

Labour Market Performance of Indigenous University Graduates in Australia: An ORU Perspective*

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Abstract

Indigenous Australians experience disadvantage in many aspects of life, including the areas of health, socioeconomic and labour market status. This study uses data from the Graduate Destination Surveys 1999 to 2011 to assess the performance of Indigenous Australian graduates relative to non-Indigenous Australian graduates, using the Overeducation, Required, and Undereducation framework. Indigenous Australians are found to be less likely to be overeducated, and have comparable earnings with their non-Indigenous counterparts. On the whole, Indigenous graduates perform positively in the labour market and initiatives targeted at Indigenous participation and completion of higher education should be supported.

Keywords: Indigenous, disadvantage, wage gap, higher education, graduate salaries, overeducation

JEL Classification: J310, J700, J150, I240, I280

1. Introduction

Indigenous people in Australia have been found to experience disadvantages across several measures, including health, education and wealth (Steering Committee for the Review of Government Service Provision, 2011). As Altman (2007, p.2) puts it, ‘...this population demonstrated many characteristics, according to the 2001 Census, that

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are distinctly Third World: nearly 40 per cent are aged less than 15 years (reflecting high fertility); only eight per cent live beyond 55 years of age (reflecting very low life expectancy); levels of formal employment are extremely low (only 18 per cent have wages and salaries as their main source of income and another 28 per cent work for the dole); education levels are low (only one in 20 has a post-school qualification in very remote Australia); household income levels are low; and people are poorly housed, often living in extremely over-crowded conditions’.

Furthermore, a report found that Indigenous Australians had a life expectancy 10 years shorter than non-Indigenous Australians, among other health disadvantages (Thomson *et al.*, 2011). Thus, Indigenous health has been identified as a priority area for reform in Australia, and policy measures such as the ‘Close the Gap’ campaign and the prioritising of Indigenous health research have been initiated to address the disadvantages Indigenous Australians face in health (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2009; NHMRC, 2012).

Substantial gaps can also be found for other socio-economic indicators for Indigenous Australians. A study by Hunter (2006) found that Indigenous people were twice more likely to be in the lowest income quintile, and four times less likely to be in the highest income quintile. Furthermore, two prominent facts recently uncovered in the literature evaluating the labour market are that Indigenous Australians experience much poorer labour market outcomes and have lower incomes, compared to their non-Indigenous peers (ABS, 2011; Ross, 2006; Taylor *et al.*, 2012).

It is apparent, therefore, that Indigenous Australians face disadvantages on many fronts. Many studies have also argued that there is a link between these social, economic and health factors. Marmot (2005), for example, argued that the poorer health outcomes faced by Indigenous Australians can be substantially attributed to their disadvantageous position on the social gradient. This is supported by evidence in other studies, which document the impacts and interaction among these three factors (Grossman, 1976; Kawachi *et al.*, 1997; Ross and Wu, 1995; Schnittker, 2004). Strategies to address Indigenous disadvantage would, therefore, need to be diverse and include changes to education and other policies targeted at socio-economic outcomes.

It had been noted that Indigenous Australians have much lower rates of participation in higher education compared to non-Indigenous Australians. While gains have been made in closing the gap in Indigenous educational participation and attainment, Indigenous higher education participation is still substantially lower than for the non-Indigenous population (Altman *et al.*, 2008; SCRGSP, 2011). This is despite the finding that a university degree brings the largest economic benefits for Indigenous students (Biddle, 2007).

In 2012, the Review of Higher Education Outcomes and Access for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People (hereafter known as the Review) was completed (DIISRTE, 2013b). This review found that Indigenous participation in higher education was well below their representation in the working age population, and hence called for collaborative efforts between governments, universities, enterprise, schools and Indigenous communities to improve Indigenous participation in higher education. Following the Review, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Higher Education Advisory Council was convened to provide policy advice on Indigenous higher

education, research and research training issues. There have also been other higher education policy programs that are aimed at increasing Indigenous participation in higher education, as well as higher education academic outcomes. These include the provision of awards or scholarships which support Indigenous students in higher education, setting up of Indigenous Higher Education Centres in universities, provision of grants to higher education providers through the Indigenous Support Program, and the Indigenous Tutorial Assistance Scheme for Tertiary Tuition which funds supplementary tuition to Indigenous students (DIISRTE, 2013a).¹

Thus, this study will contribute to the literature and inform Indigenous higher education policy in Australia by examining the early labour market outcomes of Indigenous graduates, four months after graduation. In doing so, it will provide information on the labour market absorption and outcomes of Indigenous graduates in Australia. This information is important for at least two reasons. First, the labour market outcomes of Indigenous graduates are a reflection on how well universities have prepared them for the labour market. Second, as mentioned above, targeting Indigenous disadvantage requires a multi-pronged approach, and it is also important to assess the performance of Indigenous graduates in the labour market. As the benefits associated with attaining a degree qualification would include increased earnings, it would be useful to have information on the labour market activity and performance of Indigenous graduates.

In addition, the labour market performance of the Indigenous graduates in this study will be assessed using the overeducation, required education and undereducation (ORU) framework. The ORU framework considers whether individuals are appropriately matched to their jobs when considering their education levels. Recent studies of the Australian graduate labour market, such as that by Kler (2005) and Li and Miller (2012; 2013b) have found large incidences of overeducation, where graduates are employed in jobs that are below their level of education. Furthermore, the earnings penalties associated with overeducation have been found to be rather substantial. Therefore, an analysis of the Indigenous graduates from this labour market perspective will be useful.²

The remainder of this paper is organised in the following manner. Section 2 reviews the literature on the labour market outcomes of the Indigenous Australians, and recent Australian studies on graduate overeducation. Section 3 describes the data used in the study, presents the definition and measurement of overeducation, and describes the estimation models. The results of the analyses are presented and discussed in section 4, with a particular focus on the differences in the probability of overeducation and earnings for Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates. Section 5 discusses the impact of the findings on policy, directions for further research, and concludes.

¹ Note that these programs are specifically targeted at Indigenous participation and outcomes in the higher education sector. Other programs that target Indigenous socioeconomic disadvantage, such as the Remote Jobs and Communities program (formerly known as the Community Development Employment Projects) exist.

² It is noteworthy that studies (such as Battu *et al.*, 1999) have found that overeducation is also associated with adverse effects on non-monetary outcomes such as job satisfaction, although this will not be explored in the current paper due to data unavailability.

2. Previous research

Indigenous disadvantage in the labour market

A substantial literature examines the labour market outcomes of Indigenous Australians, often in comparison with non-Indigenous Australians. Borooah and Mangan (2002), for example, found that Indigenous Australians were disadvantaged in securing employment in higher level professional and managerial jobs and were disproportionately represented in lower level semi-skilled or unskilled jobs. However, one important finding from Borooah and Mangan's (2002, p.46) study was that Indigenous females were primarily disadvantaged in the labour market as a result of lower levels of attributes such as education, and hence argued that this labour market disadvantage might be overcome relatively easily through investments in their human capital endowments. This was also noted by Norris (2001), who also found that Indigenous Australians have been closing the gap in terms of skills attainment and employment in skilled occupations, although some gaps still remain.

Further, Norris (2001) noted that Australian Indigenous disadvantage could also be observed in a range of other employment outcomes. Norris's (2001) study used data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics, and showed that Indigenous Australians have an unemployment rate up to six times that of other non-Indigenous Australians. While this discrepancy in unemployment was narrowed when the focus was turned to individuals with higher education qualifications, a substantial gap remains. Specifically, the unemployment rate for Indigenous Australians was roughly twice that for non-Indigenous Australians, when considering those with university degrees and diplomas (Norris, 2001). These gaps in employment outcomes currently still persist, according to data from the 2011 Australian Census, where the unemployment rate for Indigenous Australians was reported to be more than three times that for non-Indigenous Australians, at 17 per cent (Thomson *et al.*, 2012).

Substantial disparities in income were also reported in previous studies. In particular, Indigenous Australians had median incomes roughly 85 per cent of that for all Australian workers, across different education levels (Norris, 2001). In addition, the income gap was more pronounced in certain sub-groups of the Indigenous sample. For example, the income gap for Indigenous Australians aged 25 to 44 years was the largest, and Indigenous Australians in this age group had median incomes that were only 61 per cent of all Australian workers in the same age group. The Indigenous income gap was also larger for the Indigenous peoples living in remote areas.

An earlier study by Daly (1994) examined the determinants of the Indigenous income gap in Australia, and made a number of important findings. First, Indigenous Australians were less likely to be in full-time employment. Second, they also had incomes less than their non-Indigenous counterparts. The income gap was larger, at around nine per cent, for Indigenous males, while Indigenous females had incomes up to 6.5 per cent lower, relative to the non-Indigenous male and female samples, respectively. Third, and most strikingly, a decomposition analysis of this income gap found that the Indigenous income disadvantage is substantially caused by differences in human capital endowments, such as education. This finding was particularly relevant for Indigenous females, as Daly (1994) found that human capital endowment differences also accounted for the entire income gap between Indigenous and non-

Indigenous females. Thus, it is important to look at the impact of education on the labour market outcomes for the Indigenous people in Australia, particularly for Indigenous graduates, as the amount of information in this area is much more limited.

The ORU framework

Conventional studies of labour market outcomes generally adopt the human capital framework. A large amount of studies have been devoted to the analysis of how education, among other factors, impact on earnings. In effect, these empirical studies yield estimates of the rate of return on education, and a survey of this literature by Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2004) concludes that investment in education generally yield strong returns.

In more recent years, there has been substantial interest in how individuals are matched to their jobs in the labour market. This literature is known as the ORU literature, which originated from Freeman's (1976) seminal study of college graduates in the US, although the methodological framework used in contemporary studies of ORU is based on Duncan and Hoffman (1981).

Studies of ORU are considered an extension of the human capital model in that it considers the labour market effects of the utilisation of human capital endowments such as education, in addition to the effects of obtaining education. In other words, the ORU approach introduces labour market demand specifications into the human capital model, which has traditionally captured the earnings effects of labour market supply characteristics. Therefore, while conventional empirical studies examine the rate of return on attainment of education, studies which use the ORU framework also analyses how the rate of return on education are affected by how well (or not) the education obtained is utilised. Briefly put, conventional studies estimate the returns to actual education, whereas studies using the ORU specification estimate the returns to surplus (overeducation), usual (required) and lower (undereducation) amounts of education.

In the ORU framework, whether an individual is matched or mismatched to his or her job is based on the education level attained in comparison to a defined benchmark that captures the requirements of the job.³ Thus, individuals may be grouped into one of three categories. First, individuals who attained educational levels higher than the benchmark for their occupations are considered overeducated. Second, individuals who attained educational levels lower than the education benchmark for their occupations are considered undereducated. Finally, individuals who attained educational levels that are the same as the educational level defined as the benchmark for their occupations are considered correctly matched.

The substantial literature on ORU has also led to divergence in the empirical framework in terms of defining ORU status and the estimation methodology. These have been discussed at length in earlier studies. Hartog (2000) provides a detailed explanation of the various approaches generally used in defining ORU, as well as the pros and cons associated with each approach. Nevertheless, Hartog (2000) has noted

³ In some studies, the individual's education is expressed in terms of years of schooling instead of levels. However, the review of the literature here will express the concepts in terms of education levels, where possible, to avoid confusion as this study uses education levels in the analysis. It is noted that the qualitative meanings do not differ regardless of the concepts used.

that the choice of approach is dictated by data availability. Discussion of theoretical labour market concepts and how they relate to ORU, as well as various empirical frameworks and methodological issues can be found in McGuinness (2006). Hartog (2000) and McGuinness (2006) have both argued that notwithstanding the diversity of approaches and estimation strategies in the ORU literature, the findings with respect to earnings effects are qualitatively similar and robust.

Two important findings from the literature are highlighted here. First, the incidence of education-job mismatch (overeducation or undereducation) is generally quite high. Hartog's (2000) survey of the ORU literature reported incidences of overeducation ranging from 18 to 42 per cent, while McGuinness's (2006) survey found incidences of up to 45 per cent. These surveys looked at studies from developed countries, including the Netherlands, Portugal, Ireland, the UK and the US. The high incidences of education mismatch have also been reported in more recent studies (Carroll and Tani, 2012; Li and Miller, 2013b; Tsai, 2010).

Second, while the overeducated experience positive returns on their surplus levels of education, these returns are smaller than the returns to required levels of education. That is, an overeducated individual can expect higher earnings on the basis of his or her higher level of education (compared to someone else with lower levels of education), but will earn less than his or her counterpart who has the same level of education and is working in a job that matches the education level. Miller (2007), who surveyed the Australian literature, noted that these differences in the returns to education are even more exaggerated when sub-groups of the population such as migrants, are examined.

Recent studies have found that overeducation remains substantial in the Australian labour market, particularly for university graduates. Kler (2005) reported that around 46 per cent of Australian graduates were overeducated. Another study by Li and Miller (2013b) reported an average incidence of overeducation of 45 per cent for Australian bachelor's degree graduates, from 1999 to 2009. Carroll and Tani (2012) have found that between 24 and 37 per cent of Australian university graduates with a bachelor's degree were overeducated shortly after the completion of their studies, in 2007. These figures are comparable, and indicate that overeducation is rather prevalent in the Australian graduate labour market. However, Carroll and Tani (2012) also found that the incidence of overeducation was reduced three years after graduation, especially for younger graduates.

A separate study by Li and Miller (2013a) explored the determinants of overeducation for bachelor's degree graduates in Australia using a logit model, and found that the university group attended had modest effects on the probability of overeducation, although these do not appear to be linked to university prestige as measured by university rankings. Fields of study, however, are strong determinants of graduate overeducation, with graduates from the various fields of study experiencing up to 57 percentage points difference in the probability of being overeducated. Specifically, graduates in the natural and physical sciences field were most likely to be overeducated, while graduates from nursing were the least likely to be overeducated.

These studies have also uncovered adverse earnings effects associated with overeducation. Kler (2005), for example, reported that Australian graduates experienced

a return of around five per cent to surplus education (overeducation), but this was much lower than the returns to required education, at around 12 per cent. Li and Miller (2013b) reported that overeducated graduates experienced an earnings disadvantage of 12 per cent relative to their well-matched peers. The earnings disadvantages are exacerbated when the extent of overeducation is greater (Li and Miller, 2013a). Given the prevalence of overeducation in the Australian graduate labour market, as well as the substantial earnings disadvantage associated with it, a study for Indigenous graduates from the ORU perspective would add value to the literature.

3. Data and methodology

Data

The study uses data drawn from the 1999-2011 waves of the Australian Graduate Survey (AGS), which is an annual census of all graduates from Australian universities. The AGS is a cross-sectional dataset which offers a rich array of information on graduates' demographics, as well as university and employment characteristics. Graduates from Australian universities who have completed requirements for a higher education qualification are sent a copy of the survey by their institution. The survey occurs around four months after course completion, and takes place in April and October of each year. Non-respondents are followed up with phone calls or emails at the discretion of the survey manager at each institution.

While the survey is administered by each individual institution, overall responsibility and oversight of the survey lies with Graduate Careers Australia. In particular, Graduate Careers Australia maintains the coding manual used for data entry and the Code of Practice governing the use of the data. The coding of the data is typically performed at the institution level, and the data is then sent to Graduate Careers Australia for collation into a national dataset. The response rates over 1999 to 2011 have been in the mid-60s range, with an average response rate of 62 per cent. A study by Guthrie and Johnson (1997) had examined issues relating to non-response to the AGS, and concluded that the AGS can be considered to be nationally representative of the graduate labour market in Australia.

The AGS 1999-2011 had a total of 1,440,513 respondents. In the present study, the sample will be restricted to Australian graduates who had completed a bachelor's pass degree or higher qualification, and who were employed in Australia at the time of the survey. Furthermore, graduates with missing information on the variables used in the analysis are removed from the sample. The variables used in the analysis are hourly wage, level of qualification, age, double degree, sector of employment, industry of employment, occupation, length of employment contract, hours of work, language background, residency status, gender and self-employment status. There are 711,198 observations in the final sample.

Measurement of ORU

The study adopts the 'job analysis' approach in defining ORU (see Hartog, 2000, for a detailed explanation of this approach). The 'job analysis' approach uses a job dictionary, which indicates the level of education or qualification necessary to perform a job or occupation. The individual's actual educational attainment is then compared to the education required by the job dictionary to perform his or her occupation.

Individuals who have education levels higher than that required in their occupations are then considered overeducated, while those with education levels below that required in their occupations are considered undereducated. Meanwhile, individuals with education levels that match the required education level for their occupations are considered correctly matched.

The AGS has coded occupation data according to the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) from 1999 to 2005, and the Australian New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO) from 2006 to 2011 (ABS, 1997; ABS, 2011). For the purposes of the analysis, the occupation data from 2006 to 2011 were recoded from the ANZSCO format into the ASCO format, using the ANZSCO to ASCO correspondence table published by the ABS (ABS, 2009). The minimum levels of education required for each occupation were also defined in the ASCO, and these were used to assess the ORU status of the graduates. The ASCO states that the minimum level of education for the various occupations could be a certificate, diploma or bachelor's degree. For example, associate professionals are classified as occupations where certificates are minimum qualifications. Conversely, accountant is an occupation where the minimum level of qualification is a bachelor's degree.

As the lowest qualification of the graduates in this study are bachelor's pass degrees, any graduate in a certificate or diploma level job are automatically classified as being overeducated. Bachelor's pass degree graduates who work in a bachelor's degree level job are considered correctly matched. Finally, postgraduates are also, by definition, considered overeducated, as they would have education levels above the highest job requirement of bachelor's pass degrees.⁴

Estimating equations

The determinants of overeducation will be explored with a binary logit model, which can be expressed as:

$$ORU_i^* = \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i, i = 1, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

where ORU_i^* is a latent index representing the propensity of individual i to be overeducated, X_i denotes a vector of graduate characteristics that are hypothesised to impact on the probability of overeducation and β denotes a vector of parameters to be estimated. ORU_i^* is not observed, but rather a binary indicator variable ORU_i is measured, where:

$$\begin{aligned} ORU_i &= 1 \text{ where } ORU_i^* \geq 0 \\ ORU_i &= 0 \text{ where } ORU_i^* < 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

⁴ An earlier study by Li (2013) adopted a slightly different approach, and defined the required level of education by using average levels of education in each occupation based on data from the Australian Census 2006. This approach was found to yield similar estimates and findings compared to the use of ASCO defined minimum levels of education, such as in the present study. Estimates of ORU are thus robust to approaches used in defining overeducation, a point that Hartog (2000) had also made.

The determinants of ORU are then estimated using the binary logit model:

$$Pr(ORU_i = 1|X_i) = \frac{e^{\beta X_i}}{1 + e^{\beta X_i}} \quad (3)$$

Earnings differences of non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates in Australia will be analysed with an ORU model of earnings using the Verdugo and Verdugo (1989) specification. This can be expressed as:

$$\log(w_i) = \beta_1 Z_i + \beta_2 indig_i + \beta_3 educ_i + \beta_4 exp_i + \beta_5 D^o_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

where $\log(w)$ is the natural log of the real hourly wage in 2011 dollars, Z represents a vector of characteristics correlated with earnings, *indig* is a dummy variable denoting Indigenous status, *educ* represents a vector of dummy variables for the level of attained education, *exp* denotes age and its squared term which are used as proxies for labour market experience, and D^o is a dichotomous variable indicating overeducation status (D^o).

4. Results

Descriptive statistics

Selected summary statistics relating to personal, education and employment characteristics of the sample are presented in table 1. Comments on some variables of interest are offered. First, the proportion of Indigenous graduates in the sample is very low, at 0.7 per cent. This figure is commensurate with figures on Indigenous higher education participation in the Review of Higher Education Access and Outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Straits Islander People report (DIISRTE, 2013b). Specifically, the Review noted that the Indigenous people accounted for only 1.4 per cent of university enrolments in 2010, and also noted that only 40.8 per cent of Indigenous students who commenced their university degree in 2009 completed the degree by 2012.

Figures from the 2011 Census indicate that the Indigenous people account for around 2.5 per cent of the Australian population, and they are thus underrepresented in higher education completions (ABS, 2012). While female representation in the sample is high for the non-Indigenous sample, at 62 per cent, it is even higher for the Indigenous sample, at 67 per cent. The high proportion of female Indigenous graduates was also noted in the Review. The mean age of Indigenous graduates is also higher, at 33 years, compared to 30 years for the non-Indigenous graduates.

Second, the Indigenous and non-Indigenous samples attain similar levels of postgraduate qualifications. However, there are some differences in their major fields studied. While the proportions of each sample who studied agriculture and environment are the same, modest differences can be observed for the remaining fields of study. The most pronounced difference is in the field of education, where 18 per cent of Indigenous graduates are in, compared to 13 per cent of their non-Indigenous counterparts. There are also slightly larger proportions of Indigenous graduates in health, society and culture and creative arts, compared to non-Indigenous graduates. Conversely, non-Indigenous graduates are slightly more represented in the fields of natural and physical science, information technology, engineering, architecture, and management and commerce.

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Pooled</i>	<i>Non-Indig</i>	<i>Indig</i>
Demographic characteristics			
Aboriginal or Torres Straits Islander (omitted category = non-Indigenous graduates)	0.007	(a)	(a)
Female (omitted category = male)	0.617	0.616	0.670
Age (continuous variable)	29.738	29.720	32.585
Age squared (continuous variable)	978.619	977.367	1,169.083
Physical or mental disability (omitted category = with no disability)	0.024	0.024	0.064
Non-English speaking background (omitted category = from English speaking background)	0.146	0.147	0.077
Education			
Bachelor's pass degree (omitted category)	0.566	0.566	0.598
Bachelor's degree with honours	0.070	0.070	0.058
Master's degree	0.144	0.144	0.123
Other postgraduate	0.189	0.189	0.199
PhD	0.031	0.031	0.022
Double degree (omitted category = those in a single degree program)	0.088	0.088	0.075
Engaged in further studies (omitted category = not engaged in further studies)	0.188	0.188	0.203
Field of Study			
Natural and physical science	0.053	0.053	0.035
Information technology	0.037	0.037	0.021
Engineering	0.079	0.079	0.062
Architecture	0.060	0.060	0.034
Agriculture and environment	0.046	0.046	0.045
Health and related fields	0.141	0.141	0.151
Education	0.138	0.138	0.183
Society and culture	0.190	0.190	0.202
Creative arts and others	0.086	0.086	0.114
Management and commerce (omitted category)	0.169	0.169	0.152
Employment characteristics			
Hourly wage, log 2011 dollars	3.238	3.238	3.255
Self-employed	0.039	0.039	0.034
Employed in public sector	0.416	0.415	0.608
Employed in private sector	0.524	0.525	0.314
Employed in all other sectors (omitted category)	0.061	0.060	0.078
Employment of one year or longer (omitted category = employed for duration less than one year or on a casual basis)	0.707	0.707	0.719
Overeducated (omitted category = correctly matched)	0.640	0.640	0.605
Observations	711,198	706,555	4,643

Note: (a) denotes 'not applicable'.

Third, much larger proportions of Indigenous graduates are employed in the public sector (61 per cent) than non-Indigenous graduates (42 per cent). Conversely, lower proportions of Indigenous graduates are employed in the private sector (31 per cent) compared to non-Indigenous graduates (53 per cent), while the proportion employed in all other sectors are similar. The mean hourly wage, expressed in

logarithmic terms, for both samples are similar, at 3.238 and 3.255 for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates, respectively. In dollar terms, Indigenous graduates have a mean hourly wage that is about forty cents higher than their non-Indigenous counterparts. This suggests that Indigenous graduates are marginally better off in terms of labour market earnings, compared to non-Indigenous graduates.

Finally, the proportion of non-Indigenous graduates who are considered overeducated is 64 per cent, which is modestly higher than the 61 per cent observed for Indigenous graduates. These figures indicate that overeducation is prevalent for all graduates in Australia, and also suggest that Indigenous graduates fare better with respect to this labour market outcome. This is explored in greater detail in the next section.

Determinants of overeducation for Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates

The results from the logit model of overeducation are presented in table 2. The logit model was estimated for the pooled sample of all graduates, and the sub-samples of non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates. Panels (i), (iii) and (v) presents the log odds ratio for those samples, respectively, while the marginal effects are presented in panels (ii), (iv) and (vi). The following discussion on the results of the logit model will be confined to that for the marginal effects, as a discussion of the log odds ratio in addition to the marginal effects does not add much value.

Some general comments are offered with respect to the results for the three samples. First, the results for the non-Indigenous sample are very similar to that for the full sample. This is likely to be due to the vast numerical and proportional representation of non-Indigenous graduates in the full sample, who accounted for 99.3 per cent of the sample. Hence, subsequent discussion will be mainly focussed on the results for the non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples.

Second, the pseudo R^2 for the non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples are 0.149 and 0.110, respectively. Therefore, the model can be said to estimate the probability of overeducation better for non-Indigenous graduates. This might also be due to the much smaller number of observations in the Indigenous sample. Furthermore, the number of statistically significant estimates (at the ten, five and one per cent levels) for the Indigenous sample is much less than that for the non-Indigenous sample. Again, this might be due to the smaller Indigenous sample.

The first finding of importance relates to the probability of being overeducated for Indigenous graduates, in panels (i) and (ii). The estimated marginal effects for Indigenous graduates indicate that they are 6.5 per cent less likely to be overeducated, relative to non-Indigenous graduates. This implies that Indigenous graduates actually outperform non-Indigenous graduates with respect to finding a job that matches their educational attainment.

Attention is now drawn to the marginal effects estimates in panels (iv) and (vi), for the non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates, respectively. Female non-Indigenous graduates have a statistically significant, but economically negligible estimate of being 0.8 per cent more likely to be overeducated. This finding for female graduates, including postgraduates, is comparable to the result for bachelor's degree

graduates in Li and Miller (2013a). Specifically, Li and Miller (2013a) found that female bachelor's degree graduates were two per cent more likely to be overeducated compared to their male peers. It is noteworthy that female graduates are not more likely to be overeducated despite their larger representation in the graduate population. Female Indigenous graduates are estimated to be three per cent less likely to be overeducated relative to male Indigenous graduates. This result indicates that female Indigenous graduates outperform female non-Indigenous graduates in this respect.

Graduates with a disability are found to be slightly less likely to be overeducated, at three per cent, compared to graduates without any disability. However, this result is statistically significant at the one per cent level for non-Indigenous graduates but is insignificant for Indigenous graduates. Graduates who are from non-English speaking backgrounds are more likely to be overeducated, at an increased probability of two and five per cent, for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates, respectively. Non-English speaking background is thus associated with modestly poorer labour market outcomes for graduates, and has marginally larger negative effects for Indigenous graduates.

Graduates with double degrees are substantially less likely to be overeducated, at 12 per cent less, for both samples, significant at the one per cent level. However, statistically significant estimates for graduates who undertook further study is observed only for non-Indigenous graduates, who are found to have a modest five per cent increase in their probability of being overeducated, relative to their counterparts who did not engage in further education.

The field of study is found to be a major determinant of overeducation for the graduates, with substantially large effects on the probability of overeducation being observed for both samples. In addition, the estimates for both samples are qualitatively similar, with the sign of the statistically significant estimates being generally consistent across both samples. In comparison to management and commerce graduates, natural and physical science graduates are found to have moderately higher probabilities of being overeducated for their jobs, at nine and seven per cent, for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates, respectively. Conversely, graduates who majored in health fields of study have much lower chances of being overeducated by 13 or 14 per cent, compared to the same benchmark group. For Indigenous graduates who majored in creative arts, the increased likelihood of being overeducated relative to Indigenous management and commerce graduates is also found to be rather substantial, at nine per cent. There are thus substantial differences across the fields of study, with differences of up to 22 per cent in the probability of being overeducated, for both the non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples.

Being employed in the public sector is found to reduce the probability of being overeducated for both samples, by around five per cent, relative to the benchmark groups of those employed in all other sectors. However, non-Indigenous graduates employed in the private sector are also less likely to be overeducated, although no statistically significant effects are noted for Indigenous graduates in the private sector. Likewise, being employed on terms of one year or longer is associated with a two per cent reduced probability of being overeducated for non-Indigenous graduates, relative to non-Indigenous graduates employed on a casual or short-term basis. Conversely, no statistically significant effects are observed for Indigenous graduates employed on contracts of one year or more.

Table 2 - Estimates from the logit model of overeducation

Variables	Full		Non-Indig		Indig	
	Log odds (i)	Marg. Eff. (ii)	Log odds (iii)	Marg. Eff. (iv)	Log odds (v)	Marg. Eff. (vi)
Demographics						
Aboriginal or Torres Straits Islander	-0.343*** (-9.958)	-0.065*** (-9.960)	(a) (a)	(a) (a)	(a) (a)	(a) (a)
Female	0.042*** (6.993)	0.008*** (6.994)	0.044*** (7.199)	0.008*** (7.201)	-0.144** (-1.989)	-0.030** (-1.992)
Age	0.234*** (109.334)	0.044*** (113.639)	0.235*** (109.192)	0.044*** (113.517)	0.107*** (4.558)	0.022*** (4.594)
Age squared/1000	-0.002*** (-81.467)	-0.000*** (-83.279)	-0.002*** (-81.351)	-0.000*** (-83.171)	-0.001*** (-3.051)	-0.000*** (-3.061)
Physical or mental disability	-0.175*** (-9.499)	-0.033*** (-9.501)	-0.174*** (-9.351)	-0.033*** (-9.352)	-0.146 (-1.079)	-0.030 (-1.079)
Non-English speaking background	0.106*** (13.470)	0.020*** (13.475)	0.106*** (13.356)	0.020*** (13.361)	0.255* (1.881)	0.053* (1.885)
Education						
Double degree	-0.672*** (-70.466)	-0.126*** (-71.402)	-0.672*** (-70.274)	-0.126*** (-71.207)	-0.590*** (-4.681)	-0.121*** (-4.724)
Engaged in further studies	0.262*** (34.694)	0.049*** (34.814)	0.263*** (34.718)	0.050*** (34.840)	0.131 (1.512)	0.027 (1.514)
Natural and Physical Science	0.453*** (30.088)	0.085*** (30.162)	0.452*** (29.964)	0.085*** (30.037)	0.353* (1.734)	0.073* (1.735)
Information Technology	-0.493*** (-31.893)	-0.093*** (-31.981)	-0.493*** (-31.824)	-0.093*** (-31.912)	-0.540** (-2.177)	-0.111** (-2.182)
Engineering	-0.246*** (-19.543)	-0.046*** (-19.564)	-0.247*** (-19.524)	-0.046*** (-19.545)	-0.279 (-1.608)	-0.057 (-1.609)
Architecture	-0.087*** (-6.011)	-0.016*** (-6.011)	-0.089*** (-6.130)	-0.017*** (-6.130)	0.219 (0.999)	0.045 (0.999)
Agriculture and Environment	-0.063*** (-4.035)	-0.012*** (-4.035)	-0.063*** (-3.966)	-0.012*** (-3.966)	-0.348* (-1.802)	-0.072* (-1.804)
Health and related fields	-0.762*** (-66.904)	-0.143*** (-67.653)	-0.764*** (-66.776)	-0.144*** (-67.526)	-0.641*** (-4.724)	-0.132*** (-4.771)
Education	-0.300*** (-27.932)	-0.056*** (-27.993)	-0.303*** (-28.068)	-0.057*** (-28.129)	-0.129 (-1.098)	-0.026 (-1.099)
Society and Culture	0.200*** (20.397)	0.038*** (20.424)	0.200*** (20.319)	0.038*** (20.346)	0.113 (0.959)	0.023 (0.960)
Creative Arts and others	0.102*** (8.084)	0.019*** (8.086)	0.099*** (7.803)	0.019*** (7.804)	0.433*** (3.108)	0.089*** (3.120)
Employment						
Self-employed	-0.123*** (-7.952)	-0.023*** (-7.953)	-0.122*** (-7.900)	-0.023*** (-7.901)	-0.327 (-1.608)	-0.067 (-1.609)
Employed in public sector	-0.233*** (-17.596)	-0.044*** (-17.618)	-0.233*** (-17.497)	-0.044*** (-17.519)	-0.266** (-1.980)	-0.055** (-1.983)
Employed in private sector	-0.170*** (-12.897)	-0.032*** (-12.906)	-0.171*** (-12.914)	-0.032*** (-12.923)	0.023 (0.159)	0.005 (0.159)
Employment of one year or longer	-0.086*** (-13.570)	-0.016*** (-13.573)	-0.087*** (-13.643)	-0.016*** (-13.647)	0.042 (0.563)	0.009 (0.564)
N	711,198		706,555		4,643	
Pseudo R ²	0.148		0.149		0.110	

Notes: Robust 't'-statistics are presented in parentheses. *, ** and *** indicate significance at the ten, five and one per cent levels, respectively. (a) denotes 'not applicable'. The model included controls for industry of employment and year of graduation.

In summary, Indigenous graduates have been found to be less likely to be overeducated compared to non-Indigenous graduates, by around six per cent. A number of determinants of overeducation for the non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples have been discussed, with English speaking background, double degree completion and field of study being found to be important determinants of overeducation for the graduates. Most estimates are qualitatively consistent across the Indigenous and non-Indigenous samples, with the estimated coefficients being consistently signed. Modest differences, however, exist in terms of the scale of the determinants of overeducation for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates. Most importantly, the relatively positive performance of the Indigenous graduates suggests that more higher education completion of Indigenous Australians should be encouraged, especially when their representation in higher education completion was found in an earlier section to be too low.

Earnings differences of Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates in Australia

The results from the estimation of equation (4) are presented in table 3. The estimates for the pooled sample are presented in panel (i), while estimates for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates can be found in panels (ii) and (iii), respectively. The adjusted R^2 are 0.145, 0.146 and 0.091 for the pooled, non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples, respectively. Again, the ORU model of earnings appears to be a better predictor of earnings variation for the non-Indigenous graduates, compared to Indigenous graduates. In addition, the estimated coefficients for the pooled and non-Indigenous samples are all significant at the one per cent level. In contrast, some estimated coefficients for Indigenous graduates are not statistically significant. Nevertheless, most of the estimated earnings coefficients for Indigenous graduates are still significant, and often at the one per cent level of significance.

The discussion of the results from the ORU model of earnings for the various samples will take the following format. First, the Indigenous wage gap will be discussed, based on the estimates for the full sample in panel (i). Subsequently, the discussion of results will be focussed on the estimates for Indigenous graduates, with comparisons drawn between corresponding estimates for the non-Indigenous graduates.^{5,6}

Several findings of interest emerge from the results in table 3. First, Indigenous graduates are slightly disadvantaged in terms of earnings, compared to non-Indigenous graduates (see panel (i)). Specifically, Indigenous graduates earn three per cent less compared to non-Indigenous graduates. However, this wage gap is relatively low when compared to other studies on the Indigenous wage gap, such as Daly (1994) and Norris (2001). On this basis, it appears that Indigenous graduates fare reasonably well in the graduate labour market, and thus more Indigenous representation in higher education should be encouraged. However, one further issue that can be explored in this regard

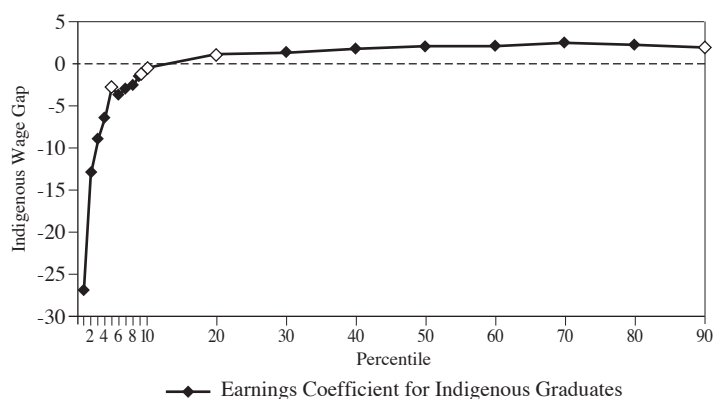
⁵ Other results for the pooled sample from panel (i) will not be discussed, as they are very similar to the results for non-Indigenous graduates.

⁶ Chow tests for statistical difference were also conducted to see if the estimated coefficients differed between the non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples. This revealed that only three out of the 26 coefficients in table 3 were statistically different for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates. These have been denoted by a + beside the variable names. It can also be concluded that the determinants of earnings have similar impacts on Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates.

relates to the differences in the Indigenous wage gap, if any, for the graduates at various points on the wage distribution. Hence, a quantile regression was estimated on equation (4), following the approach of McGuinness and Bennett (2007).⁷ The rationale for this approach, as argued by McGuinness and Bennett (2007), is that the individual's position on the wage distribution is an indirect measure of the individual's ability. Using the quantile regression approach to examine the Indigenous wage gap will thus permit an assessment of how the Indigenous wage gap might differ amongst individuals of varying ability.

Estimates on the variable for Aboriginal and Torres Straits Islander graduates from the quantile regression are presented in figure 1. Estimates are presented for the first ten percentiles (1st to 10th percentile), and thereafter for every decile (20th to 90th percentile). Statistically insignificant estimates are represented by a hollow marker instead of a black marker. Specifically, the 5th, 9th, 10th, 20th and 90th percentile estimates are statistically insignificant, while the remaining estimates are statistically significant at the ten, five or one per cent level. There are two important findings here. Attention is first drawn to the quantile regression estimates at each decile, starting from the 10th percentile and so on. Most estimates between the 10th to 90th percentile of the wage distribution indicates that Indigenous graduates earn slightly higher wages compared to their non-Indigenous counterparts, to the order of about two per cent. This is certainly a positive finding for Indigenous graduates. The slight wage advantage of Indigenous graduates also appears to be relatively stable.

Figure 1 - Quantile regression estimates of the Indigenous wage gap



Note: Statistically significant estimates of at least the 10 per cent level are represented by the filled markers.

⁷ Buchinsky (1998) describes the quantile regression methodology, particularly for its application in cross-sectional datasets.

The quantile regression estimates for Indigenous graduates in the first decile of the wage distribution, however, tell a different story. Estimates from the 1st to 10th percentile indicate that Indigenous graduates at this extreme end of the wage distribution are heavily disadvantaged when compared to their non-Indigenous counterparts. Specifically, Indigenous graduates at the 1st percentile earn a huge 27 per cent less than their non-Indigenous peers. The Indigenous wage disadvantage is reduced at the 2nd percentile, but is nevertheless still substantial at 13 per cent. The Indigenous wage disadvantage is still rather moderate at the 3rd and 4th percentiles, at nine and seven per cent, respectively. Thus, Indigenous graduates at the bottom of the wage distribution experience rather large earnings disadvantages which were previously obscured when looking only at the results of the OLS regression.

Hence, it might be said that generally speaking, Indigenous graduates fare reasonably well in Australia's graduate labour market. However, the huge wage disadvantage found for Indigenous graduates in the bottom decile of the wage distribution suggest that some action needs to be taken to address these low performing graduates.

The second finding relates to the earnings effects of overeducation. Overeducation is found to result in rather substantial earnings penalties of around 11 per cent for non-Indigenous graduates, and 13 per cent for Indigenous graduates. Thus, being overeducated is associated with large reductions in earnings, as has been found in other studies on Australian graduates (Carroll and Tani, 2012; Kler, 2005; Li and Miller, 2013a; 2013b).

Third, attaining a higher degree qualification beyond a bachelor's pass degree confers rather substantial earnings premiums, for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates. These earnings premiums associated with postgraduate studies appear to be more lucrative for Indigenous graduates compared to non-Indigenous graduates. For instance, non-Indigenous graduates who obtain a master's degree earn 30 per cent more than non-Indigenous graduates who have a bachelor's pass degree. Indigenous graduates who have a master's degree earn 35 per cent more in comparison to non-Indigenous graduates with a bachelor's pass degree. Hence, the earnings premium for a master's degree over a bachelor's pass degree is five per cent more for Indigenous graduates. While the premiums on postgraduate and honours qualifications for non-Indigenous graduates are lower than that observed for Indigenous graduates, they are still considered substantial.⁸ Thus, postgraduate qualifications can be considered a good investment. Note, however, that these earnings premiums can potentially be eroded by being overeducated. For instance, an Indigenous graduate with a master's degree who is overeducated has an earnings premium of 28 per cent from the higher degree, but an earnings disadvantage of 11 per cent from being overeducated, resulting in a net effect of 17 per cent, *ceteris paribus*. While there are still positive earnings effects from the individual's postgraduate qualification, this might be lower due to being overeducated. Graduates with an honours qualification, but who are overeducated have their earnings premium from their honours qualification cancelled out by the overeducation earnings penalty.

⁸ Further, recall that only the estimated earnings effect on the attainment of a master's degree differed statistically between Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates, while there are no statistical differences observed for the other qualifications estimated.

Fourth, Indigenous female graduates experienced an earnings disadvantage of eight per cent. This gender wage gap amongst Indigenous graduates is marginally higher than the wage gap of 6 per cent observed for non-Indigenous graduates.

Fifth, rather substantial differences in earnings are observed across fields of study. In comparison to the benchmark group of management and commerce graduates, estimates for other fields of study are typically of a negative sign, indicating that management and commerce graduates command the highest earnings in the graduate labour market, and for both samples of non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates. Amongst Indigenous graduates, earnings differences of up to 14 per cent for the various fields of study are estimated, whereas the field of study earnings differences for non-Indigenous graduates is ten per cent. In both samples, graduates from the fields of agriculture and environment, health and related fields, and creative arts and other fields performed poorly in terms of earnings. For instance, the earnings disadvantage (in comparison to management and commerce graduates) for creative arts and other fields graduates are ten and 14 per cent, for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates, respectively. Similarly, graduates from agriculture and environment earned seven to nine per cent lower than their counterparts in management and commerce.⁹

Sixth, the sector of employment played a substantial role in influencing earnings. Indigenous graduates who worked in the public sector earned around nine per cent more than their counterparts who worked in the reference category of all other sectors, while Indigenous graduates who worked in the private sector have earnings effects that are statistically indistinguishable from the same benchmark category. However, non-Indigenous graduates working in the private sector also have an earnings advantage of five per cent compared to their peers in all other sectors. Being employed on terms of one year or more are associated with earnings premiums for both non-Indigenous and Indigenous samples, of 11 and six per cent, respectively.

Thus, a number of conclusions can be made from the findings in this section. The Indigenous wage gap has been found to be relatively small, at around three per cent. When considering change in the Indigenous wage gap along the wage distribution, Indigenous graduates have modest earnings advantages over non-Indigenous graduates. Furthermore, recall that earlier, the Indigenous graduates were found to have a reduced probability of being overeducated. Therefore, Indigenous graduates appear to fare reasonably well in the graduate labour market.

Generally, Indigenous graduates do not appear to be treated differently in the graduate labour market, as the earnings effects observed for them are qualitatively similar to those estimated for non-Indigenous graduates, and as there are very few instances where the earnings effects are shown to differ statistically between Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates. A moderate gender wage gap is observed for graduates from both samples, as well as rather large disparities in earnings across field of study.

⁹ The earnings estimates on fields of study are generally comparable to those in other studies of the Australian graduate labour market, such as Li and Miller (2013a) and Kler (2005). There have also been other studies, such as Corliss *et al.* (2013), which estimate the private rate of return to university education for various disciplines.

Table 3 - Results from the OLS model of earnings

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Full Sample (i)</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous (ii)</i>	<i>Indigenous (iii)</i>
Demographics			
Aboriginal or Torres Straits Islander	-0.026*** (-2.684)	(a)	(a)
Female	-0.061*** (-42.132)	-0.061*** (-41.938)	-0.075*** (-3.988)
Age	0.045*** (66.696)	0.045*** (66.636)	0.042*** (4.342)
Agesq/1000	-0.491*** (-51.674)	-0.134*** (-51.587)	-0.511*** (-3.709)
Physical or mental disability	-0.049*** (-10.189)	-0.050*** (-10.258)	-0.010 (-0.212)
Non-English speaking background ⁺	-0.038*** (-18.643)	-0.038*** (-18.704)	0.027 (0.742)
Education			
Overeducated	-0.110*** (-51.284)	-0.109*** (-51.102)	-0.132*** (-4.377)
Honours	0.107*** (35.556)	0.107*** (35.412)	0.137*** (3.136)
Master's ⁺	0.304*** (105.352)	0.303*** (104.945)	0.350*** (8.785)
Other postgraduate	0.199*** (75.450)	0.199*** (75.098)	0.250*** (6.802)
PhD	0.310*** (68.432)	0.310*** (68.173)	0.336*** (5.771)
Double degree	0.008*** (3.172)	0.008*** (3.310)	-0.042 (-0.880)
Engaged in further studies	0.022*** (11.314)	0.022*** (11.317)	0.014 (0.490)
Natural and physical science	-0.074*** (-20.472)	-0.075*** (-20.445)	-0.046 (-1.090)
Information technology	-0.045*** (-10.812)	-0.045*** (-10.718)	-0.103* (-1.945)
Engineering	-0.019*** (-6.603)	-0.019*** (-6.574)	-0.043 (-0.870)
Architecture	-0.040*** (-13.660)	-0.040*** (-13.585)	-0.073 (-1.469)
Agriculture and environment	-0.074*** (-20.813)	-0.074*** (-20.749)	-0.094** (-2.029)
Health and related fields	-0.062*** (-21.244)	-0.061*** (-21.133)	-0.097*** (-2.718)
Education	-0.036*** (-13.044)	-0.036*** (-12.931)	-0.084** (-2.115)
Society and culture	-0.031*** (-13.025)	-0.031*** (-12.962)	-0.060** (-1.973)
Creative arts and others	-0.096*** (-26.432)	-0.096*** (-26.299)	-0.135*** (-2.954)
Employment			
Self-employed	0.021*** (4.085)	0.020*** (3.990)	0.079 (1.412)
Employed in public sector	0.091*** (28.564)	0.091*** (28.496)	0.092** (1.985)
Employed in private sector	0.049*** (15.105)	0.049*** (15.042)	0.052 (1.056)

Table 3 - Results from the OLS model of earnings (continued)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Full Sample (i)</i>	<i>Non-Indigenous (ii)</i>	<i>Indigenous (iii)</i>
Employment of one year or longer ⁺	0.110*** (64.570)	0.110*** (64.608)	0.059** (2.425)
Constant	2.332*** (196.080)	2.331*** (195.675)	2.503*** (14.962)
N	711,198	706,555	4,643
Adjusted R ²	0.145	0.146	0.091

Notes: The absolute value of heteroscedasticity-consistent 't'-statistics are presented in parentheses. *, ** and *** indicate significance at the ten, five and one per cent levels of significance, respectively. The model included controls for industry of employment and year of graduation. ⁺ indicates statistical difference for non-Indigenous and Indigenous graduates.

Postgraduate and honours qualifications are found to offer rather large earnings premiums, and also follow a hierarchy of earnings that increases with the level of the qualification. This is observed for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates. However, the earnings penalties associated with overeducation are also rather substantial, at around 11 to 14 per cent. It should thus be noted that earnings premiums from further study can potentially be eroded due to the earnings penalties associated with overeducation. In the case of honours study, for instance, being overeducated is found to essentially negate all additional earnings associated with the attainment of an honours degree.

5. Conclusion

Indigenous Australians experience a number of disadvantages across multiple inter-related areas. Therefore, in order to 'close the gap' for the Indigenous people, solutions need to be multifaceted and targeted at various areas, including health and education. Moreover, it was noted earlier that a number of higher education policies had been implemented to boost Indigenous participation and performance in higher education. This study thus evaluates the labour market outcomes of Indigenous university graduates in Australia four months after graduation. Another contribution to the literature lies in the use of the ORU framework in evaluating the labour market outcomes of the Indigenous graduates.

The findings from the present study are very encouraging, and indicate that Indigenous Australians fare reasonably well in the graduate labour market. Indigenous graduates have a lower likelihood of being overeducated by six per cent, compared to non-Indigenous graduates. Given that overeducation had been associated with negative outcomes, such as lower earnings and job dissatisfaction (see, for example, Hartog, 2000), this is a positive outcome for Indigenous graduates.

It is also important to note that the determinants of overeducation were found to have similar effects for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates, with only modest differences on the scale of their impact across the two samples. The labour market thus appears to afford the same treatment of Indigenous graduates compared

to non-Indigenous graduates. From these perspectives, Indigenous participation in, and completion of higher education should be encouraged. While it might be argued that increased participation in higher education might erode the positive labour market returns for Indigenous graduates, compelling counterarguments can be found in the current (disproportionately) low rate of higher education completion by Indigenous Australians, as well as their better performance in the labour market compared to non-Indigenous graduates.

Another important finding from this study is that the Indigenous graduate wage gap is around three per cent, which is much smaller than the Indigenous wage gaps reported in earlier studies, such as Daly (1994). Again, this is encouraging for Indigenous graduates, and suggests that higher education could be one strategy that aids in alleviating Indigenous poverty. However, quantile regression estimates also reveal that while Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates have comparable earnings for the majority of the wage distribution in the top 90 percentiles, the Indigenous wage disadvantage is exceedingly high for those in the bottom 10 percentiles, with some Indigenous graduates in the bottom one per cent earning up to 27 per cent less. Some attention thus needs to be paid to the Indigenous graduates who are at the bottom decile, including research on why the causes of the large disparity in wages, and what might be done to address those.

The earnings effects of overeducation are also very similar for Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates, as the adverse effects on graduate earnings are around 12 per cent for both groups of graduates. In addition, other important determinants of earnings for the graduates, such as postgraduate qualifications, fields of study, sector of employment and employment length have been identified. Again, these determinants of earnings affect Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates similarly, in a qualitative sense, with differences being confined to that of the scale of impact. Thus, it can be concluded that the graduate labour market is not discriminatory between graduates on this basis. A further point of note lies in the finding made by other studies, that educational attainment has been linked to improvements in health status. A paper by Biddle (2006), for instance, found that Indigenous Australians who did not complete high school were more likely to report poorer health status than those who completed high school. Thus, Indigenous Australians could possibly accumulate benefits in other areas, such as health, on top of monetary returns to higher education.

However, it needs to be borne in mind that, as mentioned above, the labour market performance of graduates are being evaluated four months after their graduation. The study, therefore, is unable to track developments in the Indigenous graduates' outcomes further in time. Thus, future research evaluating the longer term outcomes of Indigenous graduates would be welcome. Another direction for research of interest lies in the performance of Indigenous graduates in university. As mentioned in the introductory section above, programs such as the Indigenous Tutorial Assistance Scheme for Tertiary Tuition are in place to boost Indigenous students' academic performance in university. It would thus be of use to evaluate the success of such schemes, and further, to examine the links between academic performance and labour market outcomes for Indigenous Australians. It also needs to be noted that the labour market success of Indigenous graduates uncovered in this paper are likely

to be the result of a selection process. That is, the Indigenous graduates examined in this study are those who have successfully completed high school, who have been admitted to university on the basis of academic performance or other attributes, and who have successfully completed their university courses. While gains in education participation and outcomes have been made, much more remains to be done.¹⁰ Hence, as recommended in the Review of Higher Education Access and Outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People report, policy measures to close the gap for Indigenous Australians would need to involve measures to develop academic skills at the primary and early secondary levels, build aspiration to participate in higher education, and provide mentoring and pathway support for students in Years 10 to 12 (DIISRTE, 2013b).

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¹⁰ The Overcoming Indigenous Disadvantage 2011 report by the Productivity Commission found that gains have been made in terms of schooling outcomes for Indigenous youths, such as proportion of completion for Year 12 and retention rates for secondary schooling. However, Year 12 completion for Indigenous youths aged 20-24 years old is still approximately half that for their non-Indigenous counterparts (SCRGSP, 2011).

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