FOREWORD

Language issues are a recurrent theme in Canadian federalism. The public debate about language issues is, however, often based on different understandings of what is meant by "bilingualism," "official languages", or "bilingual country". Comments, therefore, often reflect misconceptions about federal official languages policy.

Language is a sensitive issue in any society. It touches the very essence of how people define themselves and their place in society. Language is often interwoven with other contentious issues. That makes it all the more important to keep the facts straight when unavoidable tensions surface.

Our official languages policy is based on widely accepted principles; all in all, it is a policy worth the effort. Having two languages is an asset rather than a problem. Equality and respect for diversity are integral parts of the vision Canadians hold in common, vital parts of Canada's identity, and a necessary component of its unity.

Canada is fortunate to have access to two major world languages. From an economic perspective, this advantage provides an enormous potential market. Canada and Canadians have everything to gain by maintaining and enhancing our unique linguistic identity.

SOURCE: <u>http://www.pch.gc.ca/progs/lo-ol/pubs/mythes/english/foreword.html</u>



BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism is the ability to speak or write fluently in 2 languages. In Canada the term has taken on a more particular meaning: the ability to communicate (or the practice of communicating) in both of Canada's official languages, English and French. It has been formalized in <u>LANGUAGE POLICY</u> in an attempt by government to respond to a difficult social question: to what extent is it possible to make legal and practical accommodations that will allow the 2 official language communities to preserve their cultural distinctiveness and at the same time pursue common goals? "Institutional bilingualism" refers to the capacity of state institutions to operate in 2 languages and should not be confused with a requirement that everyone be bilingual.

Historically, institutional bilingualism has recognized the facts of Canada's settlement and development. Implicit in the founding of the Canadian federation was the idea that the English- and French-speaking communities should not only coexist but should complement each other. The <u>BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT</u> of 1867 established English and French as legislative and judicial languages in federal and Québec institutions. It also set out the right to denominational schooling, which at that time was closely associated with the anglophone (Protestant) and francophone (Roman Catholic) linguistic and cultural traditions.

The development of the bilingual and bicultural nature of the Canadian federation soon experienced setbacks, partly as a result of the uneven application of principles and partly from a simple lack of linguistic tolerance. Although the British North America Act and the Manitoba Act (1870) accorded the French language official status in Québec and Manitoba, no such recognition was granted to the substantial French-speaking populations of Ontario and New Brunswick. Furthermore, in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, a series of legislative enactments across Canada seriously restricted French-language education and virtually eliminated the use of French in provincial legislatures and courts outside Québec. *See* FRENCH IN THE WEST.

Although the effects of these and other measures understandably linger in the minds of many Canadians, Canada has, since WWII, found a new concern for the official status of English and French and the destiny of minority language communities throughout the country. At the same time, demographic patterns, and particularly the tendency of francophones outside Québec to become assimilated to the English-speaking community, have increased the polarization between the official language groups. This in turn has brought attention to the relationship of linguistic justice and national unity. Increasingly the enhancement of the French language and culture in Canada and a reaffirmation of the rights of the English language and culture in Québec are seen as fundamental to maintaining a reasonable degree of national integrity.

OFFICIAL LANGUAGES ACT

The problems and demands of bilingualism within the national framework were clearly set forth by the Royal Commission on <u>BILINGUALISM AND BICULTURALISM</u> (1963-69). Central to the Commission's recommendations was the premise that the English and French minorities throughout Canada, when of reasonable size, should be ensured public services in their own language and afforded as much opportunity as possible to use their mother tongue. The Commission also urged that French become a normal language of work, together with English, in the federal administration and that government documents and correspondence be generally available in both languages. Moreover, the Commission stressed that there was room within an officially bilingual state for other forms of linguistic and cultural pluralism, so that bilingualism and <u>MULTICULTURALISM</u> might complement each other.

The Commission's work culminated in the adoption of the federal <u>OFFICIAL</u> <u>LANGUAGES ACT</u> (1969) (*see* <u>OFFICIAL LANGUAGES ACT (1988</u>)), designed to be the cornerstone of institutional bilingualism in Canada. The Act, which declares the "equality of status" of English and French in Parliament and the Canadian public service, applies to all federal departments, judicial and quasi-judicial bodies, and administrative agencies and crown corporations established by federal statute.

In addition to prescribing federal reforms and establishing the office of Commissioner of Official Languages to see that they are carried out, the Act has prompted initiatives beyond the federal administration. With encouragement and financial assistance from Ottawa, provincial governments and parts of the para-public and private sectors have begun to re-examine their linguistic policies, at least in the services they offer, and have made some effort to pursue a policy of institutional bilingualism. A new act was adopted in 1988 (*see* OFFICIAL LANGUAGES ACT (1988)).

PROVINCIAL POLICIES

The success of any Canadian policy on bilingualism is closely tied to the co-operation of the provinces. Provincial powers in the fields of justice, public services and education can be influenced only indirectly by federal policies. To complete the picture, numerous administrative, judicial, social and educational services need to be provided by municipal and provincial authorities in regions where there are large minority-language populations.

New Brunswick passed an Official Languages Act in 1969, giving equal status, rights and privileges to English and French; since the early 1970s, Ontario has increased the use of French in its courts and has passed a bill guaranteeing French services in those areas of the province where the majority of Franco-Ontarians live; and Manitoba, as a result of a 1979 Supreme Court ruling, is moving towards the translation of its statutes into French and the transformation of its courts into bilingual institutions. The extent of Manitoba's compliance with its constitutional requirements has become the focus of a heated political debate both inside and outside the province, and in 1985 the Supreme Court of Canada gave the province 3 years to translate its laws.

Québec has recognized French as its sole official language since 1974. Although a number of government services are available in English (usually on request), the province has the peculiarity of being institutionally bilingual at the constitutional and federal levels while giving official recognition only to French at the level of provincial institutions.

All provinces, helped to some extent by the federal Official Languages in Education Program, now have minority-language education programs. Furthermore, <u>SECOND-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION</u> has made remarkable gains across Canada, most conspicuously through the expansion of French-immersion programs in primary schools.

CANADIAN CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

In April 1982 the <u>CANADIAN CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS</u> came into force. The Charter reinforces previous constitutional principles regarding language use in federal courts and the courts of Québec and Manitoba, reaffirms the availability of bilingual services in the federal administration and confirms New Brunswick as the only completely bilingual province. It also breaks new ground by entrenching minority-language education rights in Canada, guaranteeing the right of children of Canadian citizens who find themselves in an official-language minority situation to an education in their own language wherever numbers warrant it. This guarantee represents a recognition that minority language education rights may be the key to the survival of minority language communities across the country. The principles of NB law establishing the equality of its 2 official language communities were enshrined in the Charter in 1993.

The Charter defined what was possible at the time of its enactment in the realm of institutional bilingualism, but its provisions may be developed and extended. The leadership of federal and provincial authorities in this respect is essential to achieving the underlying goal of language reform in Canada: the possibility for individuals of either anglophone or francophone background to move from province to province without forgoing their fundamental language rights and cultural identity.

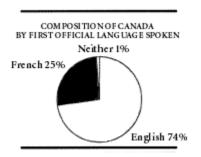
SOURCE:

http://www.canadianencyclopedia.ca/index.cfm?PgNm=tce&Params=A1ARTA0000740

MORE FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS ABOUT OFFICIAL LANGUAGES IN CANADA

Q. What does it mean to say Canada is a "bilingual country" when most Canadians aren't bilingual?

- It is the recognition that most Canadians speak either English or French in their daily lives, and that the federal government provides its services to the public in the official language of the citizen's choice.
- The policy requires the federal government to be bilingual, not the citizen.
- Making everyone bilingual has never been the goal of Canada's official languages policy. Individual bilingualism is a matter of personal choice.



Q. What do you really mean by saying that English and French are the "official languages" of Canada?

- It means Canadians can deal with their federal government in either English or French. Specifically:
- Members of the public have the right to be served by federal institutions in either English or French, in the circumstances set out in the Constitution and the Official Languages Act;
- Everyone has the right to use English or French in Parliament and in federal courts; and
- Parliament makes Canada's laws in both English and French.

Q. Aren't two official languages divisive?

• Canada has two significant language groups. One in four Canadians speaks French. Nearly two million Canadians live in provinces and territories where their first official language is in the minority.

- The recognition of two official languages is not only a principle shared by most Canadians, whether English-speaking or French-speaking; it is a key feature of the Canadian identity and a basic social reality.
- Canada is fortunate in having two major world languages. More than a third of the membership of the United Nations have English or French as official languages. Looked at another way, there are 44 states that belong to la Francophonie, the French-speaking counterpart of the English-speaking Commonwealth, which has 49 member countries. Canada is privileged to have assumed a leadership role in both.
- Canada's good fortune in having both English and French is a real international bonus. While here at home Canadians are developing the means to better understand and communicate with one another, we are at the same time equipping Canadians with a competitive edge for success in the global market.
- Canada, with more than a third of its Gross National Product dependent upon export trade, benefits from its linguistic duality. From an economic point of view, Canada's "linguistic wealth" contributes to its economic prosperity.

FACTS AND FIGURES ON SECOND –LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN CANADA

- Canadians have enthusiastically embraced the idea that their children can learn French or English as a second language. According to a 1990 Environics poll, some 75 percent want their children to learn both French and English.
- This is reflected in increased enrolment in second-language programs. Participation rates in elementary programs has risen 36 percent since 1977-1978.
- More than 2 million students outside Quebec are now enrolled in French secondlanguage programs, at both the elementary and secondary levels, compared to 1.4 million in 1977.
- In Quebec, 600,000 students were enrolled in English as a second-language in public elementary and secondary schools in 1996-1997.
- Then there is the remarkable success of French immersion programs right across the country. Enrolment has grown from under 40,000 in 1977 to almost 312,000 in 1996-1997. It is not uncommon to see parents lining up for hours to register their children. French immersion programs are immensely popular in every part of the country. There are over 2,146 schools offering immersion programs across Canada.
- At the elementary and secondary levels, 54 percent of Canadian students were registered in second-language programs, up from 30 percent in 1970-1971.

CANADIAN CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

(FRAGMENTS)

PART I Canadian charter of rights and freedoms

Whereas Canada is founded upon principles that recognize the supremacy of God and the rule of law:

Guarantee of Rights and Freedoms

Rights and freedoms in Canada	1. The <i>Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms</i> guarantees the rights and freedoms set out in it subject only to such reasonable limits prescribed by law as can be demonstrably justified in a free and democratic society. <i>Fundamental Freedoms</i>
Fundamental freedoms	 2. Everyone has the following fundamental freedoms: <i>a</i>) freedom of conscience and religion; <i>b</i>) freedom of thought, belief, opinion and expression, including freedom of the press and other media of communication; <i>c</i>) freedom of peaceful assembly; and <i>d</i>) freedom of association.
Democratic rights of citizens	3. Every citizen of Canada has the right to vote in an election of members of the House of Commons or of a legislative assembly and to be qualified for membership therein.
Maximum duration of legislative bodies	4. (1) No House of Commons and no legislative assembly shall continue for longer than five years from the date fixed for the return of the writs of a general election of its members.
Continuation in special circumstances	(2) In time of real or apprehended war, invasion or insurrection, a House of Commons may be continued by Parliament and a legislative assembly may be continued by the legislature beyond five years if such continuation is not opposed by the votes of more than one-third of the members of the House of Commons or the legislative assembly, as the case may be.
Annual sitting of legislative bodies	5. There shall be a sitting of Parliament and of each legislature at least once every twelve months

<u>Mobility Rights</u>

Mobility of citizens	6. (1) Every citizen of Canada has the right to enter, remain in and leave Canada.
Rights to move and gain livelihood	 (2) Every citizen of Canada and every person who has the status of a permanent resident of Canada has the right a) to move to and take up residence in any province; and b) to pursue the gaining of a livelihood in any province.
Limitation	 (3) The rights specified in subsection (2) are subject to <i>a</i>) any laws or practices of general application in force in a province other than those that discriminate among persons primarily on the basis of province of present or previous residence; and <i>b</i>) any laws providing for reasonable residency requirements as a qualification for the receipt of publicly provided social services.
Affirmative action programs	(4) Subsections (2) and (3) do not preclude any law, program or activity that has as its object the amelioration in a province of conditions of individuals in that province who are socially or economically disadvantaged if the rate of employment in that province is below the rate of employment in Canada. <u>Legal Rights</u>
Life, liberty and security of person	7. Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of the person and the right not to be deprived thereof except in accordance with the principles of fundamental justice.
Search or seizure	8. Everyone has the right to be secure against unreasonable search or seizure.
Detention or imprisonment	9. Everyone has the right not to be arbitrarily detained or imprisoned.
Arrest or detention	 10. Everyone has the right on arrest or detention a) to be informed promptly of the reasons therefor; b) to retain and instruct counsel without delay and to be informed of that right; and c) to have the validity of the detention determined by way of <i>habeas corpus</i> and to be released if the detention is not lawful.
Proceedings in criminal and penal matters	 11. Any person charged with an offence has the right a) to be informed without unreasonable delay of the specific offence; b) to be tried within a reasonable time; c) not to be compelled to be a witness in proceedings against that person in respect of the offence; b) to be recorded increased increase

	 fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal; <i>e</i>) not to be denied reasonable bail without just cause; <i>f</i>) except in the case of an offence under military law tried before a military tribunal, to the benefit of trial by jury where the maximum punishment for the offence is imprisonment for five years or a more severe punishment;
	 g) not to be found guilty on account of any act or omission unless, at the time of the act or omission, it constituted an offence under Canadian or international law or was criminal according to the general principles of law recognized by the community of nations; h) if finally acquitted of the offence, not to be tried for it again and, if finally found guilty and punished for the offence, not to be tried or punished for it again; and i) if found guilty of the offence and if the punishment for the offence has been varied between the time of commission and the time of sentencing, to the benefit of the lesser punishment.
Treatment or punishment	12. Everyone has the right not to be subjected to any cruel and unusual treatment or punishment.
Self- crimination	13. A witness who testifies in any proceedings has the right not to have any incriminating evidence so given used to incriminate that witness in any other proceedings, except in a prosecution for perjury or for the giving of contradictory evidence.
Interpreter	14. A party or witness in any proceedings who does not understand or speak the language in which the proceedings are conducted or who is deaf has the right to the assistance of an interpreter. <u>Equality Rights</u>
Equality before and under law and equal protection and benefit of law	15. (1) Every individual is equal before and under the law and has the right to the equal protection and equal benefit of the law without discrimination and, in particular, without discrimination based on race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age or mental or physical disability.
Affirmative action programs	(2) Subsection (1) does not preclude any law, program or activity that has as its object the amelioration of conditions of disadvantaged individuals or groups including those that are disadvantaged because of race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age or mental or physical disability.

Immigration

Immigration is the movement of people into a country from other countries. Canada has been settled by immigrants from all over the world. From the time of the first settlements by Europeans several million people have come to Canada from over one hundred different countries. Today, one out of every six Canadians was born outside Canada. Two out of three of these were born in Europe. Truly, Canada is a nation of immigrants.

The first people to come to what we now call Canada were the native people. The <u>INDIANS</u> and <u>INUIT</u> were hunters who came to North America by land from Asia. The native people had lived in Canada for at least 12 000 years by the time that the first Europeans crossed the Atlantic Ocean.

The people who make up Canada have always come from many different origins, even from the time of the early exploration of the sea coasts. The first Europeans to reach Canada were the Norse, or Vikings, who landed on the coast of Newfoundland about 1000 years ago. The Norse built at least one settlement in Newfoundland, but it did not last.

Europeans did not reappear off Canada's coast for another 500 years. The sailors and fishermen who ventured into Canada's bays and rivers included English, French, Danes, Norwegians, Portuguese, Italians, Poles, Spanish, and others. England and France claimed Canada as part of their empires, and it was from these countries that the first settlers came.

The First Immigrants

Many of the early newcomers were adventurers who hoped to get rich by finding gold, spices, or silk in the new land. Others were explorers looking for a route to Asia. Others were priests who came to teach the native people Christianity. The European nations also wanted to defend their claims to the New World. To do this they had to settle it with farmers, merchants, tradesmen, doctors, fishermen, lawyers, and people from all walks of life. The stories of the failures, hardships, and successes of these people would be repeated over the next 350 years. They are the history of Canada.

New France

The French built the first permanent settlement in Canada at <u>PORT-ROYAL</u> in 1605. Located in present-day Nova Scotia, Port-Royal became the centre of <u>ACADIA</u>. The French settlers who lived there became known as the Acadians. A few years later, in 1608, Samuel de <u>CHAMPLAIN</u> founded Quebec on a high bluff overlooking the St Lawrence River. The river became the main highway of New France. The first farms were ploughed along the shores of the river by 1628.

Over the next 150 years immigration to New France was low. It mostly came from France, but small numbers came from other places as well. In total, only about 10 000 French settlers came to Canada. Among them were young orphan girls brought to Canada as brides.

When the British conquered New France in 1760, this French population had grown to about 76 000 people. At least 8000 of the French left Canada after the British took over. Few French have come to Canada since that time. However, the growth of the French-Canadian population did not stop. The number of French in Canada doubled every 25 years over the next 100 years. Most of the 5.6 million French in Canada today are descendants of the original 10 000 immigrants.

Early British Immigration

Only a few English, Irish, and Scots had come to Canada before the British conquest of New France in 1760. The British hoped that English-speaking settlers would come to Canada, but there were still only 600 English-speaking immigrants in Canada in 1770. Many of these were British soldiers who received free land after their term of service in Canada was over. Few English-speaking settlers were interested in coming to Canada. The English territories to the south, in the present-day United States, had a warmer climate and better land. They were therefore more attractive to settlers.

The English first settled along the Atlantic Coast of Canada, where there were also small groups of Swiss and Germans. The contest between Britain and France for control of Nova Scotia lasted for over 150 years. The French began to build the huge fortress of LOUISBOURG on Cape Breton Island in 1720, and the British countered by founding the town of HALIFAX in 1749.

The number of English-speaking settlers increased dramatically as a result of the American Revolution (1775-83).

Americans who had fought on the side of the British during the revolution were called <u>LOYALISTS</u>, because they remained loyal to Britain and opposed the revolution. When the American forces won the war, many of the Loyalists fled to Canada. The Loyalists were, in fact, Canada's first refugees.

About 40 000 Loyalists settled in Nova Scotia and Quebec. As a result, two new colonies, New Brunswick and Upper Canada (present-day Ontario), were formed. The Loyalists also reinforced Canada's connection to Great Britain as a "loyal" colony. Over the next few years, more immigrants came to Upper Canada, especially to the Ottawa Valley, which was settled by New Englanders, Irish, Scots, and French Canadians.

Germans were among the early immigrants to Canada. The first group of 300 arrived at Halifax in 1750, and about 2000 came in the next two years. Most settled around Lunenburg, Nova Scotia, where they adapted to a seafaring way of life that was new to them. The schools and churches that they built in the German style are still standing.

Blacks were also among the earliest immigrants. Some were brought to New France as slaves. Others arrived among the Loyalists, about 2000 of them as slaves, and 3500 as free men. They settled mainly in Nova Scotia.

The Great Migration: 1815-69

The next, much larger, wave of newcomers also came to Canada not because of choice

but because of conditions in their homeland. Economic changes in Europe had led to a huge increase in population, and had left many people destitute. The idea of sending the poor people of Britain to Canada became popular among British politicians. Among these unfortunate people were Scottish Highlanders who had been driven from their land. Their landlords were eager to replace them with sheep to supply the new factories with wool. Many were English workers displaced by the Industrial Revolution.

The greatest number were Irish who were driven from their land by poverty and hunger. After 1828, and especially during 1845-49, when the potato crops of Ireland were destroyed by disease, the Irish flooded to Canada. Crowded into the holds of filthy timber ships, undernourished, and weak, many of the Irish immigrants fell ill with cholera, a deadly and contagious disease. In one year alone (1847), 17 000 of the 100 000 Irish who left for Canada's shores died of sickness on the way. These immigrants were often confined when they reached port, where thousands more died. Nevertheless, disease swept through the host population of the cities as well. In 1834, some 1500 people died in Quebec in four months. In one year, 800 people died in Halifax, of a population of only 11 000.

Because they came in such great numbers, the Irish greatly changed the make-up of Canadian society. They were mostly Catholic. They were not necessarily loyal to England. Many of them preferred the cities to farming. By 1871, there were 846 000 Irish in Canada, out of a population of 3.5 million. Only the French outnumbered them.

Some attempts were made to organize the great flow of immigrants to Canada. Thomas <u>SELKIRK</u>, a Scottish lord, paid to have hundreds of Scots who had lost their land sent to Prince Edward Island, Upper Canada, and Red River. The settlement in Upper Canada failed, but the others succeeded. Thomas <u>TALBOT</u> organized the settlement of some 30 000 immigrants north of Lake Erie in Upper Canada. However, most immigrants were left to fend for themselves.

The Second Great Wave: 1870-1900

From 1870 to 1890, about 1.3 million immigrants came to Canada. Many of these were just passing through, lured by promises of free land in the western United States. There was very little unoccupied land left in Ontario or Quebec to attract them. In fact, because land was so scarce in Quebec, many French Canadians moved to the United States to find jobs.

The Last Best West

The greatest story in the history of Canadian immigration is the settling of the prairie West. It took place at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century. A few Scots, English, and French had settled in the West in the tiny fur-trade posts and in Selkirk's colony at Red River. There were also a few of Swiss and Germans. By far the largest group at Red River were the Métis. The Métis were the offspring of French and Scottish fur traders who had taken native wives. Both native and European, they lived by hunting the bison. The total population of the West remained very small, and the Canadian government realized that if the West was to become part of Canada, it must be settled.

The West did not seem a very promising destination for European immigrants. It was thought to be too dry for farming. It was a very long way away, and its winters were long and cold. Most migrants preferred to go to the United States, Australia, Argentina, or Brazil, rather than to Canada.

It is not surprising that the first people to come to the West in large numbers were used to harsh conditions, such as were found on the prairies. The <u>MENNONITES</u>, who came from Russia, were a religious group. They came to Canada because land was cheaper than in the U.S., and because the Canadian government promised them that they would not have to join the military. They were not bothered by the prairie isolation and they settled some of the best land. About 7000 Mennonites arrived from 1874 to 1880.

The second group were Icelanders, who had been driven from their homeland by harsh conditions, including volcanic eruptions. By 1890, about 7000 Icelanders had settled in the West.

Finally, in the 1890s, Canada became the land of choice for immigrants. The new interest came about largely because most of the free land in the American West was gone. The Canadian government advertised that the "Last Best West" was in Canada. Immigrants arrived from far and wide, including the U.S., to come and open farms on the prairie and to work on the railways.

In 1896, when Clifford <u>SIFTON</u> took over as minister of the interior, in charge of immigration, he stepped up the advertising campaign. Over one million pamphlets were sent to Europe. Offices were set up in the United States. Hundreds of agents were sent to Europe to encourage people to come to Canada. Above all, Sifton looked to areas, such as Ukraine, that had not sent many settlers to Canada. The Canadians were careful to advertise the West as a great land of opportunity. They did not mention the cold winter, the dryness, or the isolation.

This massive movement of people to the West would not have been possible without organization. The steamship companies, which made money from fares paid by the immigrants, worked hard to persuade people to come. One steamship company had 3500 recruiting agents working in Europe. The construction companies and railway companies, which needed workers who would work for low wages, also recruited in Europe.

There was a spectacular increase in Eastern Europeans in this wave of immigration, which lasted until the beginning of World War I. It included 171 000 Ukrainians and 116 000 Poles. From 1901 to 1914, 1.2 million new settlers came to Canada from Great Britain alone. Another one million came from the United States. About 800 000 came from continental Europe, many from Germany, France, Norway, and Sweden.

British Columbia

Immigrants who settled on the prairies came to farm or to raise cattle. British Columbia attracted newcomers for very different reasons. The first large groups swarmed into B.C. as rumors of the discovery of gold spread around the world. The Fraser River and Caribou <u>GOLD RUSHES</u> of the late 1850s and the 1860s brought thousands of Americans, Eastern Canadians, Chinese, and many others, including some Chileans and Hawaiians. B.C. was a natural destination for the people who

lived across the Pacific Ocean, such as the Chinese, Japanese, and South Asians.

The Chinese numbered just over 4000 in the early 1880s. They came to prospect for gold, or to work as cooks, laundrymen, and gardeners. Between 1881 and 1884, almost 16 000 Chinese were brought in to build the Pacific section of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The number of Chinese increased despite the discrimination they suffered, the low wages they were paid, and the hatred that was directed towards them. By 1921 there were 40 000 Chinese in Canada, of which 23 500 lived in B.C. Most of the Japanese also immigrated to B.C.; they numbered 4700 in 1901, and increased to 15 900 by 1921. Most of the Japanese were farmers, fishermen, or

miners. The other group that came to B.C. from Asia were the <u>SIKHS</u> from India. There were 4000 in the province before 1908, when their entry was halted by law. In 1914, 376 Sikhs were refused entry to Vancouver, and their ship, the *Komagata Maru*, was turned back. Steps were also taken to make it more difficult for Chinese and Japanese to come to Canada. For example, the Chinese had to pay a "head" tax to enter.

Immigration Between the Wars

World War I stopped the movement of people all over the world. Only 37 000 newcomers arrived in Canada in 1915, mostly from the United States. The war also gave rise to increased fears of those immigrants who had come from countries which were now enemies of Canada. Many Germans, Ukrainians, and others were imprisoned for fear that they would raise support for their homelands.

After the war, Canadian fears of the newcomers led the government to restrict immigration to a list of "preferred" countries. Highest on the list were British, Americans,

As in World War I, Canadians feared the immigrants who had come from countries that were at war with Canada. In particular, hatred of the Japanese in B.C. flared and led to their removal from their homes. About 21 000 Japanese were moved to work camps in the interior of B.C. and Alberta. Their property was taken from them and their families split up. The treatment of the Japanese Canadians, many of whom had been born in Canada, showed how wide the gulf could be between Canadian society and the newcomers.

The Third Wave: After World War II

The third great wave of immigration to Canada began after World War II. More people came to Canada in this wave from more places than at any other time. This time the vast majority settled in urban areas, particularly in Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver.

Many of the immigrants who came to Canada after World War II were refugees who had been uprooted by the war. They included many Poles, Ukrainians, Jews, and Balts (Estonians, Latvians, and Lithuanians), whose homelands had been devastated. The most spectacular immigration after the war came from Italy. From 1951 to 1960, some 250 000 Italians entered Canada. They settled primarily in Toronto, Montreal, and other cities. Later, the number of Greeks and Portuguese increased sharply.

There was a small immigration of Japanese, but a much larger immigration of Chinese, 21 000 from 1949 to 1961. This was because of a change in the immigration laws in 1951, which made it possible for a limited number of Asians and Blacks to enter Canada. The restrictions against them were lifted further during the 1960s. One result of the change in law was that large numbers of West Indians began to immigrate. During the 1960s about 46 000 West Indians immigrated to Canada.

In 1967 there was an even more important change. The government brought in an entirely new system of deciding who could come to Canada. It was called the "point system," and it eliminated the barriers that had been based on race and ethnic group. Instead, it emphasized education, training, and skills. It allotted would-be immigrants so many points according to their qualifications and the demand for workers with their skills. This led to a dramatic rise in immigration from such countries as India, Pakistan, and Hong Kong, as well as from the West Indies. During the 1970s, about 160 000 West Indians moved to Canada.

Further changes were made by the 1976 Immigration Act (which became law in 1978). It continued the policy of opening Canada's doors to all peoples of the world. Three classes

refugees. Since the early 1980s many refugees have settled in Canada escaping persecution and war in their homelands. The first major refugee resettlement program under the new act occurred early in the 1980s when many Southeast Asians, especially Vietnamese, settled in Canada. Because many of these people had originally fled their native countries in small boats, they were called "Boat People." Since then, many more refugees have arrived from Eastern Europe, Cuba, Central America, Africa, the Middle East, India, and China.

Since the 1980s the number of refugees in Canada has grown steadily. Some refugees are chosen through a process, other refugees just arrive in Canada asking for refuge. In the late 1980s, two ships illegally left Sikh and Tamil refugees on Canada's east coast. Fears that Canada would be flooded with refugees led the government to use stricter methods for choosing refugees and for preventing illegal refugees from landing in Canada. The effort to stop would-be refugees from getting to Canada is called interdiction.

Immigration rose again in the late 1980s and early 1990s as Canada welcomed immigrants who could invest in Canada's economy. In recent years these business immigrants jumped from 1% to 6% of all immigrants entering Canada. In particular, Hong Kong and Chinese immigrants have responded to this immigration policy, moving from Hong Kong when it returned to Communist China in 1997.

The economic slowdown of the 1990s has caused immigration to become a public debate. While some argue that immigration is needed to increase our population, others fear that immigrants will take jobs rather than add to Canada's wealth. In general, Canadians remain supportive of immigration. Even as Canadians debate the future of immigration, they can take pride in Canada's long tradition of immigration, the resourcefulness of immigrants, their readiness to help build Canadian society, and the richness of their cultural contribution to the life of their adopted land.

Causes of Immigration

In Canada's early history, there were many reasons why an immigrant would choose not to come to Canada. Canadian winters are cold. The forests had to be cleared before farming could begin. The fur trade and timber trade could not support very many people. France and Great Britain encouraged people to move to Canada, but Canada was for a long time far less important to the mother countries than small islands in the West Indies. There are two sets of causes of migration: those which persuade the people to leave the homeland, and those which attract them to a particular new land. The Loyalists, for example, were forced to leave the United States because they lost their property and because their lives were in danger. Canada was attractive to them because it was close by, and because they were offered free land there, along with tools, seeds, and free transportation. lived in terrible poverty, and they were treated as little more than beasts of burden by northern Italians. Macedonians, Finns, Hungarians, Ukrainians, and Slovaks all lived in homelands that were ruled by foreign powers. Some fled their home countries to escape a catastrophe, such as the famine in Ireland and the clearances in Scotland.

Under Prime Minister Wilfrid LAURIER, the Canadian government played a large part in encouraging people to come to Canada. Clifford Sifton organized a far-reaching program, which advertised Canada's advantages. Expanding businesses in Canada wanted more people in the work force to keep wages down. The Government needed to recruit labour to help to build canals, railways, and cities, and to work in the factories and the forests.

Each of these reasons has continued to play a role in immigration to Canada.

The Experience of the Immigrants

All immigrants are between two worlds: with loyalty to their old way of life, and a need to adapt to the new.

Immigrants such as the Irish and Scots, who fled starvation, and the Jews, who escaped poverty and degradation, left with no thought of returning. Many others, however, saw themselves as mere travellers who would some day return home. They may have left to raise money to send home to support rebellions or to plant a tree on land that they hoped to return to. Many remained deeply attached to their home village and family. They wished only to earn money so that they could return home. In 1907, for example, about 4500 Italian men came to Canada, but only 400 women.

Some of the immigrants had tickets to their eventual destination in Canada; others arrived by pure accident or adventure. The journey began with the difficult decision to emigrate. Even those who were persecuted in their home country often found that when they decided to leave, their government would not let them. They had great difficulty in obtaining the passports and papers they needed to leave, and they often had to bribe their way out.

A few lucky immigrants had enough money to afford a comfortable trip to their new land. Most did not. They were packed in the holds of ships, like cattle. They were poorly fed, and were not allowed on deck where they could breathe fresh air. The steamship companies hoped to increase their profits by overpacking their ships and cheating on the services.

The last obstacle for the immigrant was sometimes the most frightening: getting past the immigration officials in Canada. An infection, a cold, a document out of place could mean delays, detention, and even deportation.

Shelter was always the first concern of the newcomers. The pioneers who settled Upper Canada had to clear the land and build a rough log cabin. On the prairie, settlers had to

colourful extension of Europe, but they masked the overcrowding, the contaminated water, the windowless rooms, and filth in the streets.

Physical hardships were not the only difficulties that the immigrants had to survive. If they did not speak French or English, they had to learn a new language. They may have come from very different cultures, but they were expected to act like Canadians. Many lived in poverty, resented by their hosts.

The non-British immigrants especially received a cold welcome from Canadians.

Many English and French-speaking Canadians feared the newcomers, who spoke different languages and held different religious beliefs. They believed that these people would not fit into their way of life.

Many Canadians also believed that they were superior to these people - a point of view that seemed confirmed by the horrible conditions that many immigrants were forced to endure. This treatment shocked many of the immigrants, who expected to be mistreated by employers (they were used to it), but who could not understand those who hated them because of their culture. The immigrants who were not white were, until recently, discriminated against when they tried to enter Canada.

Many immigrants returned home in disappointment, or moved on to other destinations. From 1901 to 1911, for example, 1.55 million immigrants came into Canada, and 739 000 people left. From 1911 to 1921, 1.4 million came, and almost 1.1 million left.

Immigration has a profound effect on both the nations that send people and those that receive them. It can bring some relief to nations that suffer overpopulation, unemployment, and poverty. It can also deprive a nation of skills through a "brain drain," and reduces the chances that a nation can solve its problems. For receiving countries, immigration can bring economic growth, the labour needed to expand, and a richness of new culture. In Canada, immigration made the country possible.

Closing Canada's Borders

Years: Number of Immigrants

- 1901-1911: 1.55 million
- 1911-1921: 1.4 million
- 1921-1931: 1.2 million
- 1931-1941: 149 000

Immigration by Census Decade

Decade: Number

- 1851-1861: 352 000
- 1861-1871: 260 000
- 1871-1881: 350 000
- 1881-1891: 680 000
- 1891-1901: 250 000
- 1901-1911: 1 550 000
- 1911-1921: 1 400 000
- 1921-1931: 1 200 000
- 1931-1941: 149 000
- 1941-1951: 548 000
- 1951-1961: 1 543 000
- 1961-1971: 1 429 000
- 1971-1981: 1 824 000
- 1981-1991: 1 876 000
- 1991-1996: 1 170 000

SOURCE:

http://www.canadianencyclopedia.ca/index.cfm?PgNm=TCE&Params=J1ARTJ0003960

Date	Event	Top countries of origin of immigrants to Canada
1900 to 1910	Settlement of the West	From 1900 to 1910 1. British Isles 2. United States 3. Russia 4. Austria 5. Galicia
1911 to 1920	World War I (1914 to 1918)	From 1911 to 1920 1. British Isles 2. United States 3. Russia
1921 to 1930	Pier 21 in Halifax opens in 1928	From 1921 to 1930 1. British Isles 2. United States 3. Poland 4. Russia 5. Czechoslovakia 6. Finland
1931 to 1940	The Great Depression begins in 1929	From 1931 to 1940 1. United States 2. British Isles 3. Poland 4. Czechoslovakia
1941 to 1950	World War II (1942 to 1945) and the arrival of displaced persons/refugees (1947 to 1950)	From 1941 to 1950 1. British Isles 2. Poland 3. United States 4. Netherlands 5. Italy 6. U.S.S.R.
1951 to 1960	Hungarian refugees begin to arrive (1956)	From 1951 to 1960 1. British Isles (25%) 2. Italy (16%) 3. Germany (12%) 4. Netherlands (8%) 5. United States (5%) 6. Poland (4%) 7. Hungary (3%)
1961 to 1970	Americans of draft age; 11,000 Czechoslovakian refugees arrive from 1968 to 1969.	From 1961 to 1970 1. British Isles (21%) 2. Italy (13%) 3. United States (10%) 4. Portugal (5%) 5. Greece (4%) 6. Federal Republic of Germany (4%) 7. Other West Indies (3%) 8. Yugoslavia (3%)
1971 to 1980	Refugees accepted from Uganda and Chile (1972 to 1973); Indochina's Boat People (1975 to 1981)	From 1971 to 1980 1. British Isles (13%) 2. United States (10%) 3. India (6%) 4. Portugal (5%) 5. Philippines (4%) 6. Jamaica (4%) 7. People's Republic of China (4%) 8. Hong Kong (4%)
1981 to 1990		From 1981 to 1990 1. Hong Kong (7%) 2. India (7%) 3. British Isles (6%)

One hundred years of immigration to Canada (1901-2001)

		 4. Poland (6%) 5. People's Republic of China (6%) 6. Philippines (5%) 7. United States (5%) 8. Vietnam (4%)
1991 to 2000	1997 marks the fiftieth anniversary of the Citizenship and Immigration Act; 7,000 refugees from Kosovo arrive in 1999.	From 1991 to 2000 1. People's Republic of China 2. India 3. Philippines 4. Special Administrative Region of Hong Kong 5. Sri Lanka 6. Pakistan 7. Taiwan 8. United States

SOURCE:

http://www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/products/analytic/companion/etoimm/imm.cfm

	Immigrated before 1961			Immigrated 1991- 2001 ⁽¹⁾	
	Number				
%	Number	%			
Total immigrants	894,465	100.0	Total immigrants	1,830,680	100.0
United Kingdom	217,175	24.3	China, People's Republic of	197,360	10.8
Italy	147,320	16.5	India	156,120	8.5
Germany	96,770	10.8	Philippines	122,010	6.7
Netherlands	79,170	8.9	Hong Kong, Special Administrative Region	118,385	6.5
Poland	44,340	5.0	Sri Lanka	62,590	3.4
United States	34,810	3.9	Pakistan	57,990	3.2
Hungary	27,425	3.1	Taiwan	53,755	2.9
Ukraine	21,240	2.4	United States	51,440	2.8
Greece	20,755	2.3	Iran	47,080	2.6
China, People's Republic of	15,850	1.8	Poland	43,370	2.4
(1) Includes data up to May	15, 2001.		•		

Top 10 countries of birth, Canada, 2001

SOURCE:

http://www12.statcan.ca/english/census01/products/analytic/companion/etoimm/canada.c fm#majority_newest_immigrants_working_age