



community resources” (Reading & Wien, 2009, p. 13). In 2012, bold targets were set by the National Aboriginal Economic Development Board (NAEDB)² to close the gap in economic and social outcomes between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people by 2022. While there has been some progress made, persistent gaps remain. Given that the Indigenous population is young and growing more rapidly than the general Canadian population, reducing disparities in employment outcomes is critical for improving Indigenous health outcomes.

This fact sheet examines First Nations, Inuit and Métis peoples’ participation in the labour market and describes how un/employment can affect their health and well-being. The fact sheet begins by providing some context for Indigenous employment in Canada, including demographics, participation in the labour market, and employment barriers. It then

summarizes the recent literature on the impacts of un/employment on Indigenous peoples’ health and highlights some current initiatives to address employment inequities for Indigenous peoples.

The imperative for addressing employment gaps among Indigenous peoples in Canada

While the Canadian population has been aging, with a greater proportion now in the 55 to 64 age group than in the 15-24 age group, the Indigenous population is young and growing faster than any other segment of the Canadian population (Statistics Canada, 2012). While only 29% of the non-Indigenous population is under age 25, 46% of the Indigenous population is within this age range (Fiscal Realities Economists [FRE], 2016). Of the three primary Indigenous populations, Inuit are the most youthful, with a median age

of 23 years compared to 26 for First Nations and 31 for Métis (Statistics Canada, 2013). Indigenous peoples are thus expected to comprise a significantly larger proportion of the Canadian labour market in the next decades.

Employment outcomes have remained consistently poorer for Indigenous peoples compared to the general Canadian population. They have a harder time finding work and they face higher rates of unemployment. In 2011, gaps in the employment and labour force participation rates between Indigenous people and the general Canadian population were 9.1% and 4.9% respectively (FRE, 2016). Table 1 shows employment inequities for First Nations, Inuit and Métis peoples compared to the general Canadian population and indicates whether these gaps have been increasing or decreasing since 2006. While Métis have had the best employment outcomes and Inuit

² The NAEDB is a federally appointed board mandated to provide policy and program advice to the Minister of Indigenous and Northern Affairs.

TABLE 1: EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES AMONG INDIGENOUS AND NON-INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS IN CANADA

	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	First Nations on reserve	First Nations off reserve	Métis	Inuit
Employment rate ³						
2006	53.7%	62.7%	39.0%	54.9%	63.1%	48.2%
2011	52.1%	61.2%	35.4%	52.6%	61.8%	48.4%
Change in gap size over this period ⁴	+0.1%	N/A	+2.1%	+0.8%	-0.2%	-1.0%
Participation rate ⁵						
2006	63.0%	66.9%	52%	63.8%	70.1%	61.3%
2011	61.3%	66.2%	47.4%	62.0%	68.9%	60.2%
Change in gap size over this period	+1.0%	N/A	+3.9%	+1.0%	+0.4%	+0.4%
Unemployment rate ⁶						
2006	14.8%	6.3%	24.9%	14.0%	10.0%	20.3%
2011	15%	7.5%	25.2%	15.3%	10.4%	19.5%
Change in gap size over this period	-1.0%	N/A	-0.9%	+0.1%	-0.8%	-2.0%

Source: Compiled from NAEDB, 2015.

³ Refers to the percentage of the labour force that is employed, expressed as a percentage of the total population 15 years of age and over. This calculation includes anyone who may or may not be actively seeking work or willing to work.

⁴ “The change in gap size” over this period refers to whether the gap in employment outcomes between Indigenous, First Nations on reserve, Métis and Inuit populations compared to the non-Indigenous population have increased or decreased since 2006. For example, with respect to the employment rate, in 2006 the size of the employment rate gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people was 23.7%, while in 2011 the gap between these two populations was 25.8%. This represents a widening of the gap by 1% over this period. This indicator provides a good sense of whether there are improvements in employment outcomes over time, as a widening gap would indicate a worsening of employment outcomes while a decreasing gap would indicate improvements in employment outcomes.

⁵ Refers to the percentage of the population that is either employed or unemployed, but actively seeking work.

⁶ Refers to the percentage of the population that is unemployed but actively seeking employment and willing to work.

Employment instability can drive individuals to social assistance, which then becomes the context for low income, stress, poor nutrition and many other factors linked to poor health outcomes.



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have made significant gains, First Nations living on reserve have seen gaps in employment and labour force participation actually increasing over the 2006-11 period. A number of factors may have contributed to this deterioration, including gaps in educational outcomes for First Nations people and geographic remoteness, both of which limit access to employment opportunities, as well as weak infrastructure, which limits economic development and growth (NAEDB, 2015). Additionally, Indigenous people also experienced the greatest job losses during the 2008/09 labour market downturn, in part due to their proportionally greater representation in employment sectors that were more vulnerable to the downturn (ie. resource extraction and construction), and their recovery from this downturn has been slower (Usalcas, 2011).

There are also differences in employment outcomes across Canada and by gender and age. Statistics Canada (2016a) reports that in 2015 the unemployment rate for Indigenous people across the provinces⁷ was on average 12.4% compared to 6.8% for the non-Indigenous population, with the highest rates of Indigenous unemployment in BC and the Atlantic provinces, and the lowest rates in Manitoba and Alberta. Indigenous women have generally had lower employment and labour force participation rates than Indigenous men, reflecting greater variation in women's labour force attachment linked to family care responsibilities; however they have had lower levels of unemployment compared to Indigenous men (Employment and Social Development Canada [ESDC], 2015).

Since 2011, Indigenous women have been outperforming both Indigenous men and non-Indigenous men and women in labour market growth. Not only did they experience the largest rebound in the employment rate after the 2008/2009 downturn, Indigenous women have been trending upwards in labour force participation rates while the national trend has seen declines in this indicator among Aboriginal men and non-Aboriginal men and women (dePratto, 2015). Potentially contributing factors in this trend are that compared to Indigenous men, Indigenous women have higher levels of education, greater access to employment in growing sectors like the service sector and knowledge industries, and greater entrepreneurship, while more Indigenous men have become disengaged from the labour market (dePratto, 2015). Finally, Indigenous

⁷ Territories were excluded from the data.

youth typically have more difficulty finding jobs compared to both non-Indigenous youth and older workers (Abele & Delic, 2014). For example, in 2009, the employment rate for Indigenous youth was 45.1% compared to 55.6% of non-Indigenous youth (Statistics Canada, 2011).

There are also differences in the nature and type of employment between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people which can lead to considerable differences in terms of income level, job stability, and working conditions. For example, in 2010, Indigenous people were more likely to work in trades and as transport equipment operators, in sales and service occupations, as well as in occupations unique to the primary industry compared to non-Indigenous people (Usalcas, 2011). Many of these types of jobs are lower income, lower skilled, and more vulnerable to economic downturns, and many carry a greater risk of injury. Further, studies have also shown that Indigenous adults are considerably less likely to be employed all year and are slightly more likely to hold more than one job (Canadian Human Rights Commission [CHRC], 2013; Usalcas, 2011). One study also indicated that Indigenous men are also less likely to have permanent employment and more likely to hold a 'seasonal' job than both non-Indigenous adults and Indigenous women (CHRC, 2013). Employment instability can drive individuals to social assistance, which then becomes the context for low income, stress, poor nutrition and many other factors linked to poor health outcomes.

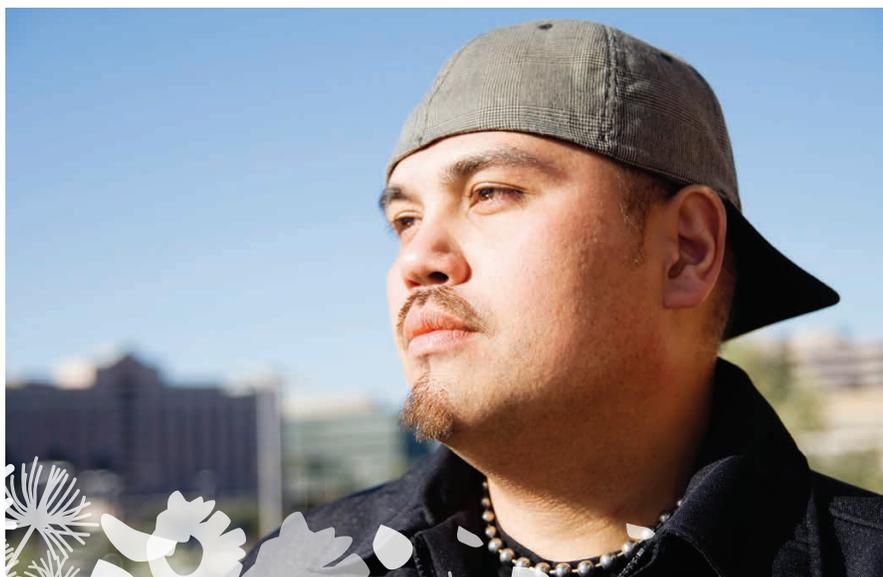
While significant gaps remain with respect to employment outcomes for Indigenous peoples compared to the general Canadian population, one area has seen tremendous gains for Indigenous peoples across the board. The self-employment rate among Indigenous peoples has grown considerably in recent years. Over the period 2011 to 2014, it grew by 10.7% compared to 1.4% among the non-Indigenous population (ESDC, 2015). This growth occurred primarily within construction and primary sector firms, but was present in all industries. In fact, in some regions like BC and Quebec, the proportion of self-employed Indigenous peoples has exceeded their proportion within the provincial population. In 2014, Indigenous women also comprised 37.4% of the self-employed Indigenous workforce in Canada, and were becoming entrepreneurs at twice the rate of non-Indigenous women (ESDC, 2015). The majority of Indigenous businesses (63%) were located off-reserve among Métis and Inuit business-owners; however, 72% of First Nations owned businesses were located on-reserve (ESDC, 2015). An expanding self-employment sector may reflect a lack of access to regular employment opportunities in some circumstances; nevertheless, promoting entrepreneurship is a promising employment generator.

Barriers to Indigenous employment

While many Indigenous people have made gains in employment outcomes in recent decades, ongoing inequities indicate that barriers to employment continue to exist. These barriers are complex and interrelated, and relate to family structure and composition, impacts of historic and contemporary manifestations of colonization, geography, and government policies. Any of these barriers, alone or in combination, can make it difficult for Indigenous peoples to find and retain jobs (MLA Committee on First Nations, Métis and Inuit Workforce Planning Initiative [MLA Committee], 2010).

Family structure, including early parenthood, single parent household, and number of dependents requiring childcare, can be both an indirect and direct barrier to employment for Indigenous peoples. Family responsibilities, especially in the absence of partner support, can interrupt education and limit employment opportunities (Abele, & Delic, 2014; Bougie, Kelly-Scott, & Arriagada, 2013; Franke, 2010; MLA Committee, 2010). The high cost of childcare can be a significant barrier to employment (Templeton, Durksen, & Zhang, 2012). Women

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are generally the primary caregiver and as a result, they generally have lower labour force participation rates than men and are more likely to be employed part-time rather than full-time because of family care responsibilities (ESDC, 2015). Indigenous women have higher fertility rates and are more likely to be teen parents or single parents compared to non-Indigenous women (O'Donnell, & Wallace, 2011). While many Indigenous women do manage to improve their situation, many others do not and remain exposed to high risks of poverty, marginalization and stress (Franke, 2010).

Historic and contemporary impacts of colonization, including poverty, lower levels of education and literacy, as well as impacts of intergenerational trauma, are pervasive (and deeply intertwined) barriers to employment for Indigenous people. Poverty is a

reality for many Indigenous peoples, especially for First Nations people living on reserve. In 2010, the average income for First Nations people living on-reserve was \$18,586, compared to \$29,780 for all Indigenous people and \$41,052 for non-Indigenous people (NAEDB, 2015). Poverty affects a person's ability to access opportunities for post-secondary education/training or employment (ESDC, 2015; MLA Committee, 2010; R.A. Malatest & Associates Ltd., 2004). It also impacts an individual's mental health and well-being which can itself become a barrier to employment (Canadian Mental Health Association - Ontario, 2016).

Colonization plays a significant role in the lower levels of literacy and education⁸ for Indigenous peoples, which directly affects their employment and labour market outcomes. While there have been

significant improvements in recent years, persistent gaps remain with respect to high school completion and post-secondary attainment, especially for First Nations on reserve and registered/status Indians and Inuit (Bougie et al., 2013). The relationship between higher levels of education and employment outcomes has been well-established. Indigenous people with higher levels of education have more career options, lower unemployment rates and higher incomes (Bougie et al., 2013; Statistics Canada, 2011, 2016b; Usalca, 2011). They also have better access to more stable and secure jobs that are less vulnerable to booms and busts (Abele & Delic, 2014). Colonization has also resulted in intergenerational trauma, which has affected the health and well-being of individuals, families and communities. Intergenerational trauma has manifested in many Indigenous communities as social

⁸ For details on the factors contributing to lower educational attainment for Indigenous peoples, please refer to the NCCAH's fact sheet, *Education as a social determinant of First Nations, Inuit and Métis health*.

problems, including high rates of family violence, sexual, physical, and emotional abuse, crime and substance abuse. It has contributed to lower levels of self-esteem, addictions, Fetal Alcohol Syndrome Disorder, mental health issues, physical disabilities, or inadequate life skills which can affect an individual's ability to find and retain a job (MLA Committee, 2010). Many Indigenous people also lack the role models and social supports they need to transition into educational institutions, apprenticeships, training and employment (MLA Committee, 2010).

Additionally, contemporary manifestations of colonization, including racism, discrimination and negative stereotypes, continue to be pervasive barriers to employment for Indigenous peoples. Despite numerous governmental and non-governmental initiatives aimed at addressing employment equity and racism or discrimination within the workplace, these issues remain problematic for many Indigenous people. They are manifested in biased recruitment and selection processes, inequitable income and working conditions, "being passed over for promotion, being assigned unpleasant tasks at work, being stereotyped, and being excluded from the 'inner circle' of their workplace" (The Canadian Council on Social Development [CCSD], 2015, p. 4). Indigenous people with university education are less likely to be employed and to hold managerial/professional jobs, and their earnings are lower than non-Indigenous Canadians (CCSD, 2015; Klyne, 2002; Luffman & Sussman, 2007; MLA Committee, 2010). Further, cultural misunderstandings, unfair stereotyping, and negative perceptions of Indigenous people

in the workplace can erode the self-esteem and mental health of Indigenous workers (see for example Human Resources and Skills Development Canada [HRSDC], 2011; Klyne, 2002).

A number of barriers to Indigenous peoples' employment are related to geography, specifically low population density and remote location. Indigenous communities located adjacent to or near thriving and prosperous non-Indigenous communities have greater potential to develop their economies and achieve above average economic outcomes. However, many Indigenous communities are located in rural/remote areas where there is a lack of employment opportunities (ESDC, 2015; MLA Committee, 2010; NAEDB, 2015). These communities generally lack access to public transit, higher educational institutions, or government offices where driver's training can be taken, all of which can be barriers to employment (Abele & Delic, 2014; Joseph, 2013; MLA Committee, 2010). Rural, remote and northern regions also have barriers constraining business growth and economic development, including inadequate infrastructure (e.g. housing, roads, bridges, port facilities, runways, telecommunications, energy) and unsettled land claims, which can create an unstable investment climate (Centre for the North at the Conference Board of Canada [CNCBD], 2014; NAEDB, 2016). Additionally, most of the jobs in northern and remote regions are associated with the highly volatile natural resources sector (ESDC, 2015). These jobs can be attractive to many Indigenous people because



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they are typically high paying and do not require much formal education, but they can also result in early school leaving which can increase their employment vulnerability. During a resource ‘bust’ cycle, individuals may find themselves unemployed and without the skills and education they need to pursue other, more stable, employment opportunities (Abele & Delic, 2014).

Finally, there are also structural barriers resulting from government policies. Despite federal initiatives to increase employment equity (such as the Aboriginal Hiring Strategy and Employment Equity Recruitment Plan, implemented in 1995), gaps remain between official government policy and practice in relation to workplace diversity, as well as confusion over what constitutes diversity (Klyne, 2002). A recent report on Indigenous employment levels within the Department of Indigenous and Northern Affairs, which has a 50% Indigenous hiring mandate, indicates that Indigenous employment levels have in fact fallen to about 29% of the department’s workforce from 31% a decade ago (Beeby, 2016). In the absence of a strong commitment to ensuring departments are actively pursuing avenues to attain these goals, employment equity will continue to be unattainable. Additionally, there are government regulations and provisions within the Indian Act that limit on-reserve business growth, such as the inability to use assets as collateral for business loans (ESDC, 2015; NAEDB, 2013). This is a significant barrier to self-employment.

The impacts of employment on Indigenous peoples’ health

This section summarizes research on the impacts of employment and working conditions on Indigenous peoples’ health in Canada. The research is derived from a search of several academic databases (BioMed Central, PubMed, Google Scholar) for English literature published since the last iteration of this fact sheet in 2009. The review was not systematic.

While there is a considerable body of research on how employment and working conditions affect the health and well-being of individuals, little has been written within the context of Indigenous peoples in Canada. Most of the research views employment as a risk factor in conjunction with other socio-economic risk factors such as income, poverty and education (Jin, Brussoni, George, Lalonde, & McCormick, 2016). Most of the recent literature is related to workplace injuries and premature mortality, with very little on how un/employment and working conditions impact Indigenous peoples’ physical health, mental health, and health behaviours. A systematic review on the impact of social determinants on the health and well-being of Indigenous peoples in Alberta found that unemployment was closely linked to health inequity, resulting in a greater risk of cardiovascular diseases, mental health challenges, and unhealthy and high risk lifestyles, including smoking, alcohol and substance abuse, unhealthy diets, physical inactivity and domestic violence (Kolahdooz et al., 2015).



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Two studies examined the impact of employment on obesity among Indigenous people and the general population. The first used data from the CCHS cycle 2.2 (2004)⁹ to assess associations between obesity and three indicators of socioeconomic status (SES) – employment, education and income – among Indigenous adults living off reserve compared to non-Indigenous adults (Ng, Corey, & Young, 2011). The study found a significant association between unemployment and obesity among Indigenous adults but not non-Indigenous adults. The odds of being obese were 80% lower for Indigenous men and 64% lower for Indigenous women who had been employed in the previous 12 months compared to Indigenous adults who had been unemployed over this period. A second study using a representative sample of First Nations adults from Manitoba found that employment status

was associated with obesity for Indigenous women but not men, with the odds of obesity being lower for employed women compared to unemployed women (Bruce, Riediger, Zacharias, & Young, 2010).

Two studies examined associations between unemployment and food insecurity in the north. Guo and colleagues (2015) found that food insecurity was sensitive to changes in household income and employment status among Inuit from Iqaluit, Nunavut. Ford, Lardeau and Vanderbilt's (2012) study examined the characteristics of community food program users from Inuvik, Northwest Territories and found users were more likely to be unemployed, Indigenous, lacking a high school education, housing insecure, female and middle aged.

Two studies using Canadian census mortality data identified labour force

status as one of four SES factors which explained a substantial share of the disparities in premature mortality among Métis, Status and non-Status Indians compared with the general population (Tjepkema, et al., 2011a/b). However, no effort was made to link the cause of mortality to labour force status.

One study examined associations between employment and health behaviours. Ryan, Leatherdale, and Cooke (2016) examined correlates of current smoking among off-reserve First Nations and Métis adults and found that unemployment was significantly associated with smoking, with 59.5% of unemployed Indigenous adults being current smokers compared to only 36.2% of employed Indigenous adults.

The largest body of recent research on employment impacts on Indigenous peoples' health

⁹ Which excludes on-reserve First Nations.

in Canada focused on workplace injuries and hospitalization related to unintentional falls. All of this research was situated within a BC context and found that the risk of workplace injury and unintentional falls increased in accordance with employment rates and occupational risk (George, Brussoni, Jin, Lalonde, & McCormick, 2016; Jin, George, Brussoni, & Lalonde, 2014; Jin, Lalonde, Brussoni, McCormick, & George, 2015; Jin et al., 2016). For example, Jin and colleagues' research on worker compensation injuries in BC showed that during the period 1987-2010, Indigenous people living on or near a reserve had the lowest incidence of injury resulting in worker compensation,

while Indigenous people living off-reserve and the general BC population had higher rates of injury. The higher injury rates for off-reserve Indigenous people were attributed to higher rates of labour force participation (compared to on-reserve First Nations) and a greater tendency to work in more hazardous occupations (compared to the rest of the BC population) (Jin et al., 2014; George et al., 2016). They also found that the risk of hospitalizations due to unintentional falls were higher for Indigenous peoples and in northern and non-urban health service delivery areas, and that occupational risk and employment status were factors in these disparities (Jin et al., 2015, 2016).

The lack of research on mental health impacts resulting from employment related stress is somewhat surprising, especially since racism and discrimination have been identified as significant determinants of health for Indigenous peoples (see for example, Awofeso, 2011; Bourassa, McKay-McNabb, & Hampton, 2004). At the time of writing, CBC News had just reported high rates of suicide among workers at the Iron Ore Company of Canada in Labrador, including an Inuit employee who alleged racism, harassment and mistreatment by his co-workers prior to taking his life (Roberts, 2016).



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Strategies

Addressing employment barriers for Indigenous people has far-reaching economic and social benefits for all Canadians, including increased educational attainment and better health, higher living standards, lower crime rates, and reduced dependence on government social welfare programs (Sharpe, Arsenault, Lapointe, & Cowan, 2009). However, since barriers to employment for Indigenous people are complex and often interrelated, individual, community or societal change is necessary to overcome them.

Within the employment sector, investments must be made to increase Indigenous employment opportunities and participation through providing access to new jobs, ensuring equal conditions of employment, and addressing racism and discrimination within the workplace. At present, initiatives have been implemented by federal, provincial and municipal governments and within organizations. For example, the federal government has implemented the Employment Equity Recruitment Plan, the First Nations and Inuit Youth Employment Strategy, and the First Nations and Inuit Summer Work Experience Program. Indigenous employment and recruitment strategies and guides have been developed by health authorities, municipalities, school boards, profit and non-profit organizations to encourage

Indigenous employment. However, given the current disconnect between intentions for equitable employment and the reality for Indigenous people, it is clear that more measures must be put in place to ensure equity goals are attained. This may include broader workplace diversity legislation and enforcement initiatives, cultural competency training for non-Indigenous workers and employers, hiring incentives, and greater investment into initiatives which focus on the natural pathways into employment opportunities, such as targeted Indigenous co-op and internship programs. In addition, since most jobs are found in the cities, Mendelson (2004) argues that federal policy must shift to encompass the rights and services of Indigenous people living off-reserve since current policy, which effectively demands that First Nations shed critical elements of Band identity if they move off-reserve,¹⁰ sets a barrier in the way of improving Indigenous employment outcomes (p. 41).

Within the education sector, current employment gaps point to the need to invest in Indigenous peoples' education and training to close educational gaps. Investing in Indigenous children to improve literacy and numeracy skills and initiatives to improve secondary and post-secondary completion rates would help Indigenous people move into less precarious employment positions, which in turn would help reduce poverty, increase well-being, and contribute to greater employment

(Sharpe et al., 2009). Strategies may include:

- expanding access to early childhood development programs which foster an interest in learning (such as Aboriginal Head Start programs);
- implementing new and expanding existing initiatives that foster Indigenous student engagement with learning and support them in completing their education;¹¹
- implementing new or expanding existing initiatives that increase Indigenous students' access to post-secondary educational opportunities; and
- implementing new or expanding existing initiatives that enhance skills development such as the federal government's Aboriginal Skills and Employment Strategy, which funds Indigenous organizations involved in developing and delivering training programs and services at the local level to help Indigenous people acquire the skills they need to participate in the labour market.

Barriers to economic development and business growth on reserve and in rural, remote and northern communities must also be addressed. First, the lack of infrastructure in northern Indigenous communities has been identified by some as the "single most important criteria for the attraction and growth of

¹⁰ For example, the federal government provides funding for specific programs and services offered only on reserve such as First Nations Child and Family Service agencies, housing benefit programs, and some health programs and services, among others (Mendelson, 2004). They also provide tax exemptions for goods and services bought on reserve and employment income earned while working on reserve (Smith, 2007).

¹¹ For more information on specific educational initiatives, please refer to the NCCAH's fact sheet, *Education as a social determinant of First Nations, Inuit and Métis health*.



business in remote communities” (GE Canada, n.d., as cited in CNCBC, 2014, p. 5). Investing in this area would encourage natural resource development, a key driver of employment and public revenues in the north (NAEDB, 2016). Second, settling land claims would help create a more stable investment climate for economic development (NAEDB, 2016). Third, while some work has been done to remove the legislative and regulatory barriers contained within the Indian Act and within lands management regimes which deter business development, more needs to be done (NAEDB, 2013). The NAEDB (2016) made a number of recommendations to promote economic development in the north, including establishing a fund for north-specific infrastructure investment, developing borrowing

mechanisms which allow self-governing Indigenous peoples to finance and support their own infrastructure projects, adopting tax structures that account for the additional costs of operating in the north, and providing funding and support to Indigenous and northern communities for community planning exercises and allowing them to proactively engage in natural resource development.

Additionally, any initiatives which work to address the social determinants of Indigenous peoples’ health, including housing and poverty reduction initiatives, would help facilitate improved well-being for Indigenous people. This in turn may lead to improved employment outcomes.

Resources

This section provides a representative sample of some of the many resources available to promote Indigenous employment. It is not meant to be exhaustive.

Websites to assist Indigenous job seekers, including:

AboriginalCareers.ca Job Seekers portal, which partners with Aboriginal Link’s Diversity Recruitment Program.
aboriginalcareers.ca/about-us

Inclusion Network (primarily targeted towards Indigenous clients with post-secondary education).
inclusionnetwork.ca/aboriginal-jobs/index.htm

First Nations Jobs Online – another recruitment platform geared towards FN people.
firstnationsjobsonline.com

Federal government employment initiatives:

Aboriginal Skills and Employment Training Strategy, which assists Indigenous peoples with accessing programs and strategies related to skills development, training for high demand jobs, job finding, programs for youth, urban Indigenous people and Indigenous people with disabilities.
canada.ca/en/employment-social-development/services/indigenous/asets.html

Fifty per cent Aboriginal Hiring Strategy and the Employment Equity Recruitment Plan.
aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/
eng/1100100033841/1351175821088

First Nations and Inuit Youth Employment Strategy.
aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/
eng/1100100033607/1100100033608

Service Canada operates a website with programs/services oriented exclusively towards employment and skills training opportunities for Indigenous people, including entrepreneurship programs, technical training programs, military training programs, and assistance programs for post-secondary education.
canada.ca/en/services/benefits/audience/indigenous.html

Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada's First Nations and Inuit Summer Work Experience Program – supports Indigenous governments and organizations in providing Indigenous youth with summer employment opportunities.
aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/
eng/1100100033610/1100100033615

Aboriginal employment and training services organizations (located across Canada) which offer resources, supports and services related to career and employment/skills training initiatives, such as:

Miziwe Biik (Toronto area)
miziwebiik.com/index.html

Aboriginal Community Career Employment Services Society (ACCESS) – targeted at urban Indigenous peoples in the greater Vancouver area.
accessfutures.com

Prince George Nechako Aboriginal Employment and Training Association which serves First Nations and urban Indigenous people living in the north central interior of British Columbia.
pgnaeta.bc.ca

Strategies to foster Indigenous inclusion and retention in the workforce:

IndigenousWorks offers resources and training to strengthen the performance and results of companies and organizations in Indigenous employment, workplace engagement and inclusion.
indigenousworks.ca/en/products/category/publications

Other employment strategies and guides:

MLA Committee on First Nations, Métis and Inuit Workforce Planning Initiative. (2010). *Connecting the dots: Aboriginal workforce and economic development in Alberta.*
work.alberta.ca/documents/connecting-the-dots-aboriginal-workforce.pdf

Environmental Careers Organization. (n.d.). *Aboriginal recruitment guide* (for organizations wishing to create an Aboriginal employment strategy).
eco.ca/pdf/Aboriginal-Recruitment-Guide.pdf

Canadian Human Rights Commission. (2015). *Aboriginal Employment Preferences Policy (2015)* - a document that articulates the legal framework behind companies' obligations to facilitate the employment of Aboriginal people.
chrc-ccdp.gc.ca/eng/content/aboriginal-employment-preferences-policy



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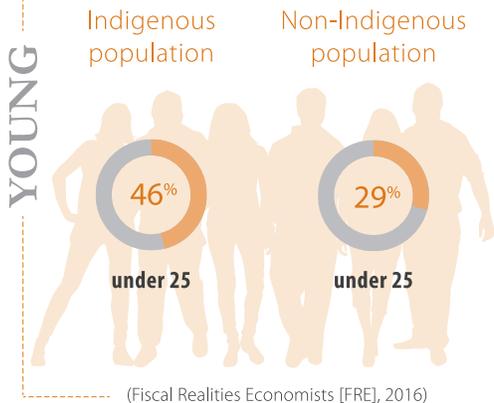
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INFOGRAPHIC OVERVIEW

GROWING FAST



Indigenous peoples are expected to comprise a significantly larger proportion of the Canadian labour market in the next decades.

MEDIAN AGE

31 Métis
26 First Nations
23 Inuit

(Statistics Canada, 2013)

PARTICIPATION GAPS

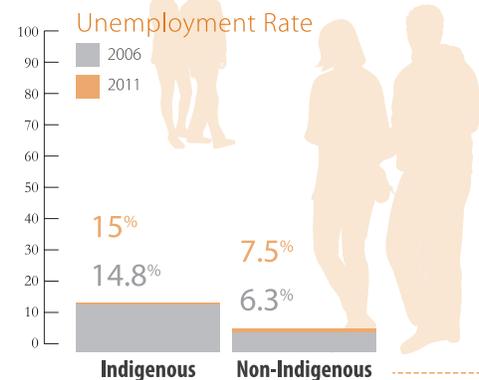
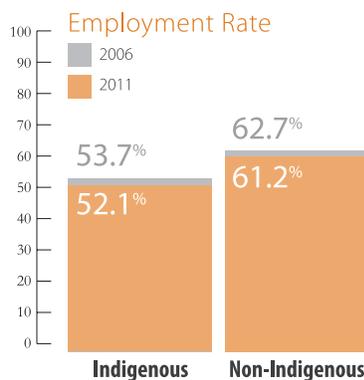
Gaps in the employment and labour force participation rates



EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES

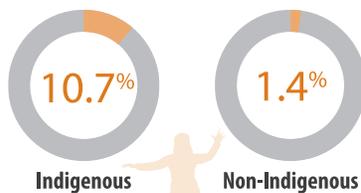
First Nations living on reserve have seen gaps in employment and labour force participation actually increasing over the 2006-11 period.

Please see pg. 3 of the fact sheet for the complete table of employment outcomes among Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in Canada (Source: Compiled from NAEDB, 2015.).



SELF-EMPLOYMENT 2011 - 2014

TREMENDOUS GAINS



GROWING STRONG

In 2014, Indigenous women also comprised **37.4%** of the self-employed Indigenous workforce in Canada, and were becoming **2x** entrepreneurs at twice the rate of non-Indigenous women (Employment and Social Development Canada [ESDC], 2015).

POVERTY A REALITY

INDIVIDUAL, FAMILY, COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITIES

2010 Average Income



ON RESERVE

(National Aboriginal Economic Development Board [NAEDB], 2015)

Historic and contemporary impacts of colonization, including poverty, lower levels of education and literacy, as well as impacts of intergenerational trauma, are pervasive (and deeply intertwined) barriers to employment for Indigenous people.



Education as a social determinant of First Nations, Inuit, and Métis health

This fact sheet examines some of the key factors contributing to or hindering academic success for Indigenous peoples, and current levels of educational attainment for this population. It highlights some promising practices in advancing education among Indigenous peoples.



Housing as a social determinant for First Nations, Inuit, and Métis health

This fact sheet provides a review of the living and housing conditions of Indigenous households in Canada. The fact sheet begins by presenting demographic data, housing statistics and the rates of homelessness, followed by samples of innovative community-based housing initiatives, developments and options that are underway in Canada to improve the living conditions of Indigenous peoples.



Culture and language as social determinants of First Nations, Inuit, and Métis health

Culture is the foundation of individual and collective identity, and is expressed and maintained through language. The erosion of culture and language can adversely affect mental health and well-being. This fact sheet reviews disruptions to, and current trends, in language use and cultural practices for First Nations, Inuit and Métis peoples, provides an overview of how language and culture influence Indigenous perceptions of health and illness, and highlight some promising initiatives in revitalizing their languages and cultures.



Pathways to improving well-being for Indigenous Peoples: How living conditions decide health

This report provides a broad overview of socio-economic determinants of Indigenous health, including income, education, unemployment, housing, social support, health care access, education, healthy living, and social exclusion.



Tackling Poverty in Indigenous Communities in Canada

For First Nation, Inuit and Métis peoples in Canada, who experience a disproportionate burden of illness, poverty is both deep and widespread. This paper briefly examines the breadth and depth of poverty in Indigenous communities using standard economic indicators.



Health inequalities and the social determinants of Aboriginal peoples' health

Available data is used in this report to describe health inequalities experienced by diverse Aboriginal peoples in Canada, linking social determinants to health inequalities rooted in contexts specific to Indigenous peoples. This is an update from the original 2009 report.



The health of Aboriginal people residing in urban areas

Aboriginal people in Canada are increasingly becoming urbanized, with more than half living in urban centres. Despite this growing trend, the health of Aboriginal peoples residing in urban areas is not well known. The NCCAH report examines the health and well-being of Canada's demographically and culturally diverse urban Aboriginal population.



Strengthening Urban Aboriginal Families: Exploring promising practices

This report identifies promising practices that agencies, practitioners, and policy makers can use to strengthen urban Aboriginal families. It includes six detailed case studies of service agencies that have all been successful in building service and matching community needs.



