariat. Representatives from the provincial council form the Secretariat. The Assembly of the MNC democratically elects a President. The Provincial Governing Assemblies are each made up of a President, as well as democratically elected Councillors. Regional Councils are made up of local members and Councils based on historical Métis settlements and communities. [69]

[68] Madden, John et al. *Exploring Options For Métis Governance In The 21St Century*. Institute On Governance & JTM Consulting Inc., Ottawa, 2005, pp. 15-16.
[69] Métis National Council. *Organizational Structure And The Electoral Process*. Accessed 8 May 2019.

The current separation of powers for Métis in Canada is determined by the MNC. The MNC is responsible for national and international representation, intergovernmental negotiations and agreements and national policy development. The President of the Métis National Council manages the Secretariat and is the spokesperson for all of the MNC. The Board of Governors has several roles for the Métis National Council including determining the representation of each governing member in the MNC General Assembly and managing the affairs and business of the Association. They also carry out the mandate as set by the MNC General Assembly, set the date of the presidential election, and may suspend the President for just cause by unanimous vote. Finally, the governing members are responsible for representation at the provincial level, administration of citizenship registries and elections, and delivery of programs and services. [70]

Eastern Métis

Between 2006 and 2016, there has been a substantial increase in the number of people in eastern Canada who have self-identified as Métis. Census data show the number of people, who self-reported Métis identity increased 150% in Québec and 125% in Nova Scotia. At the same time, there have been almost 30 Métis organizations formed in the region, who are acting as representative bodies for the increasing number in self-reported Métis and working to assert their rights.[71]

The fight for recognition even lead one group all the way to the Supreme Court in 2019. The Communauté métisse du Domaine du Roy et de la Seigneurie de Mingan in Quebec appealed to the Court to defend the constitutional rights of 4000 members who claim Métis ancestry and assert their right to occupy hunting camps on public lands, based on section 35 rights based on the *R. vs Powley* ruling. In May of 2019 the Court dismissed the case with costs.[72] As noted previously, only those who fall under the Métis National Council (MNC) and their five provincial Governing Members are recognized under Section 35 and no court in Canada has yet recognized any Métis community east of Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario.

This highlights the rising tensions as eastern Métis persist that their Indigenous ancestry be recognized, but the Métis National Council maintains the definition of "Métis" they adopted in 2002:

> "Métis means a person who self-identifies as Métis, is distinct from other Aboriginal peoples, is of historic Métis Nation Ancestry and who is accepted by the Métis Nation."[73]

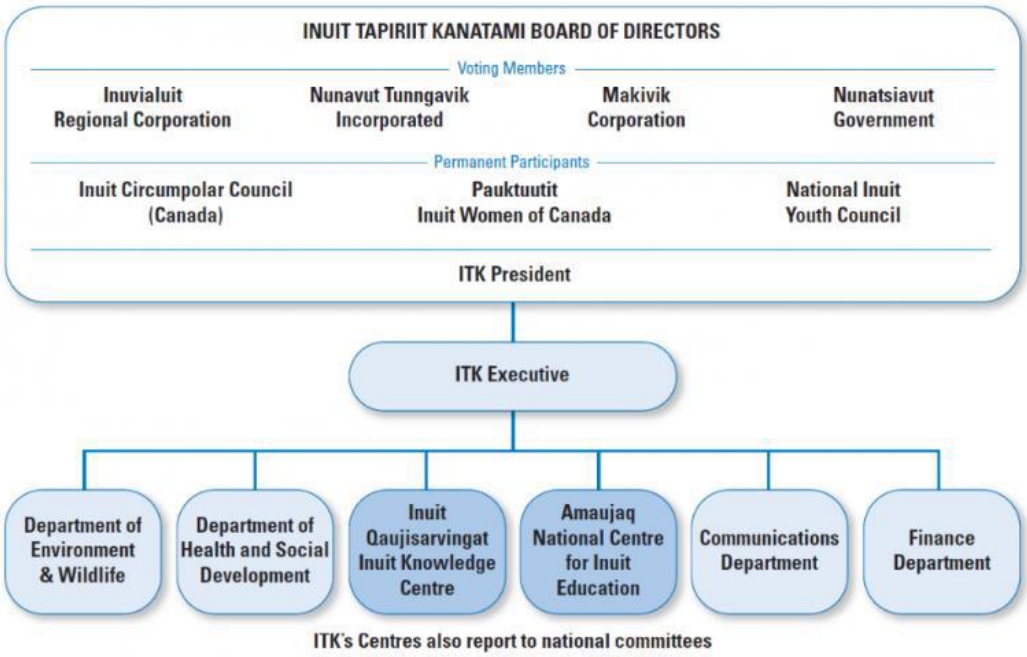
In response to the Supreme Court dismissal – MNC President Clément Chartier said "there is only one historic Métis Nation and one historic Métis Nation homeland, and that's based primarily in Western Canada" and that groups in eastern Canada have "no connection to our people and nation but seek to usurp our rights and benefits that we have fought so hard to attain".[74]

[70] Métis National Council. *Current Separation of Powers & Representation Issues.* Accessed 8 May 2019.
[71] Bundale, Brett. "'We're Reclaiming Our Heritage': The Controversial Rise Of The Eastern Méetis". *Global News*, 2018, Accessed 9 May 2019.
[72] https://www.cbc.ca/news/indigenous/quebec-metis-supreme-court-application-dismissed-1.5119841
[73] http://www.metisnation.ca/index.php/who-are-the-metis/citizenship
[74] https://www.cbc.ca/news/indigenous/quebec-metis-supreme-court-application-dismissed-1.5119841

Inuit Governance

Inuit have signed modern land claims with the Government of Canada. The governance structure of each of the four regions: Nunavut, Nunavik, Inuvialuit and Nunatsiavut is outlined in constitutionally-protected land claims agreements. [7576] On the national level, Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami (ITK), which means "Inuit are united in Canada", is the national voice for protecting and advancing the rights and interests of Inuit. ITK was established in 1971 to help Inuit assert their rights to sovereignty and governance over traditional Inuit lands and is comprised of a Board of Directors that stem from 4 regional Inuit groups: Inuvialuit Regional Corporation, Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated, Makivik Corporation and Nunatsiavut Government. The Board of Directors also includes representatives from three permanent participants: Inuit Circumpolar Council of Canada, Pauktuutit Inuit Women of Canada and the National Inuit Youth Council. The Board of Directors democratically elects a President (Figure 32).

Figure 32: Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami Governance Structure



Source: http://www.inuitknowledge.ca/inuit-research/about-inuit/inuit-governance

Working closely with the four Inuit regions, ITK aims to present unified priorities in Ottawa, while the regional organizations represent the members of their regions to maintain and implement their land claims and to provide various services to the people within their regions. ITK provides guidance to federal agencies and also works to educate Canadians about Inuit priorities and as advocates, ITK works to make sure Inuit are consulted and accommodated where their Indigenous and treaty rights could be affected by the Crown's decisions. [77]

[75] https://www.itk.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/ITK_Climate-Change-Report_English.pdf,8
[76] http://www.inuitknowledge.ca/inuit-research/about-inuit/inuit-governance
[77] https://www.itk.ca/what-we-do/

In terms of approach to governance and decision-making, communities and government have long been guided by Inuit societal values called *Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit* (IQ). Depending on the region, there are 8 to 10 values considered when making decisions by government and individuals. For example, the Government of Nunavut follows the values of:

1. *Inuuqatigiitsiarniq*: respecting others, relationships and caring for people;
2. *Tunnganarniq*: fostering good spirits by being open, welcoming and inclusive;
3. *Pijitsirniq*: serving and providing for family and/or community;
4. *Aajiiqatigiinniq*: decision making through discussion and consensus;
5. *Pilimmaksarniq/Pijariuqsarniq*: development of skills through observation, mentoring, practice, and effort;
6. *Piliriqatigiinniq/Ikajuqtigiinniq*: working together for a common cause;
7. *Qanuqtuurniq*: being innovative and resourceful;
8. *Avatittinnik Kamatsiarniq*: respect and care for the land, animals and the environment.[78]

This is described as "what Inuit have long known to be true" and are key factors and considerations in how Inuit approach governance.

First Nations Governance

Similar to Métis and Inuit, the Assembly of First Nations (AFN) is a national Indigenous organization that acts as a representative body for First Nations across Canada. They represent more than 900,000 people living in 634 First Nations communities across Canada. The AFN is comprised of a National Executive, made up of a National Chief, 10 Regional Chiefs and the chairs of the Elders, Women's and Youth councils. The National Chief is elected by the chiefs of the communities that fall under the AFN. The 10 regions are: New Brunswick/Prince Edward Island, Atlantic (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, PEI, Quebec, Newfoundland and Labrador), Quebec/Labrador, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, Yukon Territory and Northwest Territories. The 10 Regional Chiefs are elected by the community Chiefs within their regions. The Chiefs of communities are elected by the members of their respective communities. [79]

There are several processes to elect leadership on reserves. There are four ways that are recognized in Canadian legislation:

1. following the steps outlined in the *Indian Act* and the *Indian Band Election Regulations*;
2. using the new and optional *First Nations Elections Act*;
3. using the community's constitution that was created through their self-government agreement;
4. "band custom" processes.

Around 200 First Nations in Canada hold elections under the *Indian Act* and the *Indian Band Election Regulations*. The *First Nations Elections Act* and *First Nations Elections Regulations* came into force on April 2, 2015. The Act and Regulations were developed in collaboration with First Nations organizations

[78] Government of Nunavut. Inuit Societal Values. Iqaluit.
[79] Assembly of First Nations. *About AFN*.

to make improvements to First Nations election processes. In order to opt into the *First Nations Elections Act*, the First Nation must develop a community election code which must be approved by the majority of votes cast through a secret ballot in which at least 50 per cent of all the voters of the First Nation participate. A First Nation that holds its elections under the *Indian Act* election system may develop its own community election code and ask the Minister of Indigenous and Northern Affairs to issue an order that removes the First Nation from the application of the Act's electoral provisions. Community or custom leadership selection processes are often documented in a community's election code, which provide the rules under which chiefs and councilors are chosen for those First Nations who are not under the *Indian Act* election rules.

Self-governing First Nations do not fall under the *Indian Act*. They establish their own laws and policies in a broad range of matters for their communities and according to their cultures and traditions, including leadership selection. For a community or custom leadership selection processes, INAC is never involved in the election processes, nor will it interpret, decide on the validity of the process, or resolve election appeals. The department's role is limited to recording the election results provided by the First Nation. [80] There are also communities that have their own traditional forms of governance and decision making processes that historically haven't been recognized by the Canadian government. Some First Nation communities only utilize their traditional governance while others use a combined approach. (see *Hereditary vs. Elected below*).

Hereditary vs. Elected Leadership

Prior to the introduction of the *Indian Act*, Indigenous Nations had their own governance mechanisms which guided the laws and processes of their communities. In January 2019 through issues that arose from the RCMP dismantling a site of protest for the Wet'suwet'en on their traditional territories on the coast of British Columbia, the question of chiefs elected under the implemented *Indian Act* processes versus hereditary chiefs was highlighted in the media.

The Wet'suwet'en had set up a road block in 2018 in order to prevent the further development of the Trans-Canada owned Coastal Gaslink pipeline on their traditional territories. The hereditary chiefs filed a motion in court and within it stated "One of the firmest Wet'suwet'en laws holds that one cannot enter another's territory without asking for and receiving the head chief's permission. Trespassing on house territories is considered a serious offense," pointing to a modern translation of what they considered to be a historical law of their Nation.

Consultations for the Coastal Gaslink project were completed in the territory with First Nation communities that would be impacted, including the elected leadership of the Wet-suwet'en, but it was questioned as to whom consultations should be done with. Is it enough to consult with the chiefs of communities who are elected under the *Indian Act* election processes or should consultations also include community leaders who received their status through more traditionally practiced governance processes? These issues may continue to surface in future issues and will require further consideration. [iii]

[ii] Sterritt, Angela. "When Pipeline Companies Want to Build on Indigenous Lands, with Whom Do They Consult? CBC News." *CBC news*, CBC/Radio Canada, 10 Jan. 2019. www.cbc.ca/news/canada/british-columbia/when-a-pipeline-wants-to-build-whose-in-charge-1.4971597.

[80] Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada. *Leadership Selection In First Nations*. 2016.

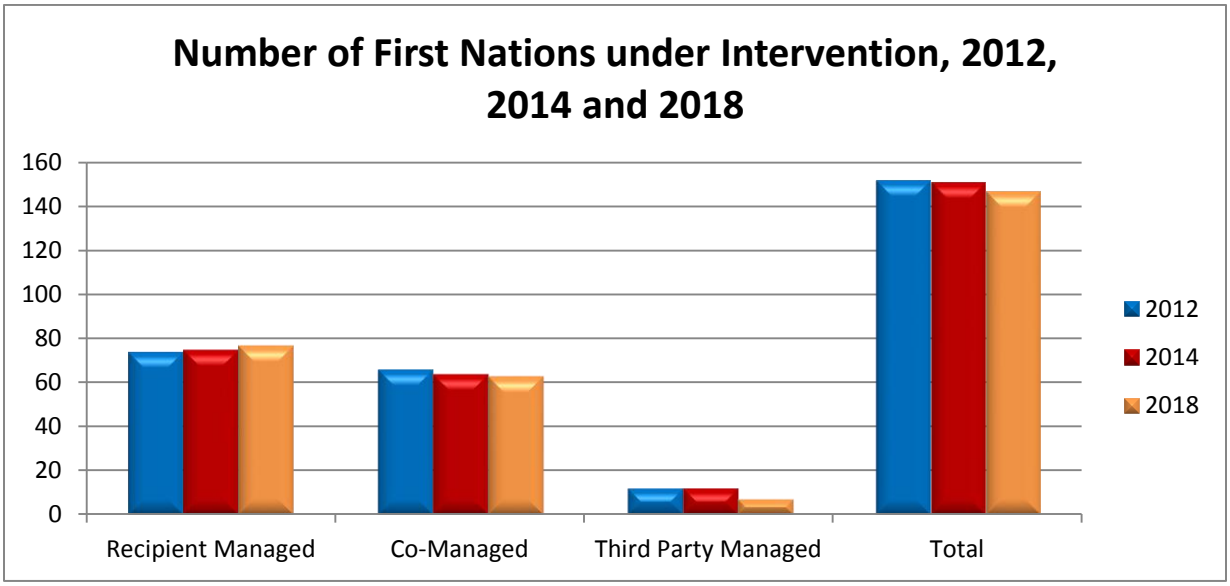
First Nations: Community Intervention Status

If First Nations default on funding agreements, they may be subject to one of three levels of default management: Recipient, Recipient-Appointed Advisor, and Third-Party Management. Recipient Managed intervention occurs when a First Nation is required to develop a plan to address the issues causing the default, and to report their progress. Recipient-Appointed Manager, formally known as Co-Managed, is chosen when the recipient is willing to remedy the default, but lacks the capacity to do so. In this case the community works with an outside manager whilst building their capacity. Finally, Third-Party Managed intervention is used when there is a high risk to the funding provided or when the recipient is unable to remedy the issue or the difficulties that gave rise to the defaulted agreement. In this case, complete control for funding and expense reports is given to outside management.

The data for community intervention status is not a general measure for well-being, since communities under intervention may be performing well in other areas. However, the status does provide an indirect measure of the number of communities where partial governance challenges may exist.

Overall, there has been minimal change in the total number of communities that are under community intervention from 152 in 2012, 151 in 2014 to 147 in 2018. There is marginal change in the number of communities that are co-managed from 66 in 2012, 64 in 2014, to 63 in 2018. The number of communities under Third-Party Management decreased from 12 in 2012 and 2014 to 7 in 2018. Although there has been a significant decrease in the number of communities under Third-party management, there wasn't a significant amount of communities that started under this form of intervention. Nonetheless, less than 2% of communities are under this level of intervention, with continuing decreases. Data also show that more than half of the communities under intervention are Recipient Managed, a situation where the First Nation is responsible for developing a remedial management plan (Figure 33).

Figure 33: Number of First Nations under Intervention, 2014 and 2018



Source: INAC 2014, 2018

- There was a marginal decrease in the number of communities under intervention status from 151 in 2014 to 147 in 2018.
- There was a notable decrease in the number of communities under Third-Party Management from 12 in 2014, to 7 in 2018.

First Nations: Property Taxation Status

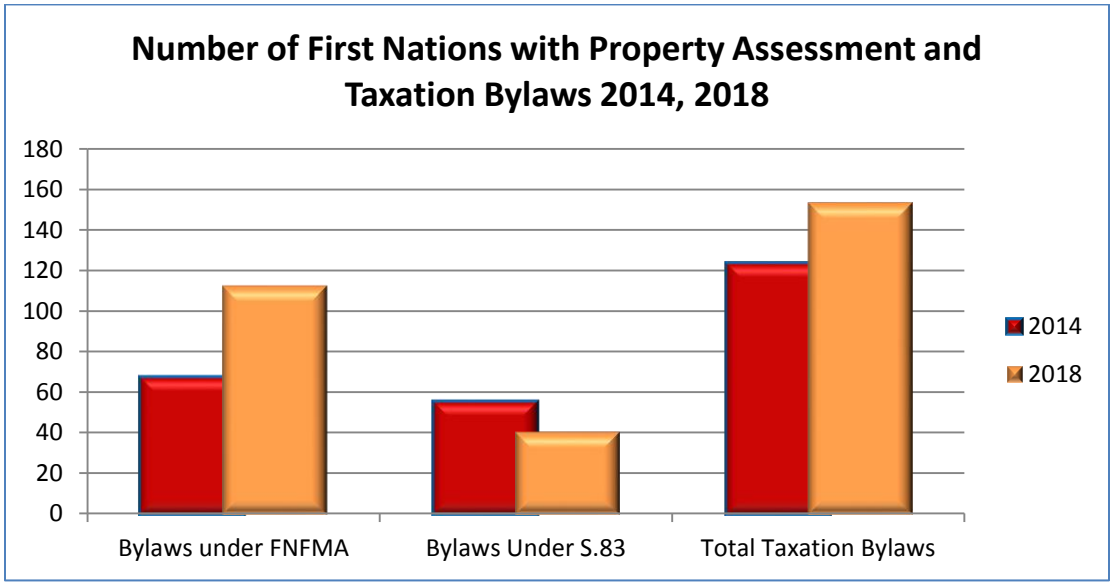
First Nations can leverage real property taxation on reserve to further benefit from economic activity taking place on their lands. Property taxation provides stable revenue streams that can be reinvested into infrastructure and services, and gives communities additional flexibility in spending-related decisions without the involvement of the federal government. First Nations have two means of instituting property taxation frameworks on reserve: developing bylaws under section 83 of the *Indian Act*, or under the authority of the *First Nations Fiscal Management Act* (FNFMA). Some communities may opt into developing bylaws under section 83 of the *Indian Act* because they feel they do not have the capacity to work under the FNFMA. Other communities will opt into creating bylaws under the FNFMA because of the opportunities that it creates through different programming that is provided to communities.

Despite the important differences between section 83 and the FNFMA, the integrated relationship between good governance and an active property taxation framework is a common component that helps establish greater control in financial matters and builds economic independence. Moreover, early observations suggest that First Nations that have real property taxation bylaws tend to have better economic outcomes than those that do not. First Nations that have had property tax bylaws for longer periods of time demonstrate significantly higher outcomes than First Nations both with recently established and without property tax bylaws.

Property taxation is an indirect measure of governance, since responsible financial management practices are an integral part of applying to either regime.

Data show that the number of First Nations using bylaws under section 83 has decreased from 56 in 2014, to 41 in 2018. Additionally, the number of First Nations using bylaws under the FNFMA continues to increase. The 2012 *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report* indicated that 28 First Nations were implementing property taxation under the FNFMA. Recent data shows that this number has increased to 68 bylaws created under the FNFMA in 2014, and further increased to 113 in 2018 (Figure 34). This represents a 24% increase overall in First Nations communities with taxation bylaws (from 124 in 2014 to 154 in 2018).

Figure 34: Number of First Nations with Property Assessment and Taxation Bylaws 2014, 2018



Sources: First Nations Tax Commission, 2014; INAC and Assembly of First Nations, 2018.

- There has been a decrease in the number of First Nations that implemented property taxation under Section 83 of the *Indian Act* from 56 in 2014, to 41 in 2018.
- There was an increase in the number of First Nations that implemented property taxation under the FNFMA from 68 in 2014, to 113 in 2018.
- Overall, there was a 24% increase in the number of First Nations communities with property taxation bylaws between 2014 and 2018.

First Nations Financial Management Certification

Certification—namely, Performance Certification and Financial Management Systems Certification—is one of the primary business lines of the First Nations Financial Management Board (FNFMB). The certification earned through the FNFMB is an indicator of sound financial management capacity, providing First Nations communities with the tools and processes to facilitate long-term economic development. First Nations communities certified under the FNFMB have proven to have governance structures and financial practices that meet the standards set by the First Nations Fiscal Management Board.

	Financial Management Board Certification
2014	34
As of January 2018	101

Table 7 - Number of FMB Certifications
Source: INAC 2014, 2018

Participation in the FNFMB's certification programs allows communities to take advantage of services, such as financial administration law development, financial performance certification, financial management system certification, and capacity development opportunities.

According to the 2014 *Aboriginal Economic Progress Report,* 34 communities had been certified by the FNFMB. As of January of 2018, the number of certified First Nations had increased to 101 (Table 7).

- Communities who are participating in the FNFMA further obtain opportunities to build capacity through services such as the Financial Management System Certification.
- The number of First Nation communities who have become certified by the FNFMB increased from 34 in 2014, to 101 in 2018.

On Reserve vs. Off Reserve/Territorial Decision making

According to 2016 Canadian Census records, there is a continuing increase in urban Indigenous populations due to multiple factors: demographic growth, mobility, and changing patterns in self-reported identity. In 2016, 867,415 Indigenous peoples lived in a metropolitan area of at least 30,000 people, accounting for 51.8% of the total Indigenous population. From 2006 to 2016, the number increased by 59.7%. [i]

Electronic voting for community decision making is an emerging trend in First Nations communities. Online voting has also been used for: ratifying and amending constitutions, membership codes and election codes; approving impact and benefit agreements and land use plans; conducting advisory polls; and, electing trustees and Chiefs and Councils. For example, the Carrier Sekani Nation in British Columbia allowed their community members to access their vote through an online platform in their most recent vote for leadership. [ii]

As there are changes to legislation, such as the *Indian Referendum Regulations* and the *First Nations Land Management Act* that will allow for communities to recognize electronic voting, there are questions as to whether electronic voting will be mandatory or optional for communities. This raises further questions within First Nations communities on who should be included in the decision making on reserves. Should band members off reserve have easier access to voting mechanisms when it comes to making decisions that may have more impact for those who live on reserve?

[i] Statistics Canada. "Aboriginal People in Canada: Key Results from the 2016 Census." *The Daily* - , 25 Oct. 2017, www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/daily-quotidien/171025/dq171025a-eng.htm
[ii] Trumpener, Betsy. "Indigenous Communities Embrace Electronic Voting To Elect Tribal Leader". CBC News, 2019, https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/british-columbia/indigenous-voting-electronic-1.5065168. Accessed 22 Mar 2019

Conclusions

Strong governance systems contribute to a community's ability to take advantage of economic opportunities. In Inuit Nunangat, strong governance systems and national representation through Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami support regional development corporations which in turn reinvest in Inuit communities. Métis governance through the Métis National Council is structured to ensure regional representation while providing a unified voice for national and international policy development, negotiation and representation. For First Nations, the Assembly of First Nations is the national representative body comprised of a National Chief and ten Regional Chiefs providing governance and national representation for 634 First Nations. Successful community governance is supported by transparent financial management and proficiency in revenue creation. There has been an increase in the number of First Nations that are creating tax revenues for their communities either through the *First Nations Land Management Act* or Section 83 of the *Indian Act*. First Nation communities have opportunities to participate in programs through the *First Nations Financial Management Act*, such as the Financial Management Certification, to help build their financial management capacity. These positive trends within First Nations are demonstrative of increased governance capacity that will serve as the required foundation for harnessing economic development opportunities.

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #4: LANDS AND RESOURCES

The Indigenous land base continues to grow through land claim settlements and additions to reserve, thus creating new economic development options. Control by Indigenous peoples over their land base constitutes a significant success factor for maximizing benefits from economic opportunities such as mining development and agriculture, and for commercial and residential development. A positive correlation between greater control over lands and resources and higher socio-economic outcomes was one of the most important findings of the 2012 *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report*.

The indicators used in this Lands and Resources chapter are well established in Canadian legislation. While we recognize the change in terminology from Aboriginal to Indigenous in most circumstances, the use of the term Aboriginal in this chapter is when we are referring to law or legislation where Aboriginal is still the legal term in the Canadian legal context.

Inuit Comprehensive Claim Agreements

Spanning across the Inuit Nunangat, Inuit land claims agreements have been signed in all four Inuit regions, granting Inuit rights to approximately 35% of the total Canadian land mass and 50% of its coastline. Within the areas covered by the agreements, Inuit have consented to transfer their asserted Indigenous title to Canada and conversely, by entering into the treaties with Inuit, Canada recognizes that Inuit have rights to the lands and waters. The treaties cover not just land, but also areas of the ocean, rights to wildlife management, resource royalty sharing, economic development, culture, heritage, impact benefit agreements, and archaeological sites.

The agreements for the four regions are:

- The James Bay and Northern Québec Agreement (JBNQA), signed in 1975 and considered the first modern land claims settlement in Canada. Under this Agreement, the Inuit of Nunavik received compensation moneys, land regime, and certain powers regarding the portion of the JBNQA pertaining to Nunavik. In 2006 a second agreement was signed, the Nunavik Inuit Land Claims Agreement (NILCA), to provide ownership of 80% of the islands in the Nunavik Marine Region, and overlap agreements between the Inuit of Nunavik and the Inuit of Nunavut, the Crees of Eeyou Istchee, and the Inuit of Nunatsiavut.[81]
- The Western Arctic (Inuvialuit) Claims Settlement Agreement signed in 1984 granting title to approximately 91,000 square km of land.
- The Nunavut Land Claims Agreement (NLCA) signed in 1993 and the largest Indigenous land claim settlement in Canada, covering approximately one-fifth the size of the country. The agreement promised Inuit an equal say in the management of their lands and resources, a share of the benefits of economic development taking place in their territory, and an agreement to create the political territory Nunavut.[82]

[81] http://landclaimscoalition.ca/coalition_members/makivik-corporation/
[82] https://www.ictinc.ca/blog/nunavut-land-claims-agreement-turns-twenty-10-fast-facts

- The Labrador Inuit Land Claims Agreement (LILC) signed in 2005 creating two categories of land: the Labrador Inuit Settlement Area and Labrador Inuit Lands. The Settlement Area consists of 72,520 square kilometres of land and within the Settlement Area, Inuit own 15,800 square kilometres (6,100 square miles) of land referred to as Labrador Inuit Lands. It is in this area where Inuit have the most rights and benefits, including exclusive right to carving stone, ownership of quarry materials and a 25 per cent ownership interest in subsurface resources. [83]

The Inuit Comprehensive Claim Agreements defines the on-going treaty relationships between Inuit and Canada, and establishes co-management organizations for the treaty areas to ensure the partnership between Canada and Inuit has the potential to be mutually beneficial.[84]

Alberta Métis Settlements

The only recognized Métis land base is in Alberta. The Métis' fight for land dates back to the 1920s in Alberta when Métis leaders without land would struggle to feed their families. By 1975, a group of activists formed the Alberta Federation of Métis Settlements, frustrated by the lack of progress towards self-government in these settlements. After years of negotiations and the threat of legal action, their lobbying efforts were successfully realized in 1990.[85] There are eight Métis Settlements in Alberta: Buffalo Lake Métis Settlement, East Prairie Métis Settlement, Elizabeth Métis Settlement, Fishing Lake Métis Settlement, Gift Lake Métis Settlement, Kikino Métis Settlement, Paddle Prairie Métis Settlement and Peavine Métis Settlement. All combined, the settlements are comprised of approximately 5,121 square km in Alberta.[86]

Agreements have been signed that have provided the Métis settlements in Alberta with economic benefits from their land. The eight Métis settlements along with the Métis Settlement General Council and the Minister of Energy signed the original Co-Management Agreement in 1990. The agreement allowed for sub-surface level mineral exploration on the Métis Settlements. Although the province of Alberta would maintain the ownership of mines and minerals, the agreement also allowed for the Métis Settlements to negotiate royalties with oil and gas companies and become an equity partner with a successful bidder on a mineral lease of up to 25% in any development. Amendments were made to the Co-Management Agreement in 2013 to allow for a wholly owned Métis Settlement Corporation to secure a direct purchase from Alberta Energy for mineral lease, outside of the public process as well as bid on public offering mineral leases. It also outlines that companies that are not from the Métis Settlement that bid in the public processes must outline details of their proposed benefits to the Métis Settlements within their bid.[87]

[83] https://www.gov.nl.ca/iias/indigenous-affairs/land-claims/highlights/
[84] https://www.lawnow.org/introduction-inuit-rights-arctic-sovereignty/
[85] https://indigenouspeoplesatlasofcanada.ca/article/metis-settlements-and-farms/
[86] Settlement, Buffalo et al. "Métis Settlements Locations". Alberta.Ca, 2019, https://www.alberta.ca/metis-settlements-locations.aspx.
[87] Alberta.Ca, "About Métis Settlements". 2019, https://www.alberta.ca/about-metis-settlements.aspx?utm_source=redirector.

Comprehensive land claim and self-government agreements

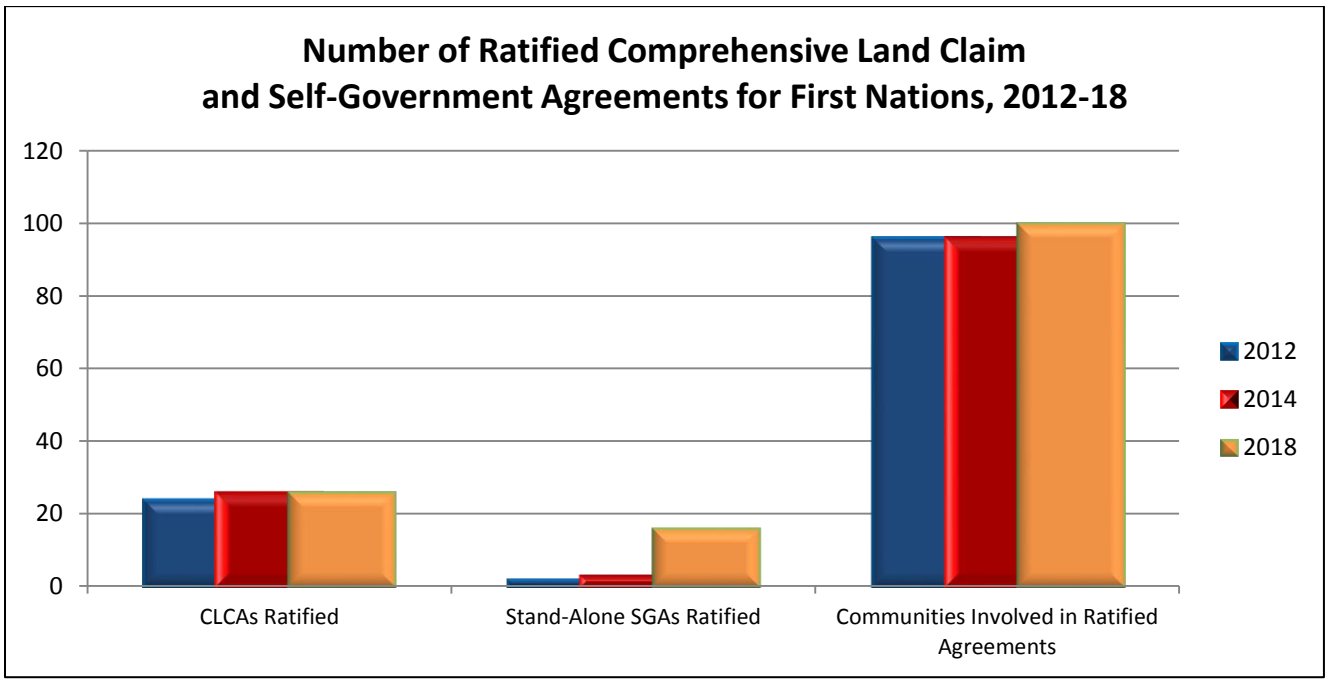
Comprehensive land claims agreements (CLCA) are forward-looking modern treaties, negotiated where Aboriginal rights and title have not been addressed by historic treaties or other legal means, or where there remains outstanding disagreement around the terms of those treaties. In these areas, CLCAs are negotiated between the Indigenous group, Canada, and the province or territory.

While each agreement is unique, they usually include provisions around land ownership and management, money, wildlife harvesting rights, participation in land, resource, water, wildlife and environmental management and measures to support economic development and protect Indigenous culture. These treaties, implemented through legislation, constitute the most comprehensive way of addressing Aboriginal rights and title.

Some treaties have also included provisions relating to Indigenous self-government. Self-Government Agreements (SGAs) are legal arrangements providing Indigenous groups with greater responsibility and control over their internal affairs and decision-making. Lands and resources under the control of these Indigenous governments are more attractive to investors, thus facilitating partnerships between Indigenous governments, other governments and the private sector.

The ratification of more treaties has the potential of improving the climate for Indigenous economic development as they are a critical piece for lasting certainty on ownership, land management and use and reliable access to resources for all parties.

Figure 35: Number of Ratified Comprehensive Land Claim Agreements (CLCA) and Self-Government Agreements (SGA) for First Nations, 2012-2018



Source INAC, 2018

Since 2006, Canada and its negotiation partners have signed six comprehensive land claims agreements (modern treaties) and two self-government agreements with First Nations communities. Of the six signed comprehensive land claim agreements, four included provisions related to self-government. The settlements have provided protection of traditional ways of life; access to resource development opportunities; and, participation in land and resources management decisions. Recent data show that there are now 100 communities involved in ratified agreements. Interestingly, there were 16 stand-alone Self-Government Agreements ratified in 2018, compared to 3 in 2014 indicating an increase in communities that are interested in self-governance (Figure 35). The *First Nations Land Management Act* builds the capacity of communities as well as provides an opportunity to pursue Self-Governing Agreements.

- There was an increase in communities who obtained ratified stand-alone Self-Government Agreements from 3 in 2014 to 16 in 2018.
- There are now 100 communities involved in ratified self-government agreements compared to the 96 communities in 2014 (CLCAs and SGAs).
- Through the comprehensive land claim agreements, Inuit across the four regions have been granted title to roughly 35% of Canada's landmass and 50% of its coastline.

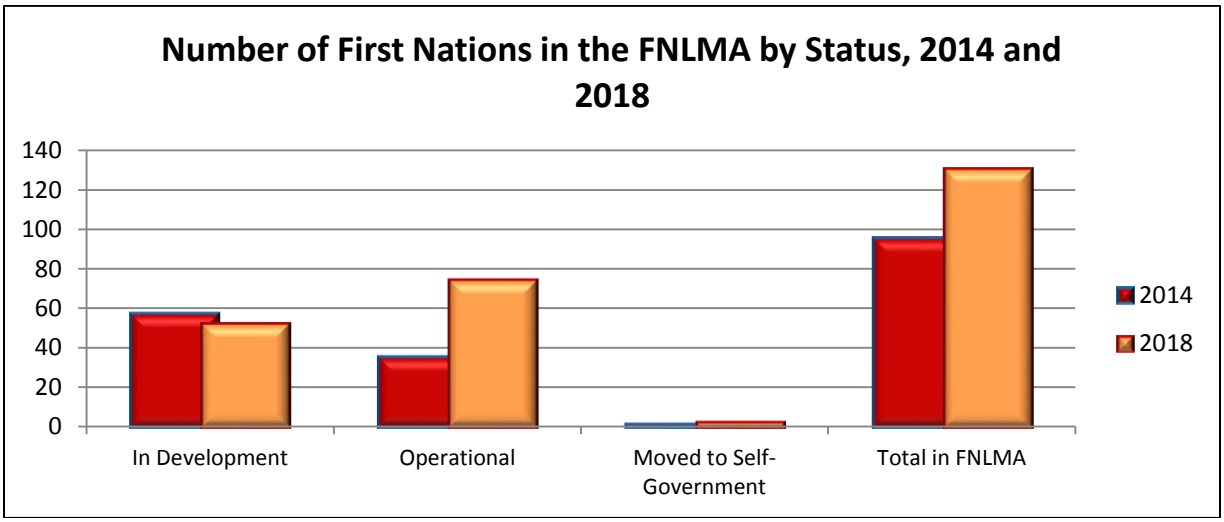
First Nations Land Management Act

Reserve lands are held by the Government of Canada (Crown), on behalf of First Nations for the use and benefit of First Nations. As a result, the Federal Government and First Nation Governments are each responsible for managing different aspects of reserve lands and resources. The *First Nations Land Management Act* (FNLMA) removes First Nations from the land management provisions of the *Indian Act*, enabling them to assume management over their reserve lands, develop land codes, and hold law-making authority respecting the conservation, protection, management, development, possession and use of First Nations land.

The FNLMA provides First Nations with unrestricted access to manage their lands and make timely business and administrative decisions to accelerate their land use planning, resource management and economic development. However, First Nation communities under the FNLMA also bear the liability and cost of their own environmental and land management reviews and processes, with limited financial support under this regime.

The number of First Nations participating in the FNLMA (through the development of, or operation of a land management code) has increased from 96 in 2014, to 131 in 2018 (Figure 36). Three of the FNLMA land code communities have transitioned to full self-government (Westlake First Nation, Sioux Valley Dakota Nation and the Sechelt Indian Band). There was a decrease in the number of communities in the process of developing land codes. However, the number of communities that have successfully developed an operational land management code has more than doubled. This reflects an increased interest in pursuing greater control over lands through the FNLMA.

Figure 36: Number of First Nations in the First Nations Land Management Act (FNLMA) by Status, 2014 and 2018



Source: INAC, 2018

- There has been an increase in communities participating in the FNLMA process, from 96 in 2014 to 131 in 2018.
- Three of the communities who have developed their land codes through the FNLMA have transitioned to full self-government during this time frame.

First Nations: Additions to Reserves

An Addition to Reserve (ATR) is the process by which a parcel of land is added to the existing reserve land of a First Nation or sometimes a new reserve is created. Reserve creation is governed by the Addition to Reserve/Reserve Creation Policy Directive, introduced in 2016, which sets out the issues to be addressed before land can be considered reserve land. The Government of Canada first created the Addition to Reserve Policy in 1972 to fill a gap, as Additions to Reserve were not addressed in the *Indian Act* or other federal legislation.

First Nations, the Assembly of First Nations, internal audits, and the Parliamentary Committees have identified that significant challenges remain in the Additions to Reserve process including:

- A lack of access to pre-reserve designation outside of the Prairie Provinces for treaty land and settlement agreements. Prairie Provinces have access to pre-reserve designations meaning that they can have some assurances and potential use of the land that they have applied to own through the ATR process prior to the success of the application.[88]
- Challenges with addressing existing third-party interests, before reserve creation, leading to delays, uncertainty, frustration, and lost opportunities for First Nations and other stakeholders.
- Proposals to add urban reserves are often more complex, with additional features (e.g. municipal service agreement).

[88] INAC, 2013

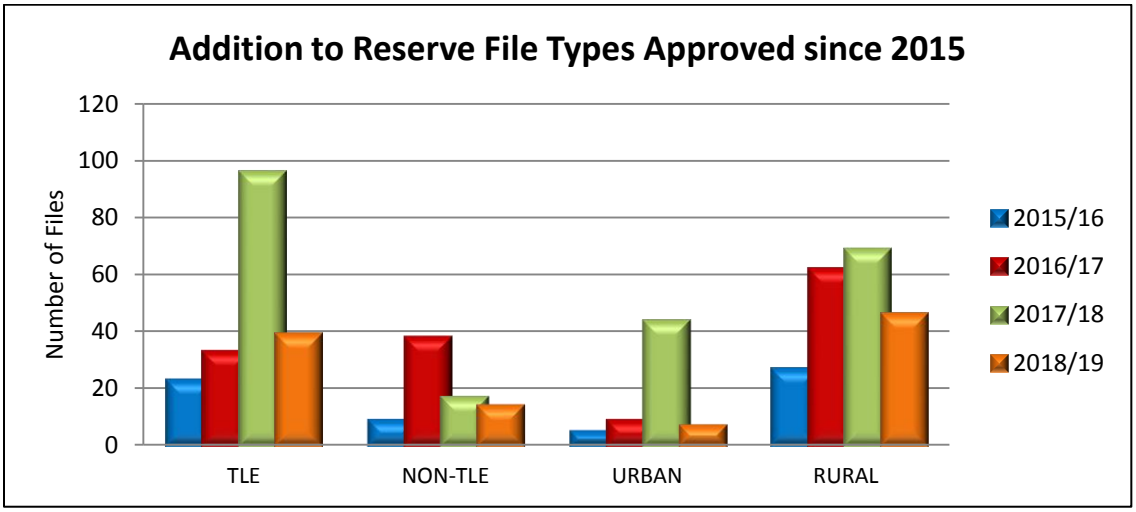
- Lack of core capacity in First Nations communities, program management/tracking tools, resources for land surveys, and environmental studies.

There are approximately 1,300 active Additions to Reserve submissions representing 1.3 million acres (5,260.9 square km) of land to be added to reserve. There are an additional estimated 2.7 million acres (10,926.5 square km) through Treaty Entitlement and Specific Claims, for a total of 4 million acres (16,187.4 square km) of land that are proposed to be added or used to create new reserves. Eighty percent of all Additions to Reserve files represent a legal obligation for the Crown which must be addressed.

Historically, Additions to Reserve have been almost exclusively rural, with large tracts of unencumbered parcels acquired for traditional purposes. This reality is changing rapidly with First Nations increasingly seeking land in both urban and rural settings for strategic economic development purposes. In the 2017-2018 fiscal year, more than 40 urban Addition to Reserves were completed, four times the amount from the previous fiscal year and nearly 10 times the amount from 2015-2016.

Treaty Land Entitlement (TLE) refers to a parcel of land that a reserve is entitled to through treaty agreements that were made either through historical treaties that were not fulfilled by the Federal Government or through modern treaty agreements. The Addition to Reserve files fit into either the category of Treaty Land Entitlements or non-Treaty Land Entitlements. The Addition to Reserve file can also either be categorized as urban or rural. Since 2015, 269 Additions to Reserve proposals have been approved with most additions categorized as Treaty Land Entitlements on rural lands (Figure 37).

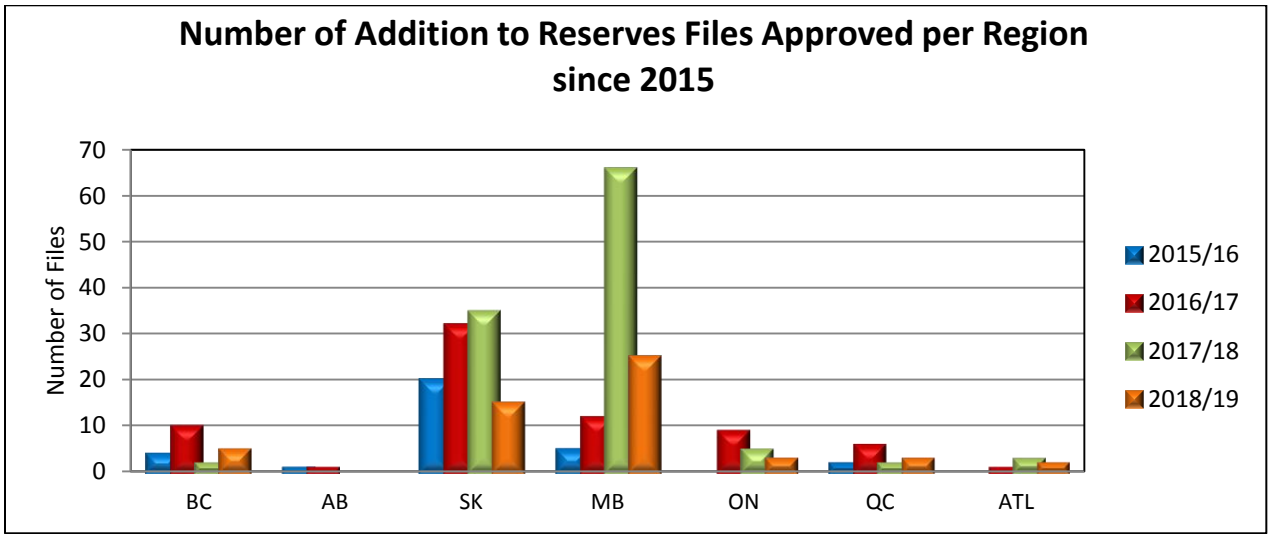
Figure 37: Addition to Reserves File Types Approved since 2015 (Treaty Land Entitlement (TLE))



Source: INAC, 2018

Many processed ATR files were approved in the 2017 to 2018 year. Following the change of government in late 2015, a concerted effort was made to process the backlog of ATR files to demonstrate a commitment to Indigenous economic reconciliation. A majority of the files were approved in Manitoba and Saskatchewan due to pre-reserve designations (Figure 38). Although previously only available in the Prairies, the national availability of pre-reserve designations is included in Bill C-86, which should further assist Indigenous communities to more confidently develop economic opportunities.

Figure 38: Number of Addition to Reserves Files Approved per Region since 2015



Source: INAC, 2018

On December 12th, 2018, Bill C-86 received Royal Assent which included the *Additions of Lands to Reserves and Reserve Creation Act*. This Act allows for approval for all Additions to Reserve/Reserve Creation proposals by way of Ministerial Order as opposed to Governor in Council approval. It allows for First Nations to designate land for leasing prior to the lands being added to reserves (also known as pre-reserve designation).

- There have been 269 Addition to Reserve Files approved since 2015 accounting for 4 million acres (16187.4 square km) to be added to reserve lands.
- A majority of the Addition to Reserve files approved have been in Manitoba and Saskatchewan due to the increased amount of Treaty Land Entitlements and pre-reserve designations.

Conclusions

Access to land and freedom to manage it is extremely important for Indigenous peoples to receive maximum benefits from economic development opportunities. More First Nations communities are starting to participate in legislation such as the First Nations Land Management Act that will assist communities in building capacity to best develop their land. Many more First Nations and Métis communities are in the process of attaining comprehensive land claim agreements and self-government agreements with the intent to have full governing authority over their lands, creating more opportunity to establish partnerships with other governments and the private sector. There is opportunity for First Nations to expand their land base through programs such as the Additions to Reserves. These programs are essential towards providing communities with more opportunities to leverage ownership of land towards Indigenous economic development projects.

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #5: INFRASTRUCTURE

Infrastructure and infrastructure related services, a type of capital that encompasses an array of different facilities including water, housing, education, transportation, health, connectivity and energy supply facilities, are identified as critical factors for economic development. The National Indigenous Economic Development Board has and continues to study infrastructure issues as they relate to Indigenous economic development. Although progress has been made, new approaches and renewed investment in infrastructure are needed—across the country in Indigenous communities and particularly in the North and in remote areas.

The closing of the infrastructure gap is a major priority for public policy in this country. Such policy formation requires detailed knowledge of the severity of the gaps so that changes can be monitored and resources can be allocated appropriately.[89]

Water and Wastewater

Accessible clean drinking water is vital not only for survival, but as an indirect measure of infrastructure, is also essential for economic prosperity. Access to clean, safe drinking water is recognized by the United Nations as a human right, and yet many Indigenous communities are still lacking access to clean water and sanitation.[90] At any given time there are more than 100 drinking water advisories in Indigenous communities across Canada, with entire generations in some communities having grown up under various degrees of drinking water advisories (DWA). The Neskantaga First Nation, with a population of about 240, in northern Ontario has had a DWA in place since 1996. That means one full generation has grown up under a DWA and a second generation is now growing up having never had access to reliable, safe drinking water.

A reliable and safe water supply is essential for human development. By limiting individuals' health, a deficient water supply also hinders the ability to effectively participate in the labour market and is a disincentive to economic growth. Moreover, poor water supply infrastructure may restrict the local cultivation of fruit and vegetables, increasing the dependency of remote communities on external food markets. [91] An improvement of the water infrastructure available to Indigenous communities could bring about major economic development advancements to the communities targeted.[92]

The 2015 Aboriginal Economic Progress Report was unable to provide updated estimates of the proportion of Indigenous Canadians reporting contaminated drinking water because these data were not collected in the 2011 National Household Survey or the 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey. However, the 2015 Progress Report found that 69 per cent of First Nations had drinking water infrastructure that

[89] Centre for the Study of Living Standards and BBMD Consulting (2011) "Aboriginal Economic Development Benchmarking Report," prepared for the National Aboriginal Economic Development Board.
[90] Office of the Parliamentary Budget Officer. (2017). Budget Sufficiency for First Nations Water and Wastewater.
[91] Bailie, R., Siciliano, F., Dane, G., Bevan, L., Paradies, Y. & Carson, B. (2002), Atlas of Health-Related Infrastructure in Discrete Indigenous Communities, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, Melbourne.
[92] Centre for the Study of Living Standards (CSLS). Methodological Issues in the Construction of an Indigenous Infrastructure Index. Report prepared by the CSLS for Crown-Indigenous Relations and Northern Affairs Canada. January 4, 2018.

met the prescribed standards in the Guidelines for Canadian Drinking Water Quality, up from 46 per cent in 2011 (an improvement of 23 percentage points), and that 124 First Nations Communities were under a drinking water advisory in mid-2014, down from 131 in 2011 (a reduction of approximately 5 percentage points). The 2022 target (set in the 2012 Benchmarking Report) that 100 per cent of First Nations communities have drinking water infrastructure that meets prescribed Health Canada standards remains unchanged. While there have been some improvements, the pace of these improvements would have to increase significantly to meet the 2022 target.[93]

The Guidelines for Canadian Drinking Water Quality (GCDWQ) sets guidelines for maximum acceptable concentrations of substances (microbiological, chemical and radiological contaminants) found in drinking water. They also address concerns with physical characteristics of water, such as taste and odour. Canada's decentralized system of water monitoring delegates authority and governance of water quality to provinces and territories which makes national level data reporting challenging. As of March 31, 2017, on average, Public Water Systems in First Nations communities were monitored for bacteria at 80% of the recommended frequency. This means that, although these systems were not in full compliance with the GCDWQ (i.e., achieving a frequency of 100%) sampling was conducted four times per month, 80% of the time.[94] The percentage of systems that were in full compliance (100%) with drinking water testing guidelines in 2013-2014 was 41%. The percentage of public drinking water systems on reserve with treated drinking water that meets prescribed standards in the GCDWQ remained steady at 92 percent between 2016–17 and 2017–18. This result is likely due to the ongoing increased efforts in relation to eliminating and preventing long-term drinking water advisories on reserve. All long-term drinking water advisories are committed to be lifted by March 2021 (Figure 39).

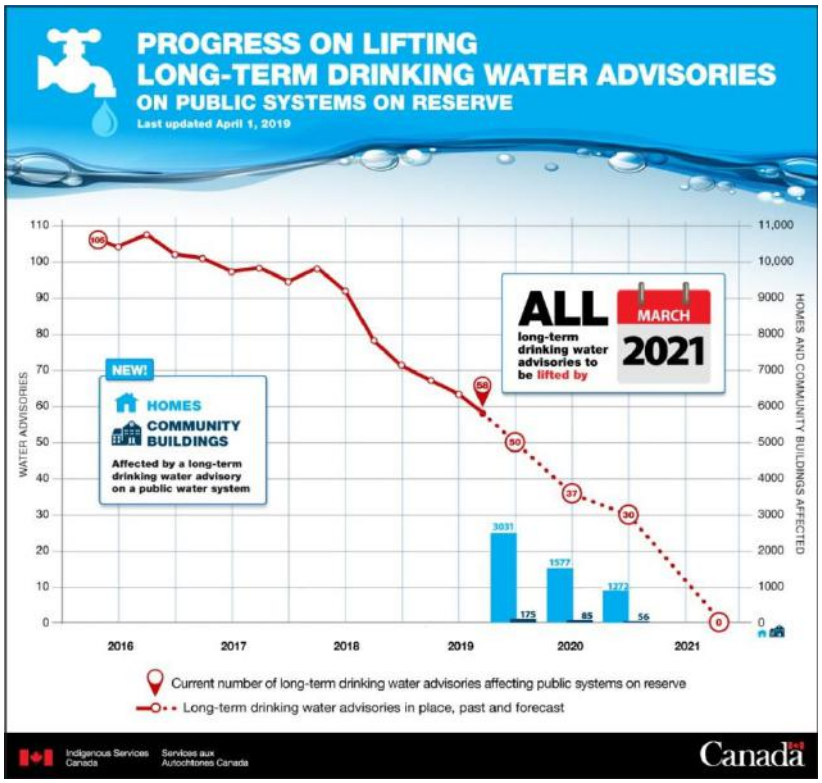
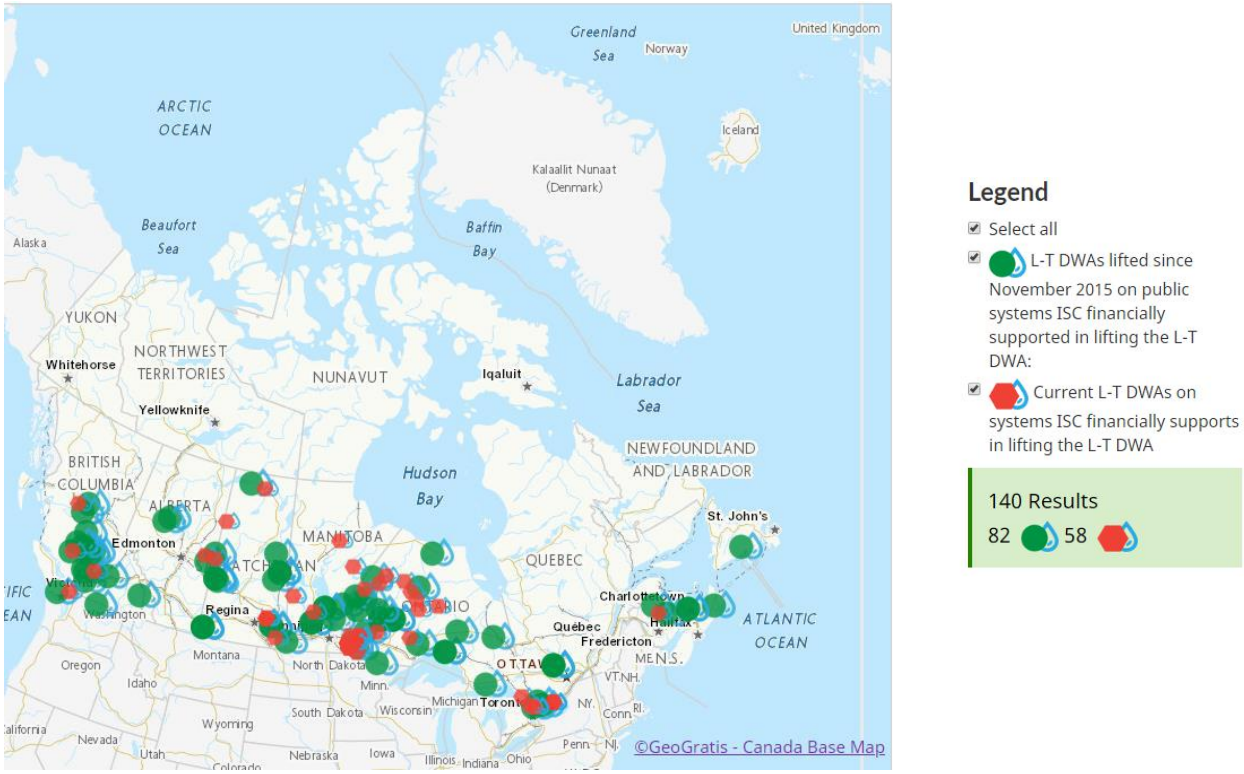


Figure 39: Progress on Lifting Long-Term Drinking Water Advisories

[93] Centre for the Study of Living Standards. Methodological Issues in the Construction of an Indigenous Infrastructure Index. Report prepared by the CSLS for Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada. January 4, 2018.
[94] https://infobase.phac-aspc.gc.ca/fnih-spni/indicator-details-en.aspx?id=46

In November 2015 there were 105 long-term drinking water advisories on public systems. As seen in the map (Figure 40), many long-term drinking water advisories have been in effect for more than 12 months. Indigenous Services Canada (ISC) provides funding for public water systems that serve five or more household service connections for residences that are occupied year round. ISC also provides funding for public water systems serving public facilities funded through ISC. These water systems are managed and operated by the band, a band-owned utility or qualified third party under contract.

Figure 40: Map of Highlights of Efforts, As of April 9, 2019



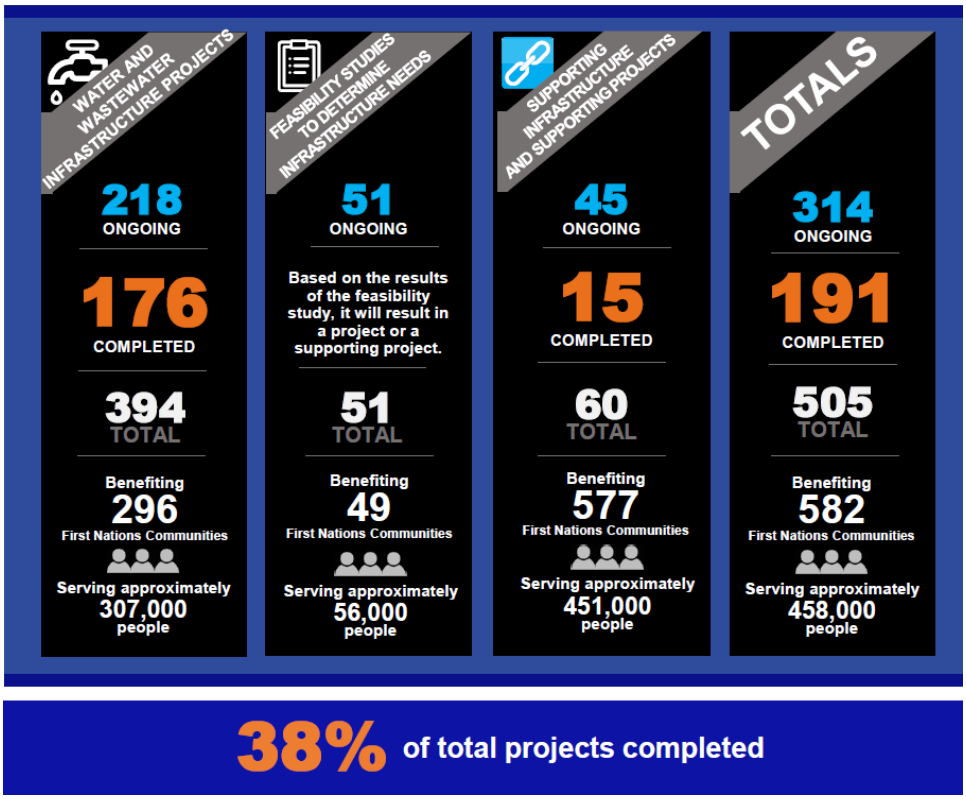
Source: Indigenous Services Canada. Exploring the map for highlights of efforts underway across Canada. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1506514143353/1533317130660

The Government of Canada is working with First Nations to end long-term drinking water advisories (LT-DWAs). $1.8 billion was invested in budget 2016 over five years for water and wastewater infrastructure on reserve to address health and safety needs, ensure proper facility operation and maintenance, and end long-term drinking water advisories on public systems on reserve. Budget 2017 invested an additional $4 billion over 10 years, starting in 2018-2019, to build and improve infrastructure in First Nation and Inuit communities. Budget 2018 invested an additional $172.6 million over three years, to improve access to clean and safe drinking water on reserve and accelerate the pace of construction and renovation of affected water systems.[95]

[95] Indigenous Services Canada. Investing in water and wastewater infrastructure. 2019. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1525346895916/1525346915212

As of April 1st, 2019, ISC announced that there are a total of 394 ongoing or completed water and wastewater projects to repair, upgrade or build infrastructure. There are a total of 60 ongoing or completed supporting initiatives (e.g. water operator training) and 51 ongoing or completed feasibility studies to determine infrastructure needs (Figure 41). As of February 22nd, 2019, ISC announced that all long-term drinking water advisories on public systems on reserve are to be lifted by March 2021. There have been 82 long-term drinking water advisories lifted since November 2015, with 58 long-term drinking water advisories remaining. [96] This represents 58% of long term water advisories lifted between November 2015 and April 2019.

Figure 41: National Assessment of Indigenous Water and Wastewater Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada. GCPedia. Water and Wasterwater Projects. 2018. http://www.gcpedia.gc.ca/gcwiki/images/8/8d/QUICK_FACTS-Water.pdf

- Clean, safe water is now available in more communities, as 82 long-term drinking water advisories were lifted between November 2015 and December 31, 2018.
- Fifty-eight long-term drinking water advisories remain, with ongoing efforts and commitments to lift all advisories by March 2021.

[96] Indigenous Services Canada. Ending long-term drinking water advisories. 2019. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1506514143353/1533317130660

Housing

Statistics Canada 2016 census counted 1.67 million Indigenous peoples in Canada in 2016, accounting for 4.9 percent of the total population, up from 3.8 percent in 2006. These values represent a growth rate of 42.5 percent over the last 10 years, which is four times the growth rate of the non-Indigenous population.[97]

With a growing Indigenous population, adequate housing is considered critical to socio-economic development. In particular, the suitability of housing has been strongly linked to health.[98] Health levels can be affected by physical aspects of housing, such as residential crowding and adequate levels of water, power and ventilation, and also by socio-cultural factors that include economic status and level of isolation. Temporary dwellings, specifically, have been identified by the *Atlas of Health-Related Infrastructure in Discrete Indigenous Communities* as being less favorable for health for a myriad of reasons including "structural safety; resistance to weather conditions; space constraints; lack of reticulated water and safe power supply; lack of internal structural features for food preparation, washing, disposal of waste, storage of food and other household items; and a number of other features".[99]

A significant infrastructure deficit in the North has resulted in substantial housing infrastructure needs that outpace investment and intervention. Many of the existing program funding mechanisms available to communities and regional governments in Canada's North appear to be overwhelmed by the magnitude of their infrastructure deficits in core areas – such as housing, ground and air transport, water, sewage, and solid waste management – leaving little room for consideration of strategic investments in infrastructure to support economic development.

Of the 1.6 million people who self-identified as Indigenous on the 2016 Census of Population, 324,900 lived in a dwelling that was in need of major repairs. This group accounted for 19.4% of the total Indigenous population in Canada. In comparison, 6% of the non-Indigenous population reported living in a dwelling in need of major repairs. Approximately one in four Inuit and four in ten First Nations (26.2% and 44.2%, respectively) lived in a dwelling in need of major repairs, with Métis exhibiting lower rates at 11.3% that are still almost double that of the non-Indigenous population (Figure 42).

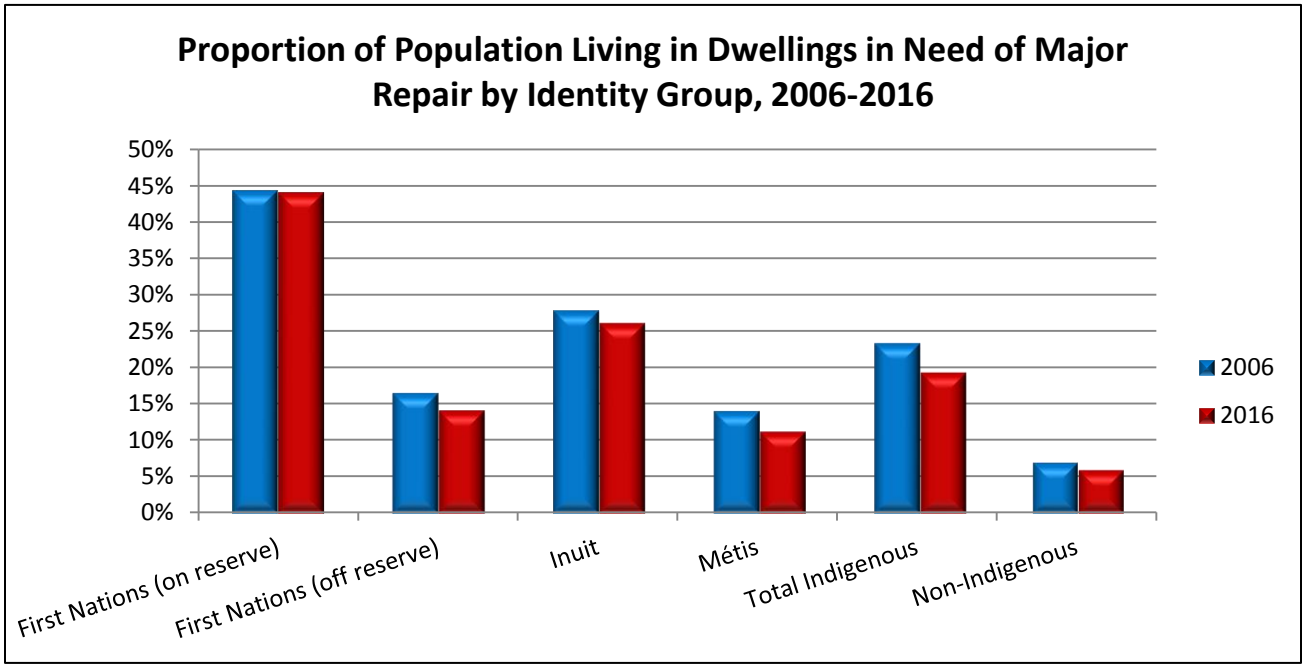
The majority (72.8%) of Inuit live in the Inuit Nunangat, where in 2016, 31.5% of Inuit lived in a dwelling in need of major repairs. The proportion living in a dwelling in need of major repairs was highest in Nunavut (34.3%), followed by Nunatsiavut (32.6%), the Inuvialuit region (31.8%) and Nunavik (23.9%).[100] This was in contrast to Inuit living outside the Inuit Nunangat, where 12.2% of dwellings were in need of major repair.

[97] Statistics Canada Census of Population, 2016.
[98] Bailie, R., Siciliano, F., Dane, G., Bevan, L., Paradies, Y. & Carson, B. (2002), Atlas of Health-Related Infrastructure in Discrete Indigenous Communities, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, Melbourne.
[99] Bailie, R., Siciliano, F., Dane, G., Bevan, L., Paradies, Y. & Carson, B. (2002), Atlas of Health-Related Infrastructure in Discrete Indigenous Communities, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, Melbourne.
[100] https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016021/98-200-x2016021-eng.cfm#moreinfo

Of all First Nations living in Canada, one in four (24.2%) lived in a dwelling in need of major repairs in 2016. There was a pronounced difference in the dwelling conditions of those who lived on reserve and those who did not. Statistics Canada identified that First Nations people were more than three times as likely to live in a home that needed major repairs if that home was on reserve than if it was off reserve (44.2% versus 14.2%).[101]

One-tenth (11.3%) of the Métis population lived in a dwelling in need of major repairs in 2016. Métis living in metropolitan areas fared better with 9.7% living in a dwelling in need of major repairs, whereas outside the metropolitan area the rate was 13.9%. This is likely influenced by the majority (62.6%) of Métis living in a metropolitan area with a population of at least 30,000 people according to the 2016 census. The majority of Métis (59.7%) live in the western provinces, where the proportion of Métis living in a dwelling in need of major repairs was 10.8%. Métis living in the Territories fared the worst where 18.7% of the population lived in housing that was in need of major repairs.[102]

Figure 42: Proportion of Population Living in Dwellings in Need of Major Repair by Identity Group, 2006-2016



Source: Statistics Canada, 2016 Census of Population: Catalogue number 98-400-X2016166, 2006 Census of Population: Catalogue number 97-558-XCB2006022.

Overcrowding

According to the National Occupancy Standard, in 2016, close to one‑fifth (18.3%) of the Indigenous population lived in housing that was considered not suitable for the number of people who lived there. Housing suitability, a measure of crowding, refers to whether the dwelling has enough bedrooms for the

[101] https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016021/98-200-x2016021-eng.cfm#moreinfo
[102] Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2016. The housing conditions of Aboriginal people in Canada.https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016021/98-200-x2016021-eng.cfm

size and composition of the household; households that are not in suitable housing are considered to be crowded. Crowded housing is categorized into dwellings that have a one-bedroom shortfall, a two-bedroom shortfall or a shortfall of three or more bedrooms. Therefore a house with a one-bedroom shortfall would require a single extra bedroom in order to adequately house the number of people who live there.

Just over one in ten (11.5%) Indigenous peoples lived in housing with a one-bedroom shortfall; 4.0% lived in housing with a two-bedroom shortfall; and 2.8% lived in a dwelling with a shortfall of three or more bedrooms. While a lower proportion of the non-Indigenous population lived in housing that was crowded (8.5%), the distribution of the types of shortfalls was similar.

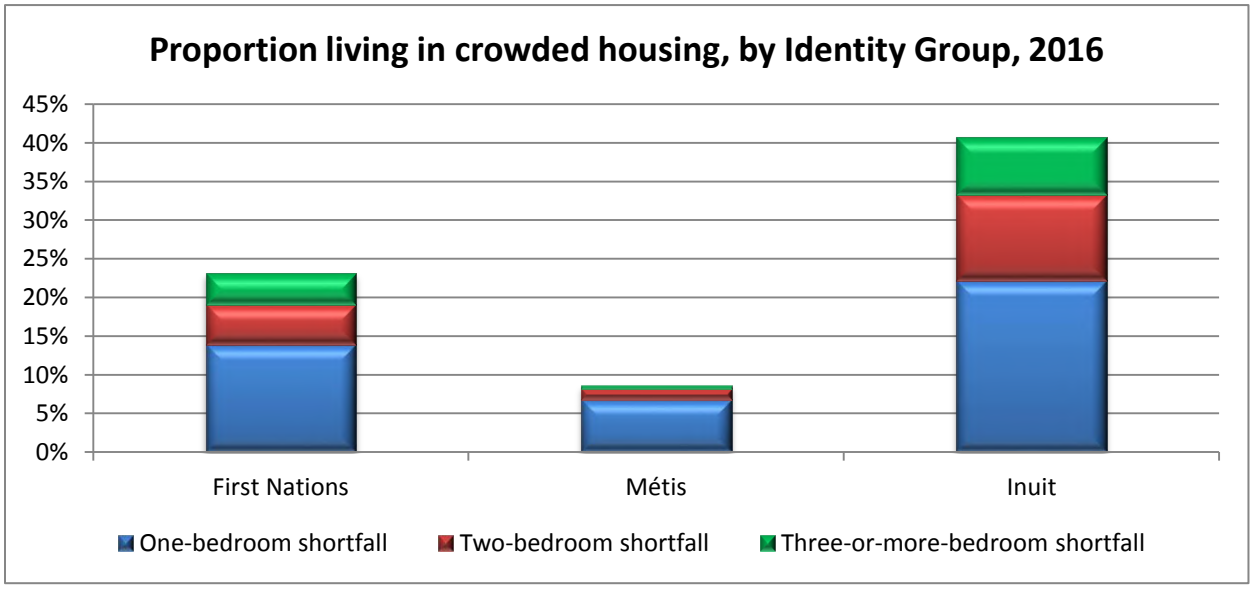
In 2016, Inuit living in Inuit Nunangat were more likely to live in crowded housing than those who lived elsewhere in Canada. Two-fifth (40.6%) of the total Inuit population lived in crowded housing: one-fifth (22.2%) lived in housing with a one-bedroom shortfall, 11.1% had a shortfall of two bedrooms and 7.4% had a shortfall of three bedrooms or more (Figure 43). The proportion of Inuit living in crowded housing declined by 2.0 percentage points from 2011 to 2016. Within Inuit Nunangat, half (51.7%) of the Inuit population lived in crowded housing in contrast with a crowding rate of 10.9% for Inuit living outside of Inuit Nunangat. One-fifth (20.6%) of Inuit living in Nunatsiavut and 28.6% of those living in the Inuvialuit region lived in crowded housing in 2016, while the highest levels of Inuit living in crowded housing were in Nunavik (52.0%) and Nunavut (56.4%).[103]

One-quarter (23.1%) of First Nations people lived in crowded housing in 2016. This figure was 2.5 percentage points lower than in 2011. The proportion of First Nations people with registered or treaty Indian status living in a crowded dwelling was higher on reserve (36.8%) than off reserve (18.5%). On reserve, the proportion living in crowded housing was virtually unchanged from 2011 to 2016. Off reserve, the proportion went down by 3.5 percentage points from 2011 to 2016.

About one in ten (8.6%) Métis lived in housing that was crowded. While Métis living in a rural area were the most likely to live in a dwelling that was in need of major repairs, those who lived in metropolitan areas of 30,000 or more people were most likely to be in housing that was crowded. In metropolitan areas, 8.7% of Métis lived in crowded housing compared with 8.3% of those who did not live in such areas. The lowest proportion of Métis living in crowded housing was in Québec (4.8%). In the Atlantic Provinces, 6.2% lived in crowded housing; while, in Ontario, this figure was 7.4%. In the Western Provinces, 9.9% of the Métis population lived in crowded housing, as did 11.4% of Métis in the Territories.[104]

[103] https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016021/98-200-x2016021-eng.cfm#moreinfo
[104] Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2016. The housing conditions of Aboriginal people in Canada.https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016021/98-200-x2016021-eng.cfm

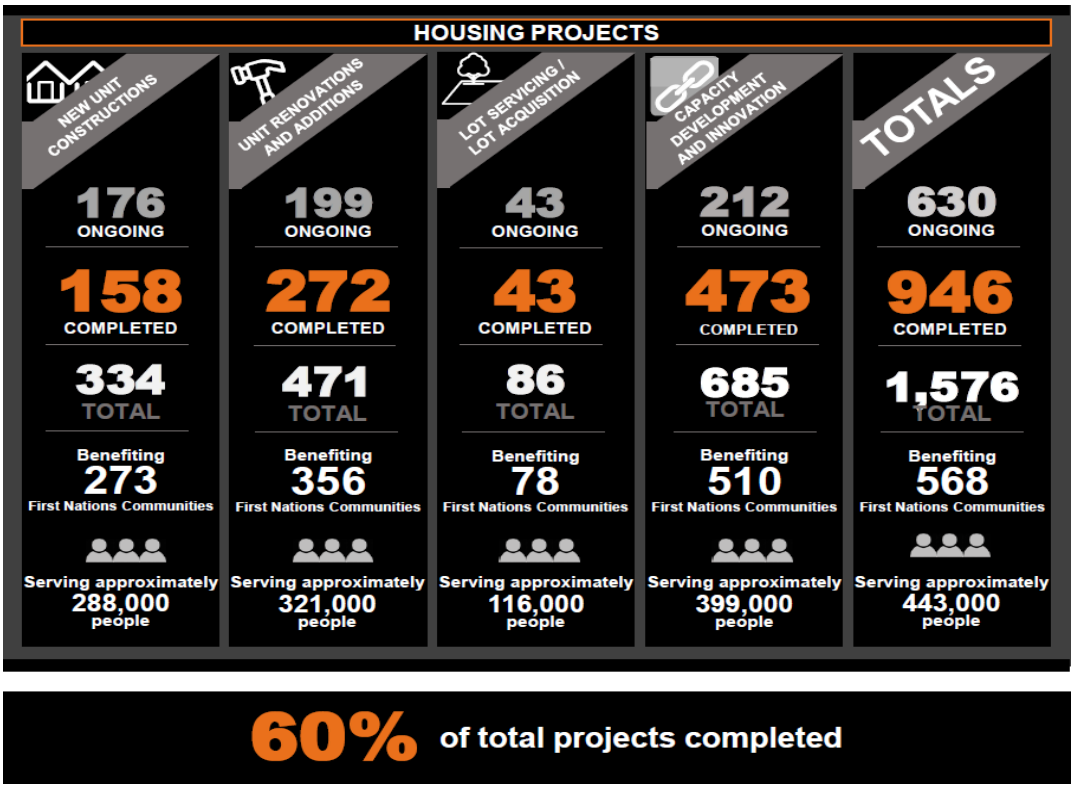
Figure 43: Proportion of Population Living in Crowded Housing by Identity group, 2016



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2016. Proportion of First Nations People, Métis and Inuit Living in Crowded Housing.
*First Nations on reserve only.

Budget 2016 provided $416.6 million over two years, through the former Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada (now Indigenous Services Canada), targeted to improve housing conditions on reserve, reduce overcrowding and increase health and safety. This was in addition to an approximate $143 million annually provided by ISC to First Nations to support a range of housing needs. Budget 2017 and Budget 2018 provided dedicated funding of $600 million over three years to support First Nations housing on reserve as part of a Housing Strategy that is being developed with First Nations. As of December 31, 2018, $547.4 million of targeted funds has been invested to support housing-related infrastructure projects. Housing projects include 334 new unit construction projects, 471 unit renovations and additions projects, 86 lot servicing and lot acquisition projects and 685 capacity development and innovation projects (Figure 44). In April 2019, the Minister of Indigenous Services Canada announced the launch of the Indigenous Homes Innovation Initiative. The program aims to find and support First Nations, Inuit and Métis Nation innovators who have housing ideas for rural, urban or remote Indigenous communities. Selected innovators will receive funding for both the development of their ideas and the implementation of their projects. The objective is to introduce new ideas, designs and building techniques for effective, sustainable and/or culturally inspired living spaces for Indigenous peoples that are led by Indigenous peoples.

Figure 44: National Assessment of Indigenous Housing Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada. GCPedia. Housing Projects. 2018. http://www.gcpedia.gc.ca/gcwiki/images/b/b0/QUICK_FACTS-Housing.pdf

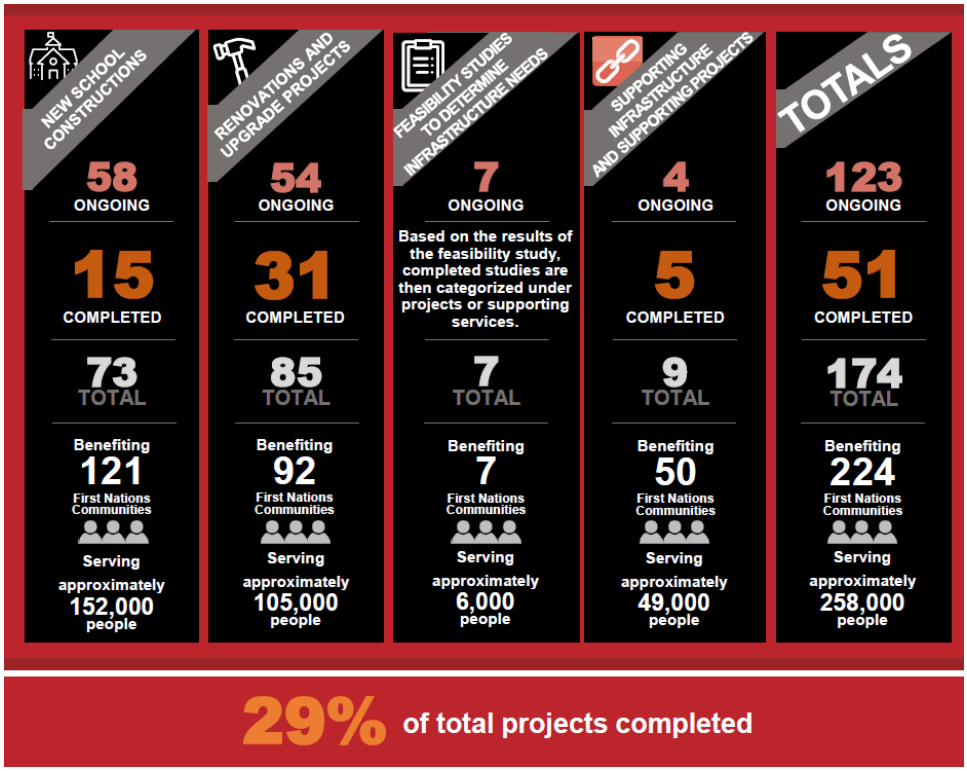
- As of December 31st, 2018, there are a total of 568 First Nations communities benefitting from the 1,576 housing projects. 946 projects have been completed and 630 are still ongoing.
- For the total Indigenous population in Canada, 19.4% reporting living in a dwelling in need of major repairs in comparison to 6% for the non-Indigenous population. Approximately one in four Inuit and four in ten First Nations (26.2% and 44.2%, respectively) lived in a dwelling in need of major repairs.
- Close to one fifth (18.3%) of the Indigenous population lived in housing that was considered overcrowded.

Education

First Nations own and operate education facilities on reserve and are responsible for managing projects to renovate or build new facilities. The Government of Canada provides funding to First Nations to build new schools, renovate and expand existing facilities, and operate and maintain existing education infrastructure. Education infrastructure can include school facilities such as classrooms, gyms, science labs, sports fields, home economics and shop facilities. As part of the Enhanced Education Infrastructure

Fund, ISC has also established an Innovation Fund to provide funding to First Nations communities to build school facilities that are innovative, promote education reform or achieve cost savings.[105]

Figure 45: National Assessment of Indigenous Education-Related Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada. GCPedia. Education-Related Projects. 2018. http://www.gcpedia.gc.ca/gcwiki/images/4/4e/QUICK_FACTS-Education.pdf

As of December 31st, 2018, 51 education-related government infrastructure projects have been completed. With 224 First Nations communities benefitting, there are currently 174 ongoing and completed projects: 73 new school construction projects, 85 renovation and upgrading projects, 7 feasibility studies to determine infrastructure needs, and 9 supporting projects (Figure 45).[106] Through Budget 2016, the Government of Canada invested $969.4 million over five years in First Nations education infrastructure, for the construction, repair and maintenance of First Nations school facilities. This will continue to create quality learning environments and promote better educational outcomes for First Nations students living on reserves.

- Fifteen new schools have been built and 31 schools have been renovated or upgraded so more children have access to local education.

[105] Indigenous Services Canada. First Nations Enhanced Education Infrastructure Fund. 2018. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1456150810793/1533641989260

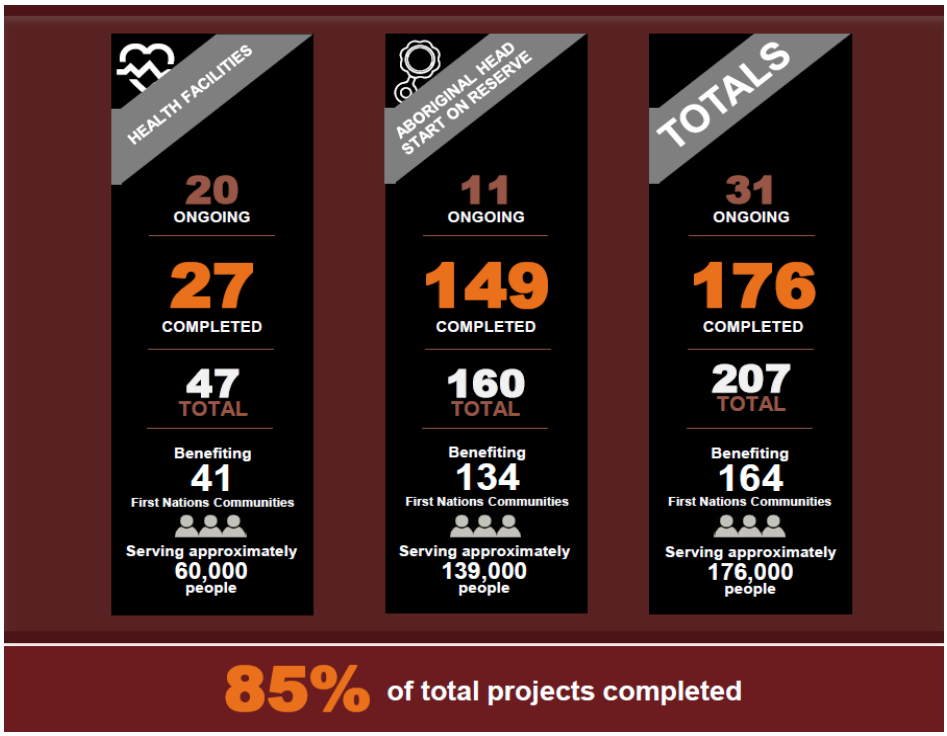
[106] Indigenous Services Canada. Investing in education infrastructure. 2019. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1540407472983/1540407529448

Health

Access to responsive health services, an interdisciplinary healthcare work force, and safe and modern health infrastructure are fundamental to sustainable and effective health systems. Within the specific context of Indigenous health, increased First Nations and Inuit ownership, control and management of health services, as well as the inclusion of systems addressing the social determinants of health are foundational to the elimination of disparities in health outcomes.[107]

Progress has been made in recent years to improve health outcomes for First Nations and Inuit health. For example, the number of mental wellness teams have grown, a First Nations and Inuit Hope For Wellness Help Line is now operating in English, French, Cree, Ojibwe, and Inuktitut, and over 99 percent of requests for supports or services for children have been approved under Jordan's Principle. Despite notable progress made in First Nations and Inuit health in recent years, significant gaps remain in the overall health status of Indigenous peoples compared to non-Indigenous Canadians. Life expectancy can be up to 10 years shorter for Indigenous peoples; the infant mortality rates are two to three times higher for First Nations and Inuit; the diabetes rate among First Nations is nearly four times higher; and the tuberculosis rate for Inuit is over 290 times higher than for non-Indigenous Canadian-born individuals.[108]

Figure 46: National Assessment of Indigenous Health Infrastructure Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada. GC Pedia. Health Projects. 2018. http://www.gcpedia.gc.ca/gcwiki/images/9/98/QUICK_FACTS_HEALTH.PDF

[107] Indigenous Services Canada 2018-19 Departmental Plan. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/DAM/DAM-ISC-SAC/DAM-ROOT/STAGING/texte-text/isc-dp2018-19_pdf_1523898419512_eng.pdf

[108] Indigenous Services Canada 2018-19 Departmental Plan. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/DAM/DAM-ISC-SAC/DAM-ROOT/STAGING/texte-text/isc-dp2018-19_pdf_1523898419512_eng.pdf

Budget 2016 allocated $319.9 million over five years to build, repair or renovate First Nations health infrastructure such as First Nations health centres, nursing stations, addictions treatment centres and Aboriginal Head Start On Reserve programs. Budget 2017 provided an additional $153 million for health-related infrastructure projects on reserves. As of December 31st, 2018, 176 out of 207 health-related infrastructure projects have been completed, with 31 still ongoing. A total of 164 First Nations communities are benefitting (Figure 46).[109]

- One hundred seventy-six projects were completed to help design, replace, expand or renovate health facilities as well as facilities hosting Aboriginal Head Start on Reserve (AHSOR) programming.

Connectivity

Information and communication infrastructure (ICI), defined as "telecommunications, internet, broadcasting and other networks through which information is transmitted, stored and delivered" [110], has become increasingly important in the economic development and the social cohesion of communities in the information age. Improving telecommunications networks can have positive effects on the education, health care, business opportunities, governance and cultural life of Indigenous communities by allowing them to access and share personal, official, and market-related information more easily, faster, and at lower costs.[111] In general, information and communication technology (ICT) is considered to be a significant driver of innovation, social inclusion and productivity. [112]

It is imperative that Indigenous communities in Canada have access to reliable high-speed internet. The federal government views broadband as a critical tool for Indigenous peoples as broadband infrastructure can improve health and safety, increase social well-being and provide economic development opportunities and growth for those communities.

There are two key factors that determine the quality of broadband connectivity: speed and data allowance (or capacity). High-speed internet is crucial for households to enjoy increasingly digitized services related to education, public information, and media. For all Indigenous learners, but also specifically those that may live in remote communities, having access to the world-wide web will help them reach their full academic potential and acquire the knowledge and skills required to compete in today's labour market. By bridging the digital divide, Indigenous communities will be able to fully participate in e-services delivery in the following fields: E-Health, E-Learning, E-water remote monitoring systems, E-Commerce, and E-Banking. Moreover, small businesses and employees working remotely require high-speed connection to exploit digital business tools and applications (e.g. conference calls, real-time collaborative work, and cloud-based tools). According to the Canadian Radio and Telecommunications Commission, "some representatives of smaller communities and communities

[109] https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/eng/1540411586036/1540411606911
[110] The Information and Communication Infrastructure (ICI): Perspectives for Latina America. Financing the Information Society in Latina America: Challenges and New Models. ECLAC. Guislain, Pierre. (2003).
[111] Telecommunications Policy Review Panel. Final Report. (2006).
[112] Journal of Economic Perspectives—Volume 22, Number 1. A Retrospective Look at the U.S. Productivity Grwoth Resurgence. Jorgenson, Dale W. Ho, Mun S. Stiroh, Kevin J, (2008).

outside large urban centres submitted that the lack of availability of higher speeds constitutes a barrier to attracting businesses and investors into their communities."[113] Therefore, speed is a crucial factor that determines the quality of broadband connectivity.

Remote areas are more likely to have speeds that are inadequate for currently available digital services and tools. Due to rough terrains and lack of related infrastructure, communities in remote areas are likely to have poor or minimal broadband infrastructure (i.e. backbone and last-mile infrastructure), or they are more likely to rely on satellite-based networks.[114] Satellite-based communication is best suited for areas with rough terrains where it is difficult to lay wires (e.g. fiber optic); however, satellite-based communications have much lower data rates (i.e. the speed with which data can be transmitted from one device to another) and more propagation delays, compared to cable or fiber-based communications.

Digital services offered over the internet increasingly require substantial amounts of download and upload capacity. Not only adequate speed but also data allowance (or capacity) is crucial for communities in remote regions to consume the data required to satisfy their educational, cultural, and social needs.

It is shown that in the Northern region where the average number of people per household is higher than the rest of Canada, many residents in a home may be sharing a single internet connection. This implies that they quickly exhaust their monthly data allowance, making access to broadband less available for participating in today's digital economy (e.g. E-health, E-finance, online learning platforms, streaming media sites). The Nunavut Broadband Development Corporation states that consumers in satellite-served, remote, and predominantly Indigenous communities face the most restrictive data allowances among Canada's peers in the Group of Eight and in the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD).[115]

Moreover, while almost all cable and fibre-based broadband internet service subscribers in urban centres can choose various data allowance packages including packages with an unlimited data allowance or data add-ons, many Canadians in rural or remote areas do not have these choices.[116]

Inadequate speed and data capacity limit both social and economic development. For example, limited data capacity and inadequate speed may prevent farmers in remote areas from adopting increasingly digitalized operations in agriculture (e.g. computerized farm systems which require high data capacity). Hence, they become less efficient than those in areas with access to higher quality broadband services.

[113] Canadian Radio and Telecommunications Commission (2018). Telecom Regulatory Policy CRTC 2016-496. Modern Telecommunications services – The path forward for Canada's digital economy https://crtc.gc.ca/eng/archive/2016/2016-496.pdf

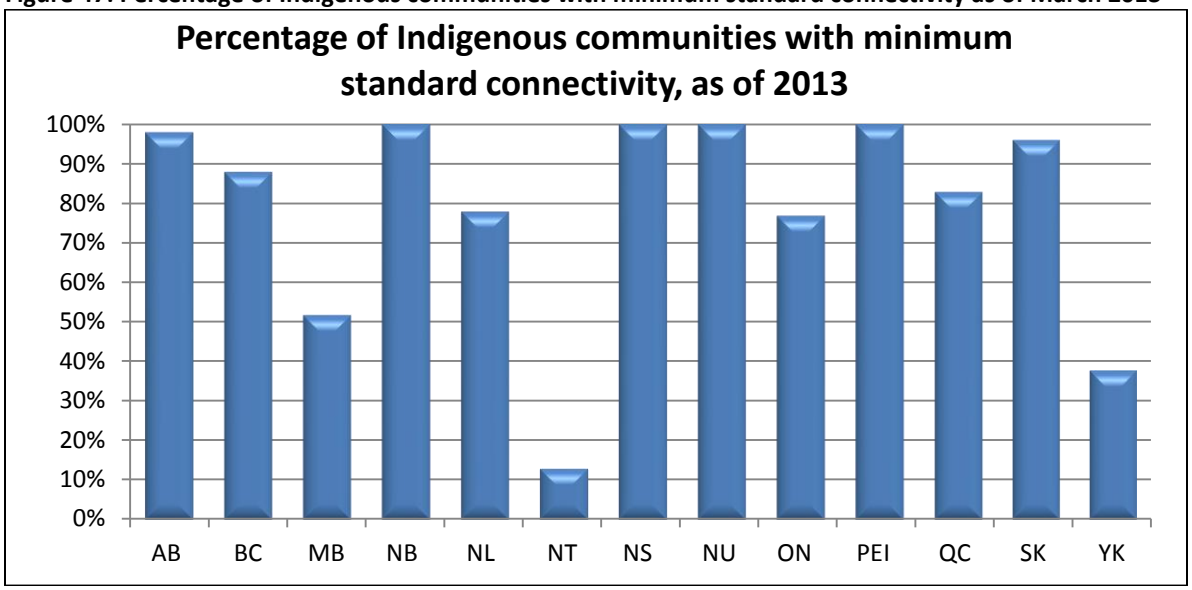
[114] Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission. Communications Monitoring Report. (2018).

[115] The Group of Eight (G8) includes: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, and the United Kingdom, and the United States.

[116] Canadian Radio and Telecommunications Commission (2018). Telecom Regulatory Policy CRTC 2016-496. Modern Telecommunications services – The path forward for Canada's digital economy https://crtc.gc.ca/eng/archive/2016/2016-496.pdf

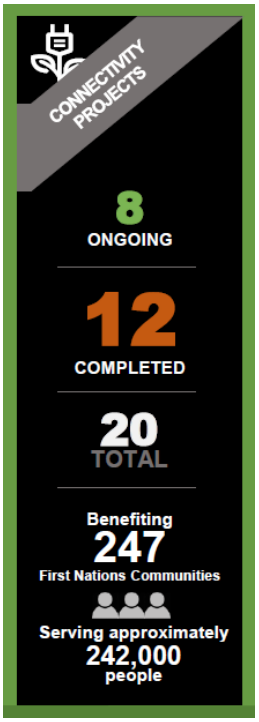
In general, remote areas would be less attractive to businesses, talent, and tourists due to poor broadband services, hampering economic activities and innovation.

Figure 47: Percentage of Indigenous communities with minimum standard connectivity as of March 2013



Source: Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada. Connectivity for Aboriginal and Northern Communities in Canada 2013. https://www.aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/eng/1352214337612/1353504776242

Figure 48: National Assessment of Connectivity Projects, As of December 31, 2018



There is scarce information available on the digital gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians. The 2015 NIEDB Progress Report was unable to update the 2006 estimates of computer and internet use for Indigenous groups, as the original source of the data (Aboriginal Peoples Survey) no longer asks questions on computer and internet use. The 2015 Progress Report was able to identify that in 2012, 86 per cent of First Nations communities had access to broadband connectivity at the minimum standard speed identified by Industry Canada (1.5 Mbps).[117] Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada is currently mapping progress by visually highlighting which communities are connected through its Connectivity for Aboriginal and Northern Communities in Canada project. [118]

All Indigenous communities in only 4 out of 13 provinces and territories are 100% equipped with broadband infrastructure networks (Figure 47). Inadequate speed and data capacity limits both social and economic development in areas without information and communication infrastructure. In general, remote areas would be less attractive to businesses, talents, and tourists due to poor broadband services, hampering economic activities and innovation.[119] As of December 31st, there are a total of twenty connectivity projects, twelve of which have been completed. With

[117] Centre for the Study of Living Standards (2013) "The Contribution of Broadband to the Economic Development of First Nations in Canada" report prepared for the Assembly of First Nations http://www.csls.ca/reports/csls201

[118] https://www.aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/eng/1352214337612/1353504776242

[119] Centre for the Study of Living Standards. Methodological Issues in the Construction of an Indigenous Infrastructure Index. Report prepared by the CSLS for Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada. January 4, 2018.

Source: Indigenous Services Canada.

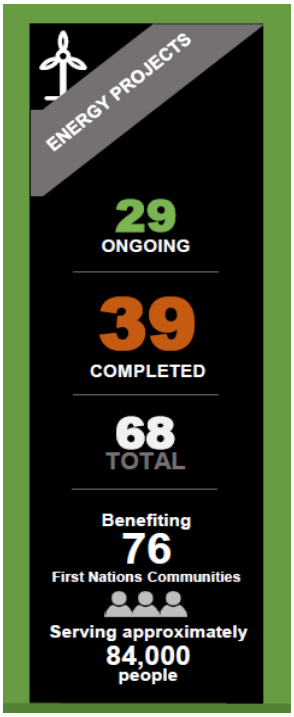
60% completion, there are a total of two-hundred and forty-seven First Nations communities benefitting (Figure 48).

- Of a total of twenty connectivity projects, twelve of which have been completed. With 60% completion, there are a total of two-hundred and forty-seven First Nations communities benefitting.

Energy

Energy is an essential input for the production of all goods and services in an economy and it is dependent upon reliable infrastructure for its consumption and production. Inadequate power supplies can hinder a firm's productivity and limit its market growth opportunities.[120] In addition to its impacts on the economy, a reliable and safe supply of electrical power is also essential for the daily functioning of households. From cooking to lighting, an array of household activities depend on electrical power and have important consequences on the well-being of the members of the household. Furthermore, the absence of an electrical power supply can lead people to rely on alternative energy sources, such as diesel fuel, incurring higher costs and posing risks to their health. [121] With close to 300 remote off-grid communities, of which 60 per cent are Indigenous, improvements in the Canadian energy infrastructure could contribute positively to the economic development of Indigenous communities. [122]

Figure 49: National Assessment of Connectivity Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada.

Budget 2016 provided $255 million over two years to support energy, sustainability and connectivity infrastructure, and fundamental community infrastructure. Investments included increasing access to the internet and support for infrastructure investments in energy efficiency and alternative energy projects including wind, solar, biomass and geothermal. Budget 2017 provided $91.6 million over three years for energy, sustainability and connectivity infrastructure, culture and recreation facilities, and fundamental community infrastructure on reserve. These budget commitments are in addition to the $158 million remaining from Budget 2013.

As of December 31st, 2018 there are a total of 68 ongoing or completed energy projects. With 39 projects completed and 29 still ongoing, there are 76 First Nations communities benefitting (Figure 49).

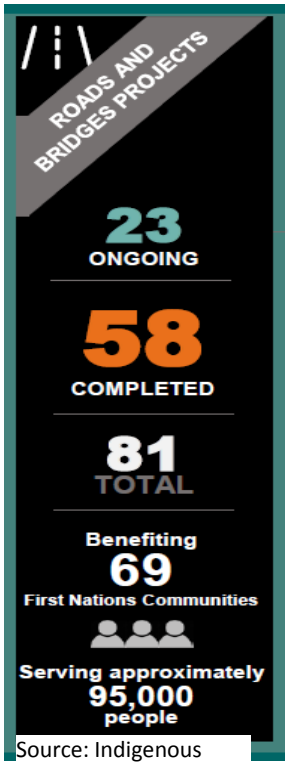
- There are a total of sixty-eight energy projects, thirty-nine of which have been completed. There are a total of seventy-six First Nations communities benefitting.

[120] Escribano, Alvaro & Guasch, Jose & Pena, Jorge. (2009). Assessing the Impact of Infrastructure Quality on Firm Productivity in Africa. Documentos de trabajo. Economic series (Universidad Carlos III. Departamento de Economía), Nº. 86, 2009.
[121] Bailie, R., Siciliano, F., Dane, G., Bevan, L., Paradies, Y. & Carson, B. (2002), Atlas of Health-Related Infrastructure in Discrete Indigenous Communities, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, Melbourne.
[122] Centre for the Study of Living Standards. Methodological Issues in the Construction of an Indigenous Infrastructure Index. Report prepared by the CSLS for Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada. January 4, 2018.

Transportation

Accessible and efficient road networks and transportation systems play a key role in the functioning of any contemporary economy. Given the remoteness by which most Indigenous communities are characterized, they can be particularly dependent on their road connections to access goods and services. Improving road networks can increase road transport productivity, decreasing the cost of transporting goods. Furthermore, better transport connections promote integration into world markets.

Figure 50: National Assessment of Roads and Bridges Projects, As of December 31, 2018



Source: Indigenous Services Canada.

A significant number of empirical studies have shown that public investment in the rehabilitation of rural roads leads to different types of improvements in local communities and development of markets. In Vietnam, better rural roads lead to increases in the availability of food, primary school completion rates and farmers' wages.[123] Studies in Peru and Georgia have found that improvements in roads in rural areas lead to greater opportunities in non-agricultural activities in general and for women specifically. [124,125]

The infrastructure gaps in Canada's northern Indigenous communities cut across multiple areas of concern. Transportation infrastructure is sparse throughout large sections of the territories and in Northern provincial regions. In Nunavut, for example, there are no roads linking any of the territory's communities to one another or to points south. Yet, despite its considerable dependence on marine transport, the territory has no deepwater ports and little in the way of harbour facilities. Deficits in these kinds of critical infrastructure are facts of life across Canada's North and for many of the country's rural and remote Indigenous communities.[126]

In an effort to improve transportation infrastructure in First Nations communities, there are currently eighty-one ongoing and completed roads and bridges projects as of December 31st, 2018. Fifty-eight projects have already been finished with only twenty-three to be completed. Approximately 95, 000 Indigenous peoples and sixty-nine First Nations communities will be benefitting from these projects (Figure 50).

- There are a total of eighty-one roads and bridges projects, fifty-eight of which have been completed. With 72% completion, there are a total of sixty-nine First Nations communities benefitting.

[123] Mu, R., & Van de Walle, D. (2007). *Rural roads and poor area development in Vietnam*. The World Bank.
[124] Escobal, J., & Ponce, C. (2002). The benefits of rural roads: enhancing income opportunities for the rural poor.
[125] Lokshin, M., & Yemtsov, R. (2005). Has rural infrastructure rehabilitation in Georgia helped the poor?. The World Bank Economic Review, 19(2), 311-333.
[126] The Conference Board of Canada. Rethinking Infrastructure Financing. Canada's Northern and Aboriginal Communities. 2017.

Road to Tuktoyaktuk

An all-weather road between Inuvik and Tuktoyaktuk was proposed as a priority goal for the residents of the Inuvialuit Settlement Region in the 1960s. The all-season Inuvik Tuktoyaktuk Highway (ITH) is now a new, 138-kilometre highway from Inuvik to Tuktoyaktuk which opened to the public on November 15, 2017. The highway goes through approximately 71 km of Inuvialuit private lands.

There have been socio-economic benefits for the residents of the Inuvialuit Settlement Region since the inception of the project. The highway has provided employment, including long-term positions for over 1000 people. The highway has reduced the cost of living for the residents of Tuktoyaktuk as goods can be delivered all year around. There has been an increase in access to health care, education and economic opportunities. There has also been an increase in tourism in the region, with an estimate of approximately $2.7 million annually which would create 22 employment opportunities in the tourism sector. The regional commercial and business hub of Inuvik has been strengthened and has expanded. [127]

Conclusions

Reliable infrastructure for Indigenous peoples is a foundation for improving quality of life and socio-economic outcomes in other key priority areas. Gaps in this area remain significant. Despite recent historical investments in Indigenous infrastructure through Budget 2016 and 2017 there is still much work to be done on reserve as well as Inuit and Métis communities. Although there has been a significant amount of funding dedicated to addressing infrastructure, there is still a large gap that remains across all three identity groups when comparing to non-Indigenous communities. The infrastructure gaps are further articulated in the following chapter on the infrastructure index. Major repairs and new builds are required in housing, water and waste water, roads, energy systems, and broadband connectivity. Overcrowding, due to a shortage of available housing, is one of the most critical needs, which has immediate ripple effects on illnesses like tuberculosis, as well as on education attendance and performance, family well-being, and economic development. Access to clean drinking water is also a critical issue. The Government of Canada is on track with its commitment to end all long-term drinking water advisories on public systems on reserve by March 2021, with 78 having been lifted to date. As of March 22, 2018, there were 78 long-term drinking water advisories in effect, on public systems on reserve, some of which have been in effect for more than 20 years.[128]

It is important to note that these aren't just statistics and snapshots of infrastructure projects. They highlight healthy, safe and prosperous First Nations communities. Behind the numbers are real lives being changed for the better with many others in need. For many First Nations communities, transformational change is needed to ensure basic infrastructure needs are met, and existing infrastructure is repaired and improved. These snapshots reflect how these changes are revitalizing a nation-to-nation relationship between First Nations and Canada.[129]

- 96% of all First Nations across Canada have received targeted funds from ISC or CIRNAC for at least one infrastructure project since April 2016, including capacity development projects. Looking at physical infrastructure only — bricks and mortar: 51% of all First Nations received funding for water and wastewater projects, 67% of all First Nations received funding for housing projects, 31% of all First Nations received funding for school projects

[127] "Inuvik Tuktoyaktuk Highway Project | Infrastructure". Inf.Gov.Nt.Ca, 2019, https://www.inf.gov.nt.ca/en/ITH.

[128] Indigenous Services Canada 2018-19 Departmental Plan. https://www.sac-isc.gc.ca/DAM/DAM-ISC-SAC/DAM-ROOT/STAGING/texte-text/isc-dp2018-19_pdf_1523898419512_eng.pdf

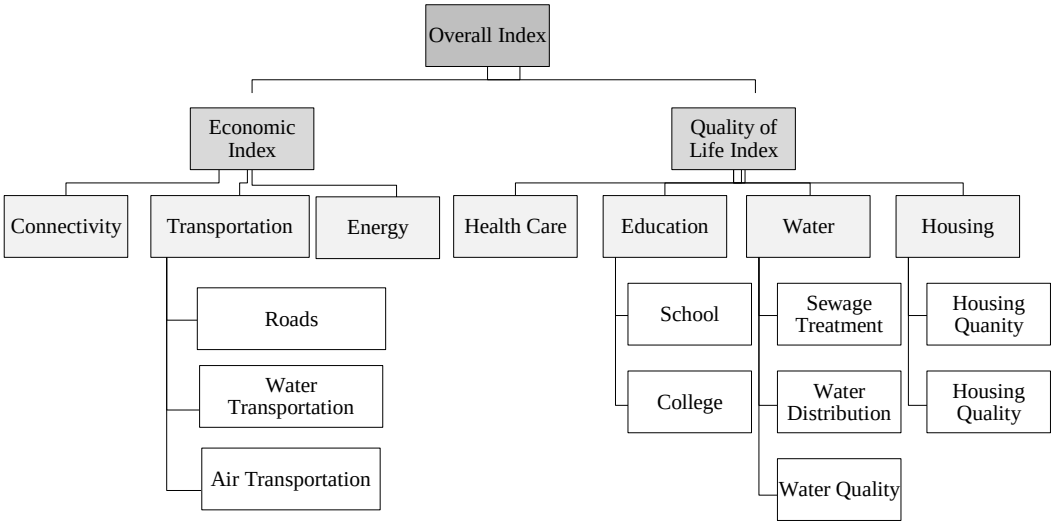
[129] Indigenous Services Canada. GCPedia. Regional infrastructure snapshots. 2018. http://www.gcpedia.gc.ca/wiki/Infra-Outcomes-Success-stories

INFRASTRUCTURE INDEX FOR REMOTE INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES

Recognizing the need for a thorough and rigorous assessment of the status of existing Infrastructure resources in Indigenous communities, in 2018, the National Indigenous Economic Development Board requisitioned an in-depth study in this area from the Centre for the Study of Living Standards. The *Infrastructure Index Report for Remote Indigenous Communities* is a compilation index which examines several infrastructure indicators to produce a value with which to compare communities from different identity groups across different indicators. For the purposes of this report, Indigenous communities were defined as a community in which over 50% of the population had self-identified as Indigenous in the 2016 Census. A total of 236 remote Northern communities were included in the Index, including 134 First Nations, 17 Métis, 49 Inuit and 36 non-Indigenous communities. A total of approximately 450,000 individuals were included in the Index population. Full methodological details, including how communities were selected for inclusion are provided in Appendix: C.

"The Indigenous infrastructure index was developed using 13 indicators of infrastructure, which comprised seven types of infrastructure: connectivity, transportation (comprised of roads, ports/harbors, and airports), access to the electrical grid, health care, education (comprised of on-site schools and community colleges), water (comprised of water treatment, water distribution, and water quality), and housing (comprised of housing quantity and housing quality). These types of infrastructure can be further aggregated to form the two sub-indices of Economic Infrastructure and Quality of Life Infrastructure, which then comprise the overall index." (Figure 51)[130]

Figure 51: Diagrammatic Representation of the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities



Source: INAC Indigenous Infrastructure Report, 2018

[130] 2019 Indigenous Infrastructure Index Report, 2019

An infrastructure index for each community can be estimated by allocating scores to the status or condition of the community infrastructure for the different types of infrastructure and then averaging these scores for the community. The top score (1) goes to the highest quality infrastructure. Scores less than one are allocated to communities not having the highest quality infrastructure based on the number of discrete categories. When there are two categories, scores of 1 and 0 are allocated, for three categories 1, 0.5 and 0, for four categories 1, 0.67, 0.33 and, 0, for five categories 1, 0.75, 0.50, 0.25 and 0, and for six categories 1, 0.8. 0.6, 0.4, 0.2 and 0.

Based on these community scores, average scores for jurisdictions or regions can be calculated for each of the infrastructure categories and an average index calculated for the jurisdiction. Southern urban communities in Canada are assumed to have top or near top scores for all types of infrastructure so are assumed to have an average score of one.[131] Remote northern communities can then benchmark themselves against this score and going forward can see to what degree they can reduce the infrastructure gap both overall and for the seven types of infrastructure (and 13 indicators).

From the perspective of economic infrastructure, it is assumed that urban centres in Southern Canada have access to microwave or fibre backbone telecommunications, full water port facilities (when located on an appropriate body of water), a regional air transit hub, and have all-season regional road access. From the perspective of infrastructure that contributes to quality of life, it is assumed that urban centres in Southern Canada have tertiary waste water/sewage treatment facilities, high schools, community colleges, hospitals, pipe water, and are connected to the North American power grid. This means that urban centres in Southern Canada score 1.0 for each of the ten types of infrastructure and 1.0 (the highest index value available) overall.

To account for confounding factors of community size, both weighted and unweighted calculations for the Indices were produced. Small community sizes offer possible explanations for observed infrastructure deficiencies as for small, remote communities with a population of fewer than 1,000, the feasibility of sustaining a school or hospital may be quite low. The weighted values were calculated to adjust for community size and serve to equalize values against this influence. What was found through weighting was that while size does explain some of the difference, it does not account for the entire gap and in some cases, weighting amplified the differences.

There are significant differences in the infrastructure index values between Indigenous remote communities and non-Indigenous remote communities. On an unweighted basis the index value for Indigenous communities was 0.37 points lower than for non-Indigenous communities (0.45 versus 0.82). The gap was even greater on a population-weighted basis, at 0.47 points (0.47 versus 0.94).

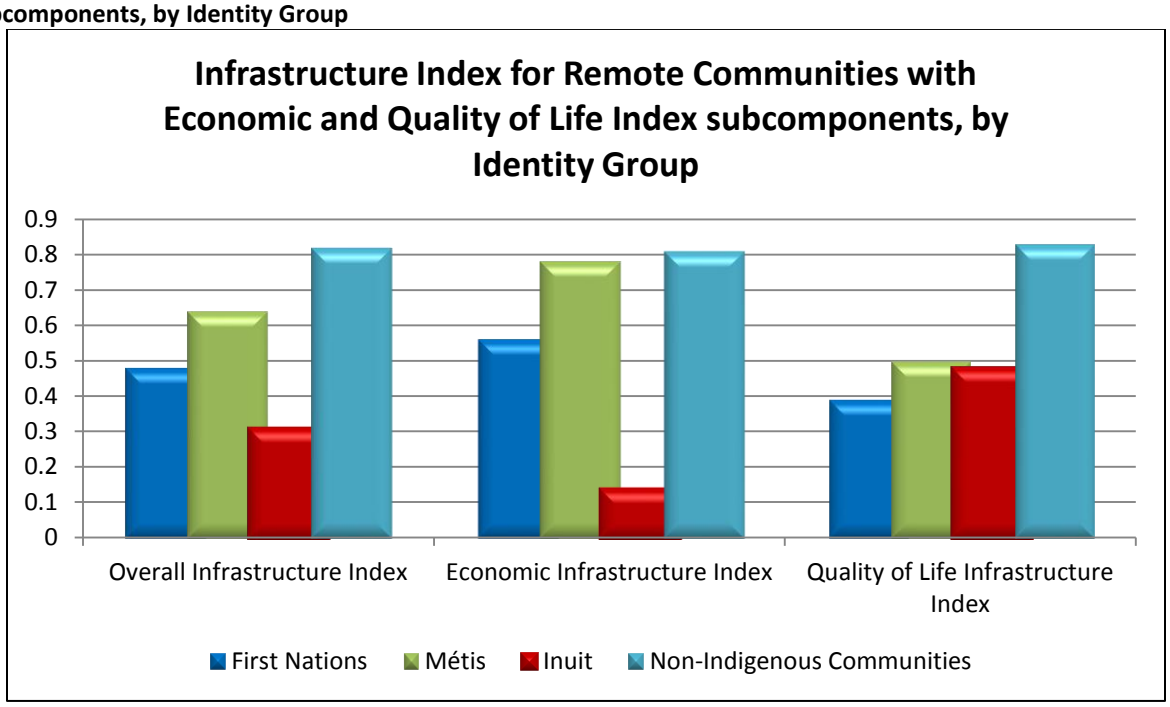
For small communities with a population under 1,000, the unweighted score of the 11 remote non-Indigenous communities of this size (seven of which are in Yukon) was 0.68, closer to the average for Indigenous communities of the same size (0.46), but still clearly higher than their Indigenous comparators.

[131] INAC Indigenous Infrastructure Index Report, 2018

The Infrastructure Index values vary by identity groups. For the 17 Métis communities in the dataset of remote communities, they have the highest Indigenous unweighted index value of 0.64, followed by the 134 First Nations communities at 0.48 and then the 49 Inuit communities at 0.31. These values demonstrate significant Infrastructure deficits relative to remote non-Indigenous communities, which scored 0.82 on the overall Infrastructure Index (Figure 52).

The Quality of Life Infrastructure Index value and the Economic Infrastructure Index value are nearly the same for non-Indigenous communities at 0.83 and 0.81 respectively. On average, remote Indigenous communities demonstrate a similar pattern with Economic Infrastructure Index and Quality of Life Infrastructure Index values scoring close together, but with much lower values of 0.48 and 0.42 respectively. Remote First Nations and Métis communities score highest in the Economic Infrastructure Index at 0.56 and 0.78 respectively versus the Quality of Life Infrastructure Index at 0.39 and 0.50 respectively (Figures 53 and 54). Inuit communities conversely demonstrate a higher Quality of Life Index value (0.48) than Economic Index value (0.14), due largely to the lack of roads, access to the electricity grid, and access to adequate connectivity in the North.

Figure 52: Infrastructure Index for Remote Communities with Economic and Quality of Life Index subcomponents, by Identity Group



*unweighted values
Source: INAC Indigenous Infrastructure Report, 2018

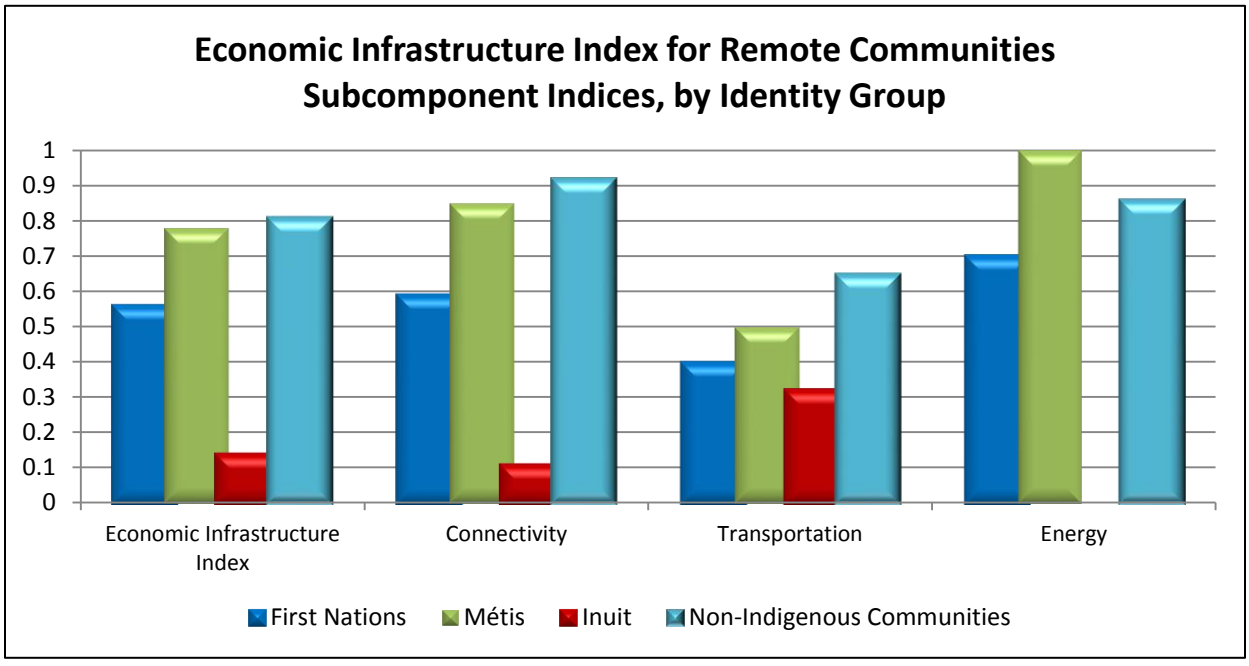
Economic Infrastructure Sub-Index

The economic infrastructure sub-index consists of three components: connectivity, transportation and energy. The transportation component is further broken down into three subcomponents of road access, water access and air access. Overall, Métis communities fare similar on the subcomponent indices of the Economic Infrastructure Index when compared to remote non-Indigenous northern

communities at 0.85 to 0.92 for connectivity, 0.5 to 0.65 for transportation, and 1.0 to 0.86 for energy. First Nations communities fall behind both non-Indigenous northern communities and Métis communities. Inuit communities score the lowest on all subcomponent indices of the economic infrastructure index at 0.11 for connectivity, 0.32 for transportation and 0 for energy (Figure 53).

The geographical location and remoteness of some Indigenous communities influences the disparity in scores between the identity groups. The energy indicator of the Economic Infrastructure Sub-Index is defined as having access to the North America power grid. While Métis communities are centrally located in western provinces with full access to the power grid, First Nations communities have a mix of remote and central communities, and Inuit communities are all remotely located in northern Canada with no access to the power grid. Similar geographical factors can be used to explain the differences between the identity groups for the other subcomponent indices. For example, Inuit communities have a lack of access to adequate connectivity as well as the national road system, explaining the substantially lower scores on the sub-indices of the Economic Infrastructure Index.

Figure 53: Economic Infrastructure Index for Remote Communities with Subcomponent Indices, by Identity Group



Source: INAC Infrastructure Report, 2018

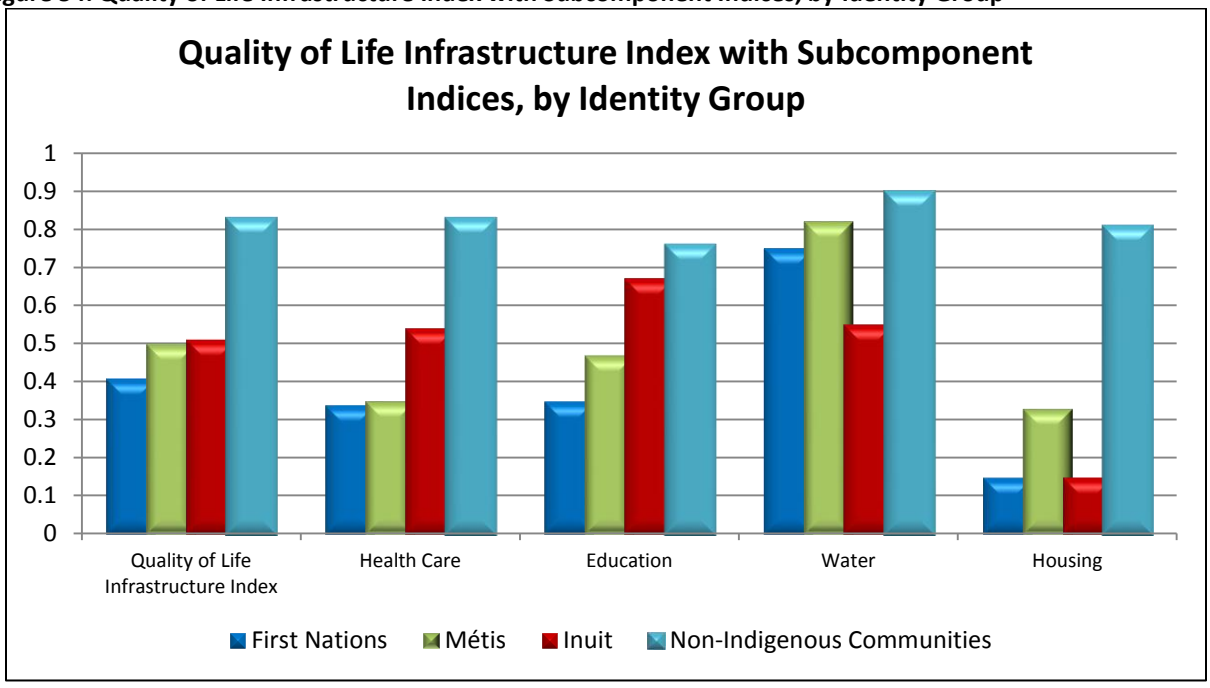
Quality of Life Infrastructure Sub-Index

The Quality of Life Infrastructure sub-index consists of four components: health care, education, water and housing. Compared to non-Indigenous northern communities, all identity groups demonstrate lower values for the Quality of Life Infrastructure index and the associated indicators. The gap between non-Indigenous communities and Indigenous communities is the greatest for housing, followed by health care, education and finally water. Overall, Inuit communities fare better than First Nations and Métis

communities in the Quality of Life Infrastructure sub-index due to strong scores in health care and education, but Inuit still demonstrate low scores on water and housing (Figure 54).

The health care indicator of the Quality of Life Infrastructure sub-index is defined as access to a hospital or community health centre within the community. Education is defined as the availability of secondary schools and community colleges. Most Inuit communities have access to both within their communities which explains higher scores in these indicators than Métis and First Nations. As Métis and First Nations are more likely to have greater road access to surrounding remote non-Indigenous communities to receive health care and/or education, they may be less likely to have these facilities located directly within their communities.

Figure 54: Quality of Life Infrastructure Index with Subcomponent Indices, by Identity Group



Source: INAC Infrastructure Report, 2018

The water infrastructure sub-index was further broken down into the availability of water treatment facilities, water distribution methods and water quality. Overall, First Nations and Métis communities scored best on the water infrastructure index at 0.75 for First Nations, and 0.82 for Métis. Inuit fared the worst on the water infrastructure index with score of 0.55 due to lack of access to water treatment in many Inuit communities and water distribution problems caused by the impracticalities in pipe installation in colder climates with permafrost.

An interesting finding in the *Infrastructure Index Report for Remote Indigenous Communities* is the data on water quality which is defined by communities on consumption warnings, boil water advisories or no advisories. The scores on the overall water infrastructure sub-index was drawn up by water quality with First Nations scoring 0.92, Métis scoring 0.97, and Inuit scoring 0.98. These numbers do not align with the data that was gathered from the Federal Government, especially for First Nations communities

where there are still a significant amount of communities dealing with long term boil water advisories and access to clean water. A reason to explain the discrepancy between the scores on the infrastructure index to the data on water quality in First Nations communities reported by the Federal Government could be the selection method for the infrastructure index. There were only 134 First Nations communities included in the infrastructure index selected based on their remoteness. There are 634 First Nations communities in total across Canada. It is possible that many of the communities that are still on boiled water advisories were not included, causing a discrepancy between the two data sets.

The housing infrastructure sub-index further identified houses in need of repair as well as residential crowding. The most significant disparities between Indigenous communities and non-Indigenous communities were within the housing infrastructure sub-index. First Nations communities fared the worst in terms of crowding with a score of 0.05, with Inuit and Métis not significantly better at 0.15 and 0.22 respectively. Inuit communities have the most houses in need of repair with a score of 0.15, with First Nations also having a low score at 0.22 and Métis at 0.45.

Conclusions

The conclusion of the *Infrastructure Index Report for Remote Indigenous Communities* and its component Indices provide a clear picture of the substantial infrastructure deficits in Indigenous communities. Each indicator illuminates and defines the level of need required to bring remote Indigenous communities up to the level of non-Indigenous communities and support a competitive environment upon which to build economic opportunities. Inuit communities demonstrate considerable shortages of infrastructure relative to other Indigenous communities which supports understandings of the severe infrastructure needs in the North. First Nations communities have stronger values in the Economic Infrastructure Index, but the lowest findings in Quality of Life Index. Métis, who have demonstrated strong findings in many other indicators outlined in this Report (e.g. income, education, entrepreneurship) demonstrate variable findings in infrastructure indicators although a smaller sample size (n=17) may be affecting these results. The findings from the *Infrastructure Index Report for Remote Indigenous Communities* provide clarity and quantification to the existing infrastructure resources and indicate areas of focus that will serve to inform the increased support for Indigenous economic development in the future.

GENDER-BASED ANALYSIS

Introduction

For the first time since its initial release in 2012, The Progress Report contains a chapter addressing gender-based socio-economic outcomes. The purpose of this chapter is to track socio-economic disparities among Indigenous women and men to identify barriers to economic growth across, and within, identity groups. As highlighted by the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, "gender analysis is a means by which to identify and address gender-differentiated needs in a more accurate and targeted way."[132] Through a rigorous gender analysis of differential socio-economic outcomes, this chapter illustrates that barriers to economic participation are often compounded by gender inequality. Furthermore, it demonstrates that Indigenous women and men experience socio-economic realities differently. As is the case with the rest of the report, the findings outlined herein provide a critical resource for the development of more inclusive policy related to economic development, which ultimately works towards the economic prosperity of both Indigenous women and men.

Gender-Based Analysis Plus (GBA+)

The analysis contained in this chapter is consistent with a broader shift within academic and government institutions towards intersectional methods. Intersectionality acknowledges that identity categories such as gender, race, class, and beyond are intersecting, and that one's social position, circumstances, and treatment within broader society can be impacted by more than one system of oppression. Given its focus on the socio-economic barriers and outcomes experienced by Indigenous women and men, who occupy more than one identity category, this chapter employs GBA+ analysis. Developed by Status of Women Canada, GBA+ is an analytical tool deployed to identify and trace the potential impacts of policies, programs, and other initiatives on diverse groups of women, men, and gender-diverse people. The "+" is grounded in an intersectional approach to gender that "acknowledges that GBA+ goes beyond biological (sex) and socio-cultural (gender) differences. GBA+ considers sex and gender, but also includes other identity factors such as race, ethnicity, religion, age, and mental or physical disability so that actions can be taken to promote equality."[133]

Status of Women Canada requires all federal departments and agencies to conduct GBA+ analysis, and to respond to the challenges of an increasingly diversified Canadian population accordingly. Ultimately, GBA+ provides a lens through which to identify and analyze the impacts of intersecting inequalities on people occupying different social locations, and with which to develop policy options and programs designed to address the differential barriers and opportunities they face.

[132] http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unpfii/documents/BriefingNote1_GREY.pdf
[133] http://www.swc-cfc.gc.ca/gba-acs/index-en.html

Sex and Gender

The terms "sex" and "gender" are often used interchangeably but reflect two distinct concepts. "Sex" is assigned at birth and distinguishes between the categories "male" and "female" on the basis of biological characteristics. Conversely, "gender" refers to the socially constructed norms, roles, and relationships expected of women, men, and gender-diverse people. It is multidimensional and encompasses multiple social and cultural values that shift over time and across cultures. The statistics presented in this chapter were disaggregated according to sex – female and male – terms used to distinguish between the biological sexes. However, throughout this report the terms women and men are used to distinguish between the female and male population in order to be consistent with the terminology used in gender-based analysis.

Gender values and norms outlining the different social and cultural statuses of women, men, and gender-diverse people differ across societies. Historically, Western notions of gender and corresponding social structures were not prominent among Indigenous cultures and traditions. Western social structures are largely patriarchal, whereas historically, many Indigenous cultures were, and are, matriarchal. One of the tools of colonization, however, was the imposition of Western notions of gender on Indigenous social and cultural structures. For example, Under the *Indian Act,* Indigenous women lost their status if they married a non-Indigenous person, in some cases leaving women economically and socially vulnerable.[134] The *Indian Act* has since been amended so that Indigenous women no longer lose their status. Nevertheless, in the present day, the imposition of Western notions of gender through colonization has affected socio-economic disparities between Indigenous women and men.

The statistics presented in this chapter were disaggregated according to sex. Consequently, findings do not include data on gender-diverse individuals within both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, thereby limiting the scope of this gender analysis. Despite ongoing efforts across federal departments to implement GBA+ in their policies and programs, statistics on gender-diverse people remain limited. Nevertheless, this chapter offers a strong starting point for future gender-based studies on Indigenous economic development, which will only be strengthened as academic and government institutions continue to deploy intersectional analyses in policy and program development.

CORE INDICATOR#1: EMPLOYMENT

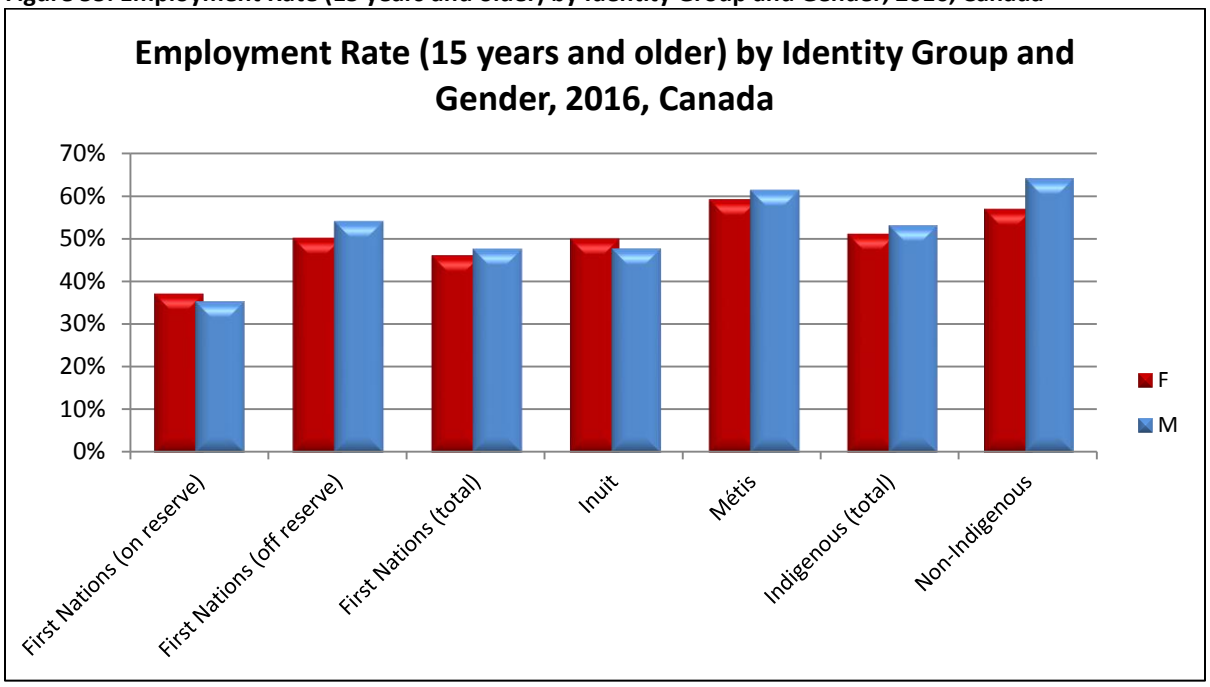
Employment Rate

Among the non-Indigenous population, men generally experience higher rates of employment than women. This trend is echoed among Indigenous populations. What differs, however, is the size of the gap. In 2016, there was a gap of 7.3 percentage points between the employment rates of non-Indigenous men and women. In comparison, the employment rate gap between men and women in the overall Indigenous population was 2.1 percentage points. (Figure 55) This is consistent with 2006 data,

[134] http://policyoptions.irpp.org/magazines/november-2016/gender-discrimination-and-the-indian-act/

where the employment rate of non-Indigenous men was 10.3 percentage points higher than that of non-Indigenous women, but 5.4 percentage points for the overall Indigenous population (Annex A, Table 1). The reasons for the difference in the employment gender gap between the overall Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations are poorly understood and likely the result of various contributing factors. These factors could perhaps include the difference between matriarchal versus patriarchal social orders, greater gender equity within Indigenous identity groups, differences in age demographics between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, and higher levels of unemployment among Indigenous men despite higher labour force participation rates than Indigenous women.

Figure 55: Employment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Data also reflect a narrowing of the gender gap between Indigenous men's and women's employment rates; however, this trend was consistent with that of the non-Indigenous population. Not only is the gender gap smaller in Indigenous employment rates, but in some cases it is reversed. In 2016, First Nations men on reserve had the lowest employment rate of all identity groups at 35.5%, compared with 37.1% of First Nations women on reserve. Similarly, the employment rate for Inuit men was 47.8%, but 50.0% for Inuit women.

As highlighted in the chapter on *Core Indicator #1: Employment*, 2016 data revealed a narrowing of the employment rate gap since 2006 between Inuit and the non-Indigenous population by 2.3 percentage points. This can be broken down by gender into a change in the gap between Inuit and non-Indigenous men of 3.0 percentage points, and a change in the gap between Inuit and non-Indigenous women of 1.7 percentage points. As was the case in 2006, in 2016, Métis men continue to exhibit the highest employment rate among men across identity groups, slightly exceeding that of non-Indigenous men. This was also the case for employment rates among Métis women.

- Employment rates are typically higher amongst men than women, however, this gender gap is smaller amongst the overall Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population.
- Inuit and First Nations women on reserve have higher employment rates than their male counterparts.
- The employment rates of Métis men and women are higher than those of non-Indigenous men and women.

Labour Force Participation Rate

As also highlighted in the chapter on *Core Indicator #1: Employment*, between 2006 and 2016, Canadian labour force participation rates fell among both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations at a similar rate, signaling a decrease in the number of people who are employed and/or unemployed but searching for work. However, gender-based analysis also revealed that decreases in participation rates were paralleled by a closing of the gender gap within both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. For example, in 2006 (Annex A, Table 2), Indigenous women's overall participation rates were 87.8% that of Indigenous men's, which increased in 2016 to 90%. This trend was similar across all identity groups and for the non-Indigenous population

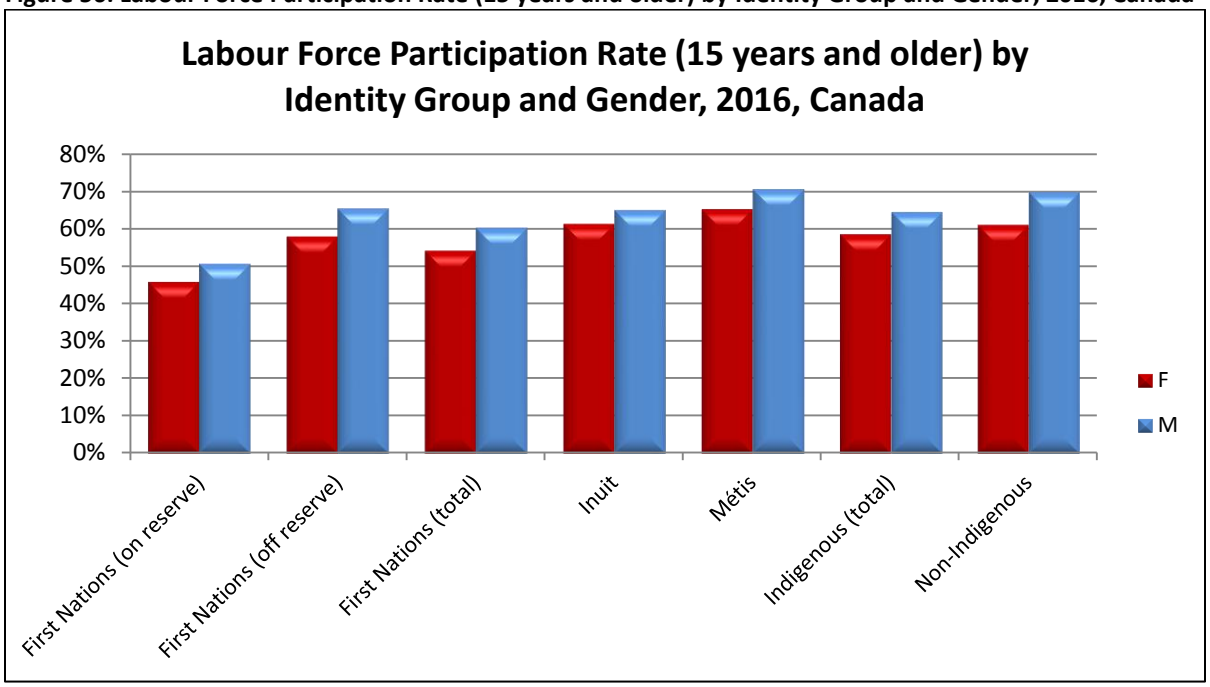
As is the case with employment rates, there is a substantial difference between non-Indigenous men's and women's labour force participation rates, although this gap decreased between 2006 and 2016 from 10.8 to 8.7 percentage points. This was echoed among Indigenous populations. Once again, however, the gender gap between Indigenous men's and women's overall labour force participation rates was smaller than that of the non-Indigenous population, decreasing from 8.2 percentage points in 2006 to 5.9 percentage points in 2016. (Figure 56).

A stagnation in labour force participation and employment rates suggests that Indigenous women still remain at a disadvantage in terms of accessing labour force and employment opportunities compared to Indigenous men and their non-Indigenous counterparts. According to Statistics Canada, women in Canada generally have lower employment and labour force participation rates than men and "are more likely to adjust their labour force market involvement in a downward fashion to care for children."[135]

Analysis also revealed that although overall Indigenous labour force participation rates are lower than those of the non-Indigenous population, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women's participation rates was smaller than that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men. In 2016, Indigenous men's overall participation rate was 92.4% that of non-Indigenous men, but Indigenous women's overall participation rate was 95.9% that of non-Indigenous women.

[135] http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/71-588-x/71-588-x2017001-eng.htm

Figure 56: Labour Force Participation Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



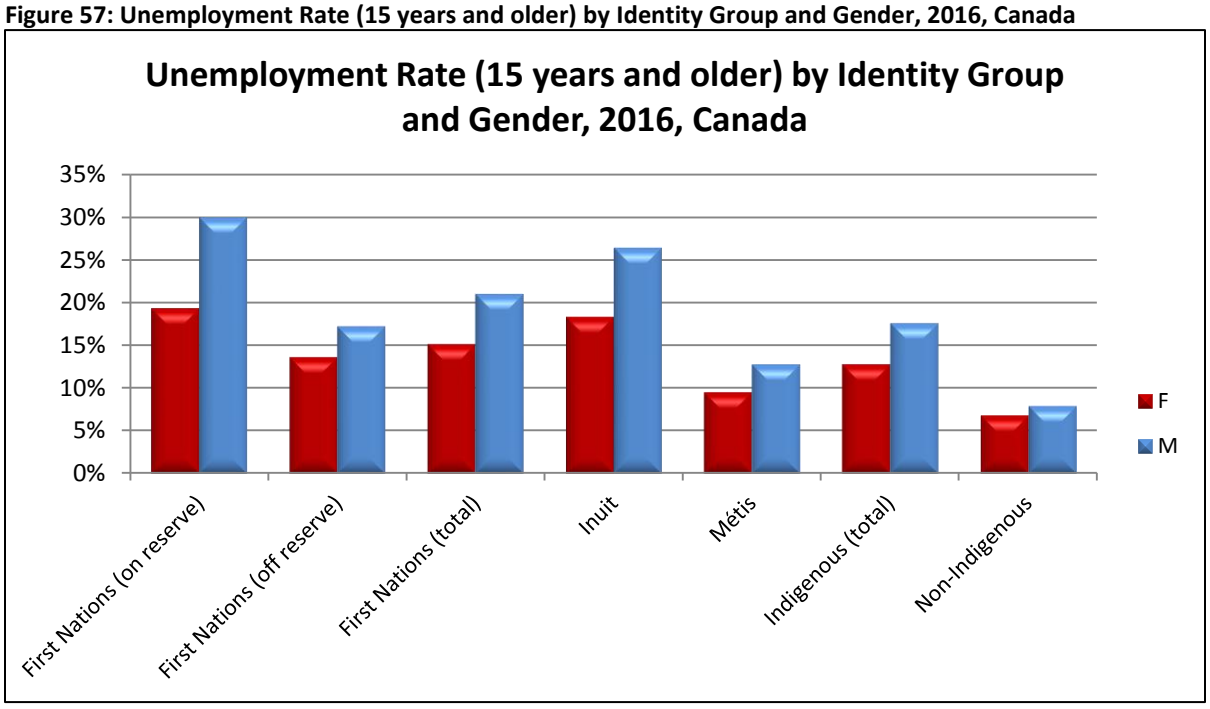
Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

- Labour force participation rates are higher among men than women, but this gender gap is smaller among Indigenous populations.
- The gender gap in participation rates decreased between 2006 and 2016 for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.
- The gap between the overall participation rates of Indigenous and non-Indigenous women is smaller than that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men.

Unemployment Rate

The previous chapter on *Core Indicator #1: Employment* drew attention to an increase in unemployment rates between 2006 and 2016 among Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, thereby maintaining the gap between them. However, a gender-based analysis of the data revealed that overall increases in unemployment rates were largely attributable to non-Indigenous and Indigenous men, whereas Indigenous and non-Indigenous women's unemployment rates either minimally decreased or remained the same (Annex A, Table 3). This resulted in a widening of the gender gap across all categories, with men experiencing higher unemployment levels. The exception to this rule was an increase in unemployment levels among Inuit women; however, due to larger increases in unemployment levels among Inuit men, this maintained the gender gap among Inuit. Inuit and First Nations men on reserve experienced the highest rates of unemployment across all identity groups, at approximately three to four times higher than for non-Indigenous men (Figure 57).

Figure 57: Unemployment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Consistent with the findings outlined above, the gap in unemployment rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women is smaller than that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men. Specifically, in 2016, the unemployment rate for Indigenous men was 9.7 percentage points higher than for non-Indigenous men, but was 6.0 percentage points higher for Indigenous women than non-Indigenous women. This was generally consistent with 2006 rates. Métis women continue to have the lowest unemployment rates among all identity groups at 9.5%, whereas the rates of Inuit and First Nations women on reserve were the highest of all groups of women, at 18.3% and 19.3%, respectively.

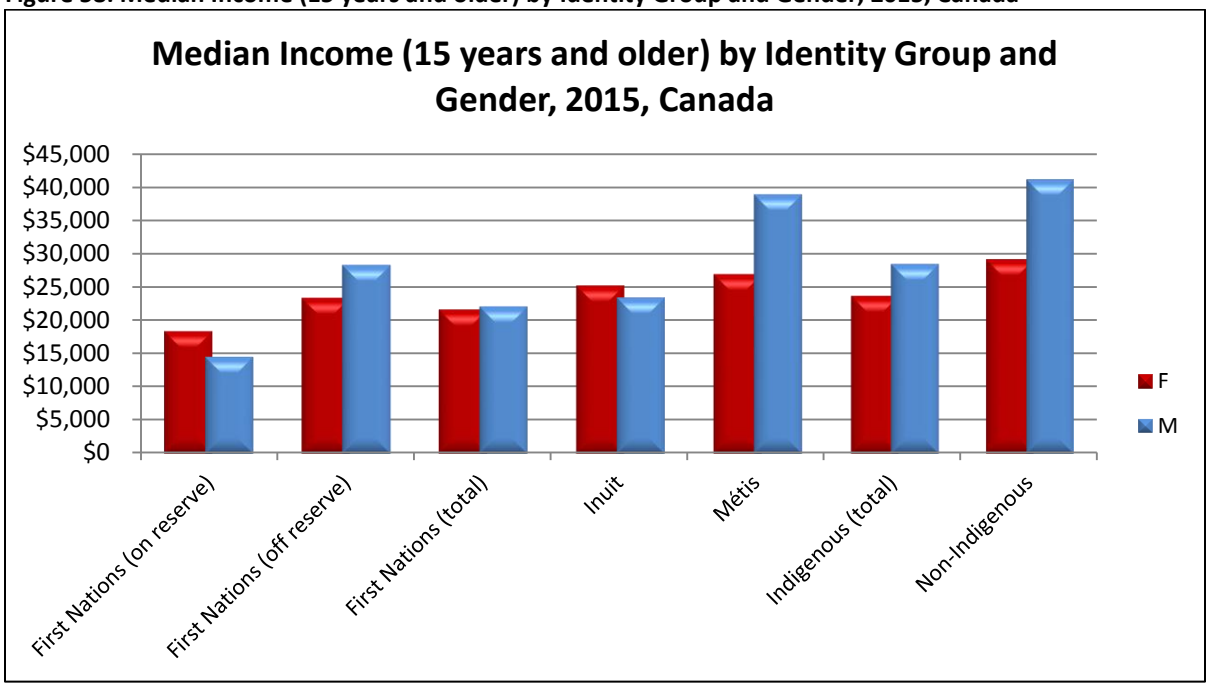
- Unemployment rates are higher for men than women across all identity groups and the non-Indigenous population.
- Increases in unemployment rates between 2006 and 2016 were attributable to increases amongst men, whereas women's unemployment rates either minimally decreased or remained the same.
- Other than a slight increase amongst the non-Indigenous population, Inuit women were the only group of women to experience increases in unemployment rates.

CORE INDICATOR#2: INCOME

Median Employment Income

The gap between the median incomes of Indigenous and non-Indigenous women is smaller than that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men. In 2015, the median income of women within the overall Indigenous population was 81.3% that of non-Indigenous women, whereas that of men within the overall Indigenous population was 69.3% that of non-Indigenous men. This indicates that there is greater income parity among women than men. That said, between 2005 and 2015, the gap between the median incomes of Indigenous and non-Indigenous men decreased more than the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women (Figure 58).

Figure 58: Median Income (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Gender, 2015, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

A gender-based analysis of median income data reinforced the aforementioned observation that the gap between the median incomes of Indigenous men and women was smaller than that of non-Indigenous men and women and in some identity groups, that the gender outcomes were reversed. The overall median income of Indigenous women in 2015 was $23,681, or 82.9% of the median income of Indigenous men ($28,560), which is consistent with 2005 findings. Moreover, the median employment incomes of Inuit and First Nations on-reserve women were higher than those of the median employment incomes of their male counterparts. The 2015 median income of First Nations men on reserve was 79.2% that of First Nations women on reserve, and the median income of Inuit men was 93.3% that of Inuit women. Within the non-Indigenous population, the median income of women was $29,131, or 70.1% that of men ($41,230), closing the gap by 6.9 percentage points since 2005, suggesting that the non-Indigenous population is following the Indigenous population in closing gender-based income gaps.

In 2015, the median income of First Nations men on reserve was $14,580, 35.4% that of non-Indigenous men ($41,230). This gap is narrowing as this value increased from 30.6% in 2005. This gap narrowed even more significantly by 12 percentage points between that of men within the overall Indigenous population and non-Indigenous men. The gaps between the median incomes of Indigenous and non-Indigenous women may be less than those of men, but are nonetheless substantial. In 2015, Métis women's median income was 92.3% ($26,900) of that of non-Indigenous women ($29,131), however, for First Nations women on reserve, this figure was substantially lower at 63.2% ($18,399).

- Generally, median incomes are higher among men than women, although this gap is smaller among the Indigenous population than it is among the non-Indigenous population.
- The income gap is smaller between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women than it is between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men.
- Between 2005 and 2015, the gap between the median incomes of Indigenous and non-Indigenous men decreased more than the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women.
- The median income of First Nations on reserve and Inuit women is higher than that of their male counterparts.

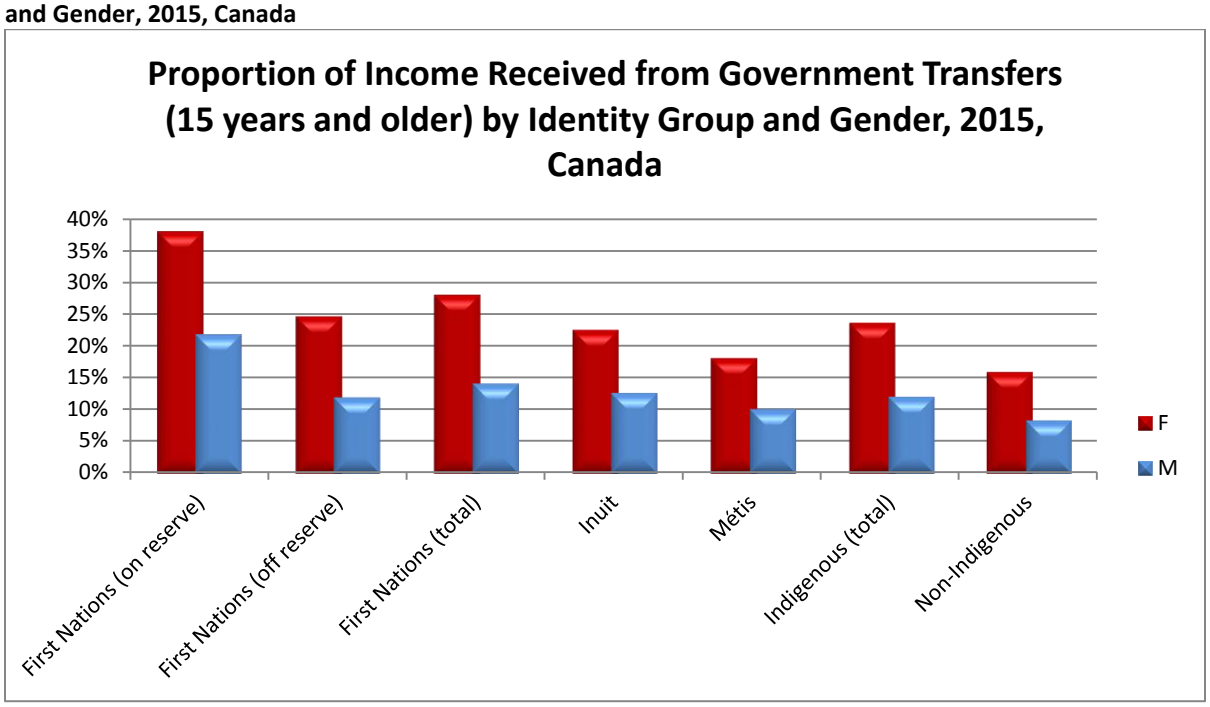
Proportion of Income Received Through Government Transfers

As highlighted in the chapter on *Core Indicator #2: Income*, between 2005 and 2015 there was a decrease in the proportion of income received through government transfers for the overall Indigenous population, from 18.1% to 17.4%. When combined with an increase in the proportion received within the non-Indigenous population, from 10.9% to 11.5%, the gap between the overall Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations decreased from 7.2 to 5.9 percentage points. The findings discussed throughout this chapter have thus far highlighted greater employment and income parity between Indigenous women and men than between non-Indigenous women and men, in addition to greater employment and income parity between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women than between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men. When examining data surrounding government transfers, however, the opposite is true for both findings. (Appendix A, Table 6)

In 2015, the proportion of income received from government transfers was higher for women—both Indigenous and non-Indigenous—than for men. This finding is consistent with 2005 data and is unsurprising given the influence of child benefit transfers to single-parent homes which are more frequently female-led. Statistics Canada states that Indigenous women are twice as likely as non-Indigenous women to be the head of a lone parent household, which limits labour force participation and employment opportunities. However, the gap between women and men in the overall Indigenous population in the proportion of income received was larger than that between non-Indigenous women and men. Specifically, in 2015, 16.0% of non-Indigenous women's income was received through government transfers, compared with 8.3% of non-Indigenous men, a gap of 7.7 percentage points. In comparison, the gender gap between the proportions of income received from government transfers for the overall Indigenous population was 11.7 percentage points (Figure 59).

The proportion of income received from government transfers is higher for Indigenous than non-Indigenous women. In 2015, 16.0% of non-Indigenous women's income was received through government transfers, compared with 23.7% of women in the overall Indigenous population, a gap of 7.7 percentage points. Comparatively, the gap between the proportion of income received via government transfers for Indigenous and non-Indigenous men was 3.7 percentage points.

Figure 59: Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Gender, 2015, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

First Nations on reserve were the only identity group to have experienced an increase in the proportion of income received through government transfers, from 28.6% in 2005 to 30.4% in 2015, a 1.8 percentage point increase. When analyzed by gender, however, the data reveals that the majority of that increase was comprised of an increase in the proportion of income received through government transfers for First Nations women on reserve, from 35.9% in 2005 to 38.0% in 2015, a 2.1 percentage point increase (Annex A, Table 6)

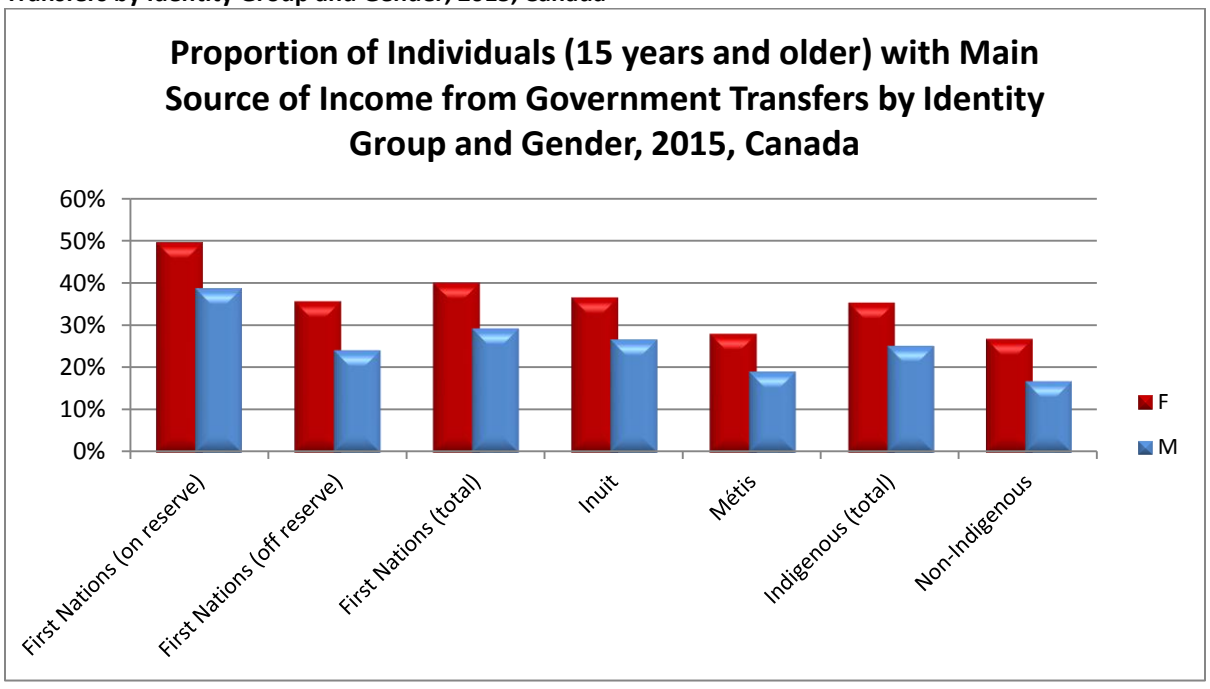
- The proportion of income received through government transfers is higher for women than men, and this gender gap is larger for the overall Indigenous population than for the non-Indigenous population.
- The gap between the proportion of income for Indigenous and non-Indigenous women is larger than that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men.
- First Nations on reserve was the only identity group to experience an increase in the proportion of income received through government transfers between 2005 and 2015, however, this was largely attributable to an increase of 2.1 percentage points amongst women.

Main Source of Income from Government Transfers

Between 2005 and 2015, the proportion of individuals whose main source of income was from government transfers was higher for women (both Indigenous and non-Indigenous) than men, and higher for Indigenous populations than for the non-Indigenous population. Unlike the findings discussed above, however, the gender gap between Indigenous men and women is about the same as that existing between non-Indigenous men and women. In 2015, 35.4% of women within the overall Indigenous population received their main source of income from government transfers, compared to 25.2% of Indigenous men, a 10.2 percentage point difference. Comparatively, 16.9% of non-Indigenous men received their main source of income from government transfers, compared with 26.8% of non-Indigenous women, a 9.9 percentage point gap. Consequently, Indigenous women are more likely to rely on other sources of income, such as government transfers, to subsidize costs of living and costs related to taking care of children (Figure 60).[136]

When comparing sex disaggregated data across groups, the gap between men in the overall Indigenous population and non-Indigenous men (8.3 percentage points) was consistent with that between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women (8.6 percentage points).

Figure 60: Proportion of Individuals (15 years and older) with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers by Identity Group and Gender, 2015, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

As highlighted in the chapter on *Core Indicator #2: Income*, First Nations on reserve and Inuit were the only two identity groups to experience an increase in the proportion of individuals whose main source of income came from government transfers. Within First Nations populations on reserve , however, this

[136] http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/71-588-x/71-588-x2017001-eng.htm

increase was larger for women than for men, at 2.6 versus 0.5 percentage points. The opposite was true for Inuit, where this increase was 1.6 percentage points for women versus 2.6 percentage points for men (Annex A, Table 7). Across all groups, the proportion of individuals whose main source of income was from government transfers was highest for First Nations women on reserve, at 49.7%.

- In 2015, the gender gap in the proportion of individuals whose main source of income was from government transfers was approximately the same for Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.
- First Nations on reserve and Inuit were the only two identity groups to experience an increase in the proportion, which was more attributable to increases for First Nations women on reserve and Inuit men.
- Approximately one half of First Nations women on reserve reported government transfers as their main source of income.

Median Income within Occupation and Industry

The chapter on *Core Indicator #2: Income* drew attention to the wage gap that exists between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in the same occupations and industries. Sex disaggregated data revealed that this wage gap is also gendered, where Indigenous and non-Indigenous men typically earn more in the same occupations and industries than women.

Within the occupational categories, the median income for the overall Indigenous population was highest in management ($52,492) and natural and applied sciences ($58,140). That said, within those occupations, men (both Indigenous and non-Indigenous) earned more than their female counterparts. The median income for men in the overall Indigenous population in management occupations was $61,064, but only $45,342 for women. Similarly, the median income for men in the overall Indigenous population in the natural and applied sciences was $61,319, but only $49,333 for Indigenous women. These gender wage gaps are also consistent across the occupational categories with the lowest median incomes, such as: art, culture, recreation and sport; and, natural resources, agriculture and related production occupations.

In general, both Indigenous and non-Indigenous men earn more than women in business, finance and administration occupations. This trend was reversed, however, among Inuit, wherein women earned 9.9 percentage points more than men. This was also the case within health occupations, where Inuit women earned 40.4 percentage points more than Inuit men, and occupations in art, culture, recreation and sport, where Inuit women earned 58.7 percentage points more than Inuit men.

In terms of industry, the overall Indigenous population had the highest median income in the industry categories of mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction ($82,102), and utilities ($71,631). The median income for men in the overall Indigenous population in mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction was $88,673, but only $56,574 for Indigenous women. Similarly, the median income for Indigenous men in utilities was $73,992, compared to only $61,816 for Indigenous women. These gaps are consistent with those found among the non-Indigenous population.

Similar to findings related to occupational categories, however, the median income for Inuit women was higher than that of Inuit men in five industry categories: utilities; finance and insurance; real estate and

rental and leasing; professional, scientific, and technical services; and, public administration. Although First Nations men typically earned a higher median income than First Nations women, the gender wage gap was much smaller in the utilities and public administration industries.

- In general, men earn more than women in the same occupations and industries, compounding the wage gap existing between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations.
- Amongst Inuit, the gender wage gap is reversed in many industry and occupational categories.

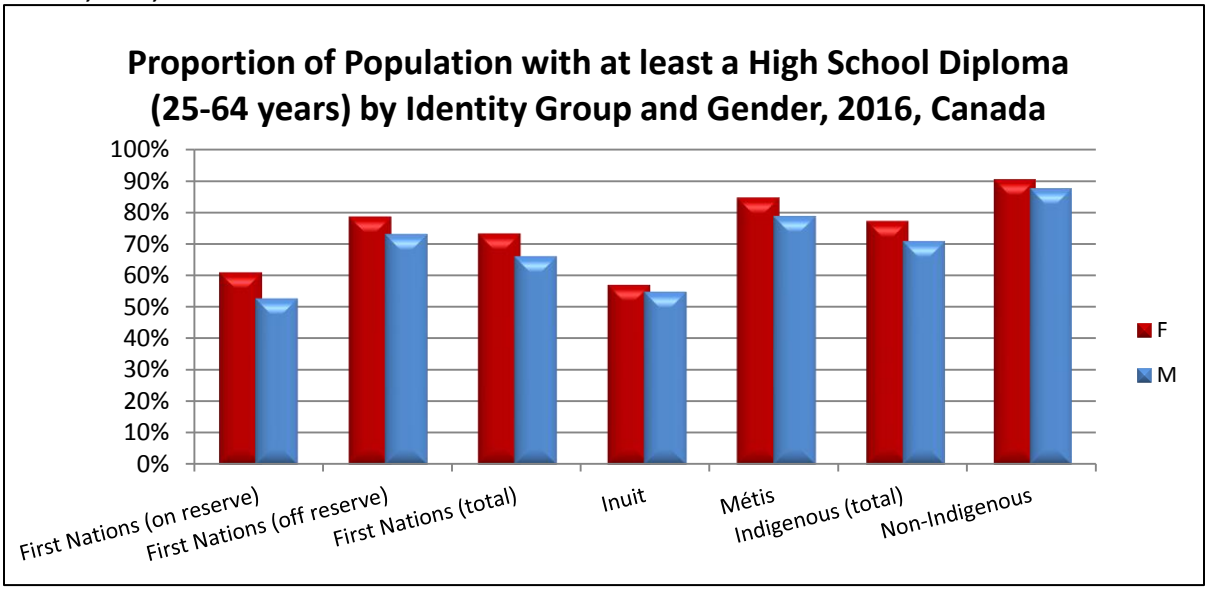
UNDERLYING INDICATOR #1: EDUCATION

High School Completion

Between 2006 and 2016, high school completion rates increased across all categories for Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations; however, the increase in completion rates was higher for the Indigenous population than for the non-Indigenous population, resulting in a closing of the gap by 4.5 percentage points (Annex A, Table 15). In general, high school completion rates are higher for women than men, but the gender gap in completion rates between Indigenous men and women are larger than that of the non-Indigenous population. Specifically, in 2016, 87.7% of non-Indigenous men had completed high school, compared to 90.6% of non-Indigenous women, a gap of 2.9 percentage points. By comparison, 71.0% of men and 77.3% of women within the overall Indigenous population had completed high school, a gap over twice as large, at 6.3 percentage points (Figure 61).

The gender gap in high school completion rates among Métis (5.9 percentage points) is similar to that of the overall Indigenous population (6.3 percentage points). It is largest among First Nations on reserve, where 61.0% of women have a high school diploma compared to 52.9% of men, a difference of 8.1 percentage points. The gender gap is smallest among Inuit—even smaller than that among the non-Indigenous population, where 57.1% of women have a high school diploma, compared with 55.0% of men—a difference of 2.1 percentage points.

Figure 61: Proportion of Population with at least a High School Diploma (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Completion rates within identity groups increased at approximately the same rate for men and women. An exception to this trend was found within Inuit and First Nations populations on reserve, where completion rates among women increased more than those of men. Completion rates among First Nations men on reserve increased between 2006 and 2016 from 47.0% to 52.9%, a difference of 5.9 percentage points. Among First Nations women on reserve however, completion rates increased from 52.8% to 61.0%, an increase of 8.2 percentage points. Similarly, completion rates increased from 49.1% to 55.0% for Inuit men, an increase of 5.9 percentage points, but from 49.3% to 57.1% for Inuit women, an increase of 7.8 percentage points.

- High school completion rates are higher for women than men, and this gender gap is larger among Indigenous populations.
- Between 2006 and 2016, high school completion rates increased for all identity groups and the non-Indigenous population. Within groups, completion rates increased for men and women at approximately the same rate. An exception to this trend was found within First Nations on reserve and Inuit populations, wherein the completion rates of women increased more than those of their male counterparts.

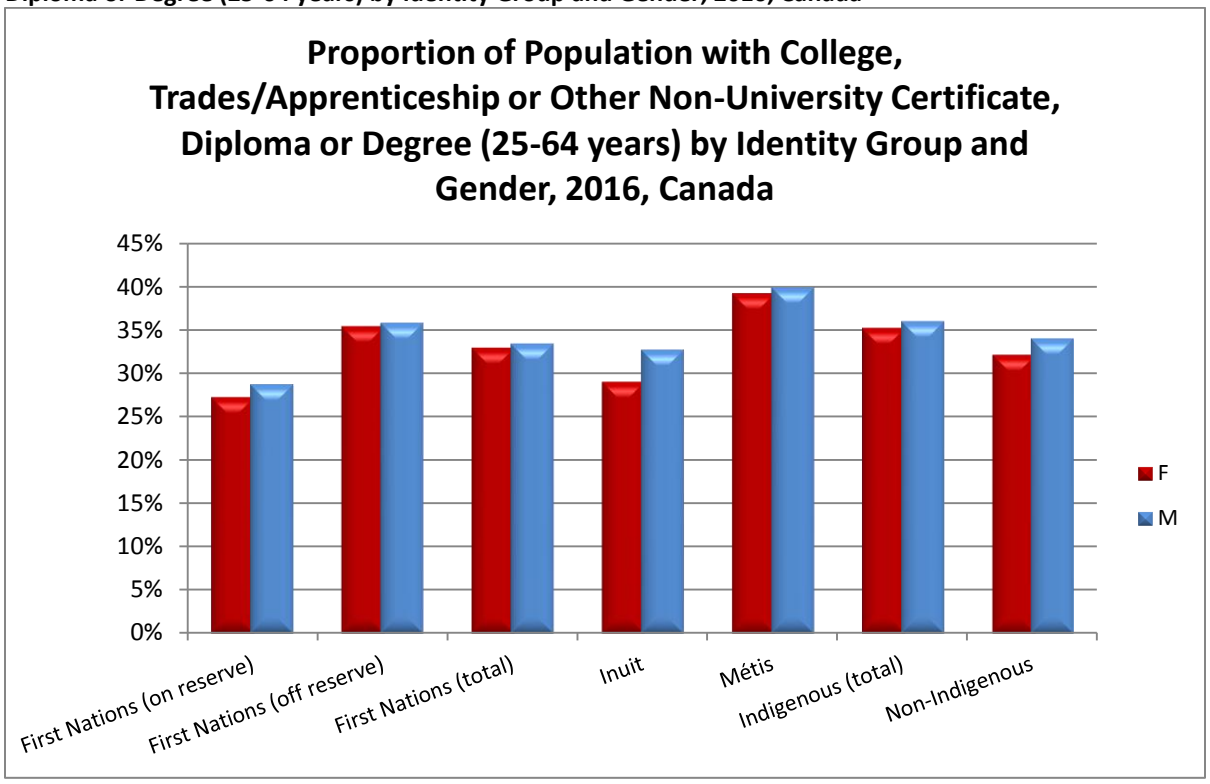
College/Trades Completion

As demonstrated in the chapter on *Underlying Indicator #1: Education*, in 2016 the overall Indigenous population had slightly higher college/trades completion rates than the non-Indigenous population, at 35.7% and 33.1%, respectively. Across all population categories, men had slightly higher completion rates than women. In 2016, 36.1% of men within the overall Indigenous population had completed a college, trades/apprenticeship or other non-university certificate, diploma or degree, compared with

35.3% of women. Similarly, the completion rate among non-Indigenous men was 34.1% versus 32.2% for non-Indigenous women. Compared to high school completion rates, these gender gaps are much narrower (Figure 61 & 62).

Between 2006 and 2016, college/trades completion rates increased for Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, however, the increase in completion rates was higher for Indigenous populations than the non-Indigenous population (Annex A, Table 16). Sex disaggregated data further revealed that women's completion rates increased more than men's, and that this difference was more pronounced among the Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population. Specifically, between 2006 and 2016, there was minimal change in non-Indigenous college completion rates; non-Indigenous men's completion rates increased from 33.9% to 34.1% (0.2 percentage point increase) while non-Indigenous women's completion rates increased from 31.6% to 32.2% (0.6 percentage point increase). In comparison, completion rates among men within the overall Indigenous population increased from 34.0% to 36.1% (2.1 percentage points increase), while Indigenous women's completion rates increased from 32.4% to 35.3% (2.9 percentage points increase). The effect of a larger increase in completion rates among Indigenous women than men was the narrowing of the gender gap in completion rates within groups. For example, in 2016, the college/trades completion rate was 33.5% for First Nations men, and 33.0% for their female counterparts, a minimal gap of 0.5 percentage points. Inuit have the widest gender gap in completion rates—albeit slight—at 32.8% for men and 29.1% for women, a difference of 3.7 percentage points.

Figure 62: Proportion of Population with College, Trades/Apprenticeship or Other Non-University Certificate, Diploma or Degree (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



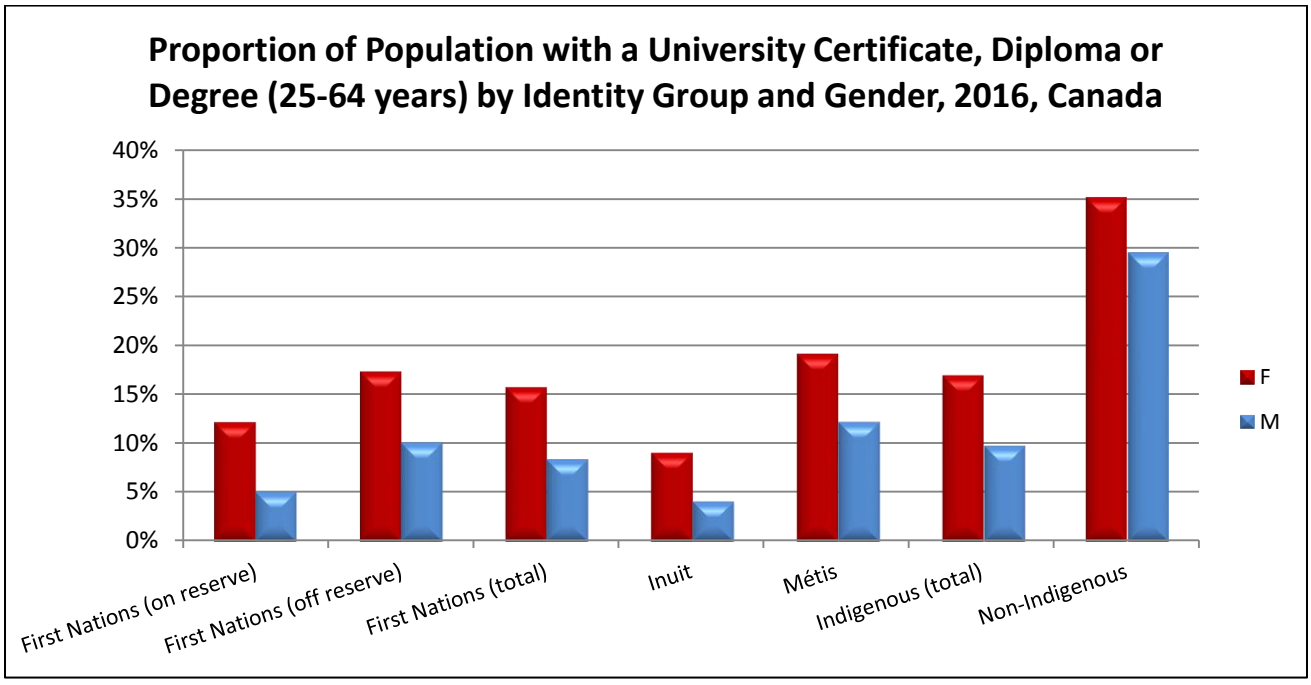
Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

- College/trades completion rates are approximately the same for men and women within the overall Indigenous population, and slightly higher for men than women among the non-Indigenous population.
- Between 2006 and 2016, college/trades completion rates increased more among women than men, and this trend was more pronounced among the overall Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population.
- In 2016, Inuit had the widest gender gap in completion rates, albeit slight.

University Completion

Between 2006 and 2016, university completion rates increased among Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations; however, larger increases in completion rates among the non-Indigenous population further widened the gap with the overall Indigenous population by 1.7 percentage points (Annex A, Table 17). In general, women have higher university completion rates than men, and this gap is more pronounced among the overall Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population. In 2016, the university completion rate for non-Indigenous men was 29.5%, but 35.2% for non-Indigenous women (a gap of 5.7 percentage points). In comparison, the university completion rate for men within the overall Indigenous population was 9.8%, compared with 17.0% for women (a gap of 7.2 percentage points) (Figure 63).

Figure 63: Proportion of Population with a University Certificate, Diploma or Degree (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Gender, 2016, Canada



Source: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Between 2006 and 2016, women's university completion rates increased by a larger proportion than men's, which further widened the gender gap. Non-Indigenous women's completion rates increased more than those of women within the overall Indigenous population, widening the gap between their

respective completion rates. The increase in the gender gap in completion rates was in part attributable to minimal or stagnant completion rates among men. Completion rates among Métis and non-Indigenous men increased by 2.1 and 2.0 percentage points, respectively. However, completion rates among First Nations and Inuit men remained approximately the same, with First Nations rates increasing by only 0.4 percentage points and Inuit rates remaining stagnant. Rates for First Nations men on reserve decreased minimally by 0.3 percentage points.

The gap in university completion rates widened the most between non-Indigenous women and Inuit and First Nations women on reserve, by 4.6 percentage points in each identity group. Hence, Indigenous women's completion rates increased more than those of their male counterparts, but at a lower rate than those of the non-Indigenous women population group. Within and across all identity groups, university completion rates are lowest among Inuit and First Nations men on reserve, at 4.1% and 5.1%, and highest among Métis and First Nations women off reserve, at 19.2% and 17.4%, respectively.

- Women typically have higher university completion rates than men, and this gender gap is wider within Indigenous populations than within the non-Indigenous population.
- Between 2006 and 2016, university completion rates increased more for women than men.
- During this time period, university completion rates among First Nations and Inuit men remained stagnant.

Changes Since 2006

An analysis of sex disaggregated employment data revealed greater parity between Indigenous men and women than non-Indigenous men and women, as well as between non-Indigenous and Indigenous women than their male counterparts. In general, men have higher employment rates than women. However, this gender gap is smaller within the overall Indigenous population (2.1 percentage points) than within the non-Indigenous population (7.3 percentage points). Data reveals that dissimilar to the non-Indigenous population, First Nations on reserve and Inuit women had a slightly higher employment rate than their male counterparts.

Between 2006 and 2016, a decline in labour force participation rates among both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations was accompanied by a narrowing of the gender gap within each population, which is smaller among the overall Indigenous population (5.9 percentage points) than the non-Indigenous population (8.7 percentage points). Unemployment rates increased across all groups, and were approximately the same for non-Indigenous men and women, at 7.9% and 6.8% respectively, but higher for men in the overall Indigenous population than women, at 17.6% and 12.8% respectively. Increases in unemployment rates were largely attributable to increases in unemployment levels among Indigenous and non-Indigenous men, whereas women's unemployment levels either remained stagnant or slightly declined.

Sex disaggregated data pertaining to income demonstrated that while men typically have higher incomes than women, this gender gap is smaller among Indigenous populations than the non-Indigenous population. Specifically, in 2015, the median income of women within the overall Indigenous

population was 82.9% of that of their male counterparts, whereas that of non-Indigenous women was 70.1% of that of their male counterparts.

On average, the proportion of income received from government transfers is higher for women than men. This gap is larger among Indigenous populations than for the non-Indigenous population. Between 2005 and 2015, First Nations on reserve were the only identity group to have experienced an increase in the proportion of income received from government transfers, however, that increase was largely attributable to an increase in that of First Nations women. This was also the case for the proportion of individuals whose main source of income was from government transfers. Notably, this trend was reversed among Inuit, where men experienced a larger increase than women.

High school completion rates are typically higher for women than men; however, this gender gap is wider among the overall Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population, at 6.3 and 2.9 percentage points, respectively. Completion rates between 2006 and 2016 increased at approximately the same rate for men and women within identity groups, except for Inuit and First Nations on reserve, wherein increases were larger among women than men. In 2016, there was a negligible difference between the college/trades completion rates of Indigenous men and women. This was in part due to a greater increase in completion rates for Indigenous women, between 2006 and 2016, allowing for the previous 2006 gap to close.

Similar to high school education, university completion rates are higher for women than men, which is particularly notable given that in a 2008 study, some female First Nations youth identified the need for childcare as a barrier to the completion of post-secondary education.[137] Recognizing that some students have young children, for example, Lakehead recently expanded its on-campus Nanabijou daycare. The facility stays open before and after school and in the evening.[138] This education gender gap is even wider among Indigenous populations than the non-Indigenous population, and has increased since 2006. However, the widening of this gap is largely attributable to stagnant completion rates among Indigenous men, with the exception of Métis.

Conclusions

Gender-based analysis provides a fruitful lens through which to identify and understand gaps and disparities in employment, income, and education, as well as changes in these indicators since 2005/2006. Two trends pertaining to employment and income stand out in particular: first, greater parity within Indigenous populations between men and women than within the non-Indigenous population; and, second, greater parity between Indigenous and non-Indigenous women than between Indigenous and non-Indigenous men. This parity is a major strength in working towards closing socio-economic gaps, ultimately contributing to more inclusive economic development.

Supporting both men and women is crucial to creating the workforce needed to support economic development. Although data reveal greater parity between Indigenous men and women in the areas of

[137] Factors Affecting the Use of Student Financial Assistance by First Nations Youth. 2008. Prepared for the Canada Millenium Scholarship Foundation, by: R.A. Malatest and Associates Ltd, and Dr. Blair Stonechild
[138] https://www.macleans.ca/education/truth-and-education/

employment and median income, it affirmed that gender-based gaps persist—for example, disparities between the incomes of men and women working in the same occupations and industries. Furthermore, it draws attention to additional gender gaps, for example, in educational outcomes among Indigenous men versus women. Despite lower educational outcomes, however, the incomes of men continue to be higher than those of women within the same occupations and industries, suggesting the presence of gender-based barriers and wage disparities in the workforce. If addressed—including among the non-Indigenous population where many of these gaps are even larger—the closing of gender gaps could in turn contribute to the closing of socio-economic gaps overall, and ultimately, to more inclusive economic growth.

NIEDB ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT INDICES

The National Indigenous Economic Development Board (NIEDB) Economic Development Indices were derived to compare overall outcomes between population groups. The core indicators focus on economic outcomes by tracking key employment and income measures. The underlying indicators track factors that directly contribute to improving economic outcomes for Indigenous peoples. These factors focus on measures of entrepreneurial activity, education and indicators of infrastructure conditions that can each influence economic outcomes in terms of employment success and earnings potential.

Separate indices were derived by identity group for the core and underlying indicators. As well, an overall NIEDB Economic Development Index was derived that consolidates the outcomes from the core and underling indicators to assess how overall outcomes for the Indigenous population have compared with the non-Indigenous population. The selection of indicators used in the indices include all core and underlying indicators for which data was available for all seven population groups reported in the Indigenous Economic Progress Report.

- **Core Indicators Index**: Employment; Labour Force Participation; Unemployment; Median Income; Proportion of Income from Transfers; Proportion of Population with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers.
- **Underlying Indicators Index**: High School Completion; College/Trades Completion; University Completion; Entrepreneurship-Self-Employment; Housing Quantity (crowded conditions); Housing Quality (in need of major repairs).
- **NIEDB Economic Development Index**: includes all twelve indicators listed above.

The index score for a population group for each of these indices is a single number that ranges from a low of 0 (lowest outcomes) to a high score of 100 (highest outcomes). These scores are used to compare outcomes across Indigenous identity groups with the non-Indigenous population. Annex C has further details on the methodology used for deriving the NIEDB indices.

MAIN FINDINGS

NIEDB Economic Development Index Scores: 2006 and 2016

Index scores improved more for the total Indigenous population than the non-Indigenous population from 2006 to 2016 for all three indices. This reflects that index scores for every Indigenous population group, except for First Nations on reserve, increased more than for the non-Indigenous population. Among all identity groups, index scores remained lowest in 2016 for First Nations living on reserve (Table 8).

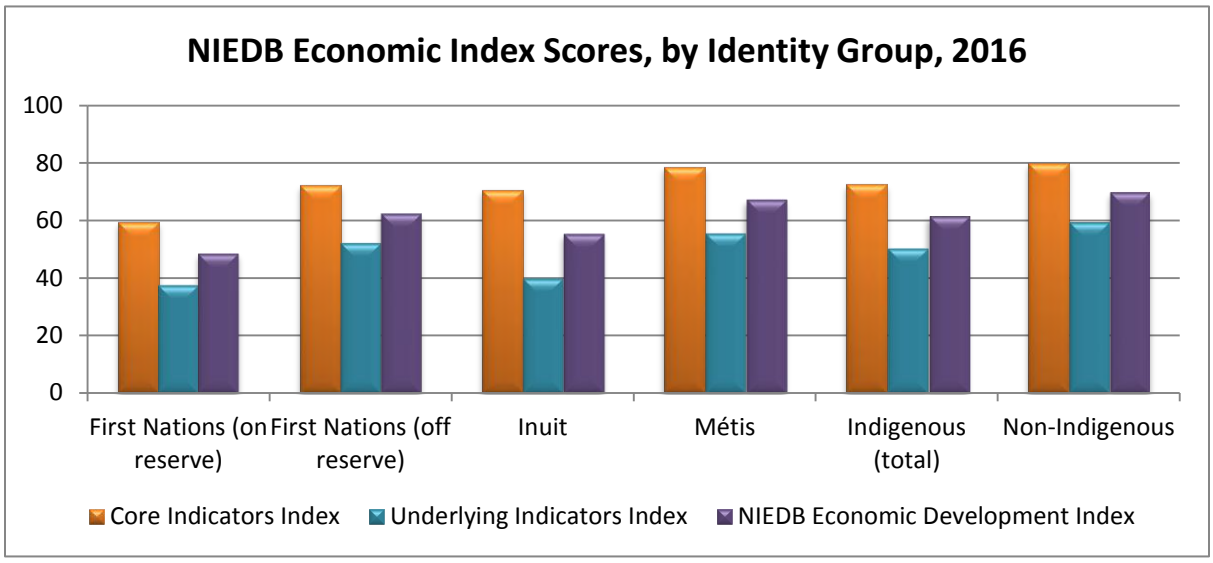
The Core Indicators Index increased by 1.3 points for the Indigenous population compared with 0.6 points for the non-Indigenous population. The Underlying Indicators Index increased by 2.2 points for the Indigenous population while it increased by 1.3 points for the non-Indigenous population. Including all core and underlying indicators together, the overall NIEDB Economic Development Index increased by 1.6 points for the Indigenous population compared with a 1.0 point increase for the non-Indigenous population (Figure 64).

Table 8: Economic Indices Scores - Range from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest)

	FIRST NATIONS (on reserve)	FIRST NATIONS (off reserve)	FIRST NATIONS (total)	INUIT	MÉTIS	INDIGENOUS (total)	NON-INDIGENOUS
			2006				
Core Indicators Index	58.7	71.3	67.2	69.0	77.3	71.2	79.4
Underlying Indicators Index	36.4	50.0	45.3	38.3	52.4	48.1	58.1
NIEDB Economic Development Index	47.6	60.6	56.3	53.6	64.9	59.8	68.7
			2016				
Core Indicators Index	59.4	72.3	68.3	70.6	78.7	72.6	80.0
Underlying Indicators Index	37.6	52.2	47.3	39.9	55.5	50.3	59.4
NIEDB Economic Development Index	48.5	62.3	57.8	55.3	67.1	61.4	69.7
			Change in Index Scores 2006 to 2016*				
Core Indicators Index	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.7	1.4	1.3	0.6
Underlying Indicators Index	1.2	2.2	2.0	1.7	3.1	2.2	1.3
NIEDB Economic Development Index	0.9	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.3	1.6	1.0

*Changes may not appear exact due to rounding.
Core Indicators Index: Employment; Labour Force Participation; Unemployment; Median Income; Proportion of Income from Transfers; Proportion of Population with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers.
Underlying Indicators Index: High School Completion; College/Trades Completion; University Completion; Entrepreneurship-Self-Employment; Housing Quantity (crowded conditions); Housing Quality (in need of major repairs).
NIEDB Economic Development Index: Includes all twelve indicators above.

Figure 64: NIEDB Economic Index Scores, by Identify Group 2016



Gaps with the Non-Indigenous Population

Overall, the gap between the total Indigenous population and the non-Indigenous population for the NIEDB Economic Development Index closed by 0.7 points from 2006 to 2016 as the gaps for both core and underlying indices declined (Table 9). This decline was led by relative gains made by Métis, Inuit and First Nations off reserve identity groups. The Métis population made the most progress in closing the overall gap with the non-Indigenous population as the gap declined by 1.3 points.

First Nations living off reserve also closed gaps with the non-Indigenous population as the gap in the overall index dropped by 0.6 points reflecting relative improvements in the core and underlying indicators. While other identity groups have made progress in closing gaps with the non-Indigenous population, large gaps remain for First Nations living on reserve of approximately 21 index points in 2016 and have not changed substantially from 2006. The gap for the core indicators index held steady as the increase in income as a share of non-Indigenous incomes offset declines in other indicators. The gap for the underlying and overall indices widened slightly for First Nations living on reserve as their outcomes did not improve as much from 2006 to 2016 as they did for the non-Indigenous population.

Table 9: Gaps with the Non-Indigenous Population

	FIRST NATIONS (on reserve)	FIRST NATIONS (off reserve)	FIRST NATIONS (total)	INUIT	MÉTIS	INDIGENOUS (total)	NON-INDIGENOUS
			2006				
Core Indicators Index	-20.7	-8.1	-12.1	-10.4	-2.1	-8.1	-
Underlying Indicators Index	-21.7	-8.1	-12.8	-19.8	-5.7	-10.0	-
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-21.1	-8.1	-12.4	-15.1	-3.9	-8.9	-
			2016				
Core Indicators Index	-20.7	-7.7	-11.7	-9.4	-1.3	-7.5	-
Underlying Indicators Index	-21.8	-7.2	-12.1	-19.5	-3.9	-9.1	-
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-21.2	-7.5	-11.9	-14.4	-2.6	-8.3	-
			Change in Gaps2006 to 2016				
Core Indicators Index	0.0	0.4	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	-
Underlying Indicators Index	-0.1	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.8	0.9	-
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-0.1	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.3	0.7	-

*Gaps may not appear exact due to rounding.

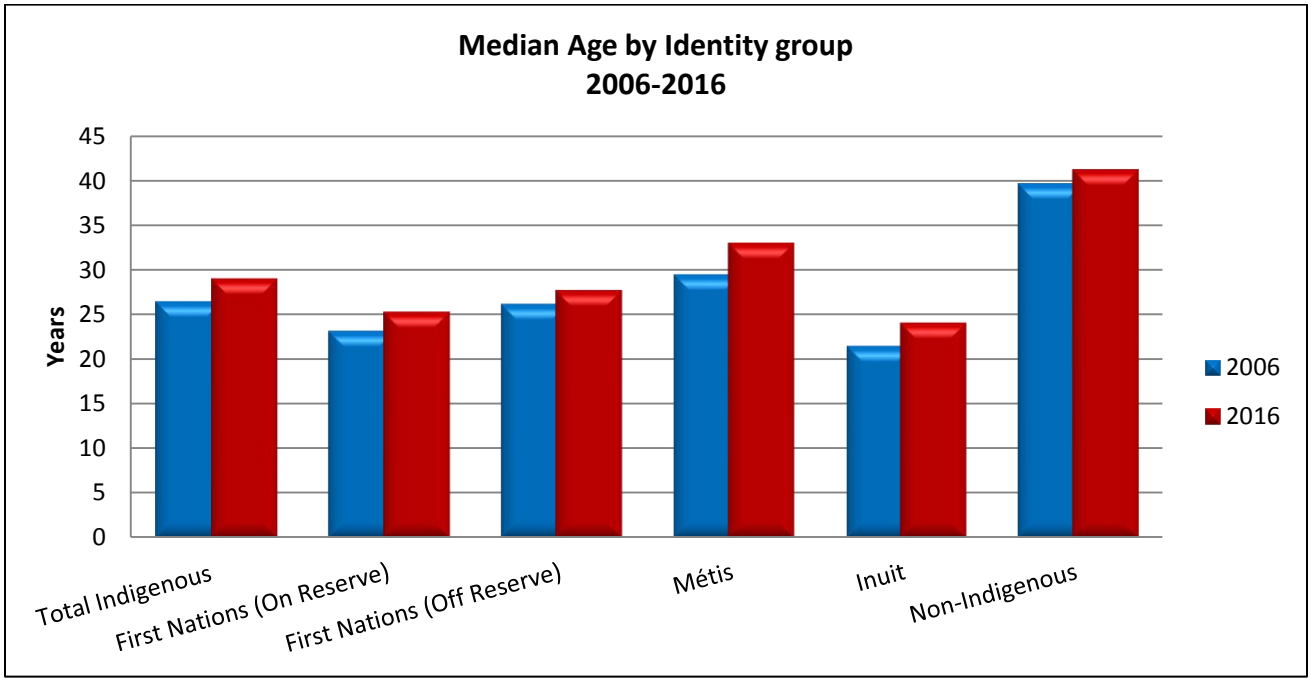
- For the overall Indigenous population, index scores improved more than the non-Indigenous population from 2006 to 2016 for all three indices.
- Métis had the highest index scores among Indigenous identity groups. Their overall index score increased more than any other population group.
- Index scores remained lowest for First Nations on reserve but improved from 2006 to 2016. Outcomes for underlying indicators on reserve improved more than for core indicators which was driven by increases in income. While overall outcomes for First Nations on reserve improved from 2006 to 2016, the increase was lowest among all population groups.

A LOOK AT YOUTH

As the future of the nation, youth have the talent and drive to succeed in the labour market. Healthy and educated youth are critical for social and economic progress, especially when there are now fewer non-Indigenous young people about to enter the labour force than those about to leave it. The 2016 Census revealed a continuing trend of a young and growing Indigenous population - growing at a rate four times that of the non-Indigenous population. This represents a chance to foster improved education, skills training and employment readiness for Indigenous youth to fill the labour shortages anticipated with Canada's aging population.

According to the 2016 Census, the median age for Canada's Indigenous population is 29.1 years, as opposed to a median age of 41.3 years for non-Indigenous Canadians. The Inuit population is notably younger, with a median age of 24 years whereas the median age among Métis is 33 years, edging closer to the median age of non-Indigenous Canadians (Figure 65).

Figure 65: Median Age by Identity Group 2006-2016



Sources: Statistics Canada, 2016 Census of Population and INAC 2016 Core Table 26

Indigenous youth represent the fastest growing source of labour in the country and will continue to do so well into the future. This chapter considers the progress of several education and employment indicators concerning Indigenous youth. In this report, Indigenous youth are defined as individuals between the ages of 15 and 24 years of age.

Background

Indigenous youth have long been under-represented in the labour market and have had lower levels of educational attainment.

Indigenous youth have faced significant barriers in society, including overrepresentation in many negative statistical categories. Indigenous incarceration, child apprehension, suicide rates and domestic violence are more prevalent than within the non-Indigenous population.

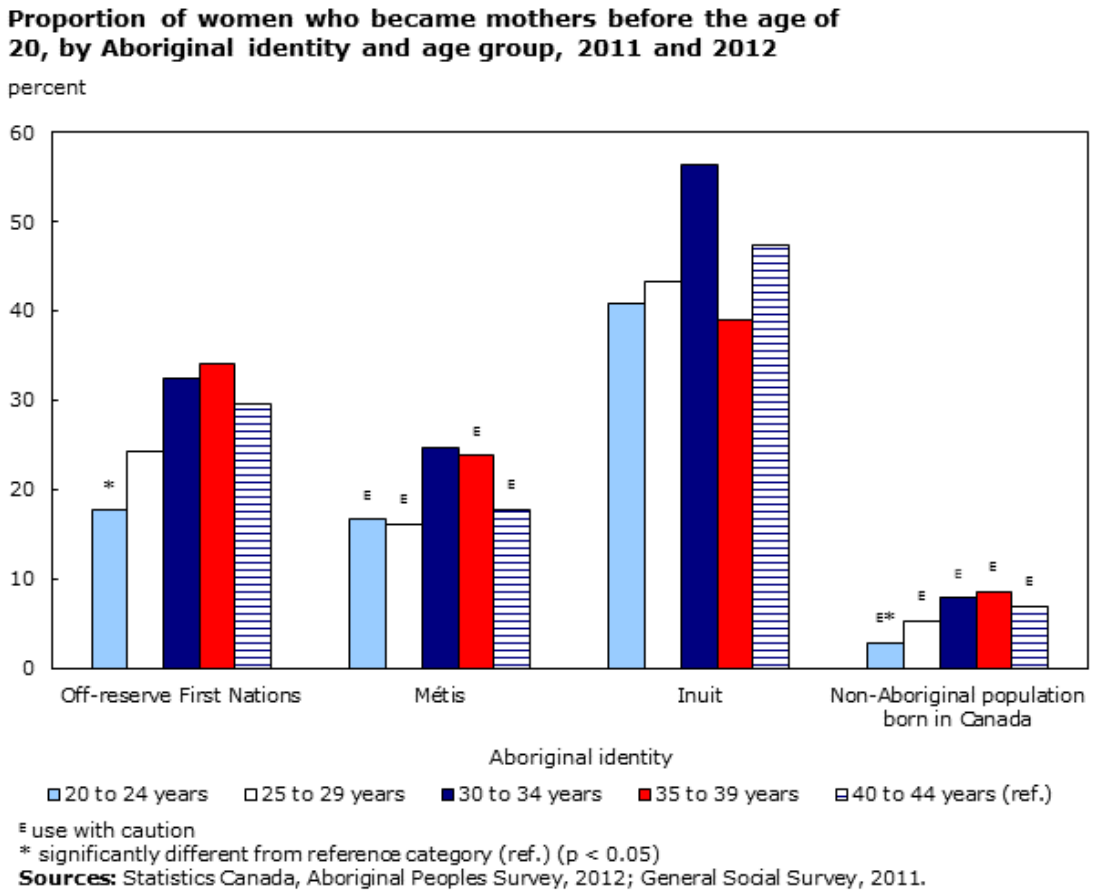
- In 2015-16, Indigenous youth represented 35% of all youth admissions to correctional services. This represents an increase from 2014-2015 when Indigenous youth represented 33% of admissions.[139]
- Indigenous children made up 7.7% of all children under the age of 15 in 2016 but accounted for 52.2% of children in foster care in private homes.[140]
- Regarding domestic violence, the 2014 General Social Survey (GSS) found that 40% of Indigenous respondents said they were physically or sexually abused as children, in contrast to 29 % of non-Indigenous people who reported family violence.[141]
- Suicide among First Nations youth (aged 15 to 24 years) across Canada is five to six times higher than among non-Indigenous youth.[142]

Factors influencing all of these social issues include the impacts of residential schools, experience in the child welfare system, dislocation and dispossession of land, family or community history of substance abuse and mental health issues, lack of formal education, poverty and gang membership.[143]

There are multiple dimensions of socioeconomic inequality for young Indigenous women in Canada as well.[144] Young Indigenous women are more likely than non-Indigenous young women to have children before the age of 20 (Figure 66), [145] potentially affecting economic and educational outcomes given the barriers that mothers face in the labour market. The 2012 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) found that women who had their first child during adolescence were significantly less likely to have a high school diploma and were less likely to be employed.[146]

[139] https://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/85-002-x/2017001/article/14702-eng.htm
[140]https://www.canada.ca/en/indigenous-services-canada/news/2019/02/an-act-respecting-first-nations-inuit-and-Métis-children-youth-and-families.html
[141] https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/daily-quotidien/160121/dq160121b-eng.htm
[142] http://www.ahf.ca/downloads/suicide.pdf
[143] http://www.oci-bec.gc.ca/cnt/rpt/oth-aut/oth-aut20121022info-eng.aspx
[144] The cedar project: using indigenous-specific determinants of health to predict substance use among young pregnant-involved aboriginal women
[145] Statistics Canada, "Early motherhood among off-reserve First Nations, Métis and Inuit women," http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/75-006-x/2017001/article/54877-eng.htm.
[146] Statistics Canada, "Early motherhood among off-reserve First Nations, Métis and Inuit women," http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/75-006-x/2017001/article/54877-eng.htm.

Figure 66: Proportion of women who became mothers before the age of 20, by Aboriginal identify and age group, 2011 and 2012

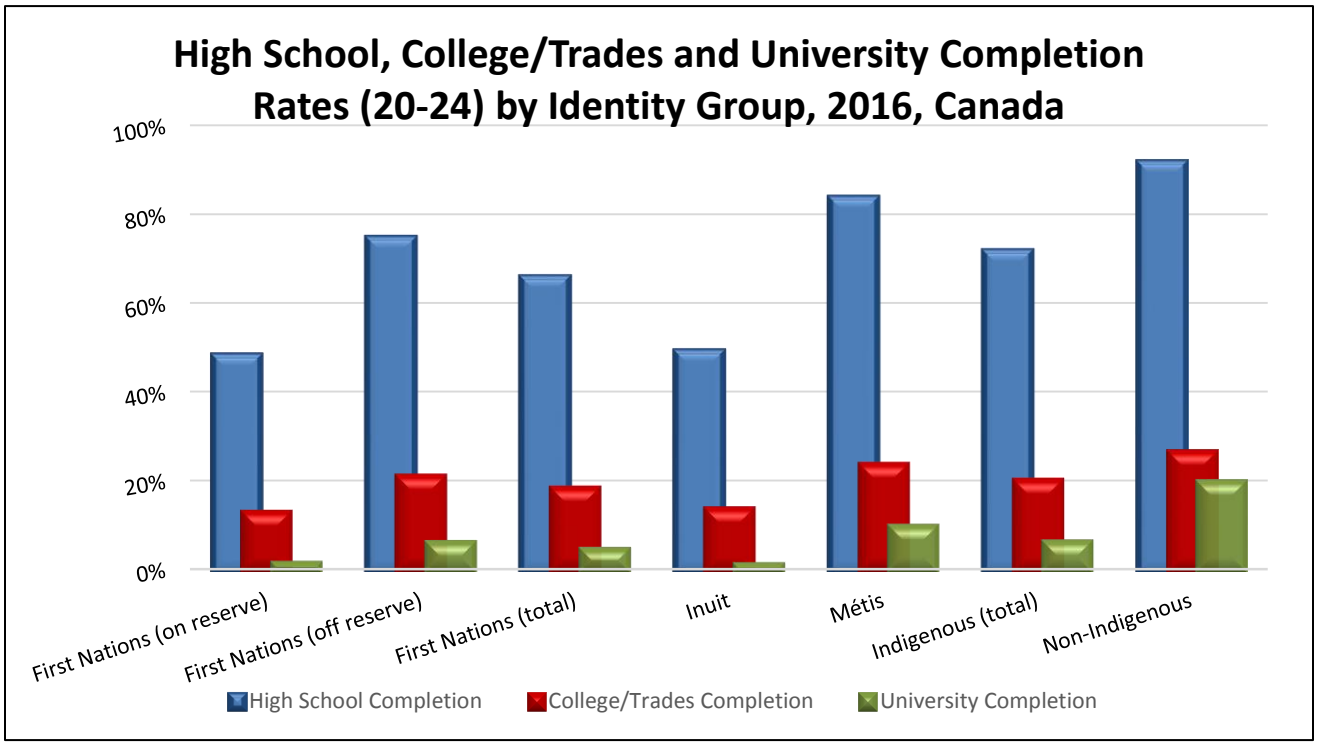


E use with caution
* significantly different from reference category (ref.) ($p < 0.05$)
Sources: Statistics Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Survey, 2012; General Social Survey, 2011.

Education

Higher levels of educational achievement are associated with better employment opportunities and higher income. Level of educational attainment often shapes an individual's occupational and career choices and therefore their income potential. Overall community-level education levels are also critical components of social and economic progress. As discussed in the chapter on *Underlying Indicator #1: Education*, the findings for education outcomes for Indigenous youth age 20-24 years old are largely the same as those for adults aged 25-65 years (see Figure 68 and Table 36 in Appendix A). The results are generally improving from 2006, with the exception of the Inuit university completion rate which is likely influenced by the absence of a post-secondary university in the region.

Figure 67: High School, College/Trades and University Completion Rates (20-24 years) by Identity Group, 2016, Canada



Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

For youth aged 20-24 the high school completion rate showed the largest magnitude of improvements over the 10 year period, where the total Indigenous youth high school completion rate rose 12.1 percentage points from 59.7% to 71.8%. However, graduation rates for First Nations (48.4%) and Inuit youth (49.3%) lagged behind Métis and non-Indigenous graduation levels (83.8% and 91.8% respectively) with less than half of the 20-24 years olds completing high school. There remains a major gap to close between Indigenous and non-Indigenous high school graduation rates which in 2016 were 91.8%. (Figure 67 and Appendix A, Table 34)

The proportion of all Indigenous youth aged 20-24 years who completed college and trades education improved overall from 17.7% in 2006 to 20.1% in 2016. The gap in the completion rate between Indigenous youth and non-Indigenous youth also decreased across all identity groups in part due to a decrease in the percentage of non-Indigenous youth who completed a college or a trade degree from 27.1% to 26.5%. The largest increase of Indigenous youth completing a college or trade degree was First Nations youth off reserve, which grew by 4.2 percentage points from 2006 to 2016.

It was a very different outcome in terms of University completion rates as all identity groups experienced an increase in the gap in the completion rate between Indigenous and non-Indigenous youth. This was strongly influenced by an increase of 2.5 percentage points among non-Indigenous youth with a university education over the period from 2006 to 2016 (from 17.2% of the population to 19.7%) which outpaced the marginal advancements made by Indigenous youth over the same period.

For Inuit youth, the number of students who attained a university degree dropped by 0.8 percentage points over this time period.

There are positive signs in the field of academia which will hopefully encourage Indigenous students to stay in school and seek higher education, a key to improving their employment prospects. According to universities across Canada, they are responding to the *Truth and Reconciliation Commission's* Calls to Action to create relevant content for Indigenous students. In 2017, Universities Canada reported there were 233 undergraduate and 62 graduate-level programs with an Indigenous focus in 2015. This is up 33 per cent from two years before for the 96 institutions. According to an article in Maclean's magazine, "retention rates for Indigenous students in programs two years or longer was 65 per cent, equal to non-Indigenous students, up from 54 per cent in fall 2006."[147]

Findings demonstrate that Indigenous youth are heading back to school to attain higher levels of education. The First Nations Regional Early Childhood, Education and Employment Survey (FNREEES) released in 2016, found that among the 16.1% of First Nations youth who had dropped out of school, nearly three-quarters (73.3%) eventually returned. The most commonly reported reasons for returning to school were "parent(s)/ guardian(s) suggested I return" (53.6%) and "realized value of education/wanted a diploma" (45.9%).[148] The survey also found that parental involvement in their children's education had a key impact on the student's performance and attendance. For example, the dropout rate among First Nations youth who reported that their parents regularly spoke to their teachers was 11%; compared to 26% among First Nations youth who reported that their parents never spoke to their teachers.[149]

Educational attainment is essential given its close association with employment and income outcomes. The FNREEES found that of adults who did not complete high school only 28.0% reported being employed, compared to nearly half (49.2%) who completed high school, and nearly two-thirds (61.2%) who completed post-secondary education.[150] A federal government study from 2015 concurs on these findings and also found the employment rate for Indigenous youth rose with increased educational certification as 24% of those with no certification were employed in comparison to 56% of those who graduated from high school and 76% of those with university certifications.[151]

School Attendance in Nunavut

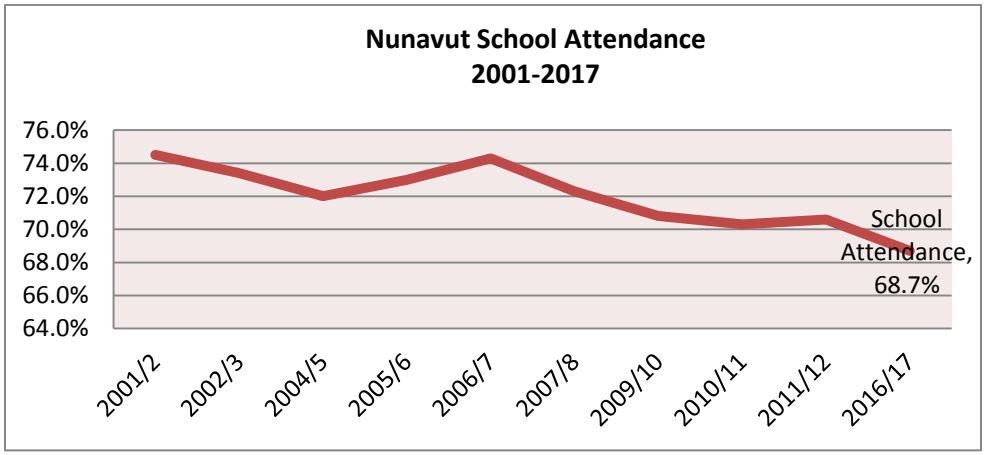
Low educational attainment is influenced by school attendance. If students are absent from school, they are less likely to acquire necessary competencies to succeed and are less likely to obtain a high school diploma and continue on to post-secondary education. School attendance rates can be influenced by issues such as: residential crowding limiting space for study and sleep; food insecurity;

[147] Supporting Indigenous students on campus: Finding the best approach, Macleans, Dec 5th 2017
[148] http://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_01312017.pdf, 30
[149] https://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_01312017.pdf, 38
[150] http://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_28072016_0.pdf, 67
[151] https://www.aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/DAM/DAM-INTER-HQ-AI/STAGING/texte-text/post_secondary_education_and_lm_1452001640143_eng.pdf

health status which is lower for many Nunavummiut, and social issues such as early pregnancy and substance abuse. [152]

Noting the association between school attendance and educational attainment, the Government of Nunavut collects data regarding school attendance rates at community, regional and territorial levels. Although these data are only applicable to Nunavut, they may demonstrate trends which are influential in Indigenous youth education, future employment and income. In 2016-2017, the school attendance rate was 68.2%, down from 70.6% in 2011-12[153] (Figure 68). As per the 2013 Auditor General's Report on Nunavut Education, low rates of attendance in school result in the average student having missed the equivalent of more than three full academic years by the end of high school. This can mean longer times to complete high school. Although the high school completion rate is increasing for all Indigenous youth including Inuit, data show that at least in Nunavut, it may be taking youth longer to complete their high school degrees due to low school attendance rates.

Figure 68: Nunavut School Attendance from 2001-17



Source: Nunavut Bureau of Statistics, Department of Education, 2001-2017

A Nunavut MLA pleaded for more daycare spots in his community in 2013 saying the lack of daycare spaces was preventing young parents, who would normally attend Grade 10 to Grade 12, from going to school.[154] This is likely a challenge across the territory as half of Inuit women have at least one child before the age of twenty and research indicates that women who have had a child in adolescence were less likely to complete high school.[155] These factors can affect attendance and student performance, complicating the Government of Nunavut's efforts to deliver education and increase high school completion rates.

[152] http://www.oag-bvg.gc.ca/internet/English/nun_201311_e_38772.html

[153] Attendance Rate is the percentage of total school days for which students attended school. This rate is calculated by dividing the total number of days for which students are marked present or late by the total number of scheduled school days. Attendance rates are calculated from data compiled in the Department of Education's Student Information System.

[154] https://www.nunatsiaqonline.ca/stories/article/65674nunavut_mla_says_lack_of_daycare_hurts_high_school_attendance/

[155] https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/75-006-x/2017001/article/54877-eng.htm

Innovative Private Sector Assistance in Gjoa Haven
Gjoa Haven, Nunavut has historically had one of the lowest attendance rates in the Territory. In 2016-17 on any given day, half of the students were not in class. To address this issue Canadian North Airlines has partnered with the community to try to show them that going to school pays – or in this case - flies. In 2018-19, the top attending students each month in Gjoa Haven's community schools will have a chance to enter a draw to win one of two pairs of plane tickets (to include one adult chaperone for each student) for a trip to Edmonton. Tickets will be awarded at the end of the school year. It is too soon for the school to release attendance numbers, but anecdotal evidence seems to indicate that the initiative is working. The current principal says she's seeing more faces in school than before. "You know there's more people because you're giving out more pencils, you're serving more food," she said. "What I can tell you is that, in the past, (attendance figures) have been much lower. I have students who have never been to school who have 100 per cent attendance now, or 90 to 100 per cent. For me, that's a huge accomplishment as a teacher." (Source: Nunavut News, December 18th 2018)

- Across all Identity groups there has been improvement in high school graduation rates but still less than 50% of First Nation on reserve and Inuit youth attain a high school degree.
- There is only a small improvement in the Indigenous youth's college/trade attainment levels. The gap has closed between non-Indigenous youth primarily because fewer non-Indigenous youth are earning trade or college degrees.
- The gap in the proportion of university completion between non-Indigenous youth and Indigenous youth widened by 1.2 percentage points primarily due to an increase in the percentage of the non-Indigenous youth population who have attained a university education.

Employment Measures

The unemployment rate of young people has always been generally higher than that of older Canadians, regardless of economic conditions, but increasing levels of education may be contributing to young people putting off their entry into the labour market longer. In 2012, the unemployment rate across Canada of persons aged 15 to 24 was 14.3%, a rate twice the national average (7.2%).[156]

Indigenous youth aged 15 to 24, other than Métis, continued in 2016 to show deficit employment indicators (employment rate, participation rate and unemployment rate) compared to non-Indigenous youth the same age. Specifically, First Nations youth on reserve experience significantly worse employment indicators than other identity groups, with an employment rate of 17.1%, a labour participation rate of 28.9%, and an unemployment rate of 40.8%. The comparable rates for non-Indigenous youth are 52.8%, 62.1% and 12.4%, respectively (Figures 69, 70, and 71).

[156] https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/75-006-x/2013001/article/11847-eng.htm
Employment measures used for this Report do not discern corresponding education status, therefore some employed persons may also be attending an educational institution at the same time as being employed or looking for work.

For Métis youth, the employment outcome gaps between 2006 and 2016 have narrowed and are now comparable with non-Indigenous youth. In particular, the employment rate gap between the two groups shrank from 2.6 to 0.5 percentage points over the ten years. Similarly, the labour force participation rates of Métis youth trailed non-Indigenous youth by 0.8% in 2006, but in 2016 exceeded non-Indigenous youth by 1.1%, reaching the Board's 2022 goal early. (Figures 69, 70, and 71).

Outcomes for First Nations youth on reserve worsened over the ten year period, but the gap remained relatively stagnant between Indigenous and non-Indigenous youth as both groups exhibited decreased youth participation rates and increases in unemployment rates mirroring larger trends discussed previously. First Nations on reserve youth aged 15-24 years old exhibited a decrease in their participation rate from 33.2% to 28.9% (compared to a decrease from 66.3% to 62.1% for non-Indigenous youth). Simultaneously, their unemployment rate increased from 38% to 40.8% (contrasted with an increase from 12.4% to 15.1% for non-Indigenous youth) from 2006-2016. Significant gaps between the two groups persist and no progress has been made in these areas. (Figures 69, 70, and 71).

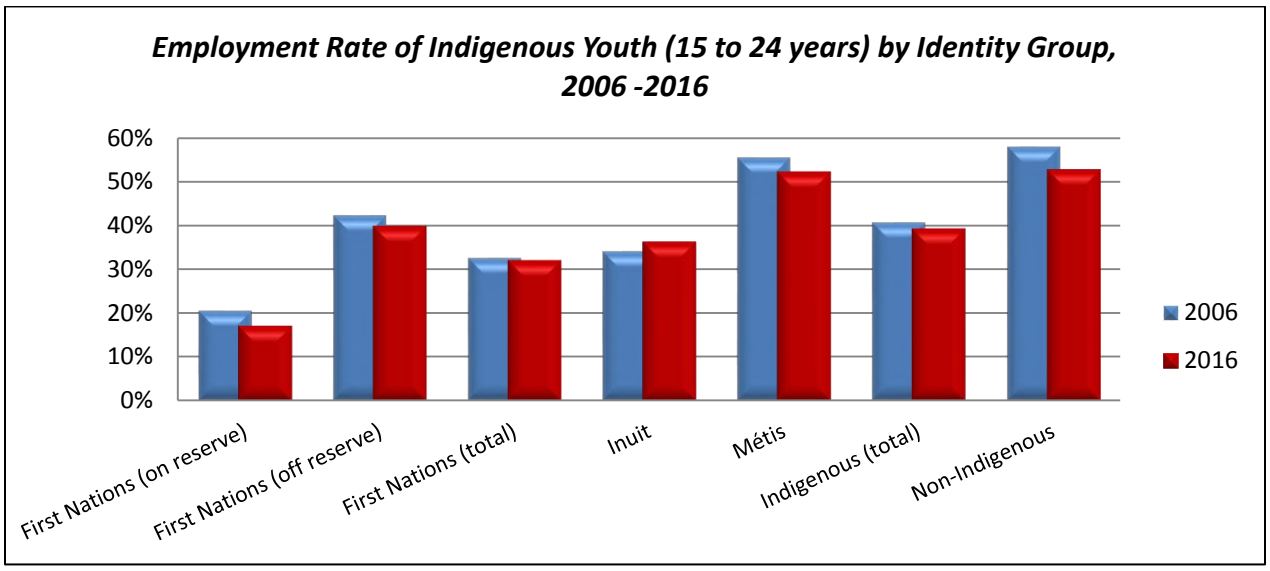
Gaps between First Nations youth off reserve and non-Indigenous youth improved slightly; however, this was largely influenced by the decreased employment outcomes for non-Indigenous youth and not necessarily by improved outcomes for Indigenous youth.

Inuit youth have shown progress towards closing the gap with non-Indigenous youth. Although the Inuit youth unemployment rate increased by 3.4 percentage points (compared to a 2.7 percentage point increase for non-Indigenous youth) the Inuit youth labour participation rate and employment rate increased by 5.2 and 2.2 percentage points respectively, in comparison with the non-Indigenous youth corresponding rates, which reduced by 4.2 and 5.2 percentage points, respectively. (Figures 69, 70, and 71).

For both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, the employment rate of youth was lower than the rate for the total population. However, the gap between youth and adult (age 25+) employment rates was wider for the Indigenous population than for the non-Indigenous population, indicating that Indigenous youth face additional barriers which make it difficult to achieve employment rates comparable to both the general adult Indigenous population and to their non-Indigenous peers.

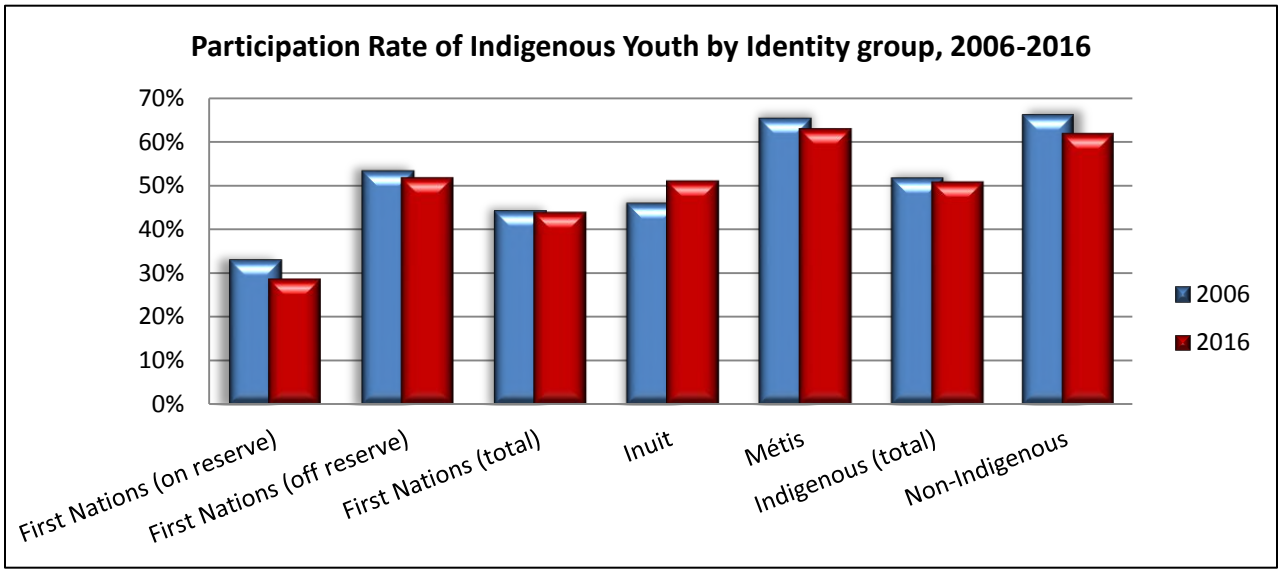
The unemployment rate is highest for First Nations on reserve youth at 40.8%. This rate is almost triple the unemployment rate of their non-Indigenous peers, and nearly double the unemployment rate of their Métis peers. This indicates persistent barriers to employment for First Nations youth on reserve (Figure 71).

Figure 69: Employment Rate of Indigenous Youth (15 to 24 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016



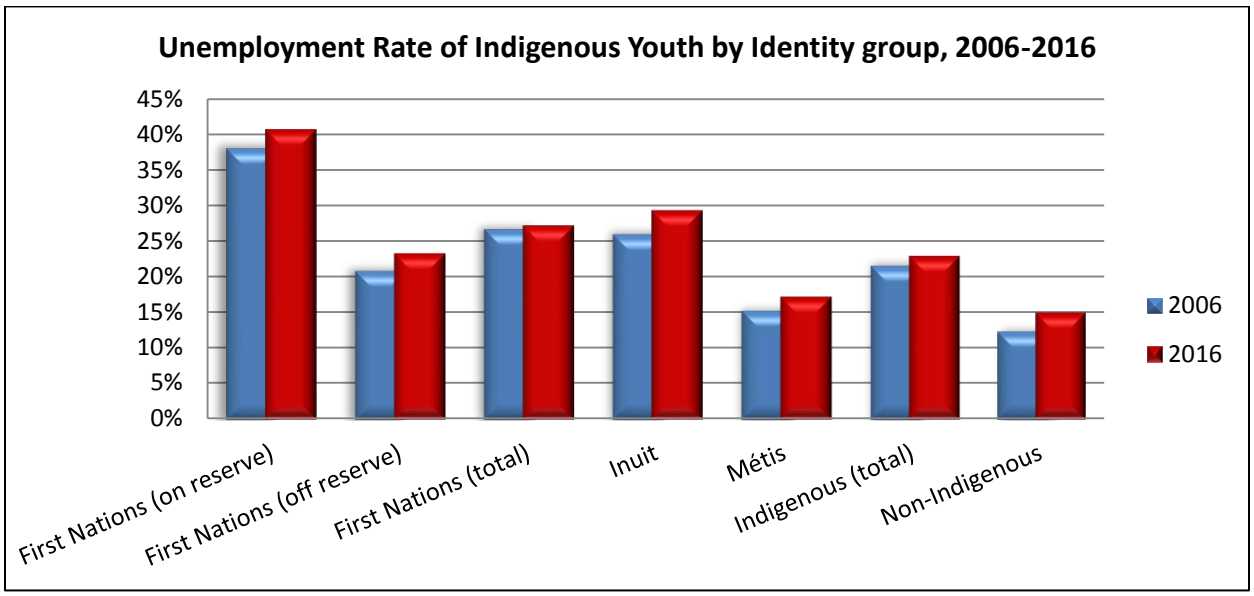
Source: Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05
See Appendix A, Table 36 for full Employment Measures of Indigenous Youth by Identity group 2006-2016

Figure 70: Participation Rate of Indigenous Youth (15 to 24 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016



Source: Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05
See Appendix A, Table 36 for full Employment Measures of Indigenous Youth by Identity group 2006-2016

Figure 71: Unemployment Rate of Indigenous Youth (15 to 24 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016



Source: Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05
See Appendix A, Table 36 for full Employment Measures of Indigenous Youth by Identity group 2006-2016

According to The National Report of the First Nations Regional Early Childhood, Education and Employment Survey conducted on reserve and released in 2016, the remoteness of a First Nations community played no significant role in unemployment rates within these communities. Unemployment rates in urban First Nation communities (22%) were not significantly different from the rates in rural (24%) or remote communities (22%). In fact, it appears that the size of a community had a greater impact on outcomes, with employment rates being highest (63%) in smaller First Nations communities (less than 300 people), compared to 47% in larger First Nations communities (more than 1,500 people).[157]

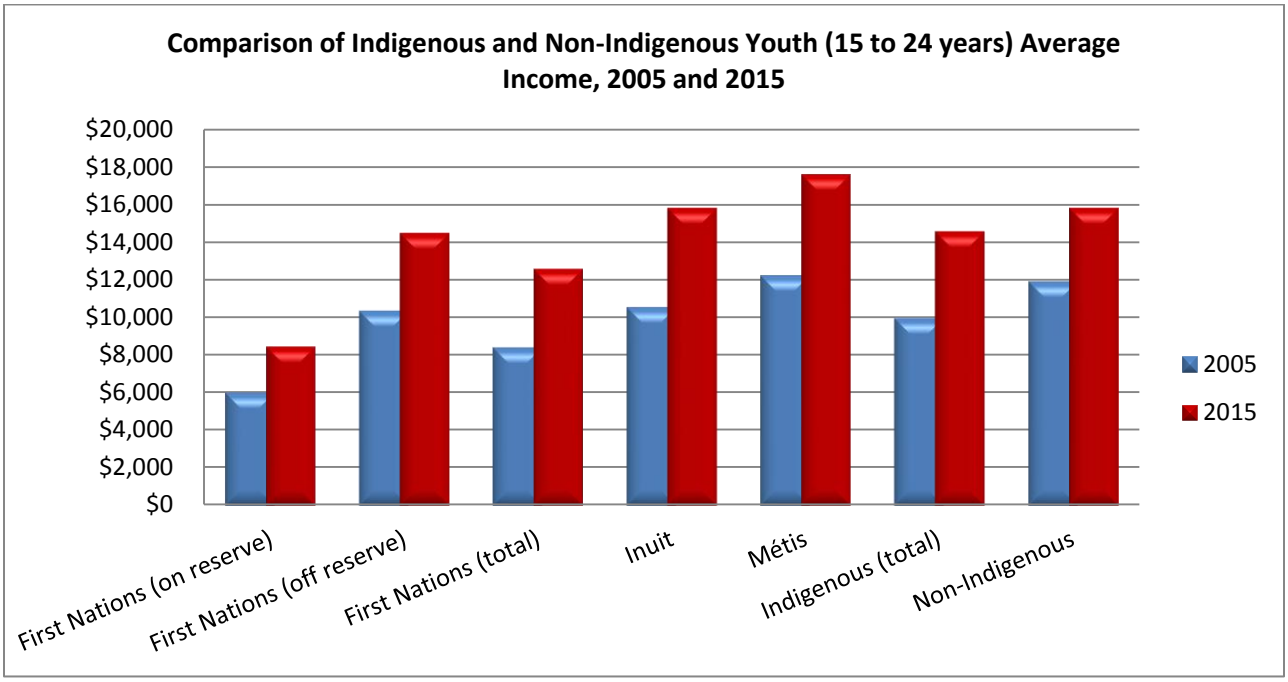
Youth Income

The overall income gap between the total Indigenous youth population aged 15-24 years of age and non-Indigenous Canadians has experienced substantial improvement. The gap of 16.4 percentage points in 2005 has closed to a gap of only 7.9 percentage points in 2015. A major contributor to this change was Métis youth outpacing non-Indigenous youth in their average income levels, earning 11.3% more than their non-Indigenous counterparts. Inuit youth have also seen their average income levels increase dramatically from $10,519 in 2005 to $15,844 in 2015. In 2005, the average income gap had been 11.5 percentage points, whereas in 2015 the gap had disappeared with Inuit earning 0.02 percentage points more than non-Indigenous youth. The greatest disparity was identified between First Nations youth on reserve and non-Indigenous youth. While the income gap was 49.5 percentage points in 2005, the gap had narrowed marginally to 46.6 percentage points by 2015, showing that First Nations youth on reserve are experiencing slower growth rates and persistent barriers. The situation is better for First Nations youth off reserve; however the gap is still 8.4 percentage points below their non-Indigenous

[157] https://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_01312017.pdf, 83

counterparts, an improvement from 2005 when the average income gap was 13.5 percentage points below non-Indigenous youth (Figure 72 and Appendix A, Table 35).

Figure 72: Comparison of Indigenous and Non-Indigenous Youth (15 to 24 Years) Average Income, 2005 and 2015



Dates differ due to the fact that the Census collects data on income from the previous tax year. Data average is calculated only on youth with income. Those without income are not included in calculations.
Sources: Statistics Canada, 2006 Census of Population and 2016 Census

- In 2016 Indigenous youth, other than Métis youth, showed little progress in their employment outcomes (employment rate, labour participation rate and unemployment rate) compared to non-Indigenous youth.
- Inuit Youth are making progress in that their labour participation and employment rates have increased
- First Nations youth on reserve faced the largest gap in their employment outcomes with those of their non-Indigenous counterparts; outcomes were consistent with the 2005 levels.
- Average Income levels for Indigenous youth are improving across all Identity groups from 2005, with the exception of First Nations on reserve.

Support for Indigenous Youth Economic Engagement

In 2016, the Government of Canada formed an expert Youth Employment Panel to assess the barriers faced by vulnerable youth in finding and keeping jobs and to examine innovative practices used to improve job opportunities. The panel found that many Indigenous youth face additional barriers when seeking employment, such as discrimination, intergenerational experiences of colonization, challenges

accessing education, employment and training (particularly in the North) and finding employment opportunities in their community. [158,159]

In terms of the challenges accessing education, geography and access are both factors, but funding is one of the most significant. The Post-Secondary Student Support Program (PSSSP) is a federal program that provides First Nations and Inuit students with financial support for post-secondary education in Canada for two years. Since 1996, the number of students funded through PSSSP has been capped, even though the number of Indigenous youth graduating from high school is rising.[160] In 2018, the program was supporting 4500 students.

First Nations youth believe that they have the basic skills needed to succeed in the labour market, but the education system may be failing them. When First Nations youth (aged 12 to 17 years) were asked to rate themselves on jobs skills, such as using a computer, writing, and mathematics, more than half (57.6%) rated their skills as average and 31.3% rated themselves as excellent.[161] But when judged by the criteria of the International Adult Literacy and Skills Survey (IALSS), the majority of First Nations adults and youth were actually at or below the level needed to take full advantage of post-secondary education and to compete in Canada's labour markets.[162] This gap between perception of skills and objective assessment may be interfering in the ability to self-assess and pursue additional opportunities to improve skills to a level that is competitive for education and employment.

In 2017, the Youth Employment Panel recommended that the Government of Canada work to create urban Indigenous healing and employment hubs, invest in infrastructure (including education infrastructure), develop distance education, enable mentorship, and invest in entrepreneurial Indigenous youth. [163]

Despite the noted barriers, the reduction in the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous youth employment rates between 2006 and 2016 demonstrates a positive change. The strength of community itself can have a positive impact on an individual's success, as a labour force report from Atlantic Canada which interviewed First Nations and Inuit community members found that family support contributed to the success of study participants more than any other community, institutional, or individual variable. [164]

Indigenous youth are taking charge of their future in inspiring ways and are increasingly embracing education as well as their traditions and identities. They are working to make their communities safer and are advocating for Indigenous rights in the international arena. [165,166] Despite the challenges they

[158] Understanding the Realities: Youth Employment in Canada (2016), 12. http://publications.gc.ca/collections/collection_2017/edsc-esdc/Em4-13-2016-eng.pdf
[159] 13 Ways to Modernize Youth Employment in Canada: Strategies for a New World of Work (2017), 15.
[160] https://www.afn.ca/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/PSE_Fact_Sheet_ENG.pdf
[161] http://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_28072016_0.pdf, 43
[162] http://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_28072016_0.pdf, 89
[163] 13 Ways to Modernize Youth Employment in Canada: Strategies for a New World of Work (2017), 8.
[164] http://fnigc.ca/sites/default/files/docs/fnigc_fnreees_national_report_2016_en_final_28072016_0.pdf, 53
[165] Max FineDay "Rage or Reconciliation," *Policy Options,* January 16, 2017, http://policyoptions.irpp.org/magazines/january-2017/rage-or-reconciliation/
[166] Darcy Lindberg, "Why 2018 will be the year of Indigenous youth," December 26, 2017, http://www.macleans.ca/opinion/why-2018-will-be-the-year-of-indigenous-youth/

face, Indigenous youth are demonstrating exceptional innovation and success in economic development and re-building their communities through entrepreneurship and their motivation to contribute.[167] From Entrepreneurial summer camps for high school students to the Indigenous Youth Idea Challenge competition run by the international organization Enactus through the University of Saskatchewan .[168] to the Young Entrepreneurs Symposium (YES) in BC[169] – there are many organizations and support for young Indigenous entrepreneurs to encourage and support their innovation and growth.

- Indigenous youth perceptions regarding their skills may exceed assessment findings, preventing an understanding of needed areas of improvement to compete for educational and employment opportunities.
- The Youth Employment Panel recommends investments in educational infrastructure, increased investment in youth entrepreneurship and the creation of urban Indigenous healing and employment hubs, to support Indigenous youth in finding and keeping jobs.

Conclusions

Our focus on youth shows that education completion results are generally improving from 2006, and also that of those students who drop out, a large percentage may end up returning to school to complete their education at a later date. This should mean improved employment prospects in the future for Indigenous youth as there is a close relationship between educational attainment and employment prospects. Regarding employment, it is once again Métis youth who are faring better than other youth (Indigenous and non-Indigenous), whereas First Nations youth on reserve are experiencing significantly worse employment indicators than other identity groups. Income levels have improved for all youth, but once again it is Métis youth who are outpacing all other groups, even earning a higher average income than non-Indigenous youth. Perhaps with greater employment support, investment and mentorship, the other identity groups can follow the Métis youth's lead and close these gaps between themselves and non-Indigenous youth.

[167] Raven Smith, "For aboriginal peoples, entrepreneurship is the path to economic independence," *The Globe and Mail,* May 8, 2015, https://www.theglobeandmail.com/opinion/for-aboriginals-entrepreneurship-is-the-path-to-economic-independence/article24327664/
[168] https://thestarphoenix.com/news/local-news/indigenous-youth-idea-challenge-aims-to-promote-new-entrepreneurs
[169] https://youngentrepreneurssymposium.ca/

REGIONAL DATA

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), regional disparity in Canada is among the widest in the developed world.[170] Examining only nation-wide data on employment and income indicators can obscure region specific gaps. While location is a fact that cannot be changed, understanding where the biggest gaps exist can help direct investments and policy changes to where it is needed the most.

Employment Rate

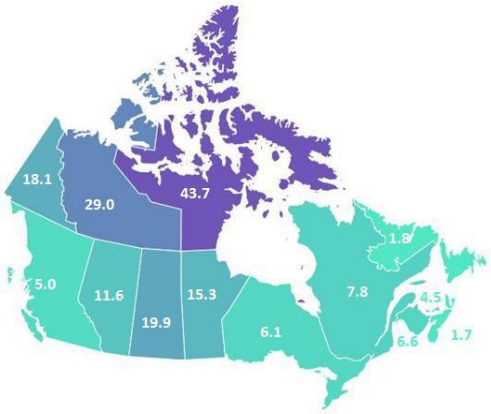


Figure 73: Size of Gap in Employment Rates (percentage points)

In 2016, the disparity between Indigenous and non-Indigenous employment rates was more pronounced in the Prairie Provinces and most significant in the Territories. Gender gaps in employment rates within the overall Indigenous population were most significant in the Prairies and the Territories. Interestingly, in the Prairies, employment rates were higher among men than women in the overall Indigenous population; however, the opposite was the case in the Territories. The gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous employment rates is most significant in Nunavut, where the non-Indigenous employment rate is nearly double the Indigenous employment rate. The gap is smallest in Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and Labrador, and Prince Edward Island, suggesting a strong Indigenous economy in Atlantic Canada. Across all regions, First Nations on reserve experienced the lowest employment rates, (with a range of 28.1% in Saskatchewan to 43.9% in the Northwest Territories) (Figure 73, See Appendix A, Table 38).

Labour Force Participation Rate

In 2016, the labour force participation rate for non-Indigenous women was higher than for Indigenous women in all provinces except for British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland and Labrador. The labour force participation rate for non-Indigenous men was higher than for Indigenous men in all provinces except Newfoundland and Labrador, PEI and Nova Scotia. The gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous labour force participation rates were most pronounced in the Territories.

First Nations on reserve experienced the highest labour force participation rate in Prince Edward Island (73.2%)[171], and the lowest labour force participation rates in Saskatchewan and Manitoba (41.1% and 40.7%, respectively). Métis labour force participation rates exceeded non-Indigenous rates in every region except for Alberta and the Northwest Territories. Inuit labour force participation rates were

[170] http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/urban-rural-and-regional-development/oecd-regional-outlook-2014_9789264201415-en#page1

[171] Given the small data sample size on Prince Edward Island, results may be less accurate.

highest in Alberta (70.2%) and the Yukon (70.6%) and lowest in Ontario (58.4%) (see Appendix A, Table 39).

Unemployment Rate

The gaps in unemployment rates were largest in the Territories and in the Prairies. The unemployment rate was highest for Indigenous men in Nunavut and the Yukon. In each region, the unemployment was always higher for Indigenous men than Indigenous women. In 2016, the unemployment rate for Indigenous peoples in each region was higher than the Canadian average (7.4%), indicating a systemic gap in unemployment rates across the country. First Nations men on reserve experienced a higher unemployment rate than First Nations women on reserve in all provinces.

First Nations on reserve experienced the highest unemployment rates in Prince Edward Island (42.3%)[159] and the lowest in the Northwest Territories (17.4%). Unemployment rates for First Nations on reserve were lowest for First Nations women in Québec (14.7%), Ontario (16.1%) and British Columbia (17.1%); however this is still significantly higher than the 6.8% average unemployment rate for non-Indigenous women. Unemployment rates for Métis were highest in Newfoundland and Labrador (22.4%) and lowest in the Northwest Territories (8.9%), Manitoba (9.2%) and British Columbia (9.7%). For Inuit, unemployment rates were highest in Nunavut (28%) and lowest in Saskatchewan (9.4%) (see Appendix A, Table 40).

Across all identity groups, the unemployment rates for women were generally lower than for men.

Average Total Income/Median Total Income

In terms of average income, the Indigenous population had the highest incomes in the Northwest Territories, followed by Alberta and Yukon. This is similar to the non-Indigenous population which reports the three highest average incomes in Nunavut, followed by the Northwest Territories and Alberta.

The provinces with the lowest average incomes for Indigenous populations are New Brunswick, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, which have a different profile than the non-Indigenous populations, where the lowest average incomes reported are in the Maritimes: Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia.

Similarly, in terms of median income, the Indigenous population had the highest median incomes in Yukon, Northwest Territories and Alberta, whereas the non-Indigenous population also reported the highest incomes in these provinces/territory but in a slightly different order (i.e., Nunavut, the Northwest Territories, Yukon and Alberta).

The lowest median income of all territories and provinces for Indigenous peoples are in Nunavut, Prince Edward Island , Manitoba and Saskatchewan whereas non-Indigenous populations reported the lowest incomes in the Maritime provinces: New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador and Prince Edward Island.

In general, the Métis population displayed similar regional income profiles as the non-Indigenous populations, where they share the same top five and bottom five median income provinces and territories. In contrast, First Nations on reserve see the lowest median incomes in provinces (Saskatchewan and Manitoba) that have actually reported higher than Canadian averages for non-Indigenous populations, suggesting a great disparity between the economic situations on reserve versus the rest of the populations in these provinces (see Appendix A, Table 41).

Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers

Proportion of income received from government transfers correlates well with the pattern observed in relation to average/median total income for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. The provinces in which the Indigenous population had the highest proportion of income received from government transfers were those of lowest average income (i.e., New Brunswick at 23.4%, Saskatchewan at 19.9% and Manitoba at 19.5%) in addition to Quebec at 22.2%. Conversely, the provinces in which the Indigenous population had the least proportion of income received from government transfers were those of highest median incomes (Alberta, the Northwest Territories and Yukon at 11.8%, 13.2% and 14.6%, respectively).

By identity group, First Nations on reserve earned the least in Manitoba and Saskatchewan and these two provinces reported the highest proportion of income received from government transfers for First Nations on reserve (35.2% and 34.75%, respectively) (see Appendix A, Table 42).

Proportion of Individuals with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers

The highest proportion of Indigenous individuals whose main source of income was from government transfers were in Saskatchewan (38.9%) and Manitoba (36.6%). In particular, more than half the population of First Nations on reserve from these two provinces rely on government transfers (58.6% for Saskatchewan and 56.5% for Manitoba). This correlates with the low median incomes reported for First Nations on reserve in these provinces ($13,118 for Saskatchewan and $13,100 for Manitoba; lowest of any group reported in the country).

For the non- Indigenous population, a high proportion of individuals with their main source of income from government transfers were found in the Maritime provinces (Newfoundland and Labrador at 32.4%, New Brunswick at 27.5% and Nova Scotia at 26.6%), while the lowest numbers are found in Nunavut at 4.7%, the Northwest Territories at 7.7% and Yukon at 12.5%. These are correlated to total income levels reported (see Appendix A, Table 43).

- Gaps in employment outcomes persist between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples across all regions.
- First Nations on reserve continue to experience the lowest economic outcomes across all regions. First Nations on reserve have the lowest reported income levels, experience the lowest employment rates, and experience lower labour force participation rates across all regions.
- Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations earn the highest average and median income in the Yukon, Northwest Territories and Alberta. However, while non-Indigenous populations reported lowest income levels in Maritime Provinces, Indigenous populations reported the lowest income levels in the Maritime Provinces as well as Manitoba and Saskatchewan.
- Métis displayed similar geographical ranking profiles as the non-Indigenous populations in terms of income and employment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The promotion of Indigenous economic development requires a multi-faceted approach that addresses the barriers outlined in this report and encourages the foundations of proven success from Indigenous communities across Canada. Fostering sovereignty, supporting Indigenous institutions of governance and community leadership, safeguarding and honouring Indigenous culture and identity, and investing in youth and education are all strong drivers of Indigenous economic development. The National Indigenous Economic Development Board recommends the following actions towards closing the inequity gaps between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians:

EMPLOYMENT

- Findings suggest that while all Indigenous groups demonstrate higher unemployment rates than non-Indigenous groups, rates are strongly influenced by educational attainment rates, remote/on reserve community location, and gender inequity. Support for programs that match workers to locally-available and education-qualified opportunities can be informed by, and serve to inform community workforce plans. Community workforce plans would predict future employment needs in the community and address concerns voiced by Indigenous businesses regarding talent acquisition by having them engage with plan development. Further, through the anticipation of future local community need, students can have greater assurances of being able to find local employment and target educational plans accordingly while businesses can identify priority hiring targets to encourage local economic development.

INCOME

- As Indigenous groups are already working in high wage industries (but in the lowest-income jobs within those industries) the opportunity to amplify educational payoffs is great. Through an increase in training and internship opportunities for Indigenous employees in the industries that they are already working in, Indigenous employees could more efficiently move into higher occupational levels and increase their earning potential. Further to the *Truth and Reconciliation Commission*'s Call to Action #92, the education of non-Indigenous management into the benefits of greater Indigenous representation in high-income occupations would serve to encourage training and professional development opportunities.
- As Indigenous employees exceed median employment income levels with higher levels of education, this is even greater incentive to develop policies and programs to support Indigenous students towards higher levels of education. Continued showcasing of examples of Indigenous success, mentorship and leadership should be encouraged to enable students to envision the role of education in their future success.

COMMUNITY WELL-BEING

- The Community well-being index was identified by the Auditor General as lacking comprehensiveness in focusing primarily on economic indicators, not sufficiently utilizing First Nations data and not meaningfully engaging with First Nations to consider Indigenous meanings of community well-being. Health, the environment, language and culture are aspects that are being considered for future study and the Department has committed to working with Indigenous organizations to co-develop a broad dashboard of well-being outcomes to reflect mutually agreed upon metrics. Although the integration of new metrics will make historical comparisons of the CWB problematic, the more thorough assessment of community well-being for Indigenous communities will add considerable value. Consulting with all Indigenous groups will ensure diverse lived-experiences are considered. We look forward to these improvements in measuring outcomes of community well-being for the 2022 Report.

EDUCATION

- The Board would like to stress the importance of improving educational opportunities for the Indigenous population, especially First Nations on reserve. In this regard, a well-funded education system is essential and the development of strong basic skills (literacy and numeracy) in the early grades should be a top priority.
- Supports for community-based education must recognize the challenges faced by Indigenous students who must leave the community to attend high school and prioritize their physical and mental health, as well as cultural supports both where they attend high school and within the community to ensure ongoing student success.
- Given the high levels of college/trades completion, bridging programs to support students who wish to upgrade these certifications towards university degrees would fast track higher levels of education and employment opportunities. Such programs currently exist in some colleges to give credit for 1-2 year programs towards university degree requirements and expansion would further assist Indigenous students towards the attainment of higher education levels.
- Universities in each of the 3 Northern territories would support students in reducing the high costs and long distances currently required to attend university and increase the availability of a highly educated talent pool in the North. Yukon College is transitioning to Yukon University in 2020, Aurora College in the Northwest Territories is examining the feasibility of transitioning to Northern Canada Polytechnic University, and Arctic College in Nunavut is following recommendations to continue partnering with southern universities rather than pursue a university in Nunavut. In the interim, investment in distance education programs to assist remote students with obtaining higher levels of education would remove some barriers of expense and distance.
- Ongoing and expanded scholarship funding for Indigenous students pursuing post-secondary education would reduce financial barriers and encourage higher educational attainment rates.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT

- Research by CCAB suggests that barriers for business development include a lack of knowledge of where and how to apply for financing, as well as types of funding available and eligibility. Enhanced, more specific and greater availability of business services along with communications to increase awareness of application programs and support would benefit entrepreneurs seeking capital financing. Additionally, access to skills training for new business owners would assist with the development of business management skills to support business success.
- Given the legislation on reserve which disallows tax exemption and therefore discourages incorporation, and information to suggest incorporation is associated with revenue generation, further consideration of how First Nations on reserve businesses could be better supported should be examined.
- Access to capital remains a barrier to economic development. It is essential that the Aboriginal Financial Institutions are funded to ensure Indigenous entrepreneurs, often less likely to acquire financing from personal home equity or other sources, are able to obtain financing.

GOVERNANCE

- Strong governance and transparent financial management have led to robust economic development opportunities for Indigenous communities across Canada. The availability of tax revenues to support local development is initiated by the development of property taxation bylaws and supported by skilled and transparent community Financial Management Certification. Ongoing and expanded support for Indigenous communities wishing to pursue these opportunities will further ready communities to direct their own economic development opportunities.
- Due to an increase in Indigenous populations off reserve/out of territory, the NIEDB recommends the examination of needs and opportunities aimed at the more than 50% of Indigenous peoples living in urban populations.

LANDS AND RESOURCES

- The Additions to Reserve process provides a mechanism to address outstanding land transfers, but is currently backlogged by approximately 1,300 active applications of which eighty percent of all files represent a legal obligation for the Crown which must be addressed. There is a need to increase resources to the Additions to Reserve program to expedite applications, however there wasn't any funding announced in the 2019/2020 Federal Budget that was specific to the ATR program. The NIEDB recommends that future Federal Budgets announce funding to enhance and expedite the administration of the ATR program.

INFRASTRUCTURE

- Although indications suggest that all drinking water advisories will be lifted by 2022, it is essential that this time line not be disrupted and risk management protocols are developed to ensure all DWAs are lifted as soon as possible. Further, ongoing financial commitments must be assured to maintain infrastructure, human resources and testing protocols.

- Housing remains an ongoing issue that affects all aspects of socio-economic life in Indigenous communities. Although significant investments have been made, ongoing investments are required to ensure homes are repaired and new homes are built to keep pace with growing communities. The newly introduced Indigenous Homes Innovation Initiative will hopefully encourage new building methods, materials, architecture or engineering to serve Indigenous families and the environments they live in.
- This report has demonstrated that connectivity in Northern and remote communities is significantly below levels for all other communities, including remote non-Indigenous communities. Connectivity impacts virtually every aspect of our lives, and predictions for the future of work include an increasing reliance on connectivity and economic progress divided along lines of access to a global economy based on connectivity. Increasing speed and data capacity to all Indigenous communities is essential to social and economic development. Forecasting community need to be ahead of current demand and in consideration of housing realities will ensure connectivity is less likely to be outdated before it becomes a reality.
- The Infrastructure Index Report captures the current infrastructure picture for remote Indigenous communities in Canada. Updating the index every two years to measure progress in reducing the Indigenous infrastructure gap would be useful.

GENDER

- Findings indicate that although men have lower educational outcomes than women, they nevertheless earn more than women in the same occupations and industries. In order to understand the sources of these gaps (e.g. family care work responsibilities), a study could be conducted on the particular barriers experienced by Indigenous women in advancing in these occupations and industries with results used to inform policy and programs to improve educational outcomes in men and employment/income outcomes in women.
- Indigenous men and women demonstrate different educational outcomes. Policies and strategies directed towards increasing high school, college/trades, and university completion rates among Indigenous peoples could address the unique barriers experienced differently by men and women and could be targeted for program and policy development accordingly (e.g. childcare).

YOUTH

- Entrepreneurship should be promoted and supported as a valid career option for youth through the mentorship and showcasing of Indigenous business leaders and ventures. Government-funded Indigenous youth entrepreneurship/start-up financing should also include essential business services training and coaching/mentorship services.
- We specifically recommend that the Government create urban Indigenous healing and employment hubs; invest in basic education infrastructure; develop distance education training; create an alumni fund to enable mentorship; and invest in Indigenous scholarship funding to support post-secondary education.
- Given this strong influence of parents and family on education outcomes - it is important to consider family and community when creating programs that promote education and employment skills for youth. Community inclusion in the development of programming will be essential.

ANNEX A: TABLES

CORE INDICATOR #1: EMPLOYMENT

Table 1: Employment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 Employment Rate	**Total - Sex**	**39.0%**	**54.9%**	**48.2%**	**48.9%**	**63.1%**	**53.7%**	**62.7%**
	Male	39.7%	59.5%	50.7%	48.6%	66.3%	56.5%	68.0%
	Female	38.4%	51.1%	46.1%	49.1%	60.0%	51.1%	57.7%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-23.7**	**-7.8**	**-14.5**	**-13.8**	**0.4**	**-9.0**	-
	Male	-28.3	-8.5	-17.3	-19.4	-1.7	-11.5	-
	Female	-19.3	-6.6	-11.6	-8.6	2.3	-6.6	-
2016 Employment Rate	**Total - Sex**	**36.3%**	**52.0%**	**46.8%**	**49.0%**	**60.3%**	**52.1%**	**60.5%**
	Male	35.5%	54.2%	47.7%	47.8%	61.5%	53.2%	64.2%
	Female	37.1%	50.1%	46.1%	50.0%	59.1%	51.1%	56.9%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-24.2**	**-8.5**	**-13.7**	**-11.5**	**-0.2**	**-8.4**	-
	Male	-28.7	-10.0	-16.5	-16.4	-2.7	-11.0	-
	Female	-19.8	-6.8	-10.8	-6.9	2.2	-5.8	-
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-0.5**	**-0.7**	**0.8**	**2.3**	**-0.6**	**0.6**	-
	Male	-0.4	-1.5	0.8	3.0	-1.0	0.5	-
	Female	-0.5	-0.2	0.8	1.7	-0.1	0.8	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 2: Labour Force Participation Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 Participation Rate	**Total -Sex**	**52.0%**	**63.8%**	**58.8%**	**61.3%**	**70.1%**	**63.0%**	**66.9%**
	Male	55.6%	69.3%	63.2%	63.9%	74.1%	67.3%	72.5%
	Female	48.3%	59.3%	55.0%	58.9%	66.2%	59.1%	61.7%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-14.9**	**-3.1**	**-8.1**	**-5.6**	**3.2**	**-3.9**	-
	Male	-16.9	-3.2	-9.3	-8.6	1.6	-5.2	-
	Female	-13.4	-2.4	-6.7	-2.8	4.5	-2.6	-
2016 Participation Rate	**Total - Sex**	**48.3%**	**61.4%**	**57.1%**	**63.1%**	**67.9%**	**61.4%**	**65.4%**
	Male	50.7%	65.4%	60.3%	65.0%	70.6%	64.5%	69.8%
	Female	45.9%	58.0%	54.2%	61.3%	65.3%	58.6%	61.1%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-17.1**	**-4.0**	**-8.3**	**-2.3**	**2.5**	**-4.0**	-
	Male	-19.1	-4.4	-9.5	-4.8	0.8	-5.3	-
	Female	-15.2	-3.1	-6.9	0.2	4.2	-2.5	-
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-2.2**	**-0.9**	**-0.2**	**3.3**	**-0.7**	**-0.1**	-
	Male	-2.2	-1.2	-0.2	3.8	-0.8	-0.1	-
	Female	-1.8	-0.7	-0.2	3.0	-0.3	0.1	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 3: Unemployment Rate (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 Unemployment Rate	**Total - Sex**	**24.9%**	**14.0%**	**18.0%**	**20.3%**	**10.0%**	**14.8%**	**6.3%**
	Male	28.6%	14.1%	19.8%	23.8%	10.5%	16.1%	6.2%
	Female	20.6%	13.8%	16.2%	16.7%	9.5%	13.5%	6.4%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**18.6**	**7.7**	**11.7**	**14.0**	**3.7**	**8.5**	-
	Male	22.4	7.9	13.6	17.6	4.3	9.9	-
	Female	14.2	7.4	9.8	10.3	3.1	7.1	-
2016 Unemployment Rate	**Total - Sex**	**24.9%**	**15.3%**	**18.0%**	**22.4%**	**11.2%**	**15.2%**	**7.4%**
	Male	30.0%	17.2%	21.0%	26.4%	12.8%	17.6%	7.9%
	Female	19.3%	13.6%	15.1%	18.3%	9.5%	12.8%	6.8%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**17.5**	**7.9**	**10.6**	**15.0**	**3.8**	**7.8**	-
	Male	22.1	9.3	13.1	18.5	4.9	9.7	-
	Female	12.5	6.8	8.3	11.5	2.7	6.0	-
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-1.1**	**0.2**	**-1.1**	**1.0**	**0.1**	**-0.7**	-
	Male	-0.3	1.4	-0.5	0.9	0.6	-0.2	-
	Female	-1.7	-0.6	-1.5	1.2	-0.4	-1.1	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

CORE INDICATOR #2: INCOME

Table 4: Average Income (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2005 and 2015, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2005 Average Income	**Total - Sex**	**$15,958**	**$24,519**	**$20,940**	**$25,461**	**$28,226**	**$23,889**	**$35,872**
	Male	$15,546	$28,379	$22,621	$26,374	$33,810	$27,135	$44,204
	Female	$16,381	$21,402	$19,440	$24,600	$22,792	$20,909	$27,874
Gap with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**($19,914)**	**($11,353)**	**($14,932)**	**($10,411)**	**($7,646)**	**($11,983)**	-
	Male	($28,658)	($15,825)	($21,583)	($17,830)	($10,394)	($17,069)	-
	Female	($11,493)	($6,472)	($8,434)	($3,274)	($5,082)	($6,965)	-
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**44.5%**	**68.4%**	**58.4%**	**71.0%**	**78.7%**	**66.6%**	-
	Male	35.2%	64.2%	51.2%	59.7%	76.5%	61.4%	-
	Female	58.8%	76.8%	69.7%	88.3%	81.8%	75.0%	-
2015 Average Income	**Total - Sex**	**$23,104**	**$35,536**	**$31,519**	**$37,871**	**$42,187**	**$36,043**	**$47,981**
	Male	$21,910	$40,818	$34,346	$38,301	$49,983	$40,997	$57,399
	Female	$24,269	$31,162	$29,050	$37,468	$34,801	$31,578	$38,947
Gap with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**($24,877)**	**($12,445)**	**($16,462)**	**($10,110)**	**($5,794)**	**($11,938)**	-
	Male	($35,489)	($16,581)	($23,053)	($19,098)	($7,416)	($16,402)	-
	Female	($14,678)	($7,785)	($9,897)	($1,479)	($4,146)	($7,369)	-
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**48.2%**	**74.1%**	**65.7%**	**78.9%**	**87.9%**	**75.1%**	-
	Male	38.2%	71.1%	59.8%	66.7%	87.1%	71.4%	-
	Female	62.3%	80.0%	74.6%	96.2%	89.4%	81.1%	-
Change in Gap: 2005 to 2015	**Total - Sex**	**($4,963)**	**($1,092)**	**($1,530)**	**$301**	**$1,852**	**$45**	-
	Male	($6,831)	($756)	($1,470)	($1,268)	$2,978	$667	-
	Female	($3,185)	($1,313)	($1,463)	$1,795	$936	($404)	-
Change in Ratio: 2005 to 2015 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**3.7**	**5.7**	**7.3**	**7.9**	**9.2**	**8.5**	-
	Male	3.0	6.9	8.6	7.0	10.6	10.0	-
	Female	3.5	3.2	4.9	7.9	7.6	6.1	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 10 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

Table 5: Median Income (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2005 and 2015, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2005 Median Income	**Total - Sex**	**$11,223**	**$17,464**	**$14,477**	**$16,969**	**$20,935**	**$16,752**	**$25,955**
	Male	$9,995	$20,272	$14,458	$17,425	$26,464	$18,714	$32,639
	Female	$12,466	$16,149	$14,490	$16,599	$17,520	$15,654	$20,640
Gap with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**($14,732)**	**($8,491)**	**($11,478)**	**($8,986)**	**($5,020)**	**($9,203)**	-
	Male	($22,644)	($12,367)	($18,181)	($15,214)	($6,175)	($13,925)	-
	Female	($8,174)	($4,491)	($6,150)	($4,041)	($3,120)	($4,986)	-
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**43.2%**	**67.3%**	**55.8%**	**65.4%**	**80.7%**	**64.5%**	-
	Male	30.6%	62.1%	44.3%	53.4%	81.1%	57.3%	-
	Female	60.4%	78.2%	70.2%	80.4%	84.9%	75.8%	-
2015 Median Income	**Total - Sex**	**$16,907**	**$25,134**	**$21,875**	**$24,502**	**$31,916**	**$25,526**	**$34,604**
	Male	$14,580	$28,433	$22,168	$23,555	$38,965	$28,560	$41,230
	Female	$18,399	$23,392	$21,673	$25,237	$26,900	$23,681	$29,131
Gap with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**($17,697)**	**($9,470)**	**($12,729)**	**($10,102)**	**($2,688)**	**($9,078)**	-
	Male	($26,650)	($12,797)	($19,062)	($17,675)	($2,265)	($12,670)	-
	Female	($10,732)	($5,739)	($7,458)	($3,894)	($2,231)	($5,450)	-
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	**Total - Sex**	**48.9%**	**72.6%**	**63.2%**	**70.8%**	**92.2%**	**73.8%**	-
	Male	35.4%	69.0%	53.8%	57.1%	94.5%	69.3%	-
	Female	63.2%	80.3%	74.4%	86.6%	92.3%	81.3%	-
Change in Gap: 2005 to 2015	**Total - Sex**	**($2,965)**	**($979)**	**($1,251)**	**($1,116)**	**$2,332**	**$125**	-
	Male	($4,006)	($430)	($881)	($2,461)	$3,910	$1,255	-
	Female	($2,558)	($1,248)	($1,308)	$147	$889	($464)	-
Change in Ratio: 2005 to 2015 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**5.7**	**5.3**	**7.4**	**5.4**	**11.5**	**9.3**	-
	Male	4.8	6.9	9.5	3.7	13.4	12.0	-
	Female	2.8	2.1	4.2	6.2	7.4	5.5	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 10 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

Table 6: Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers (15 years and older) by Identity Group and Sex, 2005 and 2015, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2005 % of Income from Transfers	**Total - Sex**	**28.6%**	**18.6%**	**21.8%**	**17.7%**	**13.8%**	**18.1%**	**10.9%**
	Male	21.1%	12.2%	14.9%	12.5%	10.0%	12.5%	7.8%
	Female	35.9%	25.5%	28.9%	23.0%	19.2%	24.8%	15.7%
2005 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**17.7**	**7.7**	**10.9**	**6.8**	**2.9**	**7.2**	**-**
	Male	13.3	4.4	7.1	4.7	2.2	4.7	-
	Female	20.2	9.8	13.2	7.3	3.5	9.1	-
2015 % of Income from Transfers	**Total - Sex**	**30.4%**	**18.1%**	**21.0%**	**17.7%**	**13.5%**	**17.4%**	**11.5%**
	Male	21.8%	11.9%	14.1%	12.6%	10.1%	12.0%	8.3%
	Female	38.0%	24.7%	28.1%	22.6%	18.2%	23.7%	16.0%
2015 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**18.9**	**6.6**	**9.5**	**6.2**	**2.0**	**5.9**	**-**
	Male	13.5	3.6	5.8	4.3	1.8	3.7	-
	Female	22.0	8.7	12.1	6.6	2.2	7.7	-
Change in Gap: 2005 to 2015 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**1.2**	**-1.1**	**-1.4**	**-0.6**	**-0.9**	**-1.3**	**-**
	Male	0.2	-0.8	-1.3	-0.4	-0.4	-1.0	-
	Female	1.8	-1.1	-1.1	-0.7	-1.3	-1.4	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 14 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

Table 7: Proportion of Individuals (15 years and older) with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers by Identity Group and Sex, 2005 and 2015, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2005 Main Source of Income from Transfers	**Total - Sex**	**42.7%**	**30.9%**	**35.8%**	**29.8%**	**23.8%**	**31.2%**	**21.6%**
	Male	38.3%	23.9%	30.4%	24.2%	19.0%	25.8%	16.5%
	Female	47.1%	36.6%	40.7%	35.1%	28.5%	36.1%	26.5%
2005 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**21.1**	**9.2**	**14.2**	**8.2**	**2.2**	**9.6**	**-**
	Male	21.8	7.4	13.8	7.7	2.5	9.3	-
	Female	20.7	10.1	14.3	8.6	2.0	9.7	-
2015 Main Source of Income from Transfers	**Total - Sex**	**44.3%**	**30.5%**	**35.0%**	**31.9%**	**23.7%**	**30.6%**	**22.0%**
	Male	38.8%	24.2%	29.3%	26.8%	19.2%	25.2%	16.9%
	Female	49.7%	35.8%	40.1%	36.7%	28.1%	35.4%	26.8%
2015 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**22.3**	**8.5**	**13.0**	**9.9**	**1.7**	**8.6**	**-**
	Male	21.9	7.3	12.4	9.9	2.2	8.3	-
	Female	22.9	8.9	13.3	9.8	1.2	8.6	-
Change in Gap: 2005 to 2015 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**1.2**	**-0.7**	**-1.2**	**1.7**	**-0.5**	**-1.0**	**-**
	Male	0.1	-0.1	-1.4	2.2	-0.3	-1.0	-
	Female	2.2	-1.2	-1.0	1.2	-0.8	-1.1	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 14 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 5.04

Table 8 - Percentage of employment income recipients by occupational category by Identity group, 2016

	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous Total
Management	6.69%	5.78%	8.03%	10.77%	7.2%
Business & finance	13.04%	13.63%	13.87%	15.98%	13.4%
Natural & applied sciences	3.09%	2.50%	4.18%	7.02%	3.6%
Health	4.79%	2.85%	6.35%	6.85%	5.4%
Community and social services (education, law)	15.25%	16.99%	11.99%	11.69%	13.8%
Art, culture, recreation & sport	2.16%	3.95%	2.19%	3.11%	2.3%
Sales & service	27.81%	29.03%	25.48%	23.53%	26.9%
Trades, transport & equipment operators	18.41%	20.03%	19.85%	14.33%	19.1%
Natural resources and agriculture	4.59%	2.74%	3.96%	2.21%	4.2%
Manufacturing & utilities	4.19%	2.50%	4.11%	4.53%	4.1%

Source: Industry - North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) 2012 (425)

Table 9 - Percentage of employment income recipients by industry category by Identity group, only top 10 categories of difference displayed

	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous
Mining, quarrying, & oil and gas extraction	2.74%	4.72%	3.26%	1.45%
Construction	9.38%	7.63%	10.19%	7.21%
Manufacturing	5.50%	2.32%	6.89%	8.89%
Wholesale trade	1.80%	1.17%	2.85%	3.68%
Finance & insurance	1.51%	0.59%	2.49%	4.42%
Professional, scientific & technical services	2.93%	1.94%	3.84%	7.23%
Educational services	7.88%	9.24%	6.80%	7.55%
Health care & social assistance	14.10%	13.21%	12.37%	11.61%
Accommodation & food services	8.91%	5.61%	8.19%	7.03%
Public administration	11.51%	20.54%	8.46%	6.29%

Source: Industry - North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) 2012 (425)

Table 10: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high occupational categories (2015)

Occupational category median income	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous
Low (<$25,000)	34.56%	35.72%	31.62%	28.84%
Mid ($35,000-$45,000)	55.67%	56.00%	56.17%	53.37%
High (>$60,000)	9.77%	8.28%	12.21%	17.79%

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Table 11: Percentage of employment income recipients employed in low, mid and high industry categories (2015)

Industry category median income	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Non-Indigenous
Low (<$25,000)	31.21%	24.41%	29.50%	27.52%
Mid ($26,000-$50,000)	53.50%	48.64%	57.65%	63.83%
High (>$60,000)	15.29%	26.93%	12.86%	8.65%

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Table 12: Median employment income by Identity group, sex, and occupation (2015)

	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Management	**$50,445**	**$61,376**	**$54,386**	**$52,492**	**$60,077**
Male	$56,652	$68,074	$64,928	$61,064	$66,611
Female	$45,141	$55,521	$45,039	$45,342	$51,977
Business, finance and administration	**$35,151**	**$48,888**	**$40,405**	**$37,916**	**$41,844**
Male	$38,409	$45,315	$45,835	$42,389	$48,371
Female	$34,610	$49,793	$39,108	$37,003	$39,998
Natural and applied sciences and related	**$52,595**	**$75,410**	**$62,175**	**$58,140**	**$66,371**
Male	$55,872	$76,553	$65,563	$61,319	$69,176
Female	$44,987	$64,969	$53,742	$49,333	$57,712
Health	**$36,621**	**$35,509**	**$42,248**	**$39,486**	**$46,938**
Male	$40,010	$25,522	$58,416	$48,387	$60,504
Female	$36,219	$35,833	$40,639	$38,474	$44,726
Education, law and social, community and government services	**$35,096**	**$34,696**	**$44,417**	**$38,041**	**$44,524**
Male	$43,451	$47,515	$68,873	$54,537	$66,522
Female	$33,145	$31,494	$37,217	$34,395	$37,620
Art, culture, recreation and sport	**$13,185**	**$16,008**	**$15,444**	**$14,196**	**$18,837**
Male	$13,938	$13,120	$18,215	$15,412	$22,487
Female	$12,565	$20,820	$14,107	$13,596	$16,421
Sales and service	**$14,195**	**$13,559**	**$15,535**	**$14,716**	**$18,511**
Male	$16,330	$16,583	$17,909	$16,972	$22,255
Female	$12,920	$12,016	$14,389	$13,546	$16,537
Trades, transport and equipment operators	**$34,726**	**$31,580**	**$44,510**	**$39,013**	**$42,552**
Male	$36,000	$32,277	$46,189	$40,497	$43,776
Female	$24,203	$24,264	$28,030	$25,582	$26,216
Natural resources, agriculture and related production	**$18,449**	**$22,919**	**$29,148**	**$22,265**	**$22,473**
Male	$20,569	$22,967	$34,948	$25,212	$26,640
Female	$10,757	$19,983	$14,100	$12,183	$13,203
Manufacturing and utilities	**$31,681**	**$30,202**	**$38,364**	**$34,137**	**$37,016**
Male	$35,018	$40,032	$45,097	$38,679	$42,570
Female	$22,803	$12,980	$23,350	$22,667	$27,583

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Table 13: Median employment income by Identity group, sex and industry (2015)

	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	**$18,296**	**$13,604**	**$24,299**	**$20,299**	**$21,150**
Male	$19,991	$13,772	$27,846	$22,910	$25,007
Female	$13,663	$12,824	$15,388	$14,468	$14,993
Mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction	**$75,815**	**$60,661**	**$90,926**	**$82,102**	**$97,387**
Male	$80,736	$72,776	$95,892	$88,673	$102,631
Female	$52,790	$46,821	$60,777	$56,574	$74,163
Utilities	**$57,389**	**$65,421**	**$82,553**	**$71,631**	**$90,647**
Male	$58,775	$60,148	$88,480	$73,992	$97,383
Female	$54,877	$79,098	$64,036	$61,816	$72,760
Construction	**$31,508**	**$26,506**	**$41,767**	**$35,920**	**$42,043**
Male	$32,235	$27,193	$43,324	$36,861	$43,321
Female	$27,256	$23,023	$33,740	$30,589	$35,610
Manufacturing	**$37,472**	**$30,205**	**$45,612**	**$41,073**	**$46,234**
Male	$41,199	$37,058	$50,816	$46,410	$51,461
Female	$27,890	$12,985	$31,703	$29,643	$35,404
Wholesale trade	**$37,765**	**$31,887**	**$43,844**	**$40,909**	**$48,459**
Male	$40,558	$37,339	$48,680	$44,089	$53,102
Female	$34,090	$21,639	$38,260	$36,661	$40,997
Retail trade	**$15,732**	**$11,303**	**$18,730**	**$16,700**	**$21,943**
Male	$18,024	$13,824	$21,631	$19,320	$27,106
Female	$14,288	$9,469	$16,966	$15,181	$18,823
Transportation and warehousing	**$36,451**	**$30,376**	**$44,195**	**$40,020**	**$42,028**
Male	$40,698	$32,864	$49,422	$44,578	$44,535
Female	$29,795	$24,923	$34,461	$31,908	$36,643
Information and cultural industries	**$32,300**	**$26,183**	**$41,038**	**$36,358**	**$51,132**
Male	$36,116	$29,601	$50,502	$41,986	$58,414
Female	$29,373	$21,988	$33,760	$30,925	$43,584
Finance and insurance	**$43,869**	**$37,264**	**$45,513**	**$44,842**	**$53,950**
Male	$50,224	$24,357	$63,160	$57,188	$67,900
Female	$42,013	$37,830	$42,669	$42,504	$48,479
Real estate and rental and leasing	**$28,571**	**$39,849**	**$32,880**	**$31,250**	**$35,680**
Male	$29,171	$38,832	$37,940	$34,057	$38,588
Female	$28,219	$42,801	$28,582	$28,423	$32,782
Professional, scientific and technical services	**$36,011**	**$43,694**	**$39,893**	**$38,203**	**$47,909**
Male	$42,377	$41,394	$51,566	$46,678	$58,300
Female	$32,582	$44,714	$32,914	$32,968	$39,254
Management of companies and enterprises	**$58,948**	**$23,435**	**$54,544**	**$51,633**	**$65,877**
Male	$84,243	--	$60,942	$72,272	$91,565
Female	$45,464	$24,971	$49,151	$45,506	$54,427
Administrative and support, waste management and remediation services	**$18,054**	**$20,032**	**$20,814**	**$19,327**	**$23,541**
Male	$19,396	$20,477	$24,444	$21,177	$25,951
Female	$16,499	$19,013	$17,545	$16,981	$20,555

Educational services	**$33,874**	**$40,929**	**$42,327**	**$37,247**	**$44,615**
Male	$34,592	$36,417	$51,456	$41,729	$53,462
Female	$33,701	$42,104	$38,877	$35,893	$41,150
Health care and social assistance	**$32,417**	**$25,492**	**$37,027**	**$34,145**	**$40,073**
Male	$33,049	$28,253	$46,032	$37,834	$49,916
Female	$32,291	$24,635	$35,660	$33,510	$38,500
Arts, entertainment and recreation	**$15,499**	**$11,346**	**$14,329**	**$14,727**	**$15,440**
Male	$15,999	$12,166	$17,182	$15,904	$17,098
Female	$14,932	$10,868	$13,112	$13,764	$13,998
Accommodation and food services	**$11,563**	**$10,902**	**$12,307**	**$11,902**	**$14,664**
Male	$13,050	$11,898	$13,287	$13,104	$16,306
Female	$10,918	$10,393	$11,931	$11,350	$13,771
Other services (except public administration)	**$24,482**	**$29,756**	**$25,472**	**$25,020**	**$26,061**
Male	$32,267	$32,786	$36,391	$33,953	$35,949
Female	$19,098	$26,048	$19,619	$19,371	$20,801
Public administration	**$43,457**	**$51,901**	**$59,826**	**$50,379**	**$63,132**
Male	$46,104	$42,552	$68,190	$55,658	$70,958
Female	$41,533	$60,577	$53,901	$47,360	$55,315

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

Table 14: Median Employment Income by Education Level and Identity Group (2015)

Highest Level of Education	First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
No certificate, degree or diploma	$11,854	$10,307	$15,134	$12,684	$16,751
Secondary (high) school diploma or equivalency certificate	$19,421	$24,803	$25,184	$21,917	$24,532
Apprenticeship or trades certificate or diploma	$29,699	$33,465	$39,798	$34,154	$36,749
University certificate or diploma below bachelor level	$35,098	$57,743	$41,295	$37,136	$37,875
University certificate, diploma or degree at bachelor level or above	$51,593	$67,020	$55,966	$53,819	$51,668

Source: Statistics Canada (2016)

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #1: EDUCATION

Table 15: Proportion of Population with at least a High School Diploma (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations total	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 High School Completion Rate	**Total - Sex**	**49.9%**	**69.8%**	**61.8%**	**49.2%**	**73.8%**	**65.9%**	**85.2%**
	Male	47.0%	67.2%	58.4%	49.1%	71.1%	63.0%	84.3%
	Female	52.8%	71.9%	64.7%	49.3%	76.4%	68.5%	86.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total -Sex**	**-35.3**	**-15.4**	**-23.4**	**-36.0**	**-11.4**	**-19.3**	
	Male	-37.3	-17.1	-25.9	-35.2	-13.2	-21.3	
	Female	-33.2	-14.1	-21.3	-36.7	-9.6	-17.5	
2016 High School Completion Rate	**Total -Sex**	**57.0%**	**76.2%**	**70.0%**	**56.1%**	**82.0%**	**74.4%**	**89.2%**
	Male	52.9%	73.2%	66.2%	55.0%	78.9%	71.0%	87.7%
	Female	61.0%	78.7%	73.3%	57.1%	84.8%	77.3%	90.6%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-32.2**	**-13.0**	**-19.2**	**-33.1**	**-7.2**	**-14.8**	
	Male	-34.8	-14.5	-21.5	-32.7	-8.8	-16.7	
	Female	-29.6	-11.9	-17.3	-33.5	-5.8	-13.3	
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**3.1**	**2.4**	**4.2**	**2.9**	**4.2**	**4.5**	
	Male	2.5	2.6	4.4	2.5	4.4	4.6	
	Female	3.6	2.2	4.0	3.2	3.8	4.2	

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 16: Proportion of Population with a College, Trades/Apprenticeship or Other Non-University Certificate, Diploma or Degree (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 College Completion Rate	**Total - Sex**	**26.8%**	**33.3%**	**30.7%**	**30.1%**	**37.3%**	**33.1%**	**32.7%**
	Male	28.1%	34.0%	31.4%	32.7%	37.9%	34.0%	33.9%
	Female	25.5%	32.7%	30.0%	27.6%	36.7%	32.4%	31.6%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-5.9**	**0.6**	**-2.0**	**-2.6**	**4.6**	**0.4**	
	Male	-5.8	0.1	-2.5	-1.2	4.0	0.1	
	Female	-6.1	1.1	-1.6	-4.0	5.1	0.8	
2016 College Completion Rate	**Total - Sex**	**28.0%**	**35.7%**	**33.2%**	**30.9%**	**39.6%**	**35.7%**	**33.1%**
	Male	28.8%	35.9%	33.5%	32.8%	40.0%	36.1%	34.1%
	Female	27.3%	35.5%	33.0%	29.1%	39.3%	35.3%	32.3%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-5.1**	**2.6**	**0.1**	**-2.2**	**6.5**	**2.6**	
	Male	-5.3	1.8	-0.6	-1.3	5.9	2.0	
	Female	-4.9	3.3	0.8	-3.1	7.1	3.1	
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**0.8**	**2**	**2.1**	**0.4**	**1.9**	**2.2**	
	Male	0.5	1.7	1.9	-0.1	1.9	1.9	
	Female	1.2	2.2	2.4	0.9	2	2.3	

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 17: Proportion of Population with a University Certificate, Diploma, or Degree Completion Rate (25-64 years) by Identity Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

		First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 College Completion Rate	**Total - Sex**	**8.2%**	**12.9%**	**11.0%**	**6.1%**	**12.3%**	**11.4%**	**28.5%**
	Male	5.4%	10.0%	8.0%	4.1%	10.1%	8.7%	27.5%
	Female	11.0%	15.2%	13.6%	7.9%	14.3%	13.7%	29.4%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-20.3**	**-15.6**	**-17.5**	**-22.4**	**-16.2**	**-17.1**	
	Male	-22.1	-17.5	-19.5	-23.4	-17.4	-18.8	
	Female	-18.4	-14.2	-15.8	-21.5	-15.1	-15.7	
2016 College Completion Rate	**Total – Sex**	**8.7%**	**14.1%**	**12.3%**	**6.7%**	**15.8%**	**13.6%**	**32.4%**
	Male	5.1%	10.1%	8.4%	4.1%	12.2%	9.8%	29.5%
	Female	12.2%	17.4%	15.8%	9.1%	19.2%	17.0%	35.2%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-23.7**	**-18.3**	**-20.1**	**-25.7**	**-16.6**	**-18.8**	
	Male	-24.4	-19.4	-21.1	-25.4	-17.3	-19.7	
	Female	-23.0	-17.8	-19.4	-26.1	-16.0	-18.2	
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	**Total - Sex**	**-3.4**	**-2.7**	**-2.6**	**-3.3**	**-0.4**	**-1.7**	
	Male	-2.3	-1.9	-1.6	-2.0	0.1	-0.9	
	Female	-4.6	-3.6	-3.6	-4.6	-0.9	-2.5	

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #2: ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT

Table 18: Size, Profit and Revenue of Indigenous-owned Small Businesses

	% of Small Businesses with One or More Employees	% of Small Businesses Reporting a Net Profit in Previous Fiscal year	% of Small Businesses reporting Increased gross sales revenue for past year
2010	**37%**	**61%**	**35%**
2015	20% (unincorporated) 16% (incorporated) **36% (total)**	**76%**	**41%**

Sources: 2011 and 2016, Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business, *The Aboriginal Business Survey*

Table 19: Proportion of Workers who are Self-Employed by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016

	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations total	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006 % of Self-Employed	3.6%	7.1%	5.8%	3.3%	8.5%	6.8%	12.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	8.4	4.9	6.2	8.7	3.5	5.3	-
2016 % of Self-Employed	3.2%	6.9%	5.9%	3.8%	9.4%	7.4%	11.7%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	8.5	4.8	5.8	7.9	2.3	4.3	-
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	-0.1	0.1	0.4	0.8	1.2	1.0	0.3%

Sources: Statistics Canada, 2006 Census of Population and 2016 Census, INSTAT Tabulations

Table 20: Indigenous Business: % of Incorporation and Employees source by Identity Group, 2017

	First Nations off reserve	Inuit	Métis
Incorporated	36%	36%	43%
Employees	30%	26%	32%

Sources: Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (*Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT*)

Table 21: Prevalence (%) of harvesting and handicraft activities among First Nations People living off reserve in 2017 by province or territory

	Hunted, fished or trapped	Gathered wild plants	Made clothes or footwear	Made carvings, drawings, Jewelry
First Nations	34	30	9	26
To supplement income	1	1	1	4
Inuit	56	42	27	18
To supplement income	6	2	6	6
Métis	35	27	8	24
To supplement income	1	1	1	2

Sources: 2016 Census and Aboriginal Peoples Survey 2017 (Excludes reserves and First Nations communities in Yukon & NWT)

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #3: GOVERNANCE

Table 22: Number of First Nations under Intervention, 2014 and 2018

	Recipient Managed	Co-Managed[172]	Third Party Managed	Total
Benchmark: # of Communities – 2014	75	64	12	151
% of all First Nations Communities – 2014	11.8%	10.1%	1.9%	23.8%
# of Communities – 2018	77	63	7	147
% of all First Nations Communities – 2018[173]	12.1%	9.9%	1.1%	23.2%

Sources: 2014 and 2018, INAC

Table 23: Number of First Nations with Property Assessment and Taxation Bylaws, 2014 and 2017

	Bylaws Under FNFMA	Bylaws Under S.83	Currently Applying Property Tax
Benchmark: Taxation Status – 2014	68	56	124
% of all First Nations Communities – 2014	11.0%	8.8%	19.6%
Taxation Status – December 2017	113	41	154
% of all First Nations Communities – December 2017[174]	17.8%	6.4%	24.3%

Sources: 2014, First Nations Tax Commission, 2018, INAC, and 2018 Assembly of First Nations

Table 24: Number of First Nations Communities Certified by the First nations Financial Management Board as of January 2018

	Financial Management Board Certification
# of Communities – 2014	34
# of Communities – as of January 2018	101

Source: 2014, 2018, INAC

[172] Under the most recent policy, "Co-Managed" has been replaced by the language "Recipient-Appointed Advisor."
[173] 2014 data reflects 617 First Nations. To ensure consistency, all percentages are calculated using the 2018 figure of 634 First Nations.
[174] 2014 data reflects 617 First Nations. To ensure consistency, all percentages are calculated using the 2018 figure of 634 First Nations.

Table 25: Number of First Nations in the FNLMA by Status, 2014 and 2018

	In Development	Operational	Moved to Self-Government	Total in FNLMA
Benchmark: # of Communities – 2014	58	36	2	96
% of All First Nations with FNLMA Status - 2014[175]	9.1%	5.7%	0.3%	15.1%
# of Communities – 2018	53	75	3	131
% of all First Nations with FNLMA Status – 2018[176]	8.4%	11.8%	0.5%	20.7%

Sources: 2014 and 2018

Table 26: Number of Comprehensive Land Claim and Self-Government Agreements Ratified, 2012, 2014, and 2018

	CLCAs Ratified	Stand-Alone SGAs Ratified	Communities Involved in Ratified Agreements
# of Communities – 2012	24	2	96
# of Communities – 2014	26	3	96
# of Communities – 2018	26	16	100

Sources: 2012 and 2014, INAC, and 2018, CIRNA

Table 27: Number of FMB Certifications

Year	Financial Management Board Certification
2014	34
As of January 2018	101

Source: INAC, 2014, 2018

[175] Differences in First Nations who are signatories to the Framework Agreement and are on the Schedule of the FNLMA but not currently active in exercising their authorities explain the discrepancy with the numbers from the 2012 *Aboriginal Economic Benchmarking Report*.

[176] 2014 data reflects 617 First Nations. To ensure consistency, all percentages are calculated using the 2018 figure of 634 First Nations.

UNDERLYING INDICATOR #5: INFRASTRUCTURE

Table 28: Proportion of Population Living in Dwellings in Need of Major Repair by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Benchmark: 2006	44.4%	16.6%	28.6%	27.9%	14.1%	23.4%	7.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	37.4	9.7	21.6	20.9	7.2	16.4	-
2016	44.1%	13.8%	24.2%	26.2%	11.3%	19.4%	6.0%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	38.1	7.8	18.2	20.2	5.3	13.4	
Change in Gap: 2006 to 2016 (percentage points)	0.7	-1.9	-3.4	-0.7	-1.9	-3.0	

Sources: 2006 Census of Population, and Statistics Canada, 2016 Census of Population, Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 98-400-X2016164.

Table 29: Proportion of First Nations People, Métis and Inuit Living in Crowded Housing, 2016

	First Nations**	Inuit	Métis
One Bedroom Shortfall	14%	22%	7%
Two Bedroom Shortfall	5%	11%	1%
Three or more Bedroom Shortfall	4%	7%	0.4%

Statistics Canada, 2016 Census of Population (**on reserve only)

Table 30: Percentage of Indigenous Communities with Minimum Standard Connectivity, as of 2013

Province	Percentage
Alberta	98%
British Columbia	88%
Manitoba	52%
New Brunswick	100%
Newfoundland and Labrador	78%
Northwest Territories	13%
Nova Scotia	100%
Nunavut	100%
Ontario	77%
PEI	100%
Quebec	83%
Saskatchewan	96%
Yukon	38%

Source: INAC, 2013

INFRASTRUCTURE INDEX

Table 31: Infrastructure Index Score by Type of Infrastructure, Average for the North

	Remote First Nations	Inuit	Métis	Remote non-Indigenous
Overall Index	0.51	0.25	0.67	0.94
Economic Index	0.56	0.14	0.78	0.81
Connectivity	0.59	0.11	0.85	0.92
Transportation	0.40	0.32	0.50	0.65
Energy	0.70	0.00	1.00	0.86
Quality of Life Index	0.39	0.48	0.50	0.83
Health Care	0.34	0.54	0.35	0.83
Education	0.35	0.67	0.47	0.76
Water	0.75	0.55	0.82	0.90
Housing	0.15	0.15	0.33	0.81

Source: Infrastructure Index Report for Remote Indigenous Communities, 2018

NIEDB ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT INDICES

Table 32: NIEDB Economic Indices Scores - Range from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest)

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
2006							
Core Indicators Index	58.7	71.3	67.2	69.0	77.3	71.2	79.4
Underlying Indicators Index	36.4	50.0	45.3	38.3	52.4	48.1	58.1
NIEDB Economic Development Index	47.6	60.6	56.3	53.6	64.9	59.8	68.7
2016							
Core Indicators Index	59.4	72.3	68.3	70.6	78.7	72.6	80.0
Underlying Indicators Index	37.6	52.2	47.3	39.9	55.5	50.3	59.4
NIEDB Economic Development Index	48.5	62.3	57.8	55.3	67.1	61.4	69.7
Change in Index Scores 2006 to 2016*							
Core Indicators Index	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.7	1.4	1.3	0.6
Underlying Indicators Index	1.2	2.2	2.0	1.7	3.1	2.2	1.3
NIEDB Economic Development Index	0.9	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.3	1.6	1.0

*Changes may not appear exact due to rounding.

Core Indicators Index: Employment; Labour Force Participation; Unemployment; Median Income; Proportion of Income from

Transfers; Proportion of Population with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers.
Underlying Indicators Index: High School Completion; College/Trades Completion; University Completion; Entrepreneurship-Self-Employment; Housing Quantity (crowded conditions); Housing Quality (in need of major repairs).
NAEDB Economic Development Index: Includes all twelve indicators above.

Table 33: NIEDB Economic Indices Scores - Gaps with the Non-Indigenous Population

	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations total	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)
2006						
Core Indicators Index	-20.7	-8.1	-12.1	-10.4	-2.1	-8.1
Underlying Indicators Index	-21.7	-8.1	-12.8	-19.8	-5.7	-10.0
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-21.1	-8.1	-12.4	-15.1	-3.9	-8.9
2016						
Core Indicators Index	-20.7	-7.7	-11.7	-9.4	-1.3	-7.5
Underlying Indicators Index	-21.8	-7.2	-12.1	-19.5	-3.9	-9.1
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-21.2	-7.5	-11.9	-14.4	-2.6	-8.3
Change in Gaps 2006 to 2016						
Core Indicators Index	0.0	0.4	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.6
Underlying Indicators Index	-0.1	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.8	0.9
NIEDB Economic Development Index	-0.1	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.3	0.7

Gaps may not appear exact due to rounding.

Table 34: High School, College/Trades and University Completion Rates (20-24 years) by Identity Group, 2006 and 2016, Canada

	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations total	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
High School Completion							
2006	38.9%	62.2%	51.9%	39.8%	74.6%	59.7%	87.5%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-48.5	-25.3	-35.5	-47.6	-12.8	-27.8	-
2016	48.4%	74.8%	66.0%	49.3%	83.8%	71.8%	91.8%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-43.5	-17.0	-25.8	-42.6	-8.0	-20.1	-
College/Trades Completion							
2006	11.2%	17.5%	14.7%	13.0%	22.8%	17.7%	27.1%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-15.9	-9.6	-12.4	-14.1	-4.3	-9.4	-
2016	13.0%	21.1%	18.4%	13.8%	23.7%	20.1%	26.5%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-13.5	-5.4	-8.1	-12.7	-2.9	-6.5	-
University Completion							
2006	1.5%	4.8%	3.3%	2.1%	8.4%	5.1%	17.2%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-15.7	-12.3	-13.8	-15.1	-8.8	-12.1	-
2016	1.6%	6.2%	4.7%	1.3%	9.8%	6.4%	19.7%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-18.1	-13.5	-15.0	-18.4	-9.9	-13.3	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 35: A Comparison of Indigenous and Non-Indigenous Youth (15 to 24 Years) Average Income and Percentage of Income from Government Transfers, 2005 and 2015

	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Average Income							
2005	$6,008	$10,341	$8,386	$10,519	$12,224	$9,941	$11,886
2005 Ratio with Non-Indigenous	50.5%	87.0%	70.1%	88.5%	102.8%	83.6%	-
2015	$8,456	$14,514	$12,586	$15,844	$17,633	$14,590	$15,841
2015 Ratio with Non-Indigenous	53.4%	91.6%	79.5%	100.0%	111.3%	92.1%	
Percentage of Income from Government Transfers							
2005	37.6%	21.1%	26.4%	20.2%	12.3%	19.6%	7.4%
2005 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	30.2	13.7	19.0	12.8	4.9	12.2	-
2015	44.7%	30%	30%	27.1%	16.6%	24%	11.2%
2015 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	33.5	18.8	18.8	15.9	5.4	12.8	

Sources: Statistics Canada, 2006 Census of Population and 2016 Census

Table 36 - Employment Measures of Youth (15 to 24 years) by Heritage Group and Sex, 2006 and 2016, Canada

	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	First Nations total	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Employment Rate							
2006	20.6%	42.3%	32.6%	34.1%	55.5%	40.7%	58.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-37.4	-15.8	-25.5	-23.9	-2.6	-17.3	-
2016	17.1%	39.9%	32.1%	36.3%	52.3%	39.3%	52.8%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-35.6	-12.9	-20.7	-16.5	-0.5	-13.4	-
Participation Rate							
2006	33.2%	53.5%	44.4%	46.1%	65.5%	51.9%	66.3%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-33.0	-12.8	-21.8	-20.2	-0.8	-14.4	- - -
2016	28.9%	52.0%	44.1%	51.3%	63.2%	51.1%	62.1%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-33.2	-10.1	-18.0	-10.9	1.1	-11.0	-
Unemployment Rate							
2006	38.0%	20.9%	26.7%	26.0%	15.3%	21.6%	12.4%

2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	25.6	8.5	14.2	13.6	2.9	9.2	- - -
2016	40.8%	23.4%	27.3%	29.4%	17.3%	23.0%	15.1%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	25.7	8.3	12.2	14.3	2.1	7.9	-

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Table 9A and INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 6.05

Table 37: Summary of Youth (ages 15-19 and 20-24) Outcomes by Identity Group

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Employment Rate Age 15-19 Years							
2006	13.4%	30.7%	22.9%	24.9%	44.3%	30.1%	44.3%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-30.9	-13.6	-21.5	-19.4	0	-14.2	-
2016	9.7%	26.2%	20.4%	25.7%	38.4%	26.8%	36.9%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-27.3	-10.7	-16.5	-11.2	1.4	-10.1	-
Employment Rate Age 20-24 Years							
2006	30.3%	57.2%	45.3%	46.3%	68.6%	54.0%	72.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-41.8	-14.8	-26.7	-25.7	-3.5	-18.0	-
2016	25.6%	54.0%	44.5%	47.2%	66.3%	52.4%	66.9%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-41.4	54.0	44.5	47.2	66.3	52.4	-
Labour Force Participation Rate Age 15-19 Years							
2006	21.6%	40.3%	31.9%	33.3%	52.9%	39.0%	51.8%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-30.2	-11.5	-19.9	-18.5	1.1	-12.8	-
2016	16.1%	35.4%	28.6%	36.8%	47.0%	35.3%	44.9%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-28.8	-9.5	-16.3	-8.1	2.1	-9.6	-
Labour Force Participation Rate Age 20-24 Years							
2006	48.8%	70.4%	60.9%	63.0%	80.3%	68.2%	81.0%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	-32.2	-10.6	-20.1	-18.0	-0.7	-12.9	-
2016	43.4%	69.2%	60.6%	66.2%	79.5%	67.6%	77.6%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous	-34.2	-8.3	-17.0	-11.4	1.9	-10.0	-

(percentage points)							
Unemployment Rate Age 15-19							
2006	38.1%	23.9%	28.3%	25.3%	16.3%	22.6%	14.4%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	23.7	9.5	13.9	10.8	1.8	8.2	-
2016	39.8%	25.9%	28.7%	30.1%	18.4%	24.0%	17.7%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	22.1	8.2	10.9	12.4	0.7	6.3	-
Unemployment Rate Age 20-24 Years							
2006	38.0%	18.7%	25.6%	26.5%	14.6%	20.8%	11.1%
2006 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	26.9	7.6	14.4	15.4	3.5	9.7	-
2016	41.2%	22.0%	26.6%	29.0%	16.6%	22.5%	13.7%
2016 Gap with Non-Indigenous (percentage points)	27.4	8.3	12.9	15.3	2.8	8.7	-
Average Income Age 15-19 Years							
2005	$3,182	$5,448	$4,380	$5,530	$5,893	$5,009	$6,011
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	52.9%	90.6%	72.9%	92.0%	98.0%	83.3%	-
2015	$5903	$7260	$7244	$6,942	$8,023	$6,853	$7,692
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	-23.2	-5.6%	-5.8%	-9.7%	+4.3%	-11.01%	-
Average Income Age 20-24 Years							
2005	$8,304	$13,787	$11,396	$14,245	$17,051	$13,644	$15,761
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	52.7%	87.5%	72.3%	90.4%	108.2%	86.6%	-
2015	$13,359	$20006	$19920	$21,527	$23,527	$18,840	$20,148
Ratio with Non-Indigenous	-33.7%	-0.7%	-1.2%	+6.8%	+16.8%	-6.5%	

Sources: INAC's 2006 Census Core Tables 9A, 10 & 14 and INAC's 2016 Census Core Tables 5.04 & 6.05

Regional Data

Table 38 - Employment Rate (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2016, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**36.3%**	**52.0%**	**46.8%**	**49.0%**	**60.3%**	**52.1%**	**60.5%**
Male	35.5%	54.2%	47.7%	47.8%	61.5%	53.2%	64.2%
Female	37.1%	50.1%	46.1%	50.0%	59.1%	51.1%	56.9%
Newfoundland and Labrador	**39.8%**	**48.5%**	**47.8%**	**47.8%**	**49.2%**	**47.8%**	**49.6%**
Male	35.9%	48.1%	47.2%	46.0%	49.2%	47.2%	51.3%
Female	43.6%	48.7%	48.3%	49.7%	49.4%	48.3%	48.1%
Prince Edward Island	**42.3%**	**55.1%**	**51.3%**	-	**62.6%**	**53.8%**	**58.3%**
Male	44.7%	56.2%	52.8%	-	66.0%	55.6%	60.8%
Female	36.4%	53.2%	49.3%	-	60.3%	52.1%	55.9%
Nova Scotia	**36.2%**	**56.2%**	**49.5%**	**54.7%**	**57.6%**	**53.5%**	**55.2%**
Male	36.0%	56.3%	49.7%	52.8%	59.7%	54.7%	57.9%
Female	36.4%	56.0%	49.5%	57.1%	55.7%	52.5%	52.8%
New Brunswick	**38.2%**	**50.9%**	**45.5%**	**49.2%**	**52.3%**	**48.3%**	**54.9%**
Male	37.4%	50.8%	45.2%	59.3%	52.1%	48.5%	56.7%
Female	38.8%	50.9%	45.9%	40.6%	52.5%	48.0%	53.2%
Quebec	**42.6%**	**54.1%**	**49.5%**	**54.6%**	**54.7%**	**51.9%**	**59.7%**
Male	40.7%	56.3%	49.8%	53.5%	55.1%	52.3%	62.7%
Female	44.4%	52.2%	49.1%	55.6%	54.3%	51.4%	56.8%
Ontario	**41.2%**	**53.7%**	**51.0%**	**48.3%**	**59.5%**	**54.0%**	**60.1%**
Male	40.0%	55.7%	52.1%	49.8%	60.7%	55.3%	64.1%
Female	42.3%	52.0%	50.0%	47.1%	58.4%	52.8%	56.2%
Manitoba	**30.0%**	**43.3%**	**36.9%**	**50.6%**	**63.3%**	**48.7%**	**64.0%**
Male	29.6%	46.0%	37.6%	55.6%	65.2%	50.2%	68.2%
Female	30.4%	41.1%	36.3%	48.8%	61.5%	47.3%	59.9%
Saskatchewan	**28.1%**	**44.9%**	**36.9%**	**54.7%**	**62.4%**	**46.3%**	**66.2%**
Male	27.1%	46.8%	36.8%	70.0%	63.7%	47.0%	70.6%
Female	29.2%	43.3%	37.0%	45.5%	61.2%	45.8%	61.8%
Alberta	**33.7%**	**54.5%**	**47.2%**	**59.5%**	**62.0%**	**54.4%**	**66.0%**
Male	34.4%	58.8%	49.4%	60.0%	63.6%	56.5%	70.3%
Female	33.0%	51.1%	45.1%	59.1%	60.5%	52.6%	61.8%
British Columbia	**42.4%**	**54.8%**	**50.9%**	**50.0%**	**62.0%**	**54.8%**	**59.8%**
Male	41.5%	57.4%	52.0%	53.6%	63.6%	56.2%	63.8%
Female	43.4%	52.6%	49.9%	47.5%	60.5%	53.6%	56.0%
Yukon Territory	-	**52.2%**	**52.1%**	**58.8%**	**66.9%**	**54.4%**	**72.5%**
Male	-	49.4%	49.5%	77.8%	67.7%	52.0%	72.4%
Female	-	54.7%	54.7%	52.0%	66.0%	56.4%	72.6%
Northwest Territories	**43.9%**	**47.0%**	**47.0%**	**50.7%**	**67.7%**	**51.2%**	**80.2%**
Male	45.0%	45.9%	45.9%	50.9%	69.4%	50.9%	81.6%
Female	42.9%	48.2%	48.0%	50.0%	65.3%	51.4%	78.7%
Nunavut	-	**78.1%**	**83.9%**	**45.0%**	**85.2%**	**45.6%**	**89.3%**
Male	-	73.3%	73.3%	42.8%	80.0%	43.3%	91.4%
Female	-	88.2%	88.2%	47.2%	84.6%	47.9%	86.6%

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 98-400-X2016175

Table 39 - Labour Force Participation Rate (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2016, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**48.3%**	**61.4%**	**57.1%**	**63.1%**	**67.9%**	**61.4%**	**65.4%**
Male	50.7%	65.4%	60.3%	65.0%	70.6%	64.5%	69.8%
Female	45.9%	58.0%	54.2%	61.3%	65.3%	58.6%	61.1%
Newfoundland and Labrador	**67.4%**	**59.9%**	**60.5%**	**60.2%**	**63.5%**	**60.8%**	**58.5%**
Male	69.5%	62.6%	63.1%	62.3%	67.9%	63.8%	62.5%
Female	65.2%	57.6%	58.2%	58.1%	59.5%	58.1%	54.7%
Prince Edward Island	**73.2%**	**66.7%**	**67.7%**	**-**	**74.8%**	**69.0%**	**66.3%**
Male	78.9%	70.8%	73.2%	-	76.0%	73.5%	70.1%
Female	63.6%	63.3%	64.1%	-	70.7%	64.9%	62.8%
Nova Scotia	**46.9%**	**66.0%**	**59.6%**	**65.8%**	**65.7%**	**62.6%**	**61.2%**
Male	49.6%	69.0%	62.6%	69.8%	67.9%	65.3%	65.2%
Female	44.4%	63.3%	57.0%	65.1%	63.7%	60.2%	57.5%
New Brunswick	**54.5%**	**61.3%**	**58.4%**	**62.7%**	**63.3%**	**60.4%**	**61.6%**
Male	57.5%	63.5%	60.9%	66.7%	65.7%	63.3%	65.4%
Female	51.8%	59.0%	56.0%	59.4%	60.6%	57.5%	58.0%
Quebec	**53.3%**	**60.7%**	**57.7%**	**66.1%**	**62.2%**	**59.9%**	**64.2%**
Male	54.6%	64.4%	60.4%	67.2%	64.2%	62.3%	68.1%
Female	52.0%	57.4%	55.2%	65.1%	60.0%	57.6%	60.5%
Ontario	**52.0%**	**61.8%**	**59.6%**	**58.4%**	**66.1%**	**61.8%**	**64.8%**
Male	53.5%	64.9%	62.2%	61.0%	68.1%	64.3%	69.2%
Female	50.5%	59.2%	57.4%	56.4%	64.3%	59.6%	60.6%
Manitoba	**40.7%**	**53.0%**	**47.1%**	**61.0%**	**69.7%**	**57.2%**	**67.7%**
Male	43.1%	57.9%	50.3%	66.7%	72.7%	60.5%	72.5%
Female	38.3%	49.2%	44.3%	53.7%	66.8%	54.2%	63.1%
Saskatchewan	**41.1%**	**56.2%**	**49.0%**	**60.4%**	**70.5%**	**56.9%**	**70.1%**
Male	43.7%	59.6%	51.5%	75.0%	73.8%	60.0%	75.3%
Female	38.5%	53.5%	46.8%	51.5%	67.4%	54.2%	64.9%
Alberta	**47.1%**	**65.8%**	**59.1%**	**70.2%**	**71.3%**	**65.1%**	**72.2%**
Male	51.1%	72.6%	64.4%	72.4%	75.3%	69.8%	77.7%
Female	43.0%	60.3%	54.6%	67.6%	67.6%	60.9%	66.8%
British Columbia	**54.8%**	**63.9%**	**61.1%**	**60.7%**	**68.7%**	**63.7%**	**63.9%**
Male	57.2%	68.4%	64.6%	64.9%	71.4%	67.1%	68.4%
Female	52.3%	60.1%	57.9%	56.8%	66.2%	60.8%	59.6%
Yukon Territory	**0.0%**	**68.5%**	**68.5%**	**70.6%**	**77.5%**	**69.9%**	**77.0%**
Male	0.0%	72.2%	72.1%	77.8%	82.3%	73.2%	77.8%
Female	0.0%	65.3%	65.3%	68.0%	75.3%	67.1%	76.2%
Northwest Territories	**56.1%**	**60.5%**	**60.4%**	**63.4%**	**74.1%**	**63.3%**	**84.1%**
Male	65.0%	62.7%	62.8%	68.6%	76.2%	66.2%	86.0%
Female	47.6%	58.4%	58.1%	58.2%	71.6%	60.5%	81.9%
Nunavut	**0.0%**	**87.5%**	**90.3%**	**62.5%**	**92.6%**	**62.9%**	**92.2%**
Male	0.0%	80.0%	80.0%	63.7%	86.7%	64.0%	94.1%
Female	0.0%	88.2%	94.1%	61.3%	92.3%	61.8%	89.7%

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 98-400-X2016175

Table 40 - Unemployment Rate (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2016, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**24.9%**	**15.3%**	**18.0%**	**22.4%**	**11.2%**	**15.2%**	**7.4%**
Male	30.0%	17.2%	21.0%	26.4%	12.8%	17.6%	7.9%
Female	19.3%	13.6%	15.1%	18.3%	9.5%	12.8%	6.8%
Newfoundland and Labrador	**41.0%**	**19.1%**	**21.0%**	**20.6%**	**22.4%**	**21.4%**	**15.1%**
Male	48.3%	23.0%	25.1%	26.9%	27.4%	25.9%	17.9%
Female	33.9%	15.3%	16.8%	14.1%	17.2%	16.9%	12.0%
Prince Edward Island	**42.3%**	**18.2%**	**24.7%**	**-**	**16.2%**	**21.7%**	**12.1%**
Male	43.3%	20.6%	26.9%	-	18.4%	24.5%	13.3%
Female	42.9%	15.9%	22.0%	-	17.1%	19.7%	11.0%
Nova Scotia	**22.6%**	**14.9%**	**16.9%**	**18.2%**	**12.3%**	**14.5%**	**9.7%**
Male	27.4%	18.4%	20.7%	24.3%	12.0%	16.3%	11.2%
Female	18.3%	11.4%	13.2%	9.8%	12.5%	12.7%	8.2%
New Brunswick	**30.0%**	**16.8%**	**22.0%**	**21.6%**	**17.4%**	**20.1%**	**10.9%**
Male	35.0%	19.9%	25.9%	11.1%	20.7%	23.4%	13.3%
Female	24.7%	14.0%	18.1%	26.3%	13.3%	16.7%	8.3%
Quebec	**20.1%**	**10.9%**	**14.3%**	**17.5%**	**12.0%**	**13.4%**	**7.1%**
Male	25.6%	12.6%	17.4%	20.5%	14.1%	16.0%	7.9%
Female	14.7%	9.1%	11.1%	14.5%	9.6%	10.7%	6.2%
Ontario	**20.8%**	**13.1%**	**14.5%**	**17.2%**	**10.0%**	**12.7%**	**7.3%**
Male	25.2%	14.1%	16.3%	17.8%	10.8%	14.1%	7.3%
Female	16.1%	12.1%	12.8%	16.6%	9.1%	11.4%	7.3%
Manitoba	**26.4%**	**18.4%**	**21.7%**	**14.9%**	**9.2%**	**14.8%**	**5.5%**
Male	31.4%	20.5%	25.3%	12.5%	10.4%	17.1%	5.9%
Female	20.6%	16.5%	18.1%	13.6%	7.9%	12.6%	5.0%
Saskatchewan	**31.5%**	**20.1%**	**24.7%**	**9.4%**	**11.4%**	**18.6%**	**5.6%**
Male	37.9%	21.4%	28.5%	0.0%	13.7%	21.6%	6.3%
Female	24.2%	19.0%	20.9%	11.8%	9.2%	15.6%	4.7%
Alberta	**28.4%**	**17.1%**	**20.3%**	**14.8%**	**13.1%**	**16.4%**	**8.6%**
Male	32.6%	19.1%	23.2%	17.9%	15.5%	19.0%	9.5%
Female	23.3%	15.2%	17.3%	12.6%	10.6%	13.7%	7.4%
British Columbia	**22.7%**	**14.3%**	**16.6%**	**16.2%**	**9.7%**	**14.0%**	**6.3%**
Male	27.4%	16.1%	19.5%	17.5%	10.9%	16.2%	6.6%
Female	17.1%	12.6%	13.8%	16.4%	8.6%	11.7%	6.0%
Yukon Territory	-	**23.9%**	**23.9%**	**16.7%**	**13.7%**	**22.3%**	**5.9%**
Male	-	31.5%	31.4%	0.0%	15.7%	29.0%	7.0%
Female	-	16.6%	16.3%	23.5%	11.0%	15.7%	4.8%
Northwest Territories	**17.4%**	**22.4%**	**22.3%**	**20.1%**	**8.9%**	**19.1%**	**4.6%**
Male	30.8%	26.8%	26.9%	25.8%	8.9%	23.1%	5.2%
Female	0.0%	17.5%	17.4%	14.1%	8.9%	14.9%	4.0%
Nunavut	-	**7.1%**	**7.1%**	**28.0%**	**12.0%**	**27.6%**	**3.1%**
Male	-	16.7%	16.7%	32.8%	15.4%	32.3%	2.9%
Female	-	13.3%	12.5%	23.1%	0.0%	22.7%	3.4%

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Table 98-400-X2016175

Table 41 - Average Income (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2015, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**$23,104**	**$35,536**	**$31,519**	**$37,871**	**$42,187**	**$36,043**	**$47,981**
Male	$21,910	$40,818	$34,346	$38,301	$49,983	$40,997	$57,399
Female	$24,269	$31,162	$29,050	$37,468	$34,801	$31,578	$38,947
Newfoundland and Labrador	**$35,473**	**$39,640**	**$39,328**	**$40,521**	**$46,233**	**$40,528**	**$45,626**
Male	$36,829	$48,044	$47,191	$47,320	$59,722	$49,138	$57,382
Female	$34,207	$32,045	$32,205	$34,180	$34,027	$32,650	$34,405
Prince Edward Island	**$29,642**	**$34,370**	**$33,081**	-	**$36,489**	**$33,723**	**$38,987**
Male	$32,376	$33,076	$32,861	-	$39,150	$34,485	$44,138
Female	$26,519	$35,436	$33,280	-	$34,193	$33,043	$34,191
Nova Scotia	**$20,495**	**$34,734**	**$30,119**	**$35,258**	**$37,367**	**$33,884**	**$41,882**
Male	$19,221	$40,375	$33,602	$38,458	$44,649	$39,481	$49,931
Female	$21,581	$29,759	$27,081	$32,564	$30,605	$28,855	$34,417
New Brunswick	**$23,972**	**$30,626**	**$27,898**	**$35,577**	**$34,620**	**$30,787**	**$39,447**
Male	$25,121	$36,535	$31,847	$50,063	$40,415	$35,896	$46,540
Female	$22,912	$25,202	$24,265	$24,212	$28,021	$25,708	$32,747
Quebec	**$29,993**	**$35,082**	**$33,071**	**$34,599**	**$36,738**	**$34,775**	**$42,715**
Male	$28,827	$39,769	$35,399	$32,733	$42,058	$38,341	$49,323
Female	$31,092	$30,815	$30,924	$36,337	$30,811	$31,234	$36,309
Ontario	**$23,586**	**$34,599**	**$32,225**	**$32,803**	**$41,357**	**$35,887**	**$48,227**
Male	$22,123	$38,491	$34,722	$35,368	$48,025	$40,392	$57,191
Female	$25,012	$31,373	$30,082	$30,635	$35,158	$31,916	$39,790
Manitoba	**$18,751**	**$29,637**	**$24,425**	**$31,633**	**$39,766**	**$31,525**	**$45,876**
Male	$16,021	$31,154	$23,374	$39,530	$45,724	$34,011	$53,865
Female	$21,420	$28,496	$25,321	$25,739	$34,215	$29,321	$38,087
Saskatchewan	**$19,643**	**$32,493**	**$26,472**	**$30,474**	**$43,395**	**$32,976**	**$51,838**
Male	$17,405	$35,080	$26,190	$35,278	$50,295	$35,768	$61,973
Female	$21,826	$30,539	$26,711	$27,515	$36,967	$30,523	$41,704
Alberta	**$24,181**	**$44,700**	**$37,690**	**$49,545**	**$50,746**	**$44,232**	**$63,853**
Male	$23,731	$57,035	$44,817	$64,516	$63,176	$54,259	$81,395
Female	$24,618	$34,973	$31,656	$35,233	$39,206	$35,378	$46,164
British Columbia	**$23,608**	**$33,451**	**$30,359**	**$34,523**	**$40,005**	**$33,864**	**$46,242**
Male	$23,991	$39,320	$34,114	$38,826	$48,923	$39,455	$55,581
Female	$23,211	$28,585	$27,018	$31,205	$32,129	$28,938	$37,341
Yukon Territory	-	**$40,286**	**$40,286**	**$33,775**	**$49,859**	**$41,443**	**$57,130**
Male	-	$39,682	$39,682	$40,763	$51,589	$40,944	$61,805
Female	-	$40,847	$40,847	$31,176	$48,732	$41,881	$52,374
Northwest Territories	**$30,786**	**$43,494**	**$43,231**	**$41,271**	**$67,094**	**$47,153**	**$80,286**
Male	$33,060	$44,660	$44,421	$40,865	$74,346	$49,120	$87,830
Female	$28,512	$42,316	$42,028	$41,643	$59,895	$45,207	$71,969
Nunavut	-	**$76,684**	**$76,684**	**$38,536**			
Male	-	$67,446	$67,446	$36,158			
Female	-	$84,074	$84,074	$40,877			

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Tables 5.04

Table 42 - Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2015, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**30.4%**	**18.1%**	**21.0%**	**17.7%**	**13.5%**	**17.4%**	**11.5%**
Male	21.8%	11.9%	14.1%	12.6%	10.1%	12.0%	8.3%
Female	38.0%	24.7%	28.1%	22.6%	18.2%	23.7%	16.0%
Newfoundland and Labrador	**26.1%**	**18.5%**	**19.0%**	**15.8%**	**14.6%**	**17.9%**	**16.3%**
Male	19.9%	15.6%	15.8%	12.6%	10.6%	14.5%	12.9%
Female	32.4%	22.4%	23.2%	19.8%	20.8%	22.6%	21.8%
Prince Edward Island	**27.4%**	**16.3%**	**19.3%**	-	**15.4%**	**18.4%**	**17.6%**
Male	22.6%	14.0%	16.6%	-	11.1%	15.1%	15.0%
Female	33.9%	18.0%	21.4%	-	19.9%	21.2%	20.8%
Nova Scotia	**31.3%**	**15.4%**	**18.9%**	**15.9%**	**17.5%**	**18.1%**	**15.2%**
Male	22.9%	12.3%	14.3%	14.9%	15.2%	14.8%	12.1%
Female	37.9%	19.1%	24.0%	16.5%	20.6%	22.2%	19.3%
New Brunswick	**32.6%**	**20.1%**	**24.5%**	**10.5%**	**22.2%**	**23.4%**	**16.7%**
Male	27.2%	15.9%	19.6%	4.6%	20.2%	19.6%	13.7%
Female	38.0%	25.7%	30.4%	21.2%	25.4%	28.5%	20.8%
Quebec	**29.1%**	**20.6%**	**23.6%**	**22.3%**	**20.6%**	**22.2%**	**15.5%**
Male	21.1%	15.8%	17.5%	15.2%	17.6%	17.4%	11.5%
Female	36.1%	26.3%	30.1%	28.3%	25.3%	28.0%	20.8%
Ontario	**31.2%**	**18.4%**	**20.4%**	**19.7%**	**14.6%**	**17.8%**	**11.0%**
Male	24.0%	12.9%	14.5%	14.0%	11.2%	12.8%	7.8%
Female	37.4%	23.9%	26.2%	25.4%	18.9%	23.3%	15.2%
Manitoba	**35.2%**	**25.1%**	**28.8%**	**16.7%**	**12.9%**	**19.5%**	**11.0%**
Male	24.0%	14.0%	17.6%	8.6%	8.8%	12.0%	7.9%
Female	43.3%	34.1%	37.6%	25.4%	18.0%	27.3%	15.3%
Saskatchewan	**34.7%**	**24.1%**	**27.8%**	**18.6%**	**12.3%**	**19.9%**	**9.6%**
Male	24.2%	13.2%	16.9%	0.0%	8.0%	11.9%	6.9%
Female	42.8%	33.6%	36.9%	25.3%	17.7%	28.2%	13.6%
Alberta	**28.5%**	**12.0%**	**15.6%**	**7.5%**	**9.0%**	**11.8%**	**6.5%**
Male	17.8%	6.0%	8.3%	4.8%	5.7%	6.8%	4.1%
Female	38.6%	19.6%	24.3%	12.2%	13.8%	18.5%	10.6%
British Columbia	**25.7%**	**17.2%**	**19.2%**	**17.6%**	**13.1%**	**16.6%**	**10.9%**
Male	20.0%	11.1%	13.2%	11.8%	9.4%	11.5%	8.2%
Female	31.8%	24.1%	26.0%	23.4%	18.1%	22.8%	14.8%
Yukon Territory	-	**15.3%**	**15.3%**	**16.4%**	**11.4%**	**14.6%**	**7.9%**
Male	-	12.5%	12.5%	0.0%	11.7%	12.3%	7.0%
Female	-	17.8%	17.8%	21.9%	11.1%	16.5%	8.8%
Northwest Territories	**25.7%**	**14.6%**	**14.8%**	**15.8%**	**7.7%**	**13.2%**	**4.4%**
Male	23.6%	12.2%	12.4%	13.3%	5.9%	10.8%	3.6%
Female	29.6%	17.1%	17.3%	18.1%	10.0%	15.7%	5.5%
Nunavut	-	**5.1%**	**5.1%**	**17.6%**	**3.9%**	**17.2%**	**3.1%**
Male	-	4.4%	4.1%	12.7%	2.8%	12.3%	2.8%
Female	-	5.6%	5.2%	22.0%	4.7%	21.4%	3.7%

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Tables 5.04

Table 43 - Proportion of Individuals with Main Source of Income from Government Transfers (15 years and older) by Region, Identity Group and Sex, 2015, Canada

	First Nations (on reserve)	First Nations (off reserve)	First Nations (total)	Inuit	Métis	Indigenous (total)	Non-Indigenous
Canada	**49.2%**	**32.9%**	**38.2%**	**34.0%**	**25.0%**	**32.9%**	**22.9%**
Male	43.8%	26.4%	32.3%	28.7%	20.3%	27.3%	17.6%
Female	54.6%	38.3%	43.3%	38.8%	29.5%	37.8%	28.0%
Newfoundland and Labrador	**41.1%**	**32.9%**	**33.6%**	**32.5%**	**28.7%**	**33.0%**	**32.4%**
Male	36.4%	29.0%	29.6%	28.8%	20.2%	28.6%	26.6%
Female	44.8%	36.6%	37.1%	36.2%	36.4%	37.1%	38.0%
Prince Edward Island	**40.6%**	**24.2%**	**28.6%**	-	**25.7%**	**27.7%**	**25.7%**
Male	32.4%	15.5%	20.7%	-	20.8%	20.6%	21.2%
Female	46.9%	32.4%	35.8%	-	30.4%	34.2%	29.9%
Nova Scotia	**50.9%**	**27.6%**	**35.1%**	**25.7%**	**27.8%**	**31.4%**	**26.6%**
Male	45.6%	22.7%	30.0%	26.0%	23.4%	26.5%	21.3%
Female	55.3%	31.9%	39.6%	23.3%	32.0%	35.8%	31.6%
New Brunswick	**44.4%**	**31.2%**	**36.6%**	-	**35.2%**	**36.1%**	**27.5%**
Male	36.8%	26.6%	30.8%	-	32.5%	31.1%	22.2%
Female	51.1%	35.4%	41.9%	-	38.3%	40.9%	32.6%
Quebec	**42.0%**	**33.2%**	**36.7%**	**32.5%**	**32.4%**	**34.6%**	**26.0%**
Male	35.9%	28.4%	31.4%	26.8%	28.7%	30.0%	20.3%
Female	47.8%	37.5%	41.6%	38.0%	36.6%	39.3%	31.5%
Ontario	**47.1%**	**33.2%**	**36.2%**	**34.6%**	**26.8%**	**32.7%**	**22.9%**
Male	43.2%	27.9%	31.4%	32.2%	22.2%	27.9%	17.7%
Female	51.0%	37.7%	40.4%	36.8%	31.0%	37.0%	27.9%
Manitoba	**56.5%**	**41.6%**	**48.7%**	**37.1%**	**22.5%**	**36.6%**	**20.1%**
Male	50.6%	32.6%	41.8%	24.1%	16.9%	30.0%	14.4%
Female	62.3%	48.3%	54.6%	45.0%	27.7%	42.4%	25.5%
Saskatchewan	**58.6%**	**40.0%**	**48.7%**	**28.8%**	**23.4%**	**38.9%**	**18.4%**
Male	53.7%	30.8%	42.4%	10.0%	17.9%	32.7%	13.6%
Female	63.3%	46.9%	54.1%	43.8%	28.4%	44.5%	23.2%
Alberta	**48.5%**	**25.9%**	**33.6%**	**17.1%**	**19.6%**	**26.6%**	**15.8%**
Male	39.8%	16.5%	25.1%	12.3%	14.2%	19.5%	10.4%
Female	56.8%	33.4%	40.9%	22.2%	24.7%	32.9%	21.3%
British Columbia	**43.2%**	**31.4%**	**35.1%**	**33.0%**	**24.4%**	**31.3%**	**22.1%**
Male	39.2%	24.9%	29.7%	28.1%	19.5%	26.0%	17.6%
Female	47.3%	36.9%	39.9%	37.7%	28.7%	35.9%	26.4%
Yukon Territory	-	**27.3%**	**27.3%**	**16.7%**	**19.9%**	**26.1%**	**12.5%**
Male	-	24.7%	24.7%	0.0%	21.7%	24.1%	11.9%
Female	-	29.9%	29.9%	23.8%	19.6%	27.9%	13.2%
Northwest Territories	**46.2%**	**30.7%**	**31.0%**	**33.4%**	**15.6%**	**28.8%**	**7.7%**
Male	42.1%	28.0%	28.3%	28.9%	12.4%	25.7%	6.7%
Female	52.6%	33.3%	33.7%	37.6%	18.9%	31.8%	8.9%
Nunavut	-	**10.0%**	**12.9%**	**37.1%**	-	**36.6%**	**4.7%**
Male	-	15.4%	14.3%	31.5%	-	31.2%	3.6%
Female	-	11.8%	11.8%	42.7%	-	42.0%	6.1%

Sources: INAC's 2016 Census Core Tables 5.04

ANNEX B: DATA GAPS AND LIMITATIONS

This progress report employs all of the indicators and measures adopted in the previous progress report to ensure consistent comparisons with the baseline report published in 2012 As such, some inherent gaps and limitations presented in the 2015 progress report continue to apply, but certain major limitations have also been addressed since then.

One broad limitation previously discussed was to consider the expansion of indicators to present a more comprehensive picture of economic development. This specifically called for the consideration of infrastructure status, financial vulnerability index and health indicators. To this end, the current report has added detailed analysis through an infrastructure index. It is recognized through broad consensus in both the theoretical and empirical literature that the infrastructure endowment of a country or community represents a critical factor for sustainable economic growth. The newly added infrastructure index considers 13 separate key infrastructures indicators that include connectivity, modes of transportation, energy supply, health care, education facilities, water, and housing.

In terms of health indicators, this area remains beyond the scope of the current report, because there is a lack of ongoing data tracking of key health indicators across all populations of Indigenous peoples in Canada. As indicators become available, they will be considered in future progress reports.

The current report includes data that is disaggregated according to sex (female and male) to allow for a better understanding of gendered impacts on policies and programs for Indigenous communities. The chapter on gender includes an intersectional analysis which provides information on differentiated economic outcomes between Indigenous women and men and their non-Indigenous counterparts. While the inclusion of sex disaggregated data is an important milestone for the Progress report, some limitations still exist. For example, data was disaggregated based on settler colonial notions of sex and gender, which are structured around the gender binary. As such, the statistics presented do not include information on gender diverse people in Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, which limits the scope of an inclusive gender-based analysis. Furthermore, a holistic understanding of gendered impacts on Indigenous communities is still narrow due to lack of qualitative data and analysis. This progress report presents an opportunity to contribute to growing knowledge and information on gendered socio-economic outcomes affecting Indigenous women and men in Canada.

Limitations of indicators used

There are also limitations due to the different definitions of Indigenous identity groups used by Statistics Canada and the definitions used by Indigenous Services Canada (ISC) and Crown Indigenous Relations Canada (CIRC). Statistics Canada defines Indigenous Identity groups by single identity whereas the definitions for ISC/CIRC are largely defined by the Indian Act/Band membership. (Table 12)

STATISTICS CANADA	INDIGENOUS SERVICES CANADA (ISC) AND CROWN INDIGENOUS RELATIONS CANADA (CIRC).
First Nations (single identity)	Registered Indians which refers to all persons who reported being a Treaty Indian or Registered Indian.
	Non-Status First Nations (single identity) refers to those individuals who identified as First Nations (North American Indian) only and indicated no registration status under the Indian Act of Canada, with or without membership to a First Nation or Indian band.
Métis (single identity)	Métis (single identity): Métis refers to those individuals who identified as Métis only (no registration status under the Indian Act of Canada, or membership to a First Nation or Indian band.)
Inuit (single identity)	Inuit (single identity): Inuit refers to those individuals who identified as Inuit only and indicated no registration status under the Indian Act of Canada, with or without membership to a First Nation or Indian band.)
Indigenous (multiple identities and other Indigenous)	Indigenous refers to those persons who reported identifying with at least one Aboriginal group, that is, North American Indian, Métis or Inuit, and/or those who reported being a Treaty Indian or a Registered Indian, as defined by the Indian Act of Canada, and/or those who reported they were members of an Indian band or First Nation.

Limitations that continue to apply to the indicators used in this report include the effect of ethnic mobility, lack of data for certain Identity groups for some underlying indicators, historical comparability and exclusions of small communities.

Ethnic mobility is the fluidity among Identity group categories caused by individuals choosing to self-identify their Indigenous Identity differently from one census to the next. For example, in the 2011 National Household Survey (NHS), there were a greater number of participants identifying as Métis than in the 2006 census, particularly in urban areas; this may have an effect on the overall outcome observed in this report. The smaller gaps in indicators between the Métis population and non-Indigenous populations could be attributed to Métis who self-identified as they achieve more individual economic success and the prominence of the Métis Nation continues to increase.

Additionally, First Nations populations on and off reserve are not static categories but fluid descriptions, as individuals and families move back and forth. The movement of First Nations populations may confound outcomes as more opportunities are found in urban off reserve locations. For example, on reserve First Nations population may have lower university completion rates because those who studied university off reserve may find employment in the area where they studied.

In terms of historical comparability for the Census, the counts for Indigenous groups, the Registered or Treaty Indian status group, and First Nation or Indian band membership may change over time for a number of reasons including demographic growth, but also partly caused by changes in reporting

patterns between Indigenous groups and between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, differences in the wording and format of questions, legislative changes, differences in the set of incompletely enumerated reserves, and changes made to the definition of reserves.[177]

Not all underlying indicators analyzed such as governance, lands and resources, and drinking water quality, had complete data available for all Identity groups. Often data are missing for Inuit and Métis populations. For example, it remains particularly difficult to measure progress made in lands and resources for Métis, who lack a land base in every province other than Alberta. As different Identity groups have different governance structures, it poses a challenge to find a common measure of governance, lands and resources, and drinking water quality for all Identity groups to ensure valid comparisons. For now, the current approach would allow comparisons between First Nations and non-Indigenous populations.

Further challenges to measure quality of governance and control of lands and resources lie in the fact that they are inherently difficult to quantify. The report uses surrogates that are recognized to be correlated with capacity in governance and control, such as property taxation status, participation in sectoral governance regimes in the FNLMA, the status of community intervention, number of comprehensive land claims and self-government agreements. However, the causal linkages between the measured surrogate and the underlying indicators have not been clearly established. For instance, while the 2012 benchmarking report pointed out that communities under the FNLMA have better economic outcomes, this could be due to a higher capacity of governance that assisted these communities in becoming eligible for the FNLMA regime. Also, there may be First Nations that have qualified under the FNLMA regime but have decided not to exercise their sectoral governance power granted by the regime.

Finally, the availability of data for small communities and access to census takers presents a limitation concerning the majority of indicators because they are derived from census data. For example, the Community Well-Being Index omits very small bands (population < 100) as well as the large Iroquois communities in eastern Canada because the band will not grant access to census takers. Small communities face additional barriers to economic development; without considering them, it would not be possible to meet NIEDB's vision to support a vibrant Indigenous economy for all Indigenous peoples in Canada.

The Aboriginal Peoples Survey

The target population of the 2017 Aboriginal Peoples Survey "is composed of the Aboriginal identity population of Canada, 15 years of age or older as of January 15, 2017, living in private dwellings excluding people living on Indian reserves and settlements and in certain First Nations communities in Yukon and the Northwest Territories (NWT). The concept of "Aboriginal identity" refers to those persons who reported identifying with at least one Indigenous group, namely, First Nations (North American Indian), Métis or Inuit; those who reported being a Status Indian (Registered Indian or Treaty Indian, as defined by the Indian Act of Canada); or those who reported being a member of a First Nation or Indian band."[178] More than 43,000 individuals were selected to participate to the 2017 APS. Of those,

[177] https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/ref/98-307/chap5-eng.cfm
[178] http://www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3250&lang=en&db=imdb&adm=8&dis=2#a

approximately 32,330 respondents completed the 2017 APS for a response rate of 76%. Excluding 8,380 non-Aboriginal respondents, the total number of Indigenous respondents included in the 2017 APS database is 24,220 including the approximately 280 additional respondents from the APS - Nunavut Inuit Supplement.

The Aboriginal Peoples Survey is intended to gauge socioeconomic outcomes for First Nations individuals who reside off reserve, so it does not survey individuals on reserve. The First Nations Early childhood, education and employment survey (FNREEES), which asks many of the same questions as the APS, is deployed on reserve. But when comparing to information collected in the Census, this makes data sources difficult to compare, in addition to the fact that the data was collected in 2017 versus the Census which was collected in 2016. The population sample of the 2016 Census is much larger than the 2017 APS sample. So, the coefficients of variation of these two surveys will therefore be very different. And although these two surveys sometimes addressed similar issues, results may differed because the APS excludes First Nation on reserve and the APS used a floating reference week over a 7-month period for the questions regarding employment. In contrast, the 2016 Census used a static reference week (May 1st to 7th, 2016) regarding labour issues.

Census Limitations

In terms of longitudinal research, there are data limitations as participation in the Census surveys has been inconsistent across Indigenous communities through the years. However for the 2016 Census, it was the largest collection response rate in indigenous communities in the last two decades as 92.5% of communities were enumerated. Only 14 indigenous communities were incompletely enumerated (meaning the process was not permitted, interrupted or delayed by natural events) in the 2016 census down from 31 who were incompletely enumerated in 2011 for the National Household Survey. Sometimes Indigenous communities decide to opt out of the Census survey process or any survey process, but researchers attribute this increase to the growing sense across Indigenous communities that survey participation can help with community planning and investments. Participation from Indigenous communities has increased every Census since 1986.

Small communities are not included in many of the data sources. There are similar challenges with the Community Well-Being (CWB) database. Although there are over 1,000 First Nations and Inuit communities in Canada, the CWB only included consistent data for 357 of these communities every five years between 1991 and 2011. Smaller sample sizes decrease a survey's statistical power. These data gaps are particularly problematic, as small communities face additional barriers to economic development, and monitoring their progress over time would provide insight on how to achieve the Board's vision of a vibrant Indigenous economy across all identity groups.

CCAB's Aboriginal Business Survey

This report cites the Canadian Council for Aboriginal Business (CCAB) 2016 survey on "Promise and Prosperity: The 2016 Aboriginal Business Survey". This survey was not conducted based on CCAB membership, but instead Indigenous business were identified starting with the list used in the previous national Aboriginal Business Survey conducted in 2011. From there, the CCAB updated the list

researching new businesses and networking with organizations to locate willing, qualified respondents. Additionally a referral approach was also used to boost the sample size.

Researchers chose to use results from the 2011 National Household Survey (NHS), to deduce the most current statistics of Indigenous small businesses, based on identity, business type and size. From there, the researchers established quotas for these characteristics of and interviewing was conducted with the goal of "populating" all these cells until quotas were full. The survey respondents were screened to ensure they self-identify as an Aboriginal person and own a business. The final results were weighted by identity group, business size and type.

These results are based on a telephone survey with 1,101 First Nations, Métis and Inuit business owners across Canada, conducted from February 10 to March 10, 2015. Input on the questionnaire design was solicited from the 2015 ABS Research Advisory Committee and study sponsors. The CCAB says "The margin of error for a sample of 1,101 is +/- 3.0 percentage points, 19 times in 20. The margin of error is greater for results pertaining to regional or other subgroups of the total sample."[179]

[179] https://www.ccab.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/CCAB-PP-Report-V2-SQ-Pages.pdf, 51

ANNEX C: METHODOLOGY FOR INDICES

Deriving the Community Well-Being Indices

The Community Well-Being (CWB) Index compared results from 623 First Nations communities and 50 Inuit communities with 3781 non-Indigenous communities. All communities were weighted equally and values are calculated based on the total population of the community, not only the portion of the population identifying as Indigenous.

A community's CWB index score is a single number that can range from a low of zero to a high of 100. It is the average of the community's education, labour force activity, income and housing scores.

For 2016, the CWB methodology was modified to include a new labour force activity age group of 20-64 years (previously 20-65 years). Additionally, the income per capita range was changed to $2,650 to $75,000 (previously $2,000 to $40,000) to reflect current income distribution. As a result, all CWB scores have been updated back to 1981 based on these changes.

Education score

- This component comprises two variables: the proportion of a community's population, 20 years and over, that has obtained at least a high school certificate; and the proportion of a community's population, 25 years and over, that has obtained a university degree at the bachelor's level or higher.
- The Education score is a combination of two-thirds of the first variable and one-third of the second. It is expressed as a percentage in that the score is multiplied by 100 given the following:

$$Education\ score = \frac{200}{3}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ aged\ 20\ \&\ older\ with\ at\ least\ a\ high\ school\ certificate}{number\ of\ people\ aged\ 20\ \&\ older}\right) + \frac{100}{3}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ aged\ 25\ \&\ older\ with\ a\ bachelor's\ degree\ or\ higher}{number\ of\ people\ ages\ 25\ \&\ older}\right)$$

Labour force activity score

- This component is the simple average of two rates. The labour force participation rate, which is the proportion of the population, aged 20-64, that was involved in the labour force during the week preceding census day – i.e. Census reference week. The employment rate, which is the percentage of labour force participants, aged 20-64, that were employed during the week preceding census day.
- The labour force activity score is also expressed as a percentage.

$$Labour\ force\ activity\ score = \frac{100}{2}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ aged\ 20\ to\ 64\ in\ the\ labour\ force}{number\ of\ people\ aged\ 20\ to\ 64}\right) + \frac{100}{2}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ aged\ 20\ to\ 64\ who\ are\ employed}{\#\ people\ aged\ 20\ to\ 64\ in\ the\ labour\ force}\right)$$

Income score

- The Income component of the CWB index is defined in terms of total income per capita. Calculation of a community's income score is accomplished in three steps:
  - Every dollar of income received by community members is divided by the total population of the community to create per capita income.
  - Per capita income is transformed into its logarithm. This is done to account for "the diminishing marginal utility of income."
  - The income score is converted to a scale of 0-100, like the other components of the index. To do this, a "theoretical range" of $2,650 to $75,000 for per capita income was established. The theoretical range has increased through various iterations of the CWB, to account for inflation. Before taking the logarithm, per capita income below $2,650 is replaced by 2,650 and per capita income above $75,000 is replaced by 75,000. The income score is then calculated as follows.

$$Income\ score = \left(\frac{Log(income\ per\ capita) - Log(2{,}650)}{Log(75{,}000) - Log(2{,}650)}\right) \times 100$$

- For a given Census year, say 2016, the reference year for income is the previous calendar year (2015). To better track the evolution of the income situation across years, per capita income needs to be adjusted for inflation.

Housing score

- The housing component is composed of indicators of housing quantity and quality. Housing quantity is defined as the proportion of the population living in dwellings that contain no more than one person per room. The ratio of persons to rooms is calculated by dividing the number of household members by the number of rooms in the dwelling they occupy. Housing quality is defined as the proportion of the population living in dwellings that are not in need of major repairs.
- The housing score is the simple average of the two indicators and is expressed as a percentage.

$$Housing\ score = \frac{100}{2}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ living\ in\ dwellings\ having\ no\ more\ than\ one\ person\ per\ room}{total\ number\ of\ people\ in\ the\ community}\right) + \frac{100}{2}\left(\frac{\#\ people\ living\ in\ dwellings\ that\ are\ not\ in\ need\ of\ major\ repairs}{total\ number\ of\ people\ in\ the\ community}\right)$$

Overall CWB Score

- The CWB is the simple average of the four scores, expressed as a number between 0 and 100.

$$CWB = \left(\frac{Income\ score + Education\ score + Housing\ Score + Labour\ force\ activity\ score}{4}\right)$$

Deriving the National Indigenous Economic Development Board Indices

The NIEDB Indices provide composite scores to track how the core and underlying outcomes for the Indigenous population have compared with the non-Indigenous population, as well as how overall outcomes have compared by consolidating all outcomes into a single index number for each population heritage group.

The core indicators focus on economic outcomes by tracking key employment and income measures. The underlying indicators track factors that directly contribute to improving economic outcomes for Indigenous peoples. These factors focus on measures of entrepreneurial activity, education and indicators of infrastructure conditions that can each influence economic outcomes in terms of employment success and earnings potential. Index scores were developed to assess changes in socio-economic outcomes among population groups, much like the CWB index that is applied at the community level. The index score for a population group is a single number that ranges from a low of 0 to a high of 100. The components and the indicators used in the derivation of these indices are described below.

Core Indicators Index

1) Income

The Income component is derived using the median total income for a population group. Median total income for each population group is transformed into its logarithm to account for the diminishing marginal utility of income where those with lower income benefit more from additional income than people at higher income levels. The logarithm of income is converted to a scale of 0 -100 using a range of income. A range of $2,000 to $40,000 was used based on a representative range of income levels found in Canadian communities. Income scores were normalized as follows:

Income Score =
((*Log(income per capita)* - *Log*($2,000)) / *(Log*($40,000) - *Log*($2,000))) x 100

2) Dependency on Government Transfers

This component consists of the following two equally-weighted measures of dependency on government transfers:

- Proportion of Income Received from Government Transfers: The proportion of income received by the population 15 years and older that was not from government transfers.
- Main Source of Indigenous Income and Government Transfers: The percentage of the population 15 years and older in each heritage group whose main source of income was not government transfers.

3) Employment

The Employment component is composed of the following equally-weighted indicators related to labour force activity:

- Labour force participation: The participation rate for a particular group is the total labour force in that group in the week prior to census day, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that group.
- Employment: The employment rate for a particular group (age, sex, marital status, geographic area, etc.) is the number of employed persons in that group in the week prior to census day, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that group.
- Unemployment: The unemployment rate is expressed as a percentage of the labour force unemployed in the week prior to census day.

Underlying Indicators Index

1) Education

The Education component is composed of the following three equally-weighted measures:

- High school Completion: the proportion of a group's population, 15 years and over, that has obtained at least a high school certificate.
- College/Trades Completion: the proportion of a group's population, 15 years and over, that has obtained a college, trades/apprenticeship or other non-university certificate, diploma or degree.
- University Completion: the proportion of a group's population, 15 years and over, that has obtained a university degree at the bachelor's level or higher.

2) Entrepreneurship

Self-employment is used as an indicator of entrepreneurship activity by a population group:

- Self-employment: Proportion of workers who are employed for themselves, or work without pay for a family business. While many self-employed individuals work alone, many are owners of small businesses and may employ paid workers.

3) Housing

The Housing component comprises equally-weighted indicators of housing quantity and quality:

- Housing quantity: the proportion of the population living in dwellings that contain no more than one person per room.
- Housing quality: the proportion of the population living in dwellings that are not in need of major repairs.

Deriving the Infrastructure Index Scores

Methodology

The following section will outline the methodology used in the creation of the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities. The key characteristics of the index are as follows.

- The basic unit for the index is the community in remote areas. Communities are defined as either Indigenous (50 per cent or more of the population self-identifies as Indigenous) or non-Indigenous. Indigenous communities can be disaggregated into First Nations, Inuit and Métis communities. Community level data can then be aggregated into sub-provincial/territorial data, provincial/territorial data or national data for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities and populations. Data can be aggregated on a community basis where each community has equal weight or on a household or population weighted basis.
- The index can be used both for comparisons across jurisdictions and Indigenous heritage groups. Going forward, a time series for each community can be built to track progress. It may also be possible to develop a historical series.
- The index is based on data for 13 indicators for seven types of infrastructure and can be aggregated to infrastructure indicators and infrastructure types primarily related to economic development and indicators primarily related to quality of life.

Methodology of selection of communities

Definition of Indigenous communities

For the purpose of this study, an Indigenous community is defined as a community in which over 50% of the population has self-identified as Aboriginal[180] in the 2016 Census. The term Aboriginal encompasses Métis, First Nations and Inuk (Inuit) populations. The Indigenous communities in the dataset have been further disaggregated into the heritage groups of Métis, First Nations, and Inuit(Inuk) by determining the heritage group with the largest population in each Indigenous community. The focus of the Index is to quantify any difference in infrastructure between Indigenous and non-Indigenous remote communities in Canada's North.

Selection of communities and geographic coverage

Two separate methods were used for selecting the communities used in this report. First, for the communities in the Yukon, Northwest Territories, Nunavut, Quebec and Newfoundland and Labrador, data was provided from a NIEDB report published in 2014 titled *Study Addressing the Infrastructure Needs of Northern Aboriginal Communities*.[181] This dataset included information for 100 northern communities and 39 indicators, which represent 9 forms of infrastructure. The 100 northern communities were allocated between the regions of the Yukon (23), Northwest Territories (32), Nunavut (25), Quebec (23) and Newfoundland and Labrador (5). Since this dataset included all of the major communities with accessible data in Canada's northern most regions, the list of communities provided by the NIEDB was used for the creation of the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities.

[180] Aboriginal was the term used in the 2016 Census
[181] http://www.naedb-cndea.com/reports/northern-infrastructure-report.pdf

However, three of the communities from this original dataset had to be removed, as information was not available for all of the indicators included in the Index.

In order to include remote northern communities from other regions in Canada, a second method of data selection was used to select communities in British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Ontario while understanding what is northern can be framed in the concept of Nordicity. Nordicity refers to our understanding of what comprises the differences between Canada's regions marked by latitude. While these differences may be either perceived or real, they all contribute to Canada's imaginary of the North.[182]

Methodology of creation of the Index

Selection of indicators

The methodology of the selection of each indicator has been further developed in the report *Methodological Issues in the Construction of an Indigenous Infrastructure Index*, prepared by the Centre for the Study of Living Standards (2018). On January 23, 2018, Indigenous Services Canada released a backgrounder on reliable infrastructure.[183] It noted the current challenges facing First Nations for seven different types of infrastructure: housing, water and wastewater, health facilities, roads, education facilities, energy systems, and connectivity. The Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities thus includes all seven of these types of infrastructure.

The index in this paper builds on work in the NIEDB report *Study on Addressing the Infrastructure Needs of Northern Aboriginal Communities*[184]that provided information on the state of 11 infrastructure indicators . These indicators, and the different categories of the state or condition of infrastructure, are:

- Community access to telecommunications backbone facilities, categorized by insufficient backbone infrastructure *and* insufficient last-mile infrastructure, insufficient backbone infrastructure *or* insufficient last-mile infrastructure, or *sufficient* backbone *and* last-mile infrastructure;
- Road infrastructure, categorized by access to the Canadian National Roads Network or local roads only;
- Access to water transportation in coastal communities directly adjacent to an ocean, bay or inlet,[185] categorized by a deep water port with supportive infrastructure, a harbour or shallow water port with limited supporting infrastructure, or no port or harbour in the community;
- Air transportation infrastructure, categorized by no airport, scheduled flights to other local airports or a regional air transit hub, scheduled flights to cities outside of the region with or without local flights, or a large national or international airport;

[182] http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.ca/en/article/nordicity/
[183] https://www.canada.ca/en/indigenous-services-canada/news/2018/01/reliable_infrastructure.html
[184] http://www.naedb-cndea.com/reports/northern-infrastructure-report.pdf
[185] A value of n/a (not applicable) was given to communities not adjacent to an ocean, bay or ocean inlet. This value was then excluded from the calculation of the overall index (i.e. the transportation sub-component of roads and airports each received a weighting of 1/2 and water transportation was not used in the calculation of the Index).

- Primary sources of community energy, categorized by diesel generated local power or connection to the North American power grid;
- Community access to health care facilities, categorized by hospital on site, Community Health Centre (CHC) on-site, or no hospital and CHC on-site;
- Community access to secondary school facilities, categorized by high school available in the community (K-11/12), either junior school (K-6) or up to middle school available in the community (K-9), or no high school available in the community;
- Community access to college facilities, categorized by no facilities on-site, Community Learning Centres (access to virtual campus and distance learning), or physical college campus on-site;
- Drinking water distribution, categorized by trucked water distribution or piped water distribution;
- Wastewater/sewage treatment, categorized by sewage treatment via sewage treatment plant, limited treatment via lagoon or wetland, or no sewage/wastewater treatment and raw discharge into a water body.

The index adds three additional indicators to the set of indicators found in the 2014 NIEBD report, two related to housing and one related to water quality. The first is the quality of housing as represented by the proportion of the population living in housing facilities that require a certain threshold of major repairs. The second is the proportion of housing defined as overcrowded, as measured by having more than one person per room.

Allocation of values

The infrastructure index for each community is estimated by allocating scores to the status or condition of the community infrastructure for the different infrastructure indicators and then averaging these scores for the community. The top score (1) goes to the highest quality infrastructure. Scores less than one are allocated to communities not having the highest quality infrastructure based on the number of discrete categories. When there are two categories, scores of 1 and 0 are allocated, for three categories 1, 0.5 and 0, and for four categories 1, 0.67, 0.33, and 0. The enumeration of the discrete categories for the state or condition of the infrastructure for each indicator for scoring purposing is provided below.

Index Values and Definitions

Infrastructure Indicator	Number of Categories	Possible Scores	Definitions of Scores
Economic Infrastructure			
Connectivity	3	0.00	inadequate backbone infrastructure (lacks 1Gbps backbone access within 2 km of the community) *and* inadequate last-mile infrastructure (no households with 5/1 Mbps internet speeds from terrestrial infrastructure)
		0.50	inadequate backbone infrastructure (lacks 1Gbps backbone access within 2 km of the community) *or* inadequate last-mile infrastructure (no households with 5/1 Mbps internet speeds from terrestrial infrastructure)
		1.00	adequate backbone infrastructure (1Gbps backbone access within 2 km of the community) *and* adequate last-mile infrastructure (5/1 Mbps internet speeds from terrestrial infrastructure)
Transportation	-	-	-
Road	2	0.00	local roads only
		1.00	connected to the Canadian National Roads Network
Air	4	0.00	no airport
		0.33	scheduled flights to other local airports and/or an air transit hub
		0.67	scheduled flights to cities outside the region and/or an airport which is an air transit hub with flights to outside the region as well as local flights
		1.00	a large international airport
Water	3	0.00	indicates no port or harbour in a coastal community
		0.50	indicates a harbour or shallow water port with limited supporting infrastructure in a coastal community
		1.00	indicates a deep water port with supporting infrastructure in a coastal community
Energy	2	0.00	diesel generated local power
		1.00	power supplied through the grid
Quality of Life Infrastructure			
Health care	3	0.00	no hospital or community health centre (or equivalent service) on-site
		0.50	community health centre or equivalent service on-site
		1.00	hospital on-site
Education	-	-	-
School	3	0.00	no school in the community, students bussed to a nearby location
		0.50	junior school only available in the community (K-6), or indicates up to middle school available in the community (K-9)
		1.00	high school available in the community (K-11/12)
College	3	0.00	no community college campus in the community
		0.50	satellite video conferencing availability to the college campus at another location
		1.00	a community college campus in the community
Water	-	-	-

Treatment	3	0.00	no sewage/wastewater treatment and raw discharge into a water body
		0.50	limited treatment via sewage lagoon or wetland
		1.00	sewage treatment via sewage treatment plant
Distribution	2	0.00	fresh water is trucked to buildings individually
		1.00	water is supplied on a central system
Quality	3	0.00	do not consume
		0.50	boil water advisory
		1.00	no water advisory
Housing	-	-	-
Quantity	4	0.00	extremely inadequate; 6.66% or more houses have more than one person per room
		0.33	very inadequate; 4.76-6.65% houses have more than one person per room
		0.67	inadequate; 2.86-4.75% houses have more than one person per room
		1.00	adequate; 2.85% or fewer houses have more than one person per room
Quality	4	0.00	extremely inadequate; 22.76% or more houses in need of major repair
		0.33	very inadequate; 16.26-22.75% houses in need of major repair
		0.67	inadequate; 9.76%-16.25% houses in need of major repair
		1.00	adequate;9.75% or fewer houses in need of major repair

Weighting of indicators

The basic Index can be broken down into four levels. The highest three levels of infrastructure in the Index have been termed: the Overall Index, the sub-indices (Economic Infrastructure and Quality of Life Infrastructure), and the components (connectivity, transportation, energy, health care, education, water, and housing).

Formula

The formula for the index constitutes an arithmetic mean, wherein the value of 1 represents the highest value that can be ascribed to a community. An arithmetic mean is calculated by adding each of the values and dividing this sum by the total number of values, thus giving the 'average' value of any case. Conversely, a geometric mean is defined as the n^{th} root of a set of n numbers, thus ensuring that there is not linear substitutability between factors, while also equalizing the weighting. While a geometric mean was considered in order to account for principles of substitutability wherein no form of infrastructure can fully substitute another, this created a formula too sensitive to values of zero, a common value in many of the components of this Index. An arithmetic mean was instead chosen to provide an accurate and balanced overview of the amount of infrastructure present in each community and certain measures (i.e. aggregating sub-components and components) were used to ensure equal weighting between types of infrastructure.

The formula can be written as follows:

Equation for Calculating the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities, Calculated at the Sub-Index Level

$$EconomicInfrastructure = (0.33)broadband + (0.33)transportation + (0.33)energy$$

$$QualityofLifeInfrastructure = (0.25)healthcare + (0.25)eduction + (0.25)water + (0.25)housing$$

$$\boldsymbol{InfrastructureIndexforRemoteIndigenousCommunities} =$$

$$(0.50)\{Economic\ Infrastructure\} + (0.50)\{Quality\ of\ Life\ Infrastructure\ \}$$

This equation can be further simplified by defining each type of infrastructure by its components.

Equation for Calculating the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities, Calculated at the Component Level

$$Transportation = [(0.33)roads + (0.33)watertransportation + (0.33)airtransportation]$$

$$Education = [(0.50)school + (0.50)college]$$

$$Water = [(0.33)watertreatment + (0.33)waterdistribution + (0.33)waterquality]$$

$$Housing = [(0.50)housingquantity + (0.50)housingquality]$$

$$\boldsymbol{InfrastructureIndexforRemoteIndigenousCommunities} =$$

$$(0.50)\{(0.33)broadband + (0.33)transportation + (0.33)energy\} + (0.50)\{(0.25)healthcare + (0.25)eduction + (0.25)water + (0.25)housing\ \}$$

A more complex version of this formula can be created by defining each of the components by their subcomponents.

Equation for Calculating the Infrastructure Index for Remote Indigenous Communities

$$\boldsymbol{InfrastructureIndexforRemoteIndigenousCommunities} =$$

$$(0.50)\{(0.33)broadband + (0.33)[(0.33)roads + (0.33)water\ transportation + (0.33)air\ transportation] + (0.33)energy\} + (0.50)\{(0.25)health\ care + (0.25)[(0.50)school + (0.50)college] + (0.25)[(0.33)watertreatment + (0.33)waterdistribution + (0.33)waterquality] + (0.25)[(0.50)housingquantity + (0.50)housingquality]\ \}$$