Gender Wage Gaps among Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals in the Canadian Labour Market

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the gender wage gap among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal workers in the Canadian labour market, as well as the wage gap between non-Aboriginal and Aboriginal males and females by using the 2011 National Household Survey. An interesting result is that the gender wage gap among Aboriginals is smaller than the one among non-Aboriginals. The wage gap between non-Aboriginals and Aboriginals is also smaller among females than among males. The Oaxaca decomposition of the gender wage gap shows that women in both groups have higher levels of education and higher returns to education, but this is mitigated by the unexplained part, which results from discrimination and other unobserved factors. The lower level of education of Aboriginal workers plays an important role in explaining the wage gap between non-Aboriginals and Aboriginals.

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1. Introduction

In spite of recent improvements in their labour market outcomes, Aboriginals (defined as First Nations, Metis and Inuit) are still among the most vulnerable groups in Canada (Usalcas, 2011). According to the 2011 National Household Survey (NHS), Aboriginal people accounted for 4.3% of the Canadian population. Furthermore, their population increased by 20.1% from 2006 to 2011, which is about four times the rate of growth of the non-Aboriginal population.[1] Over the last two decades, researchers have investigated Aboriginal labour market issues, more specifically wage disparity between them and non-Aboriginal. Without a doubt, the results of the diverse studies indicate that there is a large amount of inequality between the two groups.

Within the Canadian population, both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal, female workers are playing an increasingly important role (Drolet, 2001). Over the decades, when looking at the economics literature, we can see that many economists have studied the issue of the wage gap between men and women. However, studies rarely investigated the gender wage gap among Aboriginals in comparison to the gap among non-Aboriginals. This is a research gap that this paper attempts to fill. According to the different research results, women earn less than men in general. While part of the wage gap is due to differences in college or university major or occupation, an important gap remains for the same types of work, such as teaching, business and management.

[1] Author's calculation based on the 2011 National Household Survey, and the 2006 Canadian Census.

In this paper, I analyze the gender wage gap among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadians separately, as well as the wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal among males and females. The 2011 NHS is used as the data base. To investigate the wage gaps, I use two samples of workers; the first one includes only individuals who worked full time and full year in 2010; and the second includes all the workers, both full time and part time. The Oaxaca technique is applied to decompose the gaps between an explained and an unexplained part.

The results of the study show that there is a gender wage gap among Aboriginal as well as among non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers. An interesting finding is that this gap is smaller among Aboriginals than among non-Aboriginals. Moreover, the effect of education on wages is higher for females than for males in both the Aboriginal or non-Aboriginal groups. Furthermore, the use of an official language at home has a remarkable positive effect on the wage of Aboriginal men and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born men and women, but there is no similar significant effect on Aboriginal women. According to the decomposition results, the Aboriginal-non-Aboriginal wage gap among females is smaller than the one among males. Additionally, the unexplained part has an important role in describing the gender wage gap and the wage disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal.

The next section of this paper is a literature review that comprises some selected studies that have investigated wage gaps by gender and between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal. Section 3 provides background on the chosen dataset and the sample restrictions. Section 4 presents the econometric model and defines the variables that are

used. Section 5 discusses the regression results and Section 6 presents the results of the decomposition of the wage gaps. The conclusions are stated in Section 7.

2. Literature Review

Many studies have analyzed wage disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadians, but not as many have investigated gender wage gaps among these two groups of the labour force. Since I analyze gender wage differentials among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal workers separately, as well as between Aboriginal and their non-Aboriginal counterparts, this literature review has two parts. The first part looks at studies on the gender wage gap in general, and the second part includes researches that have investigated wage inequality between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadians.

2.1. Gender wage gap studies

In recent decades, a large number of studies have investigated gender wage disparity in many countries using different datasets and methods. Some of those studies are surveyed here. In spite of the differences in approaches, the results confirm that there is an important gender wage gap in the labour market, although some studies show that the gap is narrowing. Economics studies have tried to find the reasons and factors associated with the gender wage gap.

Drolet (2001) analyzed the factors that are associated with wage disparity between men and women in Canada. The data set used in that study is the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID). The author applied a standard decomposition method and controlled for a series of productivity-related characteristics that are available specifically in that data set. For instance, the study controlled for actual work experience and job-

related responsibilities such as supervisory positions and work-related tasks. According to the results of the study, women suffer from a gender wage differential in the labour market. The hourly wage in average for women is about 84%-89% of that for men. Moreover, differences in full-year and full-time work can explain 12 % of the gender wage differential. Additionally, being in charge of certain tasks such as doing household or taking care of children explains 5% of the gender wage gap.

Using data from the same survey as well as Statistics Canada's demographic projections, Shannon and Kidd (2001) tried to project the gender wage gap among 25-64 years old workers in Canada over the 2001-2031 period. The questions that they asked were: a) will women keep making progress as much as men; and, b) will the gender wage gap eventually disappear? The study finds that an increase in the education level of female workers will reduce the gender wage gap in 2031, though they predict that a considerable disparity will still remain.

Dougherty (2005) investigated why the rising level of education has more effect on women's earnings than on men's. The National U.S. Longitudinal Survey of Youth (1979) was used as the dataset for that study. In line with the results of other studies, the effect of schooling on earnings is larger for women than for men. This is partly due to the fact that female productivity goes up faster than male's with each year of schooling. Furthermore, the gender earning gap due to discrimination also goes down when years of schooling increase. These are the major two reasons for the larger effect of return to education by two percentage points for females as opposed to males.

The above studies show that a part of the gender wage disparity can be explained by differences in productivity related characteristics. Higher levels of education for female

workers have the potential to reduce the gender wage gap, but a large proportion of the gender wage gap remains unexplained and is possibly due to discrimination.

In a recent study, Morissette, Picot and Lu (2013) investigated the changes in wages in Canada by gender, age, education, industry and occupation during the period between 1981 and 2011. The study created a time series of hourly wages using various survey data, which include the Survey of Work History of 1981, the Survey of Union Membership of 1984, the Labour Market Activity Survey for the years 1986 to 1990, and the Labour Force Survey for the years 1997 to 2011. According to the findings of the study, the gender gap has diminished over the last three decades. The rate of increase in the productivity of women has been faster than that of men in recent years; however, factors such as occupation, job tenure and union status still explain about half of the wage gap.

As the above studies show, there are different factors which are associated with gender wage gap, some of them could be observed and explain part of the gender income gap. The level of education can have a remarkable role in explaining the gap. In general, the more educated the workers are, the more income they have. Based on the results of Morissette, Picot and Lu. (2013) and Dougherty (2005), improvements in the education level for females can narrow the gender income gap in the future.

2.2. Studies on the wage gap between Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals

In this sub-section, I summarize studies about wage and income disparity, as well as the sources of inequality, between Aboriginal people and their Canadian non-Aboriginal counterparts. Aboriginal people can be defined in different ways; some studies define them based on ethnic origin, and some according to whether or not they are classified as Status Indians. Aboriginal peoples in Canada who are classified as “Status Indians” are registered under the *Indian Act* on the Indian Register. The common result, no matter how

Aboriginal identity is defined, is that there exists an important earnings gap between Aboriginal individuals and the rest of Canadians. Some studies separate women and men in their samples to investigate wage gaps by gender.

Patrinos and Sakellariou (1992) decomposed the differences in wage gaps in an unexplained and an explained part for Indians in Canada. The 1986 Labour Market Activity Survey was used for the research. According to the results, human capital and other observed differences could not explain a large part of the wage gap between Indians and the rest of Canadians. The unexplained part can account for wage discrimination as well as for the effects of other unobserved elements. In addition, the results show that the unexplained part is higher in Canada than in the United States.

Bernier (1997) investigated wage inequality between Aboriginal people and other Canadians as well as among different Aboriginal groups. In that study, the 1991 Census and the 1991 Aboriginal People Survey (APS) are used as dataset. The results indicate not only that there is a wage gap between Aboriginal people and the rest of Canadians, but also that the North-American Indians who live on reserves are the most disadvantaged group among the Aboriginals. Furthermore, the results show that a gender wage gap exists among Aboriginal workers, but the author does not provide a detailed comparison with the gender gap among non-Aboriginals. This study is the only one that mentions the gender wage gap among Aboriginal workers.

Maxim *et al*. (2000) investigated the income gap between Aboriginals, specifically those who are Registered Indians, and other Canadians. Unlike Patrinos and Sakellariou (1992) and Bernier (1997) who focused on different Aboriginal ethnic groups, that study considered those who registered under the *Indian Act*. Further, they determined that part of

the income disparity could be explained by a number of standard human capital elements. The 1996 census Public Use Microdata File (PUMF) was used as the dataset in that study. The results show that, first of all, non-Aboriginal Canadians have more earning power than Aboriginals. Second, among the Aboriginal groups, Registered or Status Indians have the lowest earnings. Third, First Nations communities face more wage and income inequality than non-Aboriginal communities. Fourth, government transfers have a positive but minor effect on reducing income disparity among those who are status Indians.

Mueller (2004) analyzed the earning gap between Canadian Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian–born men and women. The ethnic origin variable of the 1996 Census was used for the research. The results show the Aboriginals with only Aboriginal ethnic origin have a greater earning gap than those Aboriginals with multiple ethnic origins. Furthermore, the findings indicate that the earning gap is more pronounced at lower levels of earnings. This study shows that, even after controlling for a different set of socio-economic characteristics, there is still an earning gap between Aboriginal and their Canadian-born counterparts. This is due either to labour market discrimination or other unobserved factors with are related to Aboriginal identity.

Kapsalis (2006) looked at the factors that affect wage differences between Aboriginal people with other Canadians and why their types of occupations vary from those of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. The study used the 2001 Census. The study found differences between Aboriginal and other Canadian workers in terms of occupational distribution. For instance, the proportion of Aboriginal workers is large in low skilled occupations and small in managerial and professional occupations. Despite the fact that part of the difference is attributed to varying levels of education, a significant part

of the wage gaps between these two groups is unexplained by human capital differences.

Wilson and Macdonald (2010) conducted a study to measure the evolution of the income gap between Aboriginal persons based on their ethnic origin and other Canadians. They used the last three censuses of Canada (1996, 2001, and 2006) for their research. The results show that income differences between Aboriginal people and the rest of Canadians decreased between 1996 and 2006. In recent years, Aboriginal people who have a university degree have a low income gap compared to their non-Aboriginal Canadian counterparts. In addition, Aboriginal women with a bachelor's degree are ahead of their non-Aboriginal counterparts in terms of average income. The authors noted that colonialism could be one of the reasons which kept Aboriginal people in the poorest category in Canada.

Pendakur and Pendakur (2011) investigated income and earning differences between Aboriginal people and other Canadians. The Canadian censuses of 1996, 2001 and 2006 were used as the dataset for this research. The results show that in spite of a slow reduction in earnings differences over time, there is still remarkable income disparity among different Aboriginal groups and the other Canadians. Specifically, Aboriginals who are registered Indians face more income disparity than self-reported Aboriginal and individuals who report having Aboriginal ancestry. Furthermore, the results show that, relative to Canadians of British origin, the income disparity for Aboriginal men is higher than that for Aboriginal women.

Feir (2013) investigated the causes of earning gaps between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal workers between 1995 and 2005. Using the 1996 and 2006 confidential Canadian Long Form Census, he found differences in weeks worked and weekly earnings.

Those differences in their workweeks and earnings characteristics could be counted as the source of the earning gap. In addition, the results showed that the earning gap between Metis and non-Aboriginal declined.

The results of the above studies show that, for all the definitions of Aboriginal identity, there is a significant wage and income inequality between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadians.

To summarize, the studies presented above are consistent in the existence of a gender wage gap in the Canadian labour market and of wage gap between Aboriginals and non-Aboriginal Canadians. The results in both parts of this literature review indicate that, in spite of a slight decrease in over time, the gaps are still important and are likely to remain in the future. Additionally, educational attainment has an important role in explaining and reducing the gap. As previously mentioned, the studies focused either on the gender wage gap in Canada irrespective of Aboriginal category, or on the wage disparity between Aboriginal workers and their non-Aboriginal counterparts, for males and females separately. One exception is Bernier (1997) who indicates the existence of a gender wage gap among Aboriginal groups. The rest of this paper will further investigate these areas and especially focus on the gender wage gap among Aboriginal people.

3. Data

The 2011 National Household Survey (NHS) is a voluntary survey that provides demographic information on individuals who live in Canada. The public use data of that survey represent 2.7% of the Canadian population. The NHS is a representative sample of all Canadian residents, with a few exceptions such as foreign residents who are representing foreign governments and individuals who live in institutional and non-

institutional collective dwellings, such as hospitals or work camps. Furthermore, the NHS does not cover Canadian citizens who do not live in Canada and full-time members of the Canadian Armed Forces positioned outside Canada.

The most important characteristic of the NHS which makes it appropriate for my research is that it includes information on Aboriginal persons as well as socio-demographic attributes such as age, gender, labour market outcomes and level of education in different provinces and territories. Based on ethnic origin, Aboriginal people in my sample include First Nations (North American Indians) who live either off reserve or on reserve, Metis and Inuit. With the public use individual microdata file of the NHS, this paper analyzes wage differentials between females and males for Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born separately, as well as between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born males and females. The natural logarithm of the weekly wage during 2010 is used as the dependent variable. To investigate the wage gaps, I restrict my sample to workers aged between 25 and 64; in general, people over 65 are retired and many others under 25 are still at school. In addition, I drop the self-employed workers as wage discrimination is less relevant for them. Further, a weekly wage is not a well-defined concept for a person who is self-employed.

I use two samples in my analysis. In the first sample, I concentrate on workers who worked full-time and full-year (between 48 and 52 weeks in 2010), as is done, for example, in Morin (2014). I have two sub-samples that include Aboriginal workers (2,817 females and 2,609 males) and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers (69,274 females and 75,371 males).

In the second sample, I include all workers aged between 25 and 64, both part-time

and full-time, excluding again the self-employed. There are 5,189 Aboriginal females, 4,475 Aboriginal males, 117,837 non-Aboriginal Canadian-born females and 108,847 non-Aboriginal Canadian-born males.

3.1. Dependent variable

The dependent variable in this study is the natural logarithm of the weekly wage. In the database, the number of weeks worked is grouped in categories. Since the NHS reports annual wages, the weekly wage in the first sample is the annual wage divided by 50, which is the mid-point of a 48-52 weeks group. To estimate the weekly wage in the second sample, I create a variable called *week* by using the midpoint of each group to make a continuous variable and then divide the annual wage by the number of weeks to create the variable *weekly wage*.

3.2. Independent variables

The independent variables can be divided in seven categories: education, age, marital status, presence of children, language, geographic location (provinces) and part time work status (in the second sample). I create four educational dummy variables that include under high school diploma, high school diploma or equivalent, college diploma, and university degree. Under high school diploma is used as the reference group. Since I have dummy education variables, I use age and age squared to approximate a worker's labour market experience. The age variable is created by taking the midpoint of each five-year age group to make it a continuous variable. I have eight categories for geographic location which are defined as follows: Atlantic Provinces, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, and Northern Canada. The group of workers from Ontario is used as the reference group. Marital status, presence of children,

languages and part time work status are also defined as dummy variables. The presence of children is divided into two categories, 1) having at least one child under school age and, 2) having at least one child between 5 and 14 years old. I chose those individuals who are single and who do not have children as the reference groups for the family situation variables. Those who speak neither French nor English at home are the reference group for the language variable. Finally, full time workers remain as a reference group for the part time status dummy variable.

3.3. Summary statistics for the full-time-full year workers

It should be mentioned the summary statistics are weighted to account for the non-response rate in the NHS. As is shown in Table 1, the average of the natural logarithm of weekly wage is 6.59 for Aboriginal women and 6.79 for Aboriginal men, while the corresponding values for Non-Aboriginal women and men are 6.75 and 6.99 respectively. We can, therefore, see gender wage disparities in both groups, as well as wage gaps between Aboriginal workers and their non-Aboriginal counterparts. Interestingly, the gender wage gap among Aboriginals (6.79 – 6.59 = 0.20) is smaller than the gender wage gap among non-Aboriginals (6.99 – 6.75 = 0.24). Translated into dollars by taking the exponentials of the natural logarithms, Aboriginal females make $728 per week on average and Aboriginal males make $889 ($169 difference), while non-Aboriginal women have a $854 weekly wage on average and non-Aboriginal men make $1,086 ($232 difference). Thus, non-Aboriginal women and men have $126 and $197 higher weekly wages respectively than their Aboriginal counterparts. More details on the causes of those gaps will be given in the Oaxaca decomposition section below.

In terms of level of education, in both groups the proportion of females who have no

high school diploma is less than that of males (for the Aboriginal group, 14% vs. 23%; and for the non-Aboriginal group, 6% vs. 10%). This relationship is the same for the high school diploma level, while at the college and university levels the proportion of females who have such degrees is larger than that of males in both the Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal groups. The data show that 36% of Aboriginal females have college degrees while this proportion for their non-Aboriginal counterparts is 33%. At the university level, the higher proportion is for the non-Aboriginal women with 31%. In addition, the proportion of male full-time full-year workers who are married is greater than that of female workers in both groups. Also, 11% of Aboriginal full-time full-year females have one or more under school age children, while 16% of Aboriginal males are in the same situation; this proportion is almost the same among non-Aboriginal workers: 12% of females vs. 17% of males have at least one child under school age. Moreover, 26% of Aboriginal female and male workers have at least one child aged 5-14 years old, while respectively 21% and 22% of non-Aboriginal women and men have at least one child under 14 years old.

The average age of Aboriginal women is 42.7 and it is 42.1 years old for Aboriginal men, while the average age is 43.3 and 42.9 years old for non-Aboriginal females and males respectively. Therefore the Aboriginal labour force is slightly younger than non-Aboriginal one. An interesting result is that 94% of Aboriginal workers speak French or English at home rather than an Aboriginal language. Almost all the non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers (99%) speak an official language at home. Regarding the geographic distribution, as expected, the largest number of workers in both groups lives in Ontario (24% of Aboriginal workers and 36% of non-Aboriginal workers). Aboriginal

workers are over represented in Manitoba (13% compared to 4% for non-Aboriginal) and in Northern Canada (4% compared to 0.2% for of non-Aboriginal).

3.4. Summary statistics for all workers (full-time and part-time workers)

The summary statistics in the second sample shown in Table 2 are similar to the ones in the first sample. However, they include a part time dummy variable that shows that the proportion of females who work part-time is 19% compared to 8% for males in the Aboriginal group; it is almost the same in the non-Aboriginal group, with 19% of women and 6% of men working part-time. Furthermore, the average weekly wage for both groups is smaller than the weekly wage in the first sample; specifically, the natural logarithm of the weekly wage for Aboriginal females is 6.48 compared to 6.74 for Aboriginal males, and it is 6.63 compared 6.94 for non-Aboriginal women and men respectively. Like in the first sample, the gender wage gap is smaller for Aboriginal workers (6.74 - 6.48 = 0.26) than for non-Aboriginal (6.94 - 6.63 = 0.31). In addition, the gap is slightly larger when all workers are included. In terms of dollar values, this corresponds to an average Aboriginal women's weekly wage of $652, compared to $846 for Aboriginal men ($192 difference), while non-Aboriginal women have an average weekly wage of $758 ($106 more than Aboriginal women's) and non-Aboriginal men earn $1,033 ($187 more than Aboriginal men).

Furthermore, the average age is smaller in the sample of all workers as part-time workers tend to be younger. The average age for Aboriginal females is 42 years old and it is 41.7 years old for Aboriginal males. The non-Aboriginal workers, like in the previous sample, are older than the Aboriginal workers, with an average age for women of 43.3 years and of 42.9 years for men.

4. Econometrics Model

My econometric models take the following forms:

4.1. Full-time full-year sample

$$Ln\ \text{W.Wage}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1\ \text{HighShool}_i + \beta_2\ \text{College}_i + \beta_3\ \text{University}_i + \beta_4\ \text{Married}_i + \beta_5\ \text{Age}_i + \beta_6 \text{Age}_i^2 + \beta_6\ \text{Kid-5}_i + \beta_7 \text{Kid-14}_i + \beta_8\ \text{LH}_i + \beta_9\ \text{Prov} + \epsilon_i \qquad (1)$$

Where Ln W.Wage$_i$ is the natural logarithm of the weekly wage of individual i, the three educational dummy variables are HighSchool$_i$, College$_i$ and University$_i$. As previously mentioned, under high school diploma is used as the reference group; Married$_i$ is a dummy variable that takes the value of one if individual i is married (either legally or living common law), and that takes the value zero otherwise; Age$_i$, is the age of individual i and the square of age is included to account for a non-linear relationship; Kid-5$_i$ is a dummy variable that takes the value of one if individual i has at least one child under school age (under5) living at home and the value of zero otherwise; Kid-14$_i$ is a dummy variable which takes the value of one if individual i has at least one child between 5 and 14 years old (School age) and the value of zero otherwise, and LH$_i$ is a dummy variable for language which takes the value of one if an individual speaks an official language (either English or French) at home and the value of zero otherwise. Those individuals who are single, those who do not have an under school age child or a child between the ages 5 to 14 years old are used as the reference groups for family situation variables. Those who speak neither French nor English at home are the reference group for the language variable. Finally, Prov is a vector that includes provincial and territory dummy variables defined earlier. The group of workers who live in Ontario is used as the reference group.

4.2. All workers sample

$$Ln\ \text{W.Wage}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1\ \text{HighShool}_i + \beta_2\ \text{College}_i + \beta_3\ \text{University}_i + \beta_4\ \text{Married}_i + \beta_5\ \text{Age}_i +$$

$$\beta_6 \text{Age}_i^{\ 2} + \beta_6\ \text{Kid-5}_i + \beta_7 \text{Kid-14}_i + \beta_8\ \text{LH}_i\ + \beta_9\ \text{Part}_i + \beta 10\ \text{Prov} + \epsilon_i \qquad (2)$$

The variables are the same as in the previous model with the addition of Part_i , a dummy variable for part time workers which takes the value of one if individual *i* worked mainly part-time in year 2010 and the value of zero otherwise.

4.3. Decomposition of the wage gaps

A standard Oaxaca (1973) decomposition is employed to decompose gender wage disparity among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born separately, as well as differences between Aboriginal workers and their non-Aboriginal Canadian-born counterparts. I use it to decompose the wage differences into two parts: an explained part which is due to differences in the mean values of independent variables, and an unexplained part which is due to differences in the regression coefficients. The decomposition method takes the following form:

For the gender wage gaps, the regressions for males and females are:

$$\text{Men: } lnW.wage_i^m = X_i^m \beta^m + \varepsilon_i^m \qquad (3)$$

$$\text{Women: } lnW.wage_i^f = X_i^f \beta^f + \varepsilon_i^f \qquad (4)$$

The Oaxaca decomposition of the average *ln* weekly wage differential is:

$$\overline{lnW.wage^m} - \overline{lnW.wage^f} = \left(\overline{X^m} - \overline{X^f}\right)\beta^m + \overline{X^f}(\beta^m - \beta^f) \qquad (5)$$

Where $Ln\ \text{W.Wage}_i^m$ and W.Wage_i^f are the natural logarithms of the weekly wage of individual *i* males and females respectively. X_i is a vector of characteristics of individual *i* that includes the variables in the regressions already described. Moreover, the bar sign represents their average sample values. The first part of the right hand side of equation (5)

is the gap due to differences in the mean values of independent variables, or in other words, the contribution to the gender wage gap due to productivity related characteristic (explained part), while the second part of the right hand side is the gap due to differences in the regression coefficients (unexplained part).

For the decomposition between Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals, I apply the same method:

$$\text{Non-Aboriginal: } lnW.wage_i^n = X_i^n \beta^n + \varepsilon_i^n \qquad (6)$$

$$\text{Aboriginal: } lnW.wage_i^a = X_i^a \beta^a + \varepsilon_i^a \qquad (7)$$

The Oaxaca decomposition of the average *ln* weekly wage differential is:

$$\overline{lnW.wage^n} - \overline{lnW.wage^a} = \left(\overline{X^n} - \overline{X^a}\right)\beta^n + \overline{X^a}(\beta^n - \beta^a) \qquad (8)$$

Where *Ln* W.Wage$_i^n$ & W.Wage^a_i are the natural logarithms of the weekly wage of individual *i* non-Aboriginal Canadian-born and Aboriginal male respectively.

5. Regression Results

5.1.Sample of full-time full-year workers

I carry out a regression with full time full year workers to analyze the gender wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal separately.

5.1.1. Male and female wages among Aboriginal workers

As the first two columns of Table 3 show, among Aboriginal workers, education has more effect on wages for females than for males in each of the three education levels. Women with high school diplomas have 24% higher weekly wages than those who have no high school diploma. This same coefficient for men who have a high school diploma is 12% and at the college level, women and men who have a college

degree or equivalent have 43% and 38% respectively higher weekly wages on average than those who have no high school diploma. Furthermore, women with university degrees have 80% higher weekly wages than those with no high school diploma; however, men with university degrees have 65% more weekly wages than those with no high school diploma. This result is in the line with previous economics studies. For example, Dougherty (2005) found the effect of schooling on earning is larger for women than for men.

Marital status has different effect on wages for women and men. Aboriginal men who are married have 15% higher wages than those who are single, which is economically and statistically significant at the 1% level, however, marital status has no significant effect on women's wages either economically or statistically. Furthermore, the presence of under school age children has no significant effect on the wage of both male and female Aboriginals. However, women who have at least one child between the ages of 5 and 14 have 8% lower wages than those with no children in this age group, which reflects the fact that women with children need to spend time to look after their children and help them doing homework and school projects. In contrast, this variable has no statistically significant effect on men's wages. As already mentioned, age represents experience in this study insofar as the older people are, the more experience they have. As I expected, age has a positive significant effect on weekly wages for both women and men in the Aboriginal category.

An interesting result is that speaking English or French at home, as opposed to an Aboriginal language, has no significant effect on women's wages while Aboriginal

men who speak French or English at home have 17% higher wages on average than those who speak their own languages at home. Moreover, the results of this study show that in spite of no significant wage differences between Aboriginal men who work in the Atlantic Provinces and Ontario, the Aboriginal women who work in the Atlantic region make a weekly wage that is 19% less than those who work in Ontario. In addition Aboriginal men who work in Alberta make 15% more than Aboriginal men who work in Ontario. The largest wage difference among the different regions is for Aboriginals who work in Northern Canada, which includes Yukon, Nunavut and Northwest territories. In Northern Canada, Aboriginal women have 43% and men have 25% weekly wages advantage compared to those who live in Ontario. This may be because of the harsh working conditions in the North. It should be mentioned that all coefficients are economically and statistically significant at the 1% level. The results for other provinces show there are no significant differences in weekly wages with Aboriginal workers in Ontario.

5.1.2. Male and female wages among non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers

As the last two columns of Table 4 show, the results for non-Aboriginal Canadian-born are analogous to those of the Aboriginal workers. Similarly to Aboriginal workers, the return to education is higher for non-Aboriginal females than for males. For example, women with university degrees have a 79% larger weekly wage than those women who have no high school diploma, although the effect of a university degree on male wages is slightly smaller (61%). The results for the family situation variables are somewhat different for non-Aboriginal women than those for

Aboriginal women; married women's wages are 3% higher than those of single women's and correspondingly, married men have weekly wage 18% greater than single ones. Moreover, having at least one child under schooling age decreases the weekly wage for non-Aboriginal women by 9%. This confirms the expectation that women workers with children need to spend time to look after their children, while this variable has the opposite effect on non-Aboriginal men and actually increases their weekly wage by 3%. Furthermore, having a child between ages 5 and 14 years has no economically significant effect on women wages (1%) and increases of men wages by 5% for non-Aboriginal. Moreover, the women and men who speak English or French at home have 12% and 15% greater weekly wages respectively than those one who speak other languages at home. In addition, the average weekly wage for non-Aboriginal Canadian-born in Alberta and Northern Canada is more than the weekly wage in Ontario, which is almost the same as the result for Aboriginal workers. Similarly, the average weekly wage in the Atlantic Provinces, in Quebec and in Manitoba is less than the weekly wage in Ontario. There are no economically and statistically significant differences between weekly wages in British Columbia and Saskatchewan and weekly wages in Ontario. It should be mentioned that the coefficients mentioned in this section are economically and statistically significant at 1% level.

To summarize, the full-time full-year sample results show that the return to education and age, which represents experience, have more of an effect on weekly wages for women than men in Canadian labour market. Additionally having children decreases women wages. Furthermore, official Canadian languages have a remarkable

positive effect on the wage earned. Finally weekly wages in Alberta and northern Canada are higher than in other provinces in Canada. Additionally, having children has no significant effect on Aboriginal wage while having at least a child under school age (between 5-14 years old) has negative (positive) effect on the non-Aboriginal male.

5.2. Sample of all workers (full-time and part-time workers)

I carry out other regressions with this larger sample to investigate the wage gaps. In those regressions, I include the same independent variables as in the previous ones and add a part-time status dummy variable, with full-time as a reference group.

5.2.1. Male and female wages among Aboriginal workers

The results of Table 4 are close to those of the first sample in terms of the signs of the coefficient, but there are differences in the magnitudes. Like in the previous sample, the return to education is larger for Aboriginal women than for Aboriginal men although the magnitude is slightly smaller than in the first sample. The average weekly wage is 22% higher for Aboriginal women who have a high school diploma than for those one who do not, while this number is 8% for men. A college diploma increases the average weekly wage by 38% and 27% for Aboriginal women and men respectively. In addition, having a university degree increases the weekly wage by 75% for Aboriginal females and 53% for males. Those are 5% and 12% smaller respectively for women and men than the first sample results. Note that all educational variables are economically and statistically significant.

In terms of family situation, married Aboriginal women have a 4% higher weekly wages than those who are single, while this number is 18% for men. Marriage

has an economically and statistically significant effect on male wages; however, the marital status coefficient for women is statistically significant but economically insignificant. Unlike my expectation, children have no statistically significant effect on the wages of either Aboriginal women or men. While there is an insignificant wage difference due using at home a Canadian official languages for Aboriginal women, Aboriginal men who speak English or French at home have a 10% higher weekly wage than those one who speak Aboriginal languages. Finally, part time status has a remarkable effect on the weekly wage of Aboriginal workers, both women and men. The average weekly wage for Aboriginal women (men) who work part time is 72% (73%) less than full time Aboriginal workers.

5.2.2. Male and female wages among non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers

The results of Table 4 for non-Aboriginal Canadian-born are again similar to those of the previous sample, and like for the Aboriginal group, there are slight changes in the magnitudes of the coefficients. The major difference relates to the effect on the weekly wage of having children. The men who have a child under age 5 suffer a declining weekly wage of 4% that is economically and statistically significant at the 1% level; however, this factor has no economically significant effect on female wages. The result of this study is in contrast with the result of Drolet (2001) who found that household tasks and that taking care of children has a negative effect on women's wage. Furthermore, among all the groups in this study, part time status has the largest effect on non-Aboriginal men.

To summarize, like the first sample, education has more effect on women's

wage than men's. In addition, part time status has a huge negative effect on the workers wage in both categories. As the proportion of women who work part time is larger than that of men, part time status can be a remarkable reason for the gender wage gap. I will explain further on in the decomposition results.

6. Decompositions of the wage gaps

I apply the Oaxaca decomposition to break down the gender wage gap among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born separately into two parts: the explained part that includes the differences in the mean values of independent variables and the unexplained part that is because of differences in the regression coefficients. Note that, in the presentation of the results, the education variables are combined as Education, age and age square as Age, the three family situation variables as Family situation, and all provinces and territories as Province.

6. 1. Decomposition of gender wage gap- full time full year workers

According to the first two columns of Table 5, the total gender wage gap among Aboriginal workers is 19 percentage points, which is 5 percentage points smaller than the gender wage gap among non-Aboriginal Canadians-born, which is 24 percentage points. From the decomposition, the explained parts are minus 7 percentage points for the Aboriginals and minus 3 percentage points the non-Aboriginal Canadian-born. The negative signs of the explained part mean that females have better productivity characteristics than males, but this is cancelled by the unexplained part that is due to differences in the coefficients. The effect of females' higher education is quite important in the explained part, especially for Aboriginal workers as it explains 7 percentage points

of the gap. This is consistent with the previous result that shows that the proportion of Aboriginal women who have college diplomas or university degrees is greater than that of Aboriginal men. The effects of the other variables are small in explaining the gender wage gap.

Differences in coefficients (the unexplained part) account for 26 percentage points of the total difference for the Aboriginal workers; those differences can be due to discrimination and other unobserved factors that have an effect on the wage. Looking at the unexplained part for Aboriginal full-time workers, the effect of Education (-1 percentage point) and age (-19 percentage point) favours women as they have a negative sign. This is consistent with previous results that the effect of education and experience is higher for Aboriginal women than for Aboriginal men. However, this is offset by the effect of their family situation as well as by the constant term. The constant term reflects the effects of omitted variable. One of the variables included in error term which effects weekly wage is the individual's ability that correlates with the education variable. Another omitted variable is the rural, urban or on-reserve and off-reserve work area that has an effect on weekly wage.

The unexplained part for the non-Aboriginal is 27 percentage points which is nearly the same as the Aboriginal group. The difference in the coefficient of education explains -9 percentage points of the wage gap, indicating again that non-Aboriginal women have an advantage in terms of returns to education. That is in line with the full first sample results which showed that the benefit of education for non-Aboriginal Canadian-born is higher than for men in this group. Despite the benefit of higher education, women suffer from a gender wage gap due to the fact that the effect of education is counteracted by differences

in the coefficients of family situation as well as the effect of constant term. As previously noted, the family situation variables have a larger positive effect on men's wages than on women's.

6.2. Decomposition of gender wage gap – all workers

As previously mentioned, I add the part time workers to my sample in the second analysis. As shown in the last two columns of Table 5, the gap is larger than in the first analysis for both categories. The gender wage gap is 25 percent points for Aboriginal and 31 percent points for non-Aboriginal Canadian-born. Like in the first sample, the gender wage gap among Aboriginals is smaller than the one among non-Aboriginal. However, there is a difference in that the explained part has a positive sign, of 1 percentage point for Aboriginals and 7 percentage points for Non-Aboriginals. Part time status explains 7 percentage points for Aboriginal and 12 percent points for non-Aboriginal. This is in line with my previous observation that, in both categories, more women than men work part time. Differences in the coefficients explain 24 percentage points for both categories. The effects of the other variables are very small.

In summary, the results in both samples show that the gender wage gap among Aboriginals is smaller than among non-Aboriginal in the Canadian labour market. This result is not consistent with the perception that Aboriginals should have a higher gender wage disparity than non-Aboriginal due to the fact that Aboriginal women are sometimes more mistreated in the society than non-Aboriginal women. Furthermore, for both Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals, women are more educated than men, and the return to education for women is higher than for men. This result is in line with the results of other studies. For example, Shannon and Kidd (2001) found that an increase in the education

level of female workers can reduce the gender wage gap by 2031 though a considerable wage gap will still remain. Furthermore, Dougherty (2005) found that the effect of schooling on earnings is larger for women than for men.

6.3. Decomposition of the wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born –full time full year worker

I now consider the gaps between Aboriginals and Non-Aboriginals, which was the subject of most of the previous literature. Based on the first two columns of Table 6, in the first sample that includes only the full-time full-year workers, the wage disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal for female is 23% smaller than that for male. The wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born males is 22 percent points, while this gap is 17 percent points for women. The difference in the mean value of the productivity-related characteristics between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal explain 8 percentage points of the gap for females and 9 percentage points for males. The differences in the coefficients explain 9 percentage points for females and 13 percentage points for males. Education plays an important role in the explained part for both females and males; as previously noted, non-Aboriginal workers have more education than Aboriginal workers. As previously mentioned, the unexplained part can be counted as wage discrimination as well as other unobserved elements.

6.4. Decomposition of the wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born- all workers

As shown in the last two columns of Table 6, the results for the decomposition of the second sample that includes all workers are the same as those in the first sample. The Aboriginal women suffer less wage disparity than Aboriginal men in Canadian labour market. The wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women is 16 percentage points and 22 percentage points for men. Furthermore, the difference in the mean value of the productivity-related characteristics between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal explains 9 percentage points for women and 10 percentage points for men. The differences in the coefficients explain 7 percentage points for women and 12 percentage points for men. Compared with the full time full year sample, the explained part increases by 1 percentage point for women and men and the unexplained part decreases by 2 percentage point for females and 1 percentage point for males. This change might be because of the fact that the part time status can explain some portion of the wage gap. Additionally, like the previous one, most of the explained part is due to education.

By combining the results of this study, it can be concluded that the smaller wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women compared to men, is likely due the fact that Aboriginal women are more educated than Aboriginal men, as most of the gap is explained by education.

7. Conclusion

In this study, using the 2011 NHS, I separately analyzed the gender wage gap among Aboriginals and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born and the wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal males and females in the Canadian labour market. I used two samples: the first sample included Canadian-born Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals who worked full-time all year in 2010; the second sample included Canadian-born Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals who worked either full-time or part-time. Furthermore, I used an Oaxaca decomposition methodology to explain the gender wage differential and the wage differential between Aboriginals and non-Aboriginals. The main results are as follows:

First, as I expected, there is a gender wage gap among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian-born. This result is in line with the Bernier (1997) who found that a gender wage gap exists for Aboriginal workers. Moreover, for both of my samples, the gender wage gap among Aboriginal workers is smaller than the one among non-Aboriginal workers. This result is not consistent with the perception that Aboriginals should have a higher gender wage disparity than non-Aboriginals.

Second, education and age, which represents experience, have more effect on weekly wages for women than men in the Canadian labour market. Additionally, having children decreases women wages. Furthermore, the use of official Canadian languages at home has a remarkable positive effect on the wage earned by either Aboriginal men and non-Aboriginal men or women, but there is no significant effect on Aboriginal women's wage. Finally, weekly wages in Alberta and northern Canada are higher than in other provinces

in Canada. In addition, part time status has a large negative effect on the wages. As the proportion of women who work part time is larger than that of men, part time status can be seen to be an important reason for the gender wage gap.

Third, there is a wage disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Canadian workers. This result is in line with other studies such as Patrinos and Sakellariou (1992) and Bernier (1997). The interesting result of the wage gap decomposition is that the Aboriginal-non-Aboriginal wage gap is smaller for women than for men; education can explain part of this gap because as shown in Table 1 and Table 2, non-Aboriginal workers are more educated than Aboriginal in the Canadian labour market.

Fourth, according to the decomposition results, the unexplained part has an important role in the decomposition of the gender wage gap and wage disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal. Additionally, a large part of the unexplained part is caused by the constant term, which reflects the omitted variables effects.

Wage equality is a matter of fairness for people and society as a whole. As the results of this study show, there is a gender wage gap among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal as well as wage gap disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal. Investment in Aboriginal education programs (and other social programs that support enhanced educational outcomes) as well as skill training programs can lead to a reduction of both the gender wage gap among Aboriginal and the wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal workers in the Canadian labour market.

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Table 1- Means and standard deviations (when appropriate) of the variables – Full-time full-year workers aged 25-65, 2011 NHS

Variables	Aboriginal workers		Non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers	
	Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**
Ln. Weekly wage	6.59 (.67)	6.79 (.73)	6.75 (.63)	6.99 (.64)
Non-High school diploma	.14	.23	.060	.10
High school diploma	.29	.37	.29	.35
College diploma	.36	.25	.33	.28
University diploma	.17	.10	.31	.25
Married	.62	.70	.68	.72
Age	42.75 (10.14)	42.10(10.19)	43.33 (10.34)	43.00 (10.44)
Children-5	.11	.16	.12	.17
Children-14	.26	.26	.21	.22
English of French speaker at	.94	.94	.99	.99
Atlantic Provinces	.06	.06	.09	.08
Quebec	.11	.10	.26	.26
Ontario	.25	.25	.36	.36
Manitoba	.13	.13	.03	.03
Saskatchewan	.09	.08	.03	.03
Alberta	.15	.16	.10	.11
British Columbia	.16	.15	.10	.10
North Canada	.04	.04	.002	.002
Observations	2,817	2,609	69,274	75,371

Note: The summary statistics are weighted to account for the non-responses in the survey. Full-year is defined as working 48-52 weeks in the year 2010 and full-time is defined as 30 hours or more in a week.

Table 2- Means and standard deviations (when appropriate) of the variables – All workers aged 25-65, 2011 NHS

Variables	Aboriginal workers		Non-Aboriginal Canadian-born workers	
	Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**
Ln. Weekly wage	6.48 (.85)	6.74 (.84)	6.63 (.77)	6.94 (.74)
Non-High school diploma	.16	.27	.07	.12
High school diploma	.30	.39	.30	.36
College diploma	.35	.22	.33	.27
University diploma	.15	.09	.29	.23
Married	.62	.66	.69	.69
Age	42. (10.32)	41.76 (10.52)	43.30 (10.75)	42.95 (10.86)
Children-5	.14	.16	.15	.16
Children-14	.28	.24	.22	.20
English of French speaker at	.94	.93	.99	.99
Part time worker	.19	.08	.19	.06
Atlantic Provinces	.06	.07	.09	.09
Quebec	.11	.12	.27	.28
Ontario	.23	.24	.35	.34
Manitoba	.12	.13	.03	.03
Saskatchewan	.09	.08	.03	.03
Alberta	.15	.15	.10	.11
British Columbia	.17	.16	.11	.10
North Canada	.03	.03	.002	.002
Observations	5,189	4,475	117,837	108,847

Note: The summary statistics are weighted to account for the non-responses in the survey.

Table 3- OLS regression for the log of weekly wages – Full-time full-year workers

Variables	Aboriginal workers		Non-Aboriginal Canadian- born workers	
	(Female)	(Male)	(Female)	(Male)
High school diploma	.24 (.03)***	.12 (.03)***	.20 (.009)***	.16 (.007)***
College diploma	.43 (.03)***	.38 (.03)***	.42 (.009)***	.35 (.007)***
University diploma	.80 (.04)***	.65 (.04)***	.79 (.009)***	.61 (.007)***
Married	.02 (.02)	.15 (.03)***	.03 (.004)***	.18 (.005)***
Children 1-5	.01 (.04)	.008 (.03)	-.09 (.007)***	.03 (.006)***
Children 6-14	-.08 (.02)***	.05 (.03)	.01 (.005)*	.05 (.005)***
Age	.08 (.01)***	.06 (.01)***	.08 (.001)***	.07 (.001)***
Age^2	-.0007 (.0001)***	-.0005 (.0001)***	-.0007 (.00002)***	-.0007 (.00002)***
English or French speaker at home	-.05 (.05)	.17 (.06)***	.12 (.02)***	.15 (.027)***
Atlantic Provinces	-.19 (.05)***	.01 (.05)	-.19 (.007)***	-.17 (.008)***
Quebec	-.05 (.04)	-.03 (.05)	-.15 (.005)***	-.14 (.005)***
Manitoba	-.03 (.04)	-.19(.04)***	-.06 (.01)***	-.09 (.01)***
Saskatchewan	.01 (.04)	-.05 (.05)	-.03 (.01)***	.03 (.01)***
Alberta	.05 (.03)	.15 (.04)***	.11 (.007)***	.18 (.007)***
British Columbia	-.04 (.03)***	-.01 (.04)	-.03 (.007)***	.009 (.007)***
North Canada	.43 (.06)***	.25 (.07)***	.33 (.04)***	.33 (.04)***
Constant	4.48 (.22)	4.81 (.24)	4.40 (.04)	4.60 (.04)
Observations	2, 817	2,609	69,274	75,371
R^2	0.17	0.15	0.2162	0.2037

Note: Note: Dependent variable is ln weekly wage. The standard errors are in parentheses. The regressions are weighted. *Significant at 10%; **significant at 5%; ***significant at 1%

Table 4- OLS regression for the log of weekly wages –All workers

Variables	Aboriginal workers		Non-Aboriginal Canadian- born full workers	
	(Female)	(Male)	(Female)	(Male)
High school diploma	.22 (.03)***	.08 (.03)***	.19 (.007)***	.13 (.006)***
College diploma	.38 (.03)***	.27 (.03)***	.43 (.007)***	.31 (.007)***
University diploma	.75 (.04)***	.53 (.04)***	.77 (.008)***	.54 (.007)***
Married	.04 (.02)**	.18 (.03)***	.04 (.004)***	.18 (.004)***
Children 1-5	.01 (.03)	.03 (.03)	-.01 (.0001)	-.04 (.006)***
Children 6-14	-.06 (.02)	.03 (.03)	-.02 (.005)***	.04 (.006)***
Age	.06 (.01)***	.05 (.01)***	.07 (.001)***	.05 (.001)***
Age^2	-.0005 (.0001)***	-.0004 (.0001)***	-.0006 (.00002)***	-.0007 (.00002)***
English or French speaker at home	.02 (.05)	.10 (.056)**	.12 (.02)***	.11 (.027)***
Part time	-.72 (.03)***	-.73 (.04)***	-.73 (.004)***	-.88 (.008)***
Atlantic Provinces	-.21 (.04)***	-.04 (.05)	-.17 (.007)***	-.15 (.007)***
Quebec	-.01 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	-.10 (.005)***	-.10 (.005)***
Manitoba	-.03 (.04)	-.14 (.04)***	-.05 (.01)***	-.07 (.01)***
Saskatchewan	.04 (.04)	-.02 (.05)	-.02 (.01)**	.05 (.01)***
Alberta	.04 (.03)	.19 (.04)***	.11 (.007)**	.21 (.007)***
British Columbia	-.01 (.03)	.005 (.04)	-.01 (.007)	.03 (.006)***
North Canada	.26 (.06)***	.23 (.06)***	.32 (.04)***	.33 (.04)***
Constant	5.11 (.18)	4.81 (.24)	4.40 (.04)	4.60 (.04)
Observations	5,189	4,475	117,837	108,847
R^2	0.23	0.15	0.28	0.24

Note: Note: Dependent variable is ln weekly wage. The standard errors are in parentheses. The regressions are weighted. *Significant at 10%; **significant at 5%; ***significant at 1%

Table 5. Oaxaca Decomposition of the gender wage gap.

	Full time-full year workers		All workers	
	Aboriginals	Non-Aboriginals	Aboriginals	Non-Aboriginals
Differences	0.19	0.24	0.25	0.31
Explained	-0.07	-0.03	0.01	0.07
Unexplained	0.26	0.27	0.24	0.24
Explained part due to:				
Education	-0.07	-0.03	-0.06	-0.04
Family situation	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.01
Age	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.00
Part time status	-	-	0.07	0.12
Provinces	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Language	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Unexplained part due				
Education	-0.02	-0.09	-0.07	-0.11
Family situation	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.12
Age	-0.19	0.00	-0.07	0.07
Part time status	-	-	0.00	-0.03
Provinces	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.01
Language	0.17	0.02	0.05	0.00
Constant	0.20	0.20	0.18	0.18

Notes: A positive (negative) entry means that the difference is to the advantage of males (females).

Table 6. Oaxaca Decomposition- wage gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal

	Full time-full year workers-Women	Full time-full year workers-Men	All workers-Women	All workers-Men
Differences	0.17	0.22	0.16	0.22
Explained	0.08	0.9	0.09	0.10
Unexplained	0.09	0.13	0.07	0.12
Explained part				
Education	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.10
Family situation	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Age	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
Provinces	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
Language	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Part time status	-	-	-0.01	0.02
Unexplained				
Education	0.04	-0.01	0.04	0.03
Family situation	-0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03
Age	0.16	0.29	0.46	0.51
Provinces	0.00	0.01	-0.03	-0.01
Language	0.15	0.00	0.10	0.05
Part time status	-	-	-0.01	-.02
Constant	-0.25	-0.19	-0.51	-0.47

Notes: A positive (negative) entry means that the difference is to the advantage of Non-Aboriginal (Aboriginal) Canadian-born.