
THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION

REPORT OF CANADA

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COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF EDUCATION, CANADA

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by

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Table of Contents

Executive Summary	1
Foreword	4
1. The economic, social, and political contexts and their effects on the education systems	8
2. Educational policies and reforms	10
2.1 Principles and general objectives of education	10
2.2 Texts of laws and other basic regulations concerning education	10
2.3 National plans/programs, political declarations on education, etc.	11
2.4 Objectives and principal characteristics of current and forthcoming reforms (general reforms, institutional reforms, pedagogical reforms, methodological reforms, etc.)	12
3. Structure and organization of the education systems	14
3.1 Organizational chart of the education systems showing the different levels and types of education	14
3.2 The age of students and the length of studies for different levels of education	15
3.3 Compulsory schooling (age limits and duration)	16
3.4 The official length of the academic year at different levels and its distribution by quarter/semester, etc.	17
4. Administration of the education systems	17
4.1 Plan and functions of educational administration at the central, provincial/territorial, regional, local, and school levels	17
4.2 The educational role of ministries other than that of education, and of nongovernmental organizations; coordination mechanisms	18
5. The financing of education	20
5.1 Public expenditure on education: total as a percentage of GDP	23
5.2 Distribution of public expenditure by level of education	24
5.3 The breakdown of current and capital expenditures in the public funding of education	24
5.4 The distribution of public expenditure on education according to source of financing	25
5.5 Expenditure on private education by level of education	25
5.6 For public higher education establishments, the proportion of financing coming from public bodies, fees or other sources	25
5.7 For private higher educational establishments, the proportion of financing coming from private donations, fees and public sources	26
6. The educational process	26
6.1 Elements of the curriculum at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels	26

6.2	The number of hours of teaching by discipline/subject at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels	28
6.3	Teaching languages at the different levels	28
6.4	The evaluation system (examinations, tests, etc.) at the different levels . . .	29
6.5	Certificates awarded for primary and secondary studies	30
6.6	The dropout rate for primary and secondary levels	30
6.7	Data concerning repetition	31
6.8	The promotion rate of pupils:	31
6.9	Average number of pupils per class at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels	31
7.	Special education	32
7.1	Types of establishment, curricula and enrolments according to the target population	32
8.	Private education	32
8.1	The responsible bodies, the legal bases, ways of operating, etc.	32
8.2	Types of school and curricula at the different levels and enrolments	33
9.	Higher education	34
9.1	Distribution of student enrolment in universities and other postsecondary educational institutions by field and level of study	36
9.2	Number of students carrying out their studies abroad (by field and level of study)	37
9.3	Management of higher education systems; the autonomy of establishments, particularly in the management of financial resources	37
9.4	Methods of evaluating the performance of establishments	38
9.5	Matching the number of graduates in different fields of training with needs of the employment market	38
9.6	Causes of graduate unemployment and underemployment and the worst affected categories	39
9.7	Data concerning the phenomenon of brain drain	41
9.8	Particular provisions concerning the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education	41
10.	Means of instruction, equipment, and infrastructure	42
10.1	Sufficient/insufficient supply of school textbooks and other instructional materials, including computers, audio-visual equipment and other materials, compared to needs	42
10.2	Production and importation of school textbooks for the different levels of education	45
10.3	Sufficient/insufficient supply of classrooms, school transport, school cafeterias, residential accommodation, etc.	45
11.	Non-formal education	45
11.1	Types of establishment and programs, as well as enrolments, particularly concerning (a) literacy courses; (b) courses intended for street children and other disadvantaged children; and (c) community programs	45

12.	The situation of teaching staff	46
12.1	Numbers of teachers working in different levels and types of education according to the level of their qualifications (first, second or third degree) and their professional training	46
12.2	Teacher workload at different levels of education (average number of hours per week devoted to classroom teaching and other educational activities); the norms established by legislation and the actual situation	47
12.3	Working and employment conditions for teaching staff, particularly for women (salaries, recruitment methods, pupil/teacher ratio, opportunities for promotion and in-service training, professional support during employment, etc.)	48
12.4	Regulations concerning the situation and social and professional status of the teaching staff and measures adopted to improve them.	49
13.	Pre-service and in-service training of education staff	50
13.1	Enrolments in different types of training establishments. The role of universities in teacher training	50
13.2	The qualifications required to teach at different levels of education	50
13.3	Elements of the pre-service training curriculum for teachers related to: (a) mastery of the subject matter; (b) pedagogical and methodological skills; (c) the capacity to develop human relations. Program elements corresponding to new expectations (education for democratic citizenship, intercultural/multicultural education, and education related to values, the environment, health, population, new technologies, art, media, sustainable development, etc.)	51
13.4	In-service training and self-improvement facilities for teachers; types of centres and programs, compulsory or optional training, regularity, the percentage of teachers involved	51
13.5	Training for school principals, inspectors, educational advisers and other educational staff	52
14.	Education research	52
14.1	Objectives, fields of research (teaching, psychology, sociology, etc.)	52
15.	Bilateral, regional, and international exchange programs	53
15.1	Data concerning the exchange of pupils, teachers, school principals and educational researchers with foreign countries	53
15.2	Types and effectiveness of exchange programs	54
15.3	Urgent educational needs for which foreign aid would be highly appreciated	54
16.	Challenges of the future	54
17.	References	56

Appendices

ACRONYMS

ACCC	Association of Canadian Community Colleges
ACELF	<i>Association canadienne d'éducation de langue française</i>
AUCC	Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada
CEA	Canadian Education Association
CESC	Canadian Education Statistics Council
CHST	Canada Health and Social Transfer
CICIC	Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CMEC	Council of Ministers of Education, Canada
CTF	Canadian Teachers' Federation
EPF	Established Programs Financing
G-7	Group of Seven industrialized countries
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HRDC	Human Resources Development Canada
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PTR	Pupil/teacher ratio
SAIP	School Achievement Indicators Program

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The last several years have ushered in much change for Canadian education. The following is a summary of four major trends in Canadian education, which are captured in various sections of this report:

- 1) emergence of information technology at all levels of education;
- 2) retrenchment and restructuring;
- 3) redefining accountability structures; and
- 4) respect for diversity and gender equity.

Emergence of information technology at all levels of education

Information technology is emerging to pervade all aspects of education as a key learning and administrative tool. Technological developments of particular interest in this context are computers in education and distance education.

Computers and computer linkages have exploded onto the education scene. Access has been enhanced in the 1990s through technologically based lifelong learning and distance education. Educational walls are becoming more permeable.

The nation-wide Computers for Schools project is recycling hardware and software from federal and provincial/territorial ministries/departments and private corporations to schools, especially needier ones. SchoolNet linkages between schools and other public agencies have accelerated, with plans to connect all Canadian schools by 1998. Internet, e-mail, and teleconferencing are rapidly being set up for administrators, teachers, and students in many areas. Library cataloguing and database sharing are enabling more efficient use of resources. New virtual campuses are facilitating distance education. Mandatory use of laptop computers by students, to be adopted at Acadia University, represents a bold initiative.

Distance education has been profoundly influenced by technological change. Alberta, British Columbia, and Quebec have developed open universities, employing audio and video tapes, television, satellites, teleconferencing, and telephone tutors. *Télé-université*, part of the *Université du Québec*, offers diploma and certificate distance programs as well as communications degrees. Memorial University, Newfoundland, operates distance education for remote communities via satellite links and other communication media. Television Northern Canada, covering an area equal to one-third of Canada, delivers cultural, political, social, and educational programming to 100,000 native northern Canadians.

Retrenchment and restructuring

In the 1990s, all levels of government have struggled with increased debt loads, budget deficits, and stagnant revenues in what some have described as the emergence of a 'cuts culture'. In its efforts to put its fiscal house in order, the federal government has not been able to exempt transfer payments from its deficit reduction exercise, given the magnitude of this support. The most frequent reaction of the provinces has been to reduce or at least cap expenditures, particularly in the social services

envelope in which education is included. Several ministries have cut education budgets over successive years and/or tightened controls by limiting discretionary spending (e.g., Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, and Newfoundland and Labrador).

With retrenchment, efficiency has taken on a special meaning in Canadian education: costs should reflect value added to the classroom as much as possible, and not be channelled into administrative or support overheads. Some provinces have decreased costs of administration by integrating two or more ministries with the ministry/department of education (e.g., Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia). At ministry and school board levels, a substantial number of staff have been trimmed. Following these administrative cuts, the potential looms for large-scale dismissal of teachers and teachers' aides in some provinces. In Quebec, efforts have targeted mainly administrative expenses, leaving student services budgets essentially untouched.

Several provinces/territories have amalgamated school boards or districts, or are seriously contemplating such action. Provincial/territorial governments have encouraged collaboration among school boards, particularly in planning, purchasing, transportation, and professional and curriculum development. Successful collaboration has been forged in many cases, though barriers such as threats to school board autonomy are sometimes difficult to overcome. Interprovincial/territorial collaboration has also unfolded: for example, the Atlantic provinces have undertaken joint provincial curriculum development, and the four Western provinces and two territories are producing a common mathematics and language arts curriculum in English and French. At the national level, Ontario, the Atlantic provinces, and the Western provinces and territories are collaborating on the development of a common framework of K-12 science outcomes.

The large degree to which postsecondary education was subsidized by government is now being seriously challenged. Retrenchment has forced most ministries of education to increase postsecondary tuition fees dramatically over the past five years, and several institutions have successfully lobbied for the right to charge students in specialized professional programs on a full-cost recovery basis.

Redefining accountability structures

Several provinces/territories have re-centralized functions that were previously shared with, or done solely by, district school boards, including defining standards, developing curriculum, and crafting assessment instruments. They also moved to reduce costs through tightened, centralized control of school board budgets.

The trend towards public accountability is pervasive. Accountability means clarifying the roles of all the players in the system, with mechanisms to assess whether these roles are fulfilled. It also means letting parents and community members have a greater say through school or parent councils, a development seen across Canada. Assessment also serves accountability. It implies a more open approach to sharing information with parents and the general public, about the good news and the bad. Until the recent introduction of the School Achievement Indicators Program (SAIP), coordinated by CMEC, the country was without a national assessment program. A number of

jurisdictions introduced large-scale testing in attempts to measure systems, subcomponents of the system (e.g., boards or schools), or individual students. Such accountability measures have swept across all jurisdictions.

The issue of accreditation of university institutions and programs is ultimately related to accountability and finance. In a climate of shrinking resources, pressure is being exerted on higher education institutions to account for value-for-money. Canada has several mechanisms for evaluating and accrediting postsecondary institutions and programs, including national groups, regional bodies, and provincial commissions or councils. For many professional disciplines, regulatory agencies perform evaluation of undergraduate or graduate programs. However, with no national system of accreditation, one cannot obtain a comprehensive accountability of postsecondary institutions in Canada. More performance-based systems of accountability may be on the horizon: Alberta will soon be using factors such as graduates' satisfaction with their education and employment success. However, the principle of university autonomy will continue to be vigorously defended amidst calls for greater accountability. This tension is crucial to understanding higher education accreditation and accountability issues in Canada.

Respect for diversity and gender equity

Respect for diversity in Canada has been safeguarded and extended through the 1990s, particularly in the teaching of languages, in the design of curriculum, and in programs that fight racism and promote multiculturalism. French and English immersion and second-language programs are still popular nationally. French-language school boards have been created or recommended in a number of provinces (e.g., Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, and Nova Scotia). Heritage language courses (students learning an ancestral language other than English or French) attract thousands of students. Edmonton offers a school with Ukrainian as the language of instruction, and British Columbia features Mandarin and Punjabi immersion programs. The Dene of the Western Arctic are developing their own curriculum to preserve and honour their native language and customs. Many ministries/ departments and school boards have special units to ensure that learning materials are bias-free, and to promote anti-racism programs.

Access has been bolstered for a whole new generation of adult learners through an astonishing variety of formal and non-formal programs: vocational, training, literacy, and general interest, at schools, colleges, and universities, and in the private sector.

Gender equity remains an important topic in Canadian educational discourse in the 1990s. Inroads in this area have been significant, with more females than males graduating from secondary schools, colleges, and undergraduate university programs (though graduate school is still dominated by males). Significantly more females have enrolled in professional programs leading to high-income careers. In elementary/secondary school systems, women administrators have made modest progress towards parity with men. However, at the postsecondary level, males still dominate teaching and administrative positions. Also, the proportion of males enrolled in areas that were traditionally under-

represented by men (social sciences, humanities, education, health) has continued to drop and there is now a larger imbalance, in favour of women, in these areas.

FOREWORD

This report has been prepared by the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, (CMEC) with support from the Government of Canada, at the request of the International Bureau of Education (IBE) for presentation to the 45th session of the International Conference on Education (ICE). It has been written in keeping with the guidelines sent to all UNESCO Member States by the IBE, and these are included at the end of the report. Canada's report on the special theme of the 45th ICE, *Enhancing the Role of Teachers in a Changing World*, has been published as a separate document. In order to complement the information contained in this report, Canadian education systems are put into context below.

Canada is comprised of ten provinces and two territories, each of which, within the federative system of shared powers, is responsible for education. The *Constitution Act, 1867*, provides in part that "in and for each province, the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education." Therefore, each of the provinces and territories has developed its own educational structures and institutions; while these are similar in many ways, they reflect the circumstances of regions separated by great distances and the diversity of the country's historical and cultural heritage.

Canada has two official languages: English, the mother tongue of approximately 61 per cent of the population; and French, the mother tongue of approximately 26 per cent. Most French speakers live in Quebec, where they make up 82 per cent of the population, but there are also many French speakers in New Brunswick, Ontario, and Manitoba. In Canada, education is available in both official languages, but to a greater or lesser degree, depending on the region.

The government of Canada has assigned responsibility for the delivery of educational services to the two northern territories through two federal statutes, namely, the *Northwest Territories Act* and the *Yukon Act*. It provides funding for education in these territories, each of which has established its own department of education and manages the delivery of educational services. Provincial and territorial authority over education brings with it the power to delegate authority to local school boards or to other bodies set up or recognized by the province or territory.

In all of the provinces and territories, members of school boards (or in the case of New Brunswick, District Parent Advisory Committees) are elected by public ballot. The powers and duties of these boards and bodies are defined in provincial or territorial statutes and are, in general, consistent throughout Canada.

The authority delegated to school boards is thus permissive authority and it is given at the discretion of the provincial or territorial government. The delegation of authority is not a surrender by the province or territory of its authority over school matters, because the provincial and territorial legislatures determine the scope of local control.

School board authority generally includes implementation of curriculum, the operation and administration of school systems, acquisition of required financial resources, initiation of proposals for new construction or other major capital expenditures, and staffing responsibilities.

The Government of Canada (the federal government) is responsible for the education of registered Indians and Inuit people resident on reserve at the elementary and secondary levels, as well as education and training in the Armed Forces, Coast Guard, and Correctional (penitentiary) Services.

PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Pre-school programs or kindergartens, which are operated by the local education authorities and provide one year of pre-grade one education for 5 year-olds, are offered by all provinces and territories with the exception of Prince Edward Island.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

In each province or territory, a ministry or department of education is responsible for elementary and secondary education. Public education is provided free to all Canadian citizens and permanent residents until the end of secondary school – normally, age 18. The ages for compulsory schooling vary from one jurisdiction to another, generally, it is required from age 6 or 7 to age 16.

Primary education in most jurisdictions covers the first six to eight years of compulsory schooling. Afterwards, children proceed to a secondary education program. A great variety of programs – vocational (job training) as well as academic – are offered at the secondary level. The first years are devoted to compulsory subjects, with some optional subjects included. In the latter years, the number of compulsory subjects is reduced, permitting students to spend more time on specialized programs that prepare them for the job market, or to take the specific courses they need to meet the entrance requirements of the college or university of their choice. Secondary school diplomas are granted to students who pass the compulsory and optional courses of their programs.

Special-needs students, such as the physically or mentally disabled, the gifted, etc., are accommodated in the public schools in various ways. In some cases, separate programs are available to meet their needs; in others, these students are integrated into the regular classroom and, to the extent possible, follow the regular program of instruction.

Private or independent schools, which provide an alternative to publicly funded schools, may operate in any province or territory if they meet the general standards prescribed by that jurisdiction for elementary and secondary schools. Although in most cases they closely follow the curriculum and diploma requirements of the Department or Ministry of Education, they function independently of the public system and charge fees. Five provinces – Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec, and Saskatchewan – provide some form of financial assistance to these schools.

The point of transition from elementary to secondary school may vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. Some school boards break up the elementary-secondary continuum into schools that group together, for example, kindergarten to grade six, grades seven to nine (junior high), and ten to twelve (senior level). In Quebec, secondary schooling ends after eleven years of studies.

POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION

Once secondary school has been successfully completed, a student may apply to a college or a university, depending on the region and on whether he or she qualifies.

Quebec students – again, having completed secondary schooling in 11 as opposed to 12 years – must obtain a college diploma in order to be admitted into a university program. The colleges, called *cégeps* (*collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel*), offer both a general program that leads to university admission, and a professional program that prepares students for the labour force. In Ontario, students must complete six Ontario Academic Credit courses in order to be admitted to a university program. This can be accomplished during the four-year secondary school program, or during an additional year after completion of grade twelve.

Postsecondary education is available in both government-supported and private institutions, some of which award degrees and some of which do not. Colleges such as technical and vocational institutions, community colleges, *cégeps* and other institutes of technology offer programs for continuing education and for developing skills for careers in business, the applied arts, technology, social services and some health sciences. Programs vary in length from six months to three years. There are also private vocational or job training colleges in some provinces. In general, colleges award diplomas or certificates only; they do not award academic degrees. In 1995-96 Alberta started a demonstration project allowing colleges and technical institutions to award applied degrees to enhance career preparation of students.

Many colleges offer, in co-operation with industry and business partners, professional development services or specialized programs in high-technology areas. Technical training and technology programs prepare students for employment in the trades, industry or agriculture, or for a job as a professional technician or technologist. A certificate is granted for programs requiring one year of study (24 to 30 weeks). Two-year or three-year programs lead to a diploma. Some programs last four years; these are made up of courses of an academic rather than job-training nature.

The British Columbia community college system allows students to complete two years of academic course work towards bachelor's degrees. Thus, while some students may decide not to continue, others have the opportunity to go on to complete the third and fourth years at a university-college or university and receive a degree. In many provinces, however, the transfer is not automatic. A student must apply for admission and have his or her college studies evaluated before being granted credit for completed college courses.

Programs leading to degrees are offered in universities or, as they are sometimes known, degree-granting institutions. Most Canadian universities, especially those in the larger cities, offer a complete range of programs. Others are more specialized, and have developed areas of excellence. There are also some specialized institutions that are not campus-based and offer university programs through correspondence courses and distance education.

It is possible to study at three different levels, which lead to a bachelor's, master's or doctoral (Ph.D.) degree. Not all universities offer graduate studies (master's and doctorates). In addition to degree programs, most universities offer diploma and certificate programs. These can be either at the undergraduate or graduate level, and can range from one to three years in duration.

Bachelor's degrees can take either three or four years of study, depending on the program and the province. Universities in some provinces grant general pass degrees in three years and require a fourth year for an honours degree. Other provinces require four years of study regardless of whether it is for a general or an honours degree.

Master's degrees require one or two years of study after completion of a bachelor's degree. Some may require a thesis or professional internship.

Doctoral degrees usually require three years of study after a master's degree. Most students need much more time to complete a Ph.D., the average being four or five years. Doctoral degrees usually involve researching, writing, presenting and defending a thesis, in addition to attending seminars and a specified number of courses.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS OF EDUCATION, CANADA

The Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC) was established in 1967 by the provincial ministers, with the concurrence of their respective governments. In a context where each province and territory is responsible for its education system, CMEC offers ministries and departments of education the unique opportunity to work collectively.

Through CMEC, cooperation among the provinces and territories is effected in a broad range of activities at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels. An arm of the provinces, CMEC is the ministers' mechanism for consulting on matters of mutual interest, representing Canadian education internationally, providing liaison with various federal departments and cooperating with other national education organizations.

THE GOVERNMENT OF CANADA

In Canada, as noted above, the provinces and territories are responsible for education at every level. However, since Confederation, and particularly since World War II, the Government of Canada has played an important support role, based on the common federal-provincial/territorial objective of human resource development. This support has been rooted in two concerns deriving from the federal

government's overall responsibility for the well-being of the federation — first, a recognition of the crucial role played by colleges and universities in the creation of an ever more highly trained work force as an essential ingredient in the health of the national economy; and second, a desire that all Canadians in all regions have equivalent access to postsecondary education and learning opportunities. Following from the second concern is the interest of the national government in facilitating the mobility of students within Canada and abroad.

1. The economic, social, and political contexts and their effects on the education systems

Canada, a federation of ten provinces and two territories, has a population of about 28 million. It is the world's second largest country in terms of area. Most Canadians live in urban areas near the southern Canada/United States of America border, while others inhabit a variety of regions stretching from sea to sea to sea.

The provinces and territories have exclusive jurisdiction to enact laws governing education; however, the Canadian federal government and other organizations support education and address issues from a national perspective.

Economically, Canada is a strong and highly developed nation. It is a member of both the G-7 and the OECD. The Canadian economy has matured over the decades from primarily agricultural and resource-based to industrialized and technologically advanced. Yet economic stagnation — including recession and higher-than-usual unemployment — has plagued Canada over the past few years. Real annual percentage changes in the GDP were in the order of only one to three per cent from 1991 to 1994, well below the growth norms during most of the 1970s and 1980s (StatsCan, 1995a). Several factors have caused this stagnation, including the U.S. recession of the early 1990s and high federal and provincial government debt loads. The result has been significant educational cost-cutting over the past few years (Brown, 1996), as well as pressures for more efficient and accountable educational delivery mechanisms (Lawton, 1996). Despite these challenges, there are positive signs in Canada's economy: real GDP is forecast to grow 3.4 per cent next year, which is above the OECD and G-7 average growth forecasts of 2.7 per cent and 2.6 per cent, respectively (CTF, 1995a). Driving this growth is the positive trade balance due to Canada's robust export sector.

Education is considered a valuable asset for all Canadians, regardless of gender. In a highly competitive Canadian society, secondary school graduation greatly enhances one's chances for employment, and further education at college or university is strongly desired. Attainment of degrees, diplomas, or certificates by 25- to 34-year-olds increased from 44 per cent in 1981 to 59 per cent in 1991 (CESC, 1996a). Median years of schooling for the population aged 15 years or over in Canada is now 12.5, up from 11.3 in 1976. By the year 2000, it is estimated that about 40 per cent of Canada's jobs will require 16 or more years of formal education (CESC, unpublished, 1996a). Indeed, overall educational financial support reflects the high commitment of Canadians to learning: educational spending at all levels represents almost 8 per cent of Canada's GDP (StatsCan, 1995a) — among the highest investment of any G-7 country (CESC, 1996b).

Canada is officially bilingual — French and English. Yet immigration has impacted and extended the Canadian cultural and social fabric beyond these two official languages. About 60 per cent of recent immigrants under 18 entering Canada speak neither French nor English (see Appendix 1). The province of Ontario alone receives over 50 per cent of immigrant children and youth. An increasing cultural and linguistic diversity has become most evident in many large Canadian urban centres such as Toronto, Vancouver, and Montreal. These students place special demands on school systems,

which must provide English- and French-as-a-second-language programs and enhanced support and guidance.

English remains the predominant language of households of school-age Canadians outside of Quebec and New Brunswick. However, in Quebec 85 per cent of households speak French, and in New Brunswick, about one-third. Many other languages are also evident in Canada, especially since immigration has shifted from European to African and Asian origins. In several provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec) about five to ten per cent of households speak a non-official language (see Appendix 2). It should be noted that in the Northwest Territories, almost 40 per cent of households speak neither official language (rather, they speak a variety of native official languages of the territory).

With regard to diversity, Canada is a truly compassionate nation, striving to respect Canadians of all cultures. The *1982 Charter of Rights and Freedoms* guarantees all citizens freedom from discrimination based on colour, race, religion, gender, or any other demographic characteristic. All levels of government, including all formal educational systems, are active in promoting this goal.

Family structures in Canada have changed dramatically over the past few decades — shifting from the traditional two-parent, one wage-earner mode to a variety of evolving modes, including single-parent, blended, and/or two-wage-earner families. Whereas in 1967, 59 per cent of Canadian families were supported by only one wage-earner, by 1992 this figure had decreased to 23 per cent (CESC, 1996a). Single-parent families, however, increased from 14 per cent in 1976 to 20 per cent in 1991 (StatsCan, 1995a).

Canada is not without social concerns, most of which have a large bearing on education. The fact that one in six adult Canadians has serious difficulty dealing with printed materials is a problem. Other social problems, such as family poverty and youth crime (especially violent crime), are rising concerns. Poverty is a fact of life for many, especially children. In 1991, 21 per cent of children under the age of seven lived in poverty, up from 13 per cent in 1981. Research shows that children living in poverty are at greater risk of a markedly inferior quality of life (CESC, 1996a). Poor children have twice the rate of emotional and behavioural disorders, poorer school performance, and social impairment. Children who are hungry, inadequately housed, or in poor health cannot take full advantage of educational opportunities.

The rise in child poverty, the changing family structure, the increasing diversity of the student body, and the perceived rise in youth crime and violence have contributed to a national debate about the role of schools. On the one hand, there are those who see the school as the natural focal point for the delivery of social, health, psychological, and nutritional services. Such advocates see the school as a full-service public instrument whose role in social levelling is paramount. On the other hand, the critics of this approach favour a concept of the school as a more narrowly focussed centre of learning, with a critical mission to prepare students for the work world, for various educational futures, and for lifelong learning in an economy and society that is increasingly knowledge- and technology-based. "What is the role of schools?" is a question that will no doubt remain front and centre in Canadian

educational discourse for years to come, as schools and school systems are pulled in different directions by the environment that surrounds them and by various stakeholders with conflicting values and interests.

In summary, Canada is a culturally diverse, bilingual country whose people value education immensely. As Canada moves into the twenty-first century, key challenges include public debt, reductions in government spending, and national unity. Canadian education systems must adjust to this environment, as well as the diverse needs of their students and the demands of an advanced, integrated, and global economy.

2. Educational policies and reforms

2.1 Principles and general objectives of education

Fleming (1993) notes that three "common social and educational values" have largely defined Canadian attitudes toward public education, attitudes that transcend provincial and territorial education systems.

The first of these values is *equality of access*. Originally defined in the context of making public education available to a sparse population spanning an entire continent, equality of access now is seen primarily as the elimination of barriers to education caused by language, gender, race, or physical or mental disability. Closely related to this notion of access is the value of *equality of educational opportunity* — the quality and choice of programs should not be diminished by where one lives. Thirdly, *cultural pluralism* is an important value. Race, language, and religion were the cornerstones in defining educational entitlements at Confederation¹ in 1867. The advent of multiculturalism in the 1970s, an important policy supported by several levels of government and societal institutions, has made respect for diversity an important challenge for schools.

2.2 Texts of laws and other basic regulations concerning education

Section 93 of the *Constitution Act, 1867* (formerly the *British North America Act*), gives the provinces exclusive jurisdiction to enact laws governing education. Thus, ministries and departments of education, through education or school acts and attendant regulations, typically control the nature of the school curriculum; the level to which schools are financed; the training and certification required of teachers; the methods of assessment and the standards for student testing; the structures to sustain school governance and management; the establishment of school boards; and the design and distribution of curriculum materials (Fleming, 1993).

¹ Confederation is the union of Upper Canada (Ontario), Lower Canada (Quebec), New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia into a new federation, known as the Dominion of Canada. Other provinces and territories subsequently joined the federation.

In addition to the plenary power given to the provinces over education, the *Constitution Act* and the 1982 *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* contain specific rights to denominational education and to minority-language education, with assurances also made that all Canadian citizens must receive reasonable protection and equal benefits from the law without regard to race, religion, and national origin (Brown & Zuker, 1994). In this context denominational rights refer to Roman Catholics or Protestants having their own, autonomous school systems; minority-language rights refer to the educational rights of the French-speaking or English-speaking linguistic minorities².

2.3 *National plans/programs, political declarations on education, etc.*

Unlike most states, Canada does not have a national office for education. However, while it does not share in direct jurisdiction over education, the federal government can exert a certain influence over educational policies, standards, and objectives, thanks to its resources.

Since 1963 the federal role, particularly in postsecondary education, has been advanced through the office of the Department of Secretary of State (and since 1993, through the Department of Human Resources Development Canada [HRDC]), through the funding of dozens of programs directly or indirectly, especially in the fields of technical and vocational education; through federal transfers to the provinces for health and education; through aid to university research, student assistance, and federal postsecondary institutions; and through support for the *Official Languages Act*. The education of registered Indian and Inuit children falls within the responsibility of the federal government through its Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development; this department maintains such schools directly, or provides access to education in public or private schools by means of a special agreement with individual provinces and territories. The federal government also supports education and training in the armed forces and correctional services.

Federal government immigration policies have brought about a change in school populations. Faced with this situation, and in order to meet the major challenges posed by diversity, provincial authorities (ministries/departments and school boards) have reassessed in depth the educational services they offer and have adapted these services. The federal government contributed to this adaptation process during the 1980s through its official-language education programs. (The 1990 agreement between Canada and Quebec left that province with exclusive jurisdiction over reception and settlement of immigrants and refugees on its territory.)

A national body, the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, (CMEC) was established in 1967 by the ministers of education to promote discussion on matters of mutual interest and further collaboration and consultation among the provinces and territories, to liaise with the federal government, and to represent Canadian education internationally. CMEC launched in 1989 the School Achievement Indicators Program (SAIP) in which a consortium of provinces worked together to

² The Supreme Court of Canada has played an active role as the ultimate judicial body in education. The denominational issue has been subject to a number of recent Supreme Court challenges, particularly by parents who want public funding for non-Catholic religious schools. To date their efforts have been unsuccessful.

produce and implement, for the first time, a national assessment instrument for elementary and secondary reading, writing, and mathematics. A mathematics assessment was administered in 1993, and reading and writing were tested in 1994. A science assessment took place in April 1996. CMEC also formed in 1989 the joint venture with Statistics Canada, called the Canadian Education Statistics Council (CESC), to provide comparable educational statistics in such publications as the *Statistical Portrait of Elementary and Secondary Education in Canada*, updated regularly (CESC, 1996b) and the first report *Education Indicators in Canada* (CESC, 1996a, unpublished).

Provincial and territorial education ministers prepared a *Joint Declaration: Future Directions for the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada*, in September 1993, emphasizing education as a lifelong process, linked to informed citizens, and economic and cultural development. At CMEC's First National Consultation on Education in May 1994, participants confirmed the need for educational accountability for items such as student performance, graduation rates, job placement, constituent needs, and public understanding of education. Together, the Joint Declaration and the National Consultation led to the emergence of four areas of focus in education and training: *accessibility, quality, mobility, and relevance* (CESC, 1996a).

Another national body serving a wide array of clients is the Canadian Education Association (CEA), established in 1891. CEA functions as a clearinghouse for ideas and issues for educators and educational policy-makers at all levels of the school system across the country, regularly publishes newsletters, periodicals, and special reports, and features a well-resourced library. Postsecondary national nongovernmental organizations include the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC), the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC). The *Association canadienne d'éducation de langue française* (ACELF) is the only Canadian French-language education association covering all levels of education.

2.4 *Objectives and principal characteristics of current and forthcoming reforms (general reforms, institutional reforms, pedagogical reforms, methodological reforms, etc.)*

System-wide, the trend is toward:

- *More cooperative efforts at the regional and national levels.* There is increased cooperation and sharing of services in such areas as curriculum development, assessment of student achievement, program evaluation, information technology, and transferability of credits between institutions.
- *More accountability to the public.* Several of the trends set out below directly or indirectly relate to this theme.
- *Acceptance of information technology as an integral part of education.* Helping students (elementary through postsecondary) be prepared to participate in the information age is a high priority. For most jurisdictions this involves the identification of skills to be acquired by all students; significant investments (often in partnership with the private sector) in computer

hardware, software, and cabling; the professional development of teachers; and the linking of all institutions to the Internet by 1997.

- *Less funding for education.* Efforts are being made to ensure that declining resources are allocated to the classroom rather than to administrative areas.

In elementary and secondary education, the trend is toward:

- *Fewer school districts/boards.* Initiatives to amalgamate school districts are generally combined with the introduction of school councils. These changes are intended to promote and facilitate the involvement of parents in their children's schooling, and to streamline the administration of education, thereby reducing expenditures.
- *Curriculum outcomes and standards.* Curriculum renewal is focussing on what students should know or be able to do. These initiatives intend to make education more relevant, improve levels of student achievement, and find more cost-efficient ways of delivering programs.
- *More testing and provincial examinations.* Several jurisdictions are in the process of implementing comprehensive, multi-year assessment programs tied to their own curriculum standards and outcomes. These programs are designed to provide greater accountability to parents and the general public on the performance of the education systems, to improve the quality of instruction, and to ensure greater consistency across the systems.
- *Transition programs.* Initiatives to help students make the transition from school to the world of work involve changes to vocational and technical education, apprenticeship programs, guidance and career counselling, and cooperative programs.

In postsecondary education, the trend is toward:

- *Renewal and articulation.* Efforts are being made to revitalize the postsecondary sector to deliver quality programs to meet changing needs at a time of declining resources. Through articulation of programs, policies, and accreditation, access to programs will be enhanced, duplication minimized, and learners better served.
- *Indicators of success.* The determination of performance data and key indicators that will be used to demonstrate results to the public requires negotiations between the many parties concerned.
- *Accreditation of a student's previous experience.* This involves prior learning assessment (i.e. assessment of an individual's level of knowledge, regardless of where or how the learning occurred) and transferability of course credits between postsecondary institutions both inside and outside of a jurisdiction.

- *Evaluation of current programs.* Reviews are undertaken to determine how best to respond to a rapidly changing labour market. Beyond these general trends, more specific trends are apparent that continue to have an impact on this sector, for example, in Quebec:
 - better knowledge of the characteristics of trades and professions and the job market;
 - modular curricula focussed on skills development;
 - involvement of business in program directions;
 - development of partnerships between schools and business (equipment loans or gifts, internships, customized training programs, equipment made available);
 - continuity being established between basic training and programs leading to certification;
 - development of an apprenticeship framework.
- *Focus on social assistance recipients.* There is an increased emphasis on promoting economic independence for employable social assistance recipients through employment preparation, targeted skills training, on-the-job training opportunities, and job-finding/job placement services.
- *Partnerships.* There is an emphasis on programs that feature partnerships between the postsecondary system and industry to deliver relevant skills. Other programs focus on innovative community-based programs intended to increase community participation in training and adjustment decisions. Providing access to training through information technology is of growing importance.

3. Structure and organization of the education systems

3.1 Organizational chart of the education systems showing the different levels and types of education

See Appendices 4 and 5.

Numbers and types of institutions

There were a total of 16,521 educational institutions in Canada in 1993-94: 16,231 elementary or secondary schools, 18 schools for the blind and deaf, 203 community colleges, and 69 universities (StatsCan, 1994a).

In the past few years, for the whole of the country, the number of elementary and secondary institutions has increased, while the number of colleges and universities has remained fairly stable. This varies from one jurisdiction to another, however, especially at the elementary and secondary levels.

In Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, and British Columbia, the number of elementary and secondary schools increased between 1991-92 and 1993-94, while in Newfoundland and Labrador, New Brunswick, and Saskatchewan, the number of institutions decreased. In Prince Edward Island, the number of elementary schools remained the same for both years, and there were fewer secondary schools in 1993-94. The number of elementary schools in Nova Scotia fell in 1993-94, while the number of secondary schools in that province increased. In Yukon, the number of elementary schools increased, while the number of secondary schools remained the same between 1991-92 and 1993-94. The situation is reversed in the Northwest Territories, where there were more secondary schools for that period (CESC, 1996a).

3.2 The age of students and the length of studies for different levels of education

See Appendices 3, 4, and 5.

In Canada, pre-grade 1 schooling is not compulsory except for Prince Edward Island, where kindergarten for children age 5 is considered a basic part of the elementary program. In 1990-91, 472,500 children were enrolled in pre-school programs. In 1992-93, 91 per cent of all 5-year-olds in Canada were enrolled in a kindergarten program. Newfoundland and Labrador, Northwest Territories, and Nova Scotia recorded the highest proportions. Ontario was the only province where the majority of 4-year-olds were enrolled. A critical factor in offering pre-compulsory programming is provincial budgetary restrictions: Ontario's junior kindergarten program for 4-year-olds is currently being scrutinized by a number of school boards, and eliminated by others, for budgetary considerations. For pre-school programs (pre-primary), some school boards in Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec include 4- and 5-year-old children in two years of non-compulsory schooling. Alberta's program, designed in an integrated services approach, enrolls some special needs children as early as two and a half years old.

Participation rates

When measured against the 1- to 5-year-old population, the participation rate in public education increased between 1983-84 and 1990-91. Over the same period, the participation rates for students of non-compulsory school age in secondary school also increased for all ages from 16-19 (CESC, 1996a).

In the primary school sector between 1983-84 and 1990-91, increased participation rates for students aged 4 and 5, both for Canada as a whole and for almost all jurisdictions, are primarily due to more 4-year-olds participating in the systems during that period.

Increased secondary school participation rates for 16- to 19-year-olds over the same period could suggest that schools were more successful in helping an increased number of young people to complete their secondary school education. The apparent decline in the participation rates of 16- to 19-year-olds in regular education programs in Quebec reflects that, in the late 1980s, youth were for the first time able to enrol in education programs for adults.

Duration and types of studies

Appendix 4 summarizes the similarities and differences in provincial/territorial pre-school to secondary programs. Appendix 5 illustrates the different levels and types of education available in Canada. Elementary education in most provinces/territories covers the first six to eight years of compulsory schooling. At the elementary level, classes are held for five hours a day, or approximately 25 hours a week on average. The point of transition from elementary to secondary school varies from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, and even within a particular jurisdiction. Some school boards break up the elementary-secondary continuum into schools that group together, for example, kindergarten to grade 6, grades 7 to 9 (junior high), and grades 10-12 (senior high). In Quebec, secondary schooling begins after completion of six years of study and ends after eleven years. Yukon is in the process of abolishing the junior secondary level in favour of a two-tier system with elementary grades K-7 and secondary grades 8-12. Instructional time in secondary schools for all jurisdictions totals about five and one-half hours per day.

For elementary and secondary students in Canada, the school year (which comprises 180 to 200 days of instruction depending upon the jurisdiction) generally begins in early September and ends in late June. In addition to summer vacation, there are two fairly long holiday periods during the year: a holiday break of seven to ten days (December 24 to January 2 or longer) and a spring break of five days in March or April (dates vary widely). Classes are normally held from Monday to Friday. In a few jurisdictions, private schools catering to international students operate year-round.

3.3 Compulsory schooling (age limits and duration)

See Appendices 3, 4, and 5.

Enrolment policy

In 1994, there were 5.4 million students enrolled in all the elementary and secondary schools in Canada. The all-time high enrolment was 5.8 million in 1970-71 (StatsCan, 1995a).

The ages for *compulsory schooling* vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction as shown in Appendix 3. Generally, schooling is mandatory from age 6 or 7 to age 16. Public education is provided free to all Canadian citizens and permanent residents up to the end of secondary school — age 18 in most jurisdictions.

Student enrolments in elementary and secondary schools are affected by a large number of factors. Birth rates, immigration and emigration, returning adults, and part-time attendance in the higher grades play a major role. Other influencing factors appear at the school level such as program offerings, parental involvement, school environment, and teaching excellence (CESC, 1996b, p. 12).

3.4 *The official length of the academic year at different levels and its distribution by quarter/semester, etc.*

No information available.

4. Administration of the education systems

4.1 *Plan and functions of educational administration at the central, provincial/territorial, regional, local, and school levels*

Ministries/departments and school boards

The administration of education in Canada is centred in the constitutionally secured right of the provinces and territories to exclusive jurisdiction over education. The ten provinces and two territories effectively constitute 12 education systems, with some similarities and large differences among them. Canadian public schooling is centralized at the provincial/territorial level, with varying degrees of decentralization to the local school board level.

Control over educational policy in each province and territory resides with a minister who is an elected member of the legislature and appointed to that post by the government leader of the jurisdiction. The legal basis of the minister's authority, and areas of provincial or territorial and local control, are spelled out in school or education acts and attendant regulations. The operational aspects of public schooling are the domain of an education civil service, which provides the administrative and supervisory structure. The responsibility for policy development and management information is in the hands of the deputy minister, a career civil servant, who may or may not be an educator.

Ministries and departments provide educational, administrative, financial management, and school support functions. They are responsible for defining educational services to be provided to the entire population of their jurisdiction, as well as the general framework within which these will be organized. They set schooling requirements and rules governing teachers' working conditions and financial resources earmarked for education. Through data collection, processing, and dissemination, they contribute to the planning and assessment process and inform school populations and the public.

This array of ministerial capacities features traditional concerns (e.g., curriculum development, assessment) and more recent additions, such as equity (e.g., community, race, and gender) and technological innovation (e.g., telecommunications). Most ministries and departments of education in Canada share this general orientation.

Local governance of education is usually entrusted to school boards and their elected trustees. The number of boards, their jurisdictional boundaries (school districts or divisions) and the number of trustees and their duties are defined in the education/school acts. Trustees are responsible as a corporation for the policy decisions they make. Board duties usually include business management of the schools within a district; supervision of schools within a district; supervision of school building and maintenance; setting tax assessment rates on residential and, sometimes, commercial property; approving the hiring, promotion, and dismissal of teachers and administrators; and delegating responsibility for the professional administration of schools to superintendents of education (invariably educators) and their staffs (Fleming, 1993).

The number of school boards varies widely across Canada, and the complexity in types largely reflects whether the jurisdiction makes provision for separate or denominational schools and the presence of a linguistic minority (English or French) with constitutional guarantees for local governance structures. School boards in most jurisdictions reveal a quilt-work of public, denominational (religious) and/or francophone/anglophone minority-language school board structures. Prince Edward Island has two English-language boards and one French-language board. Many provinces are formalizing, or considering, autonomous French-language school boards: Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba recently implemented French school board governance. Ontario is looking at setting up fifteen French school boards across the province, arising out of the 78 current French boards, sections, and advisory committees of Catholic and public boards³ (Sweeney, 1996). Quebec is attempting to replace the current denominationally based boards with linguistic boards, though the issue is complicated by the continued existence of religious boards in Montreal and Quebec City (CSBA, 1996a). There are three possible levels of authority delegated through Yukon's Education Act: school committee, school council, and school board. Yukon now has its first school board, the Yukon Francophone School Board.

Beginning in the mid-1960s, with the growth of large urban areas and the changing of attitudes about power sharing, some ministries/departments relinquished a large measure of control to local school authorities for core functions such as curriculum development and assessment. Since the 1980s in some jurisdictions, and certainly during the 1990s, many ministries have moved to re-centralize in a vigorous manner, driven by cost considerations and issues of quality control and accountability.

4.2 The educational role of ministries other than that of education, and of nongovernmental organizations; coordination mechanisms

Amalgamation and collaboration

An emerging trend of the 1990s is the centralization of educational administration by means of *collaboration* between, or *amalgamation* of, ministries and school boards.

³ The fifteen French-language boards proposed for Ontario would comprise five French-language public boards and ten French-language Catholic boards.

In a number of provinces, education ministries/departments have been amalgamated with other ministries, as governments try to simultaneously integrate related functions and downsize. Examples of such merging include: in Saskatchewan, the Department of Labour was combined with the Department of Post-Secondary Education in 1993, to become the Department of Post-Secondary Education and Skills Training; in Ontario, the Ministry of Education was merged with the Ministry of Skills Development and the Ministry of Colleges and Universities in 1993 to become the Ministry of Education and Training; and in Nova Scotia, the Department of Education was reorganized into the Department of Education and Culture in 1995.

Part of the amalgamation scene of the 1990s has been the reduction in the number of school boards and trustees. Several provinces have amalgamated school boards⁴, or are considering doing so, in an effort to gain cost efficiencies. British Columbia has reduced its school boards from 75 to 57 (CEA, 1995a). In 1994, Prince Edward Island merged its five boards down to three, and Alberta reduced its boards from 181 to 60, plus 5 francophone (CSBA, 1996a). Nova Scotia is currently amalgamating its 22 district school boards into six anglophone regional boards and one provincial francophone board. Ontario recently released a task force report recommending a 50 per cent decrease in the number of boards (Sweeney, 1996). In the Nova Scotia public school system, most decision-making authority was centralized in school boards and the department. It was felt that the centralized structure hindered parents, students, communities, and teachers from having an effective voice in decisions in their schools. School boards were also facing financial challenges that were threatening their ability to meet the needs of students, teachers, parents, and schools. Issues of duplication of service, government restructuring, and francophone governance also needed to be addressed. To address these issues and improve learning opportunities for students, a restructuring initiative was undertaken. Following several months of research, development, public consultations, and focus group meetings, approval by government was given and plans were developed and put in place to implement the school board amalgamation process. Twenty-two district school boards are currently being amalgamated into six anglophone regional school boards and one provincial francophone school board. All regional school boards are expected to be amalgamated by summer 1996.

In New Brunswick, which had twelve English-language boards and six French-language boards, the government eliminated, in February 1996, the position of elected trustees for school boards, and instituted a network of parental structures at the school, district, and provincial levels (Lockyer, 1996).

With regard to collaboration at the ministry/department or school board level, a number of developments have transpired in Canada. Government ministries and their agencies are beginning to work closely together, for example, to forge school-based integrated services. An Alberta report (Alberta Education, 1992) suggests potential for more efficient, flexible, accessible, and effective delivery through the integrated approach. School boards have increased their level of cooperation with each other and with other public agencies in an effort to avoid duplication and save money (see

⁴ In provinces such as Quebec and Newfoundland and Labrador, amalgamation efforts have been accompanied by a movement away from denominationally defined boards.

Ryall, Lawton & Scane, 1995). Many boards have recently collaborated in areas such as purchasing, professional development, curriculum development, and transportation.

At the national level, educational policy-makers, administrators, and educators consult through CMEC and various nongovernmental organizations such as CEA, AUCC, ACCC, and ACELF. Also noted above is the federal influence on education policy through HRDC, through funding of special programs such as minority-language education and second-language instruction, and through various postsecondary initiatives influencing education.

5. The financing of education

Elementary/secondary finance overview⁵

Elementary and secondary education finance systems in Canada vary by province or territory. These systems are briefly outlined below. Two general trends over the past few years are: (1) tightening of control of overall expenses at the provincial level and limits on local discretionary taxation/spending (five provinces now fully fund education centrally, as opposed to only two provinces ten years ago), and (2) significant reductions in education budgets, with further cuts expected over the next few years.

Newfoundland and Labrador: in 1992-93, property taxes and poll taxes for education were abolished, such that education is now funded 100 per cent provincially; teachers' salaries and benefits are paid directly by the province; the province offers no assistance for private schools.

Prince Edward Island: all funding is provincial; private schools are not funded.

Nova Scotia: has some municipal sources of education funding, which may be discretionary (approved by municipalities, not school boards); the province provides about 80 per cent of total funding, cut 6.3 per cent from education over the past three years, and introduced a four-year fiscal recovery plan of cost-cutting, beginning in 1994-95; no support for private schools.

New Brunswick: 100 per cent of education is financed by the province, with some user fee provisions; teachers' salaries are determined provincially; no funding for private schools.

Quebec: the province funds 82.8 per cent of education; local taxes (used especially for equipment expenditures) and other sources (e.g. user fees) support the remaining 10.6 per cent and 6.6 per cent, respectively; extra expenditures are not eligible for grants and cannot exceed a certain level unless by local referendum; Quebec supports many types of private schools: overall, 55.9 per cent of private school costs are funded; private schools for disabled children may be funded up to 100 per cent; deep

⁵ This overview borrows from several sources, including CSBA (1996a), CESC (1996b), and Lawton (1996).

cuts to education are expected in the near future, with estimates ranging from \$250 million to \$400 million.

Ontario: overall, 60 per cent local taxation and 40 per cent provincial funding supports education; board-specific and program-specific grants address needs outside the main funding formula; all above-ceiling expenditures are funded locally; the funding model is under review; an expenditure control plan and a social contract were imposed by the province on all public-sector institutions, overriding local contracts in 1993-94, ending March 1996, with 5 per cent savings in employee compensation passed on to the province; Ontario reduced grants by about 10 per cent between 1992-93 and 1995-96, and further large cuts of \$400 million (9 per cent) were announced for next year, which include a reduction of \$233 million in operating grants and a saving of \$167 million through a one-year moratorium on capital construction; Ontario private schools are not publicly funded.

Manitoba: approximately 70 per cent funding is provided provincially, with school divisions raising the remaining amount through a local levy on property assessment; of the provincial share, about 75 per cent is provided from consolidated revenues and 25 per cent from a provincial levy on property assessment; partial funding is provided for private schools based on a percentage of per pupil public school expenditures. Private schools must meet certain criteria including having certified teachers and following the provincial curriculum in order to qualify for funding.

Saskatchewan: 44 per cent provincial funding, the remainder supported by local taxes on residential and non-residential property; unrecognized expenditures through local taxation; some provincial operational and capital support for private secondary schools; 2 per cent reductions in provincial funding in each of 1992-93 and 1993-94, and 4 per cent in 1994-95, and subsequent increases in local taxation.

Alberta: private schools receive 35 per cent of their revenue from the province; in January 1994, the province took control of most property tax revenues and directed them to the Alberta School Foundation Fund (ASFF); boards can levy a further 3 per cent locally; province imposed deep grant cuts of 12 per cent, as well as limits on school board administrative expenses of 4-6 per cent of budgets; successful legal challenge by public boards to opt out of ASFF, but the province is appealing this decision.

British Columbia: funds independent schools at a level of 35 to 50 per cent; block resource cost model funding, unique in Canada, accounts for different needs and costs of providing those needs; all discretionary residential taxes are by referendum, and, if approved, may be levied for one year only; local taxes are collected by municipalities and forwarded to the province.

Yukon: has 29 public schools and one school board; the Department of Education operates education; no local school taxes levied.

Northwest Territories: has eight divisional boards and two Yellowknife school districts; only districts raise local taxes, which cover about 25 per cent of the K-9 program operational costs; all other educational costs (including capital) are centrally funded.

As can be seen, educational finance systems differ from one province or territory to the next. Some jurisdictions support private schools, others do not; some allow substantial local taxation and local board discretionary spending, others limit or eliminate it completely; some negotiate teacher salaries and benefits centrally, others use local mechanisms. Though similarities are evident across jurisdictions, each system is ultimately unique.

Postsecondary finance overview

While elementary/secondary education is financed primarily through partnerships between provincial or territorial and local governments (federal support totalled some \$1.1 billion in 1994-95), postsecondary education is financed to a large extent through federal support and federal-provincial partnerships. The federal government is involved primarily through (1) the Department of Finance, which administers fiscal transfers to provincial and territorial governments, (2) the Department of Human Resources Development Canada, which administers, in cooperation with participating provinces and territories, a national student assistance program, (3) the Departments of Industry and Health, which provide funding for university-based research, (4) the Department of Canadian Heritage, which provides funding for the promotion of official-language education, and (5) the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, which provides funding for the education of registered Indians and Inuit people resident on reserve.

From 1951 to 1966, the federal government provided support to postsecondary education through grants to universities, based on provincial population. From 1967 to 1976, federal support was transformed to a cost-sharing arrangement, with the federal government paying 50 per cent of operating costs for both universities and colleges. From 1977 to 1996, an unconditional fiscal transfer arrangement, referred to as Established Programs Financing (EPF), was in place. This block funding arrangement provided transfers for health services and postsecondary education, such that provincial and territorial governments could allocate these funds according to their own priorities. There was, however, a specific amount determined as being in respect of postsecondary education.

Since the 1960s, successive federal governments have sought to streamline and make more efficient the arrangements governing fiscal transfers to the provinces and territories. In 1995, the federal government announced the new Canada Health and Social Transfer, which integrated transfers in support of health, postsecondary education, and social assistance into a single block transfer. In its efforts to reduce the deficit, the federal government has not been able to exempt transfer payments from this exercise, given the magnitude of this support. Under the new arrangements, total transfers would decline from \$29.7 billion in 1995-96 to \$25.1 billion in 1997-98, at which point they will be

stabilized for a period of two years (Greenspoon, 1995). In 1996, the federal government guaranteed the cash portion of these transfers would be at least \$11 billion through the turn of the century⁶.

Actual means of allocating funds for postsecondary education varies by jurisdiction. Following is a brief overview⁷:

Newfoundland and Labrador: block grants for colleges and universities are negotiated each year between each college or university and the province. *Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick*: generally, these three provinces have moved away from the primarily enrolment-based formulas of the 1980s; operating provincial grants target items such as library, plant, and equipment.

Quebec: colleges are totally financed by the province, and universities 70 per cent; about 25 private institutions receive 55.9 per cent provincial support. *Ontario*: uses enrolment-related formulas for operating and capital costs; determines total allocation for all colleges (after receiving advice from the Council of Regents), then awards each college its share based on weighted full-time equivalent enrolment; for universities, the province provides fixed shares of the available funding linked to an upper limit for fundable full-time equivalents at each university.

Manitoba: universities are awarded funds by the Universities Grants Commission; college funding is determined by the province. *Saskatchewan*: cabinet decision is used to grant funds to the two universities; the Department of Post-Secondary Education and Skills Training, provides college funding through base grants, targeted programs, and other initiatives. *Alberta*: funding to universities and colleges is provided through a base operations grant, conditional grants, and a series of special purpose envelopes including research excellence, learning enhancement, and infrastructure renewal. Funding reductions are applied if enrolments fall below a certain level. A performance envelope will be added in 1997. *British Columbia*: capital funding for all postsecondary institutions is awarded through the B.C. Education Institutions Capital Funding Authority; the province provides block and designated operating funds for universities. For colleges and institutes, granting is more complex, based on instruction (with provision for programs with different delivery costs), instructional support (addressing items such as economies of scale and support services), and general support (for libraries, buildings, and student services).

Yukon and Northwest Territories: all postsecondary education is funded primarily by government departments; Yukon College, the only postsecondary institute in Yukon, receives most of its funds from the Yukon government.

5.1 *Public expenditure on education: total as a percentage of GDP*

⁶ Federal transfers are made up of tax points and cash. Cash transfers will be reduced from \$18.5 billion in 1995-96 to \$11.1 billion in 2000-01.

⁷ Derived mainly from Kitchen & Auld (1995).

Total expenditure on all types of education in Canada as a percentage of GDP was 7.1 per cent in 1981, 7.3 per cent in 1986, 7.8 per cent in 1991, and an estimated 7.7 per cent in 1994 (StatsCan, 1995a)⁸. By province or territory, expenditures as a percentage of GDP vary considerably (StatsCan, 1994a - see Appendix 6). It is notable that, for elementary and secondary education, 1995-96 *real per student spending* levels are below the peaks reached in the early 1990s, for all provinces and territories. Indeed, *retrenchment in elementary and secondary education has averaged about 6.5 per cent over the past few years*, if one compares real current versus peak all-time spending levels per student in all provinces.

Retrenchment calculations are more difficult for higher education, since college and university costs are more difficult to adjust for vocational and part-time students. However, the phenomena of dramatic increases in tuition fees (see section 9 below) and declines in federal transfers and provincial spending provide strong evidence that the postsecondary sector has also experienced serious retrenchment.

5.2 *Distribution of public expenditure by level of education*

In 1994 Canada as a whole spent \$35.1 billion on elementary/secondary schools, \$11.6 billion on universities, \$6.3 billion on vocational education, and \$4.1 billion on colleges, for a total of \$56.5 billion (see Appendix 7 for 1971-1995 breakdowns). *Elementary/secondary* figures include public schools, federal schools, and schools for the blind and deaf, private (academic), spending and administrative costs relating to elementary/secondary education through provincial/territorial and federal departments, and academic education in federal penitentiaries and provincial reform schools. *Vocational* figures include training supported by HRDC, federal spending on language programs, vocational training in federal penitentiaries and provincial reform schools, training courses set by the federal and provincial governments⁹, and private trade, art, and music schools. *College and university* figures include all operating and capital costs, student aid and bursaries, and direct support from federal and provincial governments. It is notable that postsecondary vocational training has gained much momentum over the past couple of decades in Canada. In 1994, training represented 29 per cent of postsecondary expenditures, up markedly from 18 per cent two decades earlier (Kitchen & Auld, 1995), though this trend is complicated somewhat by the fact that many vocational training courses are offered within colleges.

5.3 *The breakdown of current and capital expenditures in the public funding of education*

School board operating and capital outlay expenditures for Canada as a whole are shown in Appendix 8 for the years 1988 through 1992. The data show current (operating) and capital outlay for

⁸ These figures include small amounts for private formal education spending, as described in section 5.

⁹ Ontario, for instance, has over 200 private vocational schools, which meet minimum requirements for curriculum, teacher qualifications, advertising, and refund policies as set out in the *Private Vocational Schools Act*. Such schools do not receive direct public assistance, but attending students often receive government aid.

elementary/secondary public schools, which in 1992 represented \$30.1 billion of educational expenses (about 90 per cent of the total elementary/secondary education public and private budget). In 1992, operating expenses were \$27.7 billion, capital outlays \$1.2 billion, debt charges \$1.2 billion, and total capital expenditures \$2.4 billion. Thus total operating and capital expenses represent about 92 per cent and 8 per cent, respectively, of elementary/secondary school board costs.

For community colleges, capital expenses are also about 8 per cent of total costs (StatsCan, 1995a). For universities, capital costs are approximately 4.5 per cent of total costs. Capital costs for vocational schools are about 2 per cent (StatsCan, 1994b).

5.4 *The distribution of public expenditure on education according to source of financing*

Appendix 9 shows local, provincial and territorial, federal, and nongovernmental (private) sources of education funds for 1993-94. As can be seen, jurisdictions carry a large part of the education finance burden (about 60 per cent); local sources are the second most important contributor (about 20 per cent, mainly derived from property taxes for elementary/secondary education in several provinces); direct federal and private sources are smaller, but not insignificant (about 10 per cent each). It should be noted that the direct federal contribution does not include contributions to provinces and territories for official-language programs and for postsecondary education under EPF. The latter contribution is quite significant — see *Postsecondary Finance Overview*, above).

5.5 *Expenditure on private education by level of education*

Total expenditure on private elementary and secondary schools was \$1.5 billion in 1991. About 53 per cent of these expenses were supported by fees, 27 per cent by governments, and 20 per cent by other sources. Appendix 10 lists these expenditures for 1971, 1981, and 1991. Historically, *per student* expenditures have been slightly less for private schools as compared to public schools (See Appendix 11), though the gap has closed since the late 1980s.

Five provinces — British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Quebec — provide significant financial assistance to private schools. Provincial support for private schools is strongest in Quebec, where it averages 45 per cent, and weakest in the four Eastern provinces, where it is almost nil.

5.6 *For public higher education establishments, the proportion of financing coming from public bodies, fees or other sources*

Appendix 12 shows *university income* by direct sources of funds (i.e., after transfers between federal and provincial governments) from 1991-92 through 1993-94. Total operating income reached \$8.2 billion in 1993-94; non-operating sponsored research was \$1.8 billion. Of note is the fact that tuition as a proportion of operating income reached a new national high of \$1.7 billion (22 per cent of operating income) in 1993-94. The tuition proportion increased in every Canadian province from

1991-92 to 1993-94. In contrast, provincial grants declined to an eight-year low of 67 per cent of operating income.

Appendix 13 shows *college expenditures* by direct sources of funds for 1991-92. Total college funding was about \$5 billion, 75 per cent supported by provincial governments, and 10 per cent by fees. Compared to universities (see above), colleges receive relatively more provincial support and depend less on tuition fees.

It is important to note again that the above figures do not reflect indirect contributions of the federal government to higher education in Canada. If federal cash and tax point transfers to provinces for EPF (now the Canada Health and Social Transfer) are taken into account, federal contributions amount to about 50 per cent of Canada's postsecondary costs (Kitchen & Auld, 1995).

5.7 For private higher educational establishments, the proportion of financing coming from private donations, fees and public sources

As for private postsecondary education, Canada does not have any large private universities, though it does have several private colleges, mainly of religious affiliation, some of which grant degrees. In Quebec, about 25 private colleges receive significant public support (Kitchen & Auld, 1995), as do four degree-granting private colleges in Alberta (CMEC, 1995a). It is more likely, however, for Canadian private colleges to support themselves through fees and donations. Private colleges typically charge fees in the range of \$4,000-\$7,000 per year.

6. The educational process

6.1 Elements of the curriculum at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels

In each province or territory, the ministry or department of education is responsible for elementary and secondary education. Curriculum development, standards, and assessment mechanisms are either developed centrally by the ministry or jointly with local school boards, generally using committees composed of various stakeholders in the educational enterprise. There is neither a national curriculum nor are there national standards for education, although nine provinces and two territories are developing a national science curriculum. In addition, all the provinces are collaborating on setting standards for science in relation to the School Achievement Indicators Program. Curriculum delivery varies from province to province, with different degrees of control exercised over what students learn, how much time they spend learning, and the extent to which differences in student abilities are addressed. Through curriculum, education ministries seek to attain what are generally defined as the four major goals for schooling — cultivation of mind, vocational preparation, moral and civic development, and individual development (Fleming, 1993, p.22).

In several provinces, publicly funded separate school boards and separate schools exist. These are sometimes referred to as denominational schools. In most cases, they are Roman Catholic and provide

some instruction in that faith. A child is normally expected to follow the faith of the school to be eligible to attend. Such schools are to be distinguished from public or nondenominational schools. Quebec constitutes the exception since, in that province, separate schools are non-denominational while public schools are denominational (Roman Catholic or Protestant). In response to parents' demands, Alberta is the first province to allow for publicly funded charter schools, which typically offer a specialized curriculum.

A great variety of *programs* — vocational (job training) as well as academic programs — are offered at the secondary level, usually within the same school. Canada has generally moved away from separate secondary institutions for vocational or work-related training, and academic, or university-preparatory streams. Vocational courses are typically offered during the last two years of secondary school, though some courses preparing students to specialize may be taken earlier. Short programs preparing students to practice various trades are also offered, for students who do not wish to prolong their studies, or who do not want to obtain specialized vocational training. Programs such as cooperative education, using community resources and work experience, are also offered in many jurisdictions.

The *compulsory secondary subjects*, which may vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, include first-language studies (English, French or in some cases, native languages), mathematics, sciences, arts, social studies, physical education, and religious or moral instruction (only when allowed provincially). All provinces offer second-language instruction (usually French for English speakers and English for French speakers), and most offer home economics, health, personal and social skills training, industrial training, computer studies, and an introduction to technology.

A number of collaborative curriculum development projects have emerged in Canada, such as the Western Canadian Protocol, which entails shared mathematics and language arts curriculum development by the four Western provinces and the two territories. As well, the Atlantic provinces are developing and implementing a common core curriculum from K to 12 in language arts, math, science, and social studies (the Atlantic Provinces Project and Common Curriculum). At the national level, Ontario, the Atlantic provinces, and the Western provinces and the territories are collaborating on the development of a common framework of K-12 science outcomes.

Teaching and learning processes

An instructional issue that has emerged in Canadian education over the last two decades or so has been the debate between progressive or child-centred education and the traditional or teacher-directed methods. The predominant focus of Canadian education is on a child-centred education. It is fair to say that there has been some return to ensuring that there is an adequate and strong treatment of core subjects and skills within that child-centred approach, which need not ignore standards and is not always based on the use of experimental learning methods.

It would also be fair to say that the traditional model has regained some momentum in the past few years through provincial trends to basic core subjects, fewer electives, and large-scale provincial testing in specific subject areas at particular grade levels (Berg, 1995; RCOL, 1995).

An example of this shift is the British Columbia *Year 2000: A Framework for Learning* initiative, introduced in 1989, which brought in sweeping, progressive changes in curriculum, school organization, assessment, and in reporting results to parents (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1989). By 1993, British Columbia had made several alterations to *Year 2000*, to address major concerns among parents and educators: 1) anecdotal report cards were replaced with structured written report cards and schools were required to use letter grades to evaluate student progress; 2) educational standards were reviewed and improved where necessary; 3) the ministry renewed emphasis on core learning, especially learning to read, write, and do mathematics; and 4) standardized designations for classes at the primary level were restored (e.g. Grades K1-3, not P1-4).

6.2 The number of hours of teaching by discipline/subject at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels

Instructional time and school year organization

The school year for elementary/secondary schools in Canada starts from the first week in September to mid-June or the last week in June, or roughly 185 to 200 instructional days. Generally speaking, elementary schools in Canada require a minimum of five hours of instruction per school day, and secondary schools a minimum of five and one-half hours. Northwest Territories requires 1,600 minutes per week of instruction, with courses taught either on a school year or two equal semester basis. In Yukon, the school year consists of 950 hours of instruction, 15 of which are specified for non-instructional school activities. In British Columbia the minimum instruction time per year is 1,045 hours during the academic year and a variety of organizational systems (bi-semester, tri-semester, quarter, ten-month) are used; the ten-month and bi-semester are most common (CMEC, 1991).

6.3 Teaching languages at the different levels

Teaching languages and curriculum

With the exception of Saskatchewan, all provinces and territories in Canada have established a core curriculum of about 80 per cent provincially defined courses and 20 per cent locally developed curriculum. Yukon uses the British Columbia curriculum, and the Northwest Territories adapts the Alberta curriculum, through cooperative arrangements developed by all four jurisdictions.

Canadian elementary school programs range from rigidly timed, content-based programs to flexible, integrated programs; some combine both approaches. Secondary-level programs tend to be more content focussed, but variations occur as to the balance of compulsory subjects and electives. A trend to the requirement of more core curriculum credits for secondary school graduation is exemplified by developments in Nova Scotia and Alberta (CEA, 1993a; 1993b).

The degree to which schools and school districts are inspected by ministries or departments for their fidelity to curriculum guidelines varies from province to province. Beginning in the 1970s, some provinces relaxed their prescriptive lists of texts for use in the classroom. Local administrative discretion in the supervision and evaluation of teachers is generally circumscribed by collective agreements: teachers in Canadian public schools are generally members of teacher federations or associations.

Kindergarten and private nursery schools are designed to encourage children's physical, intellectual, social, and emotional development. Elementary students usually focus on the *core subjects*: language, mathematics, science, social studies, fine arts, physical education, and personal and social skills. In some schools, religious instruction or additional languages are also offered.

The first secondary years are devoted mainly to compulsory subjects, with some optional subjects. Core courses at the secondary level are often offered with different degrees of difficulty, giving students the option of which course level to take. In the latter years, the number of compulsory subjects is reduced, permitting students to spend more time on specialized programs that prepare them for the job market, or to take the specific courses needed to satisfy entrance requirements of colleges or universities.

Many school boards now offer French immersion programs, where English-speaking children are taught some or all of the subjects using French as the language of instruction. However, the amount of time devoted to French immersion and the levels at which it is offered may vary. Over the past number of years, participation in French immersion programming has continued to increase in Canada, most prominently in Ontario. In 1992-93, 7 per cent of non-francophone students outside Quebec were enrolled in these programs, while 25.4 per cent were enrolled inside Quebec (CESC, 1996a).

In 1996, Mandarin immersion — for students not fluent in either Cantonese or Mandarin — will be offered for the first time at selected schools in British Columbia (CEA, 1995b); Punjabi will also be introduced as a language of instruction in a select number of British Columbia schools.

A K-6 Dene curriculum for natives was introduced across the Western Canadian Arctic. It encompasses the language, culture, and ways in which the five Dene nations view the world (CEA, 1994a). Yukon has a Native Language Centre, a Yukon Native Teachers' Program, a native language curriculum coordinator, and native language programs.

6.4 The evaluation system (examinations, tests, etc.) at the different levels

Student assessment

Continuous progress is the norm at elementary levels, meaning that children are rarely retained for another year at the same grade level, despite achievement levels. Rather, to help improve student performance, various types of remediation are used, within the regular classroom on an individualized

basis, or in a resource centre within the school for a limited period of time. At the secondary level, credit systems and promotion by subject, rather than grade, is the usual custom. Depending on the jurisdiction, children proceed to a secondary education program after six to eight years of elementary education. Secondary school diplomas are granted to students who pass the compulsory and optional courses of their programs.

In some provinces, such as Quebec, Alberta, and British Columbia, the ministry or department of education evaluates what students have learned by conducting uniform province-wide examinations, such that a student's award of standing is shared between the ministry and the local school board. Other provinces (e.g., Newfoundland and Labrador) conduct a standardized test (such as the Canadian Test of Basic Skills) to monitor student performance. In Ontario, examinations are set and marks awarded by local school boards; however, as a result of the 1995 announcement, Ontario-wide comprehensive testing in reading, writing, and mathematics is to be carried out by the newly established (February 1996) Education Quality and Accountability Office (MET, 1995).

In the context of national assessment, in April 1993, an assessment of *mathematics content* and *mathematics problem-solving* was administered under CMEC's SAIP to a random sample of 13- and 16-year-old students from all provinces and territories except Saskatchewan (which chose to concentrate on its own indicators and assessment programs). The indicators are arrayed at five levels of increasing difficulty and complexity. The results for the *mathematics content* assessment indicate that 64 per cent of the 13-year-olds sampled are achieving at level 2 or above and 60 per cent of the 16-year-olds are at level 3 or above. Of some concern are the approximately 40 per cent of 16-year-olds who are not achieving as high as level 3, since the concepts and skills of that level represent content usually taught to students before they are 16 years old. In *mathematics problem solving*, there is a marked increase in the number of students performing at level 3 and above at age 16, as compared with age 13. This gain is slightly more evident for male students than for females. However, very few students reached levels 4 and 5 (SAIP, 1993).

A CMEC SAIP reading and writing assessment was administered in April 1994 to a random sample of 50,000 thirteen- and sixteen-year-old students. In the *reading assessment*, a majority read well at age 13 (80 per cent at level 2 or better), and very well at age 16 (72 per cent at level 3 or better). In both age groups, girls performed better than boys, and French students better than English students¹⁰. In the *writing assessment*, a large majority of students wrote well at age 13 (90 per cent at level 2 or better), and very well at age 16 (80 per cent at level 3 or better). In both age groups, girls performed better than boys, and English students better than French students (SAIP, 1994).

6.5 *Certificates awarded for primary and secondary studies*

See Appendix 5.

¹⁰ These results must be approached with caution. Although every effort was made by SAIP to produce equivalent assessments for the two linguistic groups, equivalency is difficult to achieve.

6.6 *The dropout rate for primary and secondary levels*

According to Statistics Canada's *School Leavers Survey*, of students who leave school before graduating, 22 per cent said they preferred work to school, 20 per cent cited boredom, 8 per cent spoke of problems with school work, 8 per cent cited financial reasons, and 9 per cent (of females only) said they quit because of pregnancy or marriage-related reasons (StatsCan, 1994d). The same survey revealed that unemployment rates were twice as high for dropouts as for those who had completed secondary school. Nearly half of those who had quit school regretted the decision and a similar proportion said they had returned to school to continue their education. The latter point has proved critical in the re-examination of dropout rates. In a 1993 Statistics Canada report, *Leaving School*, it is suggested that the national dropout rate is 18 per cent, if researchers account for students dropping out and later returning to school and students transferring to other provinces or to vocational and work experience programs (CEA, 1994b).

6.7 *Data concerning repetition*

6.8 *The promotion rate of pupils:*

- *from primary education to lower secondary education*
- *from lower secondary to upper general or technical secondary*
- *from upper general or technical secondary to postsecondary or university studies*

Graduation rates

Appendix 14 illustrates high school graduation rates for females and males. Females have higher rates than males across the country, by about 10 per cent. Appendix 15 shows graduation rates of 15- to 19-year-olds, which rose from 66 to 73 per cent between 1988-89 and 1992-93. In 1992-93, graduation rates ranged from 26 per cent in the Northwest Territories to 83 per cent in New Brunswick. The above graduation rates are based solely on youth statistics. There has also been strong growth in adult graduations, particularly in Ontario and Quebec. The overall trend is towards increased graduation rates across all age groups in Canada.

6.9 *Average number of pupils per class at the pre-primary, primary and secondary levels*

Figures on the pupil/teacher ratios (PTR) and class size are hard to come by, since, in the definition of the PTR, all school personnel who come in contact with students, apart from janitorial and cafeteria staff, are included in the teachers number. However, below is some contextual information.

Canada's teachers are spread throughout the provinces and territories. In total (according to the 1994-95 estimates) there are 288,058 full-time teachers in public schools, 17,634 in private schools, and 3,221 in federal schools, for a total of 309,495 at the elementary-secondary levels.

In 1994-95 there were 16,041 elementary and secondary schools: 14,036 public; 1,557 private; and 431 federal.

Actual student enrolment figures continue to outpace projections. In 1991-92 there were 4,915,630 students in public elementary and secondary schools, 26,988 more than projected. In 1993-94 there were 5,022,351, some 38,484 over projected figures. Projected estimates for 1995-96 indicate 5,159,424, some 94,433 more than originally projected. Given the fact that the number of teachers is declining, it would appear that the PTR is increasing. The most recent PTR in public and private elementary-secondary schools in Canada is that for 1992-93, which indicates a PTR of 17.78 in public schools and 16.31 in private schools.

7. Special education

7.1 Types of establishment, curricula and enrolments according to the target population

Canadian students with special needs are accommodated in the public schools in various ways. In some cases, separate programs are available to meet their needs (withdrawal); in other cases, these students are integrated into the regular classroom and follow, as much as possible, the regular program (integration) .

Special needs students are those who are assessed as having any one of the following exceptionalities: cognitive impairment, emotional impairment, learning disabilities, physical disabilities, communications disorders, sensory impairments — vision, hearing, multiple disabilities, and other health-related impairments. While many of these exceptionalities are innate, some may manifest themselves as the result of children being the survivors of war or victims of physical or sexual abuse. Finally, in many provinces, special needs students may also include gifted students.

In the 1970s and 1980s, legislation was passed in many jurisdictions in Canada with the intention of ensuring that children with special needs had access to suitable education programs and services. This legislation has been supplemented by a large regulatory framework. A great deal of debate still occurs around what is best for a specific child (integration or withdrawal; the drawbacks of labelling, etc.). The issue of integration in Canada has led teacher federations to demand better professional education for most regular class teachers, many of whom are daunted by the challenges of integration. Integration has also led to the growth in numbers of teaching assistants or aides who help teachers in classes with specific students. Specialized support to assess and place children, and to plan the program in special education, involves the always in-short-supply services of psychologists, translators, psychometrists, speech pathologists, and counsellors.

8. Private education

8.1 The responsible bodies, the legal bases, ways of operating, etc.

Private (sometimes called independent) elementary or secondary schools provide an alternative to publicly funded schools in Canada. All private schools operate outside the regular public system and are administered by an individual, association, or corporation (StatsCan, 1994c). About one-half of Canadian private schools have a religious affiliation. They may operate in any province or territory if they meet the general standards prescribed by that jurisdiction for elementary and secondary schools. Although in most cases private schools closely follow the curriculum and diploma requirements of the ministry responsible for education, they are independent from the public system and may espouse the life values of the communities they represent. Some private schools deliver certain pedagogical specialties, such as Montessori schools; some focus on certain talents, such as schools for the arts or for hockey; some address the needs of exceptional students, such as schools for the gifted or for the emotionally disturbed. Private schools are generally smaller than public schools (almost 75 per cent have fewer than 200 students), though PTRs are quite similar.

8.2 Types of school and curricula at the different levels and enrolments

Private school enrolment was 286,312 in Canada in 1995-96, compared to 5,159,424 for public schools. Notably, private school enrolment was estimated by CTF to have grown 4.2 per cent from 1994-95 to 1995-96, while public enrolment grew just 1.8 per cent (see Appendix 16). Over this period, Nova Scotia, Alberta, and British Columbia showed year-over-year gains in private school enrolment last year. Appendix 17 reveals that since 1971, there has been a gradual increase in the private school enrolment in Canada (except for an interruption in 1985 due to the extension of public funding to grades 11-13 for Ontario Catholic high schools). Public enrolment, on the other hand, dipped significantly from 1971 to 1985, then rose slightly thereafter (bolstered by Ontario Catholic funding and also by the baby boom echo, i.e., children of Canada's baby boom generation reaching school age). Private enrolment now represents 5.2 per cent of total enrolment, compared to 2.5 per cent in 1971. Historical data on private school enrolment by province or territory is shown in Appendix 18.

It should be noted that recent public school choice offerings have served to forestall the growth of private schools by providing parents with an alternative within the public system. For example, in Alberta, the city of Edmonton public board recently approved full funding for a fundamentalist Christian school (Laghi, 1996). In 1991, independent school legislation was introduced in Saskatchewan. The new legal framework balances the educational interests of children enrolled in independent schools, their parents, and the public. It acknowledges the rights, freedoms, and legal principles that form part of our democratic society. In Saskatchewan, independent school enrolment has remained constant, ranging from 3,143 in 1991 to 3,004 in 1996.

Another private school option that appears to be gaining popularity is tutoring (Fleming, 1993), which is offered by individuals or private agencies specializing in one-on-one or small-group teaching.

Such services are typically used after-hours by students from public and private schools. However, it would be fair to say that such services are less affordable for students from a lower socioeconomic background.

Over the past decade, a growing number of parents have gone one step beyond private schooling by assuming personal responsibility for the schooling of their children through home schooling. It is estimated that between 20,000 and 25,000 students in Canada are schooled at home (Hatton, 1993). In Alberta, home schooling jumped from 1,300 in 1990, to 6,000 in 1995 (Laghi, 1996); in 1993, home-based education legislation was introduced in Saskatchewan. School divisions were delegated the responsibility of registering home schoolers, and as a result, receive provincial funding. In Saskatchewan, home school registrations jumped from 730 in 1993 to 1,113 in 1996. Provinces and territories permit home schooling but ensure parent accountability through a registration process and guidelines and policies set by jurisdictions for monitoring student progress. Parents of home schooling typically receive provincial funding to defray costs associated with learning at home. In a sense, then, home schooling is privately located schooling supported through public funds.

From a more general perspective, privatization of education can occur in subtle or partial ways. CTF presents a private/public model along two dimensions: producer and purchaser (CTF, 1995b). They argue that the government or the private sector can act as either producer or purchaser of educational services. For example: school construction and transportation is often produced through private contractors, purchased by school boards; monopoly franchises for school food service represents private production and private purchase; tuition fees charged for postsecondary public education are partially private purchases of publicly produced services; indeed, even a small part of public elementary/secondary revenues (about 2.6 per cent in 1994-95) are derived from nongovernmental sources. Thus the production and purchase of Canadian educational services often entails both private and public elements.

As for postsecondary education, Canada has many private colleges, mainly of religious affiliation, some of which grant degrees. Numerous private colleges receive public support in Quebec (Kitchen & Auld, 1995). The Alberta government allows out-of-province colleges such as Union College, Nebraska, to grant degrees; two out-of-province institutions operate at the undergraduate level and seven others at the graduate level. Royal Roads University in British Columbia is attempting to become self-sufficient through tuition and private partnerships, and some experts are now calling for private universities in Canada (Lewington, 1996).

9. Higher education

Overview

Postsecondary education in Canada is delivered through universities, colleges, and various other organizations (such as British Columbia's Open Learning Agency, which uses province-wide television for university distance learning), institutes (such as the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied

Science and Technology), and private entities (such as private colleges offering degrees, often in theology). The postsecondary academic year usually begins in August or September and ends in May or June, though many institutes operate on a year-round, trimester basis.

Once secondary school has been successfully completed, a student may apply to a college or a university. Older (mature) students may sometimes be admitted to Canadian colleges without having completed secondary school. In Quebec, in order to be admitted to a university, students must first obtain a college diploma. Quebec colleges (*cégeps*) are tuition-free and provide an intermediate level of education between secondary school (which ends at after eleven years of study) and university. *Cégeps* offer two types of programs: a general two-year program leading to university admission, and a three-year vocational and technical program preparing students for the labour force. In Ontario, students currently must complete six Ontario Academic Courses in order to be admitted to university. In all other Canadian provinces and territories, students complete secondary school after grade 12, then choose between college and university.

Most of Canada's university-level institutions, especially those in larger cities, offer a wide range of programs, including arts and science programs, as well as professional programs in areas such as law, engineering, and medicine. Other universities are more specialized, and have developed areas of excellence (e.g. the Ontario College of Art, which is authorized to grant only diplomas, but which is treated as a university for funding purposes). It is possible to study in university at three different levels — bachelor's, master's, or doctoral (Ph.D.). In addition to degree programs, many universities offer diploma and certificate programs at either the undergraduate or graduate level (CESC, 1996b). Also specialized institutions such as the British Columbia Open University, Athabasca University in Alberta, and *Télé-université* in Quebec offer university programs through correspondence courses and distance education.

Universities usually offer undergraduate (bachelor's) and graduate (master's and doctoral) programs. Bachelor's degrees can take either three or four years of study, depending on the program and the province. Universities in some provinces grant general pass degrees in three years and require a fourth year for an honours degree. Other provinces require four years of study regardless of whether it is for a general or an honours degree. Master's degrees require one or two more years of study after completion of an honours bachelor's degree. Some may require a thesis or a professional internship. Doctoral or Ph.D. degrees usually require three years of study after a master's degree. Most students need much more time to complete a Ph.D., the average being four or five years. Doctoral degrees usually involve researching, writing, presenting, and defending a thesis, in addition to attending seminars for a specified number of courses.

In degree-granting institutions, the language of instruction is primarily English, though in many cases, courses are offered in French or in either language. Some English-language universities authorize French-speaking students to write their papers and examinations in French. These exist mainly in Quebec, but are also found in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta. In Quebec there are four French-language universities and three English-language universities. The largest French-language university, *Université du Québec*, has 11 constituent

institutions and serves about 80,000 full-time and part-time students across the province. The *Université de Moncton*, in New Brunswick, has three campuses and is the largest French-language university in North America outside of Quebec. Nova Scotia has the French-language *Université Sainte-Anne* and Manitoba has the *Collège Universitaire de Saint-Boniface*.

Most of Canada's 200 or so colleges¹¹ came into existence during the 1960s and 1970s to meet the practical demands of secondary school graduates not generally intending to go on to university. Colleges offer a variety of programs for developing applied skills in business, arts, technology, social services, and some health sciences — usually leading to diplomas and certificates after two to four years of study. Many colleges specialize by areas of study. For example, the Alberta College of Art specializes in visual arts and offers four-year programs in painting, printmaking, sculpture, textiles, ceramics, and other visual arts media.

Some colleges, especially in Western Canada, offer programs allowing students to finish their studies at university. In British Columbia, for instance, college students completing two years of academic credits can transfer to a university. Canada has a number of French-language community colleges or campuses, such as Manitoba's *École technique et professionnelle* at the *Collège Universitaire de Saint-Boniface*.

9.1 Distribution of student enrolment in universities and other postsecondary educational institutions by field and level of study

In 1993-94, 913,647 students were enrolled in Canadian universities — 585,200 full-time and 328,447 part-time (StatsCan, 1994a). In colleges, 570,000 were enrolled — 365,065 full-time (StatsCan, 1994a) and 181,040 part-time (CMEC, 1996). Detailed breakdowns by province are provided in Appendix 19¹².

Over the last twenty years, enrolments featured increased participation by women and non-traditional (older than 24) students (CMEC, 1996). Women now make up a slight majority of students in both colleges and universities (see Appendix 20). Gender and age trends for full-time college enrolment (see Appendix 21) reveal dramatic growth in the percentages of women and students aged 25 and older over the last two decades. For universities, enrolment trends by gender (see Appendix 22) indicate large increases in female enrolment in part-time and full-time university studies, for undergraduate and graduate programs. In 1992, 27 per cent of women from 18 to 21 years old were enrolled in a university program compared with only 21 per cent of males; in seven out of nine academic disciplines, women account for a strong majority of enrolment; while participation of women in university programs has been increasing in all disciplines since 1972, the participation rates

¹¹ Canadian colleges include community colleges, colleges of applied arts and technology, CEGEPs, technical schools, institutes of applied arts and science, and institutes of technology.

¹² Part-time community college figures are not shown in Appendix 19, but are provided in StatsCan (1996).

for men have been declining (men accounted for only 29 per cent of total enrolment in health/medical and education in 1991-92). In 1992, 38 per cent of the total female population from 18 to 25 years old held a bachelor's degree, compared to only 27 per cent of the total male population; at the master's level, the distribution is equal.

About 25 per cent of all postsecondary students are now older than 24 years of age. This trend reflects the increasing prominence of lifelong learning — the need for individuals to train and retrain throughout their lives in order to keep up with the dynamic work environment. This mature group comprises the majority of part-time students (StatsCan, 1995b). Many provincial governments are attempting to address rising adult participation rates. For example, the Alberta government undertook widespread public consultation and released *New Directions for Adult Learning in Alberta* in the fall of 1994.

Enrolment data *by field of study* for universities and community colleges are shown in Appendices 23 and 24, respectively, for the years 1982, 1986, and 1990. While it is evident that some fields are characterized by much higher male participation (in *universities*: e.g., engineering, forestry, computer science, meteorology, physical sciences; in *colleges*: e.g., electronics, transportation technologies, general and mechanical engineering technologies, environment and conservation), the gender gap appears to be narrowing in many areas. However, the mix of men and women graduates is relatively equal in many fields leading to high-paying careers, including medicine, law, optometry, and dentistry.

9.2 *Number of students carrying out their studies abroad (by field and level of study)*

No information available.

9.3 *Management of higher education systems; the autonomy of establishments, particularly in the management of financial resources*

Canadian higher education is a constitutional responsibility of the provinces and territories. Universities are relatively autonomous, board-administered institutions created through provincial acts of legislature, with responsibility for all academic matters, as well as having considerable flexibility in financial management and program offerings. Most universities have a two-tiered (bicameral) governance system including a board of governors (for finance and policy) and a senate (for program and admission requirements, degree requirements, and academic planning). The senate recommendations are subject to final approval of the board. Government intervention is usually limited to areas of finance, fees structures, and introduction of new programs. In some provinces, an intermediary body advises in these matters, such as the Ontario Council on University Affairs¹³, Newfoundland and Labrador's Council on Higher Education, Saskatchewan's Postsecondary

¹³ The Ontario Council on University Affairs was established by order-in-council in 1974 to provide independent advice to them minister on matters affecting universities, including funding requirements and funding eligibility of new programs. Ontario has more recently established the Franco-Ontarian Education and Training Council (FOETC/CEFFO), in 1994, and the Aboriginal Education Council, in 1991.

Advisory Council, the Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission¹⁴, and in Quebec, the *Conseil supérieur de l'Éducation*. Some intermediary bodies have the power to make core funding financial decisions, such as the Universities Grants Commission (UGC) in Manitoba¹⁵ and the Nova Scotia Council on Higher Education (CMEC, 1995a). Manitoba is in the process of establishing a Post-Secondary Education Council, which will combine responsibilities related to universities and colleges and replace the UGC.

A *federated* college or university is responsible for its own administration and has power to grant degrees. An *affiliated* institution has administrative independence, but no degree-granting powers (about 70 of the 90 university-level institutions in Canada grant their own degrees; some grant degrees in only a small number of fields, such as theology). A *constituent* institution is subject to the authority of a parent university in terms of both degree-granting and administration.

Colleges tend to be more closely regulated than universities, since they are important government instruments for policy adaptation. Most colleges have a board of governors appointed by the provincial government or by a municipality. In some cases boards are elected. Government representation on boards is common. Generally speaking, governments influence admission policies, curriculum, planning, and working conditions. Also, members from community, business, communities, and labour provide input either through board representation or by serving on board advisory committees.

In Ontario, the Council of Regents for the Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology advises the Minister of Education and Training on system-wide issues faced by the 25 colleges of applied arts and technology. The Quebec Council of Colleges performs a similar role in that province.

9.4 *Methods of evaluating the performance of establishments*

There is no national accrediting body in Canada for evaluating universities or programs. At the provincial level, legislative acts grant charters to postsecondary institutions. Membership in AUCC or ACCC is a general indication that an institution is meeting acceptable standards. For colleges and universities, external peer review takes place through AUCC. Provincial or regional bodies may also oversee quality control, for example the Ontario Council on University Affairs and the Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission. For many professional programs, regulatory agencies or professional associations evaluate undergraduate and graduate programs. Finally, all institutions perform some type of self-assessment through internal review.

¹⁴ A collaborative effort involving New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, this commission has as its primary goal the achievement of more efficient and effective use of resources for higher education at a regional level.

¹⁵ The UGC acts as liaison between the provincial government and the universities by advising the government on block grants and targeted (specific-purpose) funding levels, approval of new programs, and major capital projects. The commission has a nine-member government-appointed board.

In Alberta in 1997, a postsecondary performance-based funding system will be introduced using such factors as graduates' satisfaction with their education, employment success, transferability between institutes, program costs, teaching workload, and research quantity and quality (CMEC, 1995b).

9.5 *Matching the number of graduates in different fields of training with needs of the employment market*

The needs of the Canadian employment market are changing. According to Lowe (1992, p.50), "half of all occupations now entail the creation and use of data and knowledge ... information-based jobs will increase as the service sector develops." It is not surprising, then, to see so many adult students educating themselves, since data and knowledge technologies evolve quickly and many adults have had limited exposure to these developments. Growing industries — such as communications, finance, health and welfare services — require a postsecondary certificate/diploma or a university degree from a higher proportion of their workforce than other industries (CESC, 1996a).

The question of whether postsecondary graduates' education gives them the requisite skills for entering the workforce was addressed by CESC (1996a), which states, "young workers are not trapped in jobs unrelated to their education" (p.90). A survey of 1986 graduates found that, in 1991, career/technical and trade vocational graduates reported 60 to 70 per cent levels of direct relationships between education and employment. For university graduates, the relationship was 58 per cent for bachelor's graduates, 64 per cent for master's, and 75 per cent for Ph.Ds.

The important relationship between education and work has been addressed recently in Canada through a variety of innovative programs. Holland College in Prince Edward Island, for instance, is the first Canadian educational institution to offer a *warranty to employers* for its graduates. The college will retrain in cases where the knowledge, skills, and values of graduates are deemed unsatisfactory in the workplace (StatsCan, 1994d). Industry advises the college closely on curriculum and skills-oriented employment-driven training programs (CMEC, 1995b).

Postsecondary institutions, usually colleges, offer training under contract with the private sector, enabling a direct link between education programs and market needs. For example, Arctic College in the Northwest Territories has markedly increased contracts with employers. The Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology offers cooperative education programs in business and engineering technologies, giving students a chance to earn valuable workplace experience (CMEC, 1995a). Evidence indicates that cooperative program graduates are about 10 per cent more likely to be hired before the end of their studies or within one month of graduation (StatsCan, 1995a). In Quebec, the University of Sherbrooke collaborates with businesses to offer made-to-measure training programs.

Thus, there appears to be a moderately strong link between the needs of the employment market and the skills provided by Canada's postsecondary education systems. However, the picture is not entirely positive for Canadian graduates. We shall see below that many Canadian graduates currently cannot find work, especially those students in particular fields or from certain regions of Canada.

9.6 *Causes of graduate unemployment and underemployment and the worst affected categories*

1993 unemployment rates¹⁶ by level of educational attainment in Canada were: 16.8 per cent for those with only some secondary education, 11.4 per cent for high school graduates, 9.4 per cent for those with a postsecondary certificate/diploma, and 5.7 per cent for those with a university degree (StatsCan, 1996). Clearly, those with enhanced levels of education are less likely to face unemployment in Canada.

Unemployment rates two years after graduation for the classes of 1982, 1986, and 1990 are shown in Appendix 25, by province, and for Canada as a whole. Unemployment was highest for trade/vocational graduates (Canadian average of 20 per cent in 1990), and much lower for career/technical and university graduates (Canadian averages of 10 per cent and 11 per cent, respectively, in 1990). Unemployment was generally higher in Quebec and Eastern Canadian provinces for all categories.

The growing Canadian phenomenon of *part-time employment* also should be addressed in the context of work and education. In 1993, 17 per cent of all those employed worked part-time, compared to 11 per cent in 1976. Generally, part-time jobs carry less pay and fewer benefits, and are less stable. More education means less likelihood of part-time employment. For example, about 15 per cent of high school graduates work part time, compared to about 28 per cent of those with only 9-10 years of formal schooling (CESC, 1996a).

Earnings by field of study are another indication of the relationship between education and employment: Appendices 26 and 27 show university and college graduate earnings by field of study. For *university* graduates, the most lucrative fields are commerce/economics/law, engineering, education, and medicine/health. For *college* graduates, the most lucrative fields are engineering technologies, mechanical/structural engineering, electrical/math/computer sciences, and health sciences. University graduate incomes are generally higher than college graduate incomes, by about \$10,000 per year. The *earnings gap* between men and women averaged 9 per cent and 10 per cent for university and colleges graduates, respectively, in 1992 — a decrease from the figures of 13 per cent and 16 per cent in 1982 (StatsCan, 1994e).

Tuition fees

No discussion on Canadian postsecondary education would be complete without addressing the phenomenon of rising tuition fees. The Canadian Tuition Fee Price Index rose 9.4 per cent for the 1994-95 academic year, well ahead of the Consumer Price Index increase of 1.5 per cent (StatsCan, 1995a). This has been the pattern for the past decade, especially for the past five years, as depicted in Appendix 28. Quebec tuition fees rose most dramatically from 1985-86 to 1995-96, up 223 per cent as compared to the national average rise of 134 per cent¹⁷. In Ontario, university tuition fees rose 10

¹⁶ For those 15 and over, searching for a job.

¹⁷ Mainly because Quebec traditionally offered the lowest tuition rates in Canada.

per cent in 1994-95, and are set to increase by a government-stated maximum of 20 per cent¹⁸ in 1996-97. The latter increase is an attempt to partially offset a recently-announced \$400 million cut in provincial support, which amounts to about 7 per cent of total expenditures¹⁹. Ontario college fees will increase 15 per cent in 1996-97.

In response to the increases in educational costs for students over the past ten years, changes have been made to student financial assistance programs. For example, student loan limits provided under the Canada Student Loan Program were increased by 57 per cent in 1994. Also related to increases in educational costs is the interest on the part of various governments and organizations in exploring income contingent loan repayment and other forms of assistance during loan repayment, such as the expansion of interest relief to low-income borrowers during periods of unemployment or under-employment.

9.7 *Data concerning the phenomenon of brain drain*

No data available.

9.8 *Particular provisions concerning the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education*

The Pan-Canadian Protocol on the Transferability of University Credits aimed to have all degree-granting institutions in Canada approve, adopt and implement by September 1, 1995, a pan-Canadian protocol providing for the transferability of first and second-year university courses (including the final years of studies leading to a diploma of college studies in Quebec and the university transfer courses offered by community colleges and university colleges in British Columbia and Alberta).

Universities have expressed support for inter-institutional student mobility, and many have entered into agreements with sister institutions with the express purpose of creating opportunities for students to complete a portion of their undergraduate studies at another institution. For example, a number of universities across Canada have formed the Canadian University Student Exchange Consortium (CUSEC) and the members of the *Regroupement des universités de la francophonie hors Québec* have put in place a student exchange program. Within these programs, students are ensured full recognition by the home institution for the credits earned elsewhere.

The senates of the universities in Nova Scotia have already implemented a policy providing for full transferability of first- and second-year courses within the Nova Scotia university system. The

¹⁸ Assuming 10 per cent of any new revenues are set aside to provide financial assistance for students in need.

¹⁹ Since tuition fees represent about 25 per cent of total revenues, a 20 per cent increase in fees will increase revenues by only about 5 per cent, which would partially offset the 7 per cent decrease in funding due to \$400 million in provincial cuts.

University of Prince Edward Island has gone a step further and has committed to recognize credits earned at any university in Canada.

The protocol in no way infringes on the academic autonomy of the university, does not reflect on the policies and practices used by the universities in deciding upon the admissibility of students who apply for admission with advanced standing, and is consistent with the integrity of university programs and the right of universities to determine program design and delivery, to determine academic prerequisites and to establish admission criteria and certification requirements of academic achievement.

The Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials (CICIC) collects, organizes and distributes information, and acts as a national clearing house and referral service to support the recognition and portability of Canadian and international educational and occupational credentials.

CICIC was set up after Canada signed the UNESCO Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region, in 1990. The convention promotes international mobility for teachers, students, researchers, and professionals by advocating wider recognition of higher education and professional qualifications.

British Columbia, Alberta and Quebec have established agencies for providing assessment and recognition services. There are also private services operating in Ontario, British Columbia and Nova Scotia.

10. Means of instruction, equipment, and infrastructure

Introduction

In Canada, education infrastructure is by most standards adequate. Supplies of textbooks, classroom space, cafeterias, and residential accommodation, etc., are not crucial issues. Minor problems do exist, such as overcrowding in some schools, which has led to over-use of portable classrooms.

Instruction, equipment, and infrastructure issues that are important in Canada relate to two technological trends: (1) the emergence of *computers in education* at all levels, and (2) the development of *distance education*. Examples of Canadian developments in these two areas are listed below.

10.1 Sufficient/insufficient supply of school textbooks and other instructional materials, including computers, audio-visual equipment and other materials, compared to needs

Computers in education

- *SchoolNet*, launched in October 1993, is a cooperative venture of the federal, provincial/territorial governments and industry to link schools to national and international educational resources to be accessed by teachers and students; by summer 1994, SchoolNet had grown to include over 1,000 schools. Developments are now under way to bring SchoolNet to all schools, and to link with many more libraries, colleges, government agencies, community networks, and private telecommunications and network providers (CEA, 1994c).
- Thirteen universities from the four Western provinces have launched an electronic sharing of library resources, to be operable in late 1996. The project will allow professors and students to download information from a shared 7,000-journal database, and to probe and access catalogued materials from any of the university libraries. The result should be less duplication, and freeing up of funds for new acquisitions (Lewington, 1996).
- The Quebec government has set up the Quebec Centre for Research on Educational Applications of the Computer, which includes representatives from businesses, universities, and government. The goal of this agency is to set research priorities, finance promising projects, foster collaboration, and disseminate information (CMEC, 1995b). Quebec also has a network of 35 CEMISs (*Centre d'enrichissement en micro-informatique scolaire*), each serving a region or group of regions, as well as a software library whose principal mandate is to offer in-service training. Since 1994, the Quebec Ministry of Education has promoted the creation of the *Réseau de télématique scolaire québécois* (RTSQ), which now has over 50,000 users. The minister also unveiled in June 1996 a five-year action plan on the use of new information and communication technologies in schools, designed to increase the use of computers, telecommunications, and other high technologies in elementary and secondary institutions. In collaboration with private-sector partners, the ministry will ensure that all Quebec schools have access to the Information Highway by 1997. Finally, the ministry will promote maximum use of network connections by supporting several projects including the implementation of an education server, which will become a clearinghouse for educational information in the province.
- Almost all of the schools and communities in the Northwest Territories are linked to a Bulletin Board System (started in 1993) known as 'North of 60', which is connected to the Internet, and can support e-mail and conferencing for teachers and students.
- New Brunswick and Microsoft Canada formed a partnership to create an interactive virtual campus to deliver education electronically using Microsoft On-Line Institute; K-12 students will have home access to certified courses not available in their own schools, and mature students may use the service to finish high school. Premier Frank McKenna suggested the new technology could lead to export of school and university courses to other countries (CEA, 1995c).
- In the fall of 1994, the federal government initiated a new project, 'Computers for Schools', in cooperation with provincial/territorial governments and the private sector. The goal of this project is to find computer equipment and software that is no longer useful to government or business, in order to transfer it to schools (a maximum of six computers per school). Schools with low wealth or low current computer inventory are given priority (CEA, 1994d).
- Acadia University in Wolfville, Nova Scotia, announced that all new students will be required to lease laptop computers (annual charges of about \$1,000 per year will be built into tuition fees), enabling access to Internet anywhere on campus. The provincial initiative is supported by IBM Canada Ltd., Maritime Telegraph and Telephone Co., Ltd., and Marriot Corp. (*The Globe and Mail*, March 5, 1996).

- The *Education Network of Ontario (ENO)* offers computer conferencing and e-mail to education stakeholders in Ontario. ENO involves collaboration between the province, school boards, supervisory officers' organizations, and the Ontario Teachers' Federation
- In British Columbia, a five-year technology plan began in 1995. Under the plan, schools and students are provided with up-to-date information and access to computer technology. Integration of technology through the BC education system as both a tool and subject area will ensure that students acquire the level of technological literacy necessary for today's labour market.

Distance education

As an evolving means of instruction, distance education is utilized to a great extent across Canada, especially in postsecondary education. Because of Canada's expansive geography, high demand for education, respect for equality of opportunity, and technological know-how, Canada has become a world leader in distance education. K-12 correspondence courses are a brand of distance education with a long history in Canada, originally offered through mainly print-based media (CMEC, 1994). Correspondence enrolments totalled 225,321 for 953 courses in 1994. While technologies other than print are now used, print continues to provide an important distance education medium.

In 1994, 54 per cent of universities and 68 per cent of colleges were active in distance learning, with involvement expected to climb even further. Canada also uses broadcast television education consortia to reach large percentages (usually 95 per cent or more) of households in various provinces. For instance, the Alberta Access Network offers 7 credit courses, and *Radio-Québec* offers 40. Print and telephone (for tutoring, audio-conferencing) are the most common media for distance education; other technologies include videocassettes, audiocassettes, and television. Since only about 22 per cent of Canadian households own personal computers, this medium has not yet been utilized on a grand scale for distance education, because of equity considerations (CMEC, 1994).

Other examples of Canadian distance education include²⁰:

- Alberta, British Columbia, and Quebec have each developed open universities, with open admissions policies, serving primarily part-time students over the age of 24. Programs typically utilize home study materials, audio and video tapes, television, and teleconferencing, sometimes augmented by telephone tutors. British Columbia's Open University, operating through the non-profit Knowledge Network, uses satellites and province-wide television for distance learning for full-time and part-time programs leading to two-year associate degrees and four-year bachelor's degrees in arts and sciences.
- Manitoba's three universities collaborate on Inter-Universities North, a distance education program bringing university courses to 16 communities in northern Manitoba.
- *Télé-université* in Quebec, as part of the *Université du Québec*, is the only French-language university in North America specializing in distance education. It offers full- and part-time diploma and certificate programs as well as undergraduate communications home-study degrees. *Télé-*

²⁰ Taken primarily from *Distance Education and Open Learning: A Report*, December 1994, Occasional Paper Number 1 (CMEC, 1994).

université offers a *certificat en informatique appliquée à l'organisation* — an undergraduate certificate of 30 credits (10 courses), which began in the fall of 1992, offering training delivered to the workplace involving new technologies and related skills. Diploma-track secondary- and college-level courses are also offered by the *Société de formation à distance des commissions scolaires du Québec* (SOFAD) and the *Centre collégial de formation à distance*, respectively.

- The province of Ontario established Contact North/*Contact Nord* in 1986, a distance communication network delivering almost 600 secondary, college, and university programs to 9,000 students in 110 Northern Ontario communities; and *Collège des Grands Lacs* is an open learning college of applied arts and technology.
- All four of New Brunswick's universities have distance education programs, using telecommunications technology and on-site instruction to reach communities across the province.
- Nova Scotia Community College uses Network Nova Scotia to provide audio-video telecommunication distance learning to communities across the province. Also, *Collège de l'Acadie* has six learning centres linked through video-conferencing, allowing students to interact with other students and faculty throughout the province. These two distance learning networks are a collaborative effort of the Maritime Telegraph and Telephone Company and the provincial government.
- Memorial University of Newfoundland and Labrador offers distance education to remote communities through audio tapes, satellite links, and other communication media.
- Television Northern Canada (TVNC) was licensed in 1991 to serve northern native Canadians with cultural, social, political, and educational programming. TVNC covers an area equal to one third of Canada, serving 100,000 people, and involves institutes such as Yukon College, Katvik School Board, and Labrador Community College.

10.2 *Production and importation of school textbooks for the different levels of education*

No information available.

10.3 *Sufficient/insufficient supply of classrooms, school transport, school cafeterias, residential accommodation, etc.*

Not applicable.

11. **Non-formal education**

11.1 *Types of establishment and programs, as well as enrolments, particularly concerning (a) literacy courses; (b) courses intended for street children and other disadvantaged children; and (c) community programs*

Non-formal education generally lies outside of the traditional educational classroom domain, and may include credit and non-credit education. It includes a broad range of activities, such as structured training, courses, seminars, workshops, and tutorials (HRDC and StatsCan, 1992). Many include some form of computer-assisted instruction. Canadian school boards, jurisdictions, colleges and

universities, businesses, and governments offer a wide array of non-formal education, involving literacy, computers, arts and crafts, and many other topics (Berg, 1995). Distance education or on-campus media may be used. Adult training for job-related skills can take place in a variety of locations — educational institutions, community centres, private business schools, employers' premises.

Adult education has been covered by Quebec education legislation since 1988, in recognition of the considerable expansion of this sector over the past 30 years. Specific services are offered to adults in the secondary, college, and university sectors. Under the legislation, adult education services can be offered in the secondary sector by two networks, one formal (school boards and private institutions) and one informal (independent popular education and literacy groups and private training organizations, including internal corporate programs). The formal network is governed by the adult general training educational services framework, which includes training services, teaching services, training support services and additional services for this client group.

About 5.8 million Canadians participated in adult education/training activities in 1992, or 28 per cent of all Canadian adults²¹. Employer-supported trainees numbered about 2.9 million. About one-third of all participants cited personal reasons for courses taken, while two-thirds wanted job-related skills upgrading (StatsCan, 1996).

Universities and colleges often offer non-formal training through open universities, distance education, cooperative education²², apprentice programs, and adult education. Special provisions have been made to facilitate the involvement of women, native people, economically disadvantaged groups, the handicapped, senior citizens, visible minorities, immigrants, and those living in remote areas (CMEC, 1995a).

Canadian businesses may use non-formal means to train employees, at their own expense or through government support (e.g., the Federal Labour Force Development Strategy). Employer-supported education and training, whether formal or informal, is most often directed to higher-educated, middle-aged employees (CESC, 1996a).

Non-formal programs are also offered by various non-profit organizations and associations of professionals.

12. The situation of teaching staff

²¹Defined as persons over 16 not attending an educational institution full-time.

²² Cooperative education implies that a student *alternates* between on-campus study and off-campus, experience related work, leading to academic credit.

12.1 Numbers of teachers working in different levels and types of education according to the level of their qualifications (first, second or third degree) and their professional training

Teacher profile

The number of educators steadily increased between 1985-86 and 1991-92, with a rate of increase usually surpassing the rate of increase in enrolment. In 1992-93, there was a slight decrease in the number of educators (0.3 per cent), compared to a 1.5 per cent increase in enrolment. In 1993-94 there were 300,797 educators working in elementary/secondary schools, 575 educators in schools for the blind and deaf, 27,260 educators in community colleges, and 37,880 educators in universities, for a grand total of 366,512 full-time educators (StatsCan, 1994a).

The proportion of elementary/secondary educators 45 years of age or older increased from 23 per cent in 1981-82 to 41 per cent in 1992-93. In the decade of 2001 through 2010, a large number of educators will be retiring or nearing retirement. Nationally, more than 45 per cent of the 1992-93 educator work force could be in this category.

Gender equity appears to be gaining ground in the teaching profession. Although a majority of the administrative positions in public schools are still held by men, women educators have made steady gains. While women occupied 15 per cent of administrative positions in 1981-82 and 16 per cent in 1984-85, they held about 23 per cent of such positions in 1989-90 and 29 per cent in 1992-93. Women constitute 61 per cent of all full-time elementary/secondary educators in Canada (CESC, 1996b). As for postsecondary educators, in 1993-94, 40 per cent of college professors were female, and 22 per cent of university professors (StatsCan, 1996). Clearly, women have some way to go before achieving equity in postsecondary teaching ranks.

School teachers' education levels are up sharply over the past two decades. In 1970, only 37 per cent of teachers held a university degree (mainly secondary teachers). At that time, ministry/department expectations for qualifications changed, such that both elementary and secondary school teachers had to upgrade their qualifications to university degree levels. Some upgrading took place within the many newly established faculties of education, which replaced the normal schools and teachers' colleges that for decades were the mainstay of teacher education. By 1990, fully 80 per cent of Canadian teachers had a university degree.

The pay category or position on the grid to which a teacher is assigned is directly related to two factors: years of university education and professional training to a maximum of a master's (sometimes a doctorate) in a relevant field; and experience, to a maximum of 7-14 years, depending on the school board. The salary gains made by the large cohort of teachers in the 1970s and 1980s are largely attributable to the combination of these two factors, as well as cost-of-living adjustments applied to the entire grid to ensure incomes at any point in the grid kept pace with inflation. The average salary of educators in Canada increased from about \$45,000 in 1988-89 to about \$56,000 in

1992-93, or almost 25 per cent²³ (CESC, 1996b). At the same time, the Consumer Price Index increased by only 14 per cent. These relatively strong increases, however, have been largely offset more recently by the aforementioned restraint measures in all regions of the country.

12.2 Teacher workload at different levels of education (average number of hours per week devoted to classroom teaching and other educational activities); the norms established by legislation and the actual situation

From 1982 to 1992, the average workload of full-time teachers increased by 1.5 hours at the national level, from 39.4 to 40.9 hours. The average number of hours usually worked by teachers also rose in each province. Over the 10-year period, two provinces — Alberta and Quebec — recorded increases greater than the national average. In 1992, teachers in Alberta worked 3 hours more on average than in 1982 (42.5 hours in 1992), while teachers in Quebec worked 2.2 hours longer (36.5 hours in 1992) (CESC, 1996a).

For the years 1982 and 1992, the profile of teacher workload by age changed. In 1982, young teachers starting out (aged 20 to 24) and those approaching retirement (aged 55 to 64) usually worked more hours per week on average than all other age groups. On the other hand, between 1982 and 1992, the workload for the young and old age groups dropped 1.2 hours per week to less than 40 hours, while it rose by more than one hour among the other age groups (25 to 54 years). Labour Force Survey data indicate that, for 1982 and 1992, male classroom teachers worked more hours on average than female classroom teachers: in 1982, men worked 2.0 hours per week more than their female colleagues; in 1992, the gap narrowed a little to 1.8 hours (CESC, 1996a).

In addition, compared with teaching staff, the workload of male and female administrators was heavier on average — nearly 3 hours per week more in 1982 — with the gap slightly wider in 1992. Male administrators worked an average 1.3 hours per week longer than women.

Continuity of employment is more marked among men than women in teaching. Job tenure is generally greater for male than female teachers, and the gap between men and women widened between 1982 and 1992. The same trend was noted regarding administrative staff for whom job tenure was much greater (StatsCan, 1994b).

12.3 Working and employment conditions for teaching staff, particularly for women (salaries, recruitment methods, pupil/teacher ratio, opportunities for promotion and in-service training, professional support during employment, etc.)

Teachers' working conditions depend on rules and regulations established by ministries or departments of education and policies of school boards that hire teachers. Many aspects of teacher

²³ The highest salaries were recorded in Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Ontario, while the lowest were recorded in New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Saskatchewan, and Prince Edward Island.

working conditions are also addressed in the contractual agreements signed by the appropriate bargaining unit of the provincial teacher federation/association.

A survey of 17,000 teachers for the Canadian Teachers' Federation reveals that a significant number of teachers are experiencing difficulties with, and have second thoughts about, teaching. Changing societal conditions and decreased faith in social institutions have created new pressures and uncertainties (King & Peart, 1992).

The rise in school violence in urban centres in the 1990s has also played a role in increasing stress within the classroom. In a 1991 survey conducted by the Ontario Teachers' Federation, 20 per cent of teachers interviewed said they worried about being physically assaulted 'sometimes' to 'almost always' (RCOL, 1995). The study reported 441 episodes of major physical assaults by students of teachers in Ontario during a three-year period, and 6,300 cases of minor abuse.

Other aspects of teacher working conditions are problematic: the pervasive sense of overload, i.e., the sense that teachers and schools are continuously being overburdened with too many tasks, many unrelated to direct educative functions; teachers feel that they are not properly consulted about the wisdom of certain policies and the plans for their implementation; the culture of teaching as presently constituted does not offer enough opportunity for collaboration and instead promotes teacher isolation; and the flat structure of schools offers little chance for promotion within the profession except for administrative positions (i.e., non-teaching roles).

Provincial cutbacks to education over the past few years in many provinces are also creating a great deal of stress, catalysed by possibilities of massive layoffs. In Ontario, for example, school boards are faced with the task of cutting \$400 million from their budgets in 1996-97, representing about 9.9 per cent of provincial transfers and 3 per cent of total (provincial and local) educational revenues. Since education is a labour-intensive field, cutting such a large amount of money in such a short period of time often means cutting jobs. Finding savings in administrative procedures or transportation simply will not suffice. The typical mechanisms boards rely on to cut costs are: cutting programs and involved teachers (such as junior kindergarten); reducing the amount of preparation time that teachers have each working day (one or two periods a day), so as to lower the number of teachers needed to cover all classes; and eliminating benefits such as sick leave gratuities. With cutbacks in a unionized work domain, the teachers most likely to lose their jobs are the youngest ones without tenure, teaching assistants, and teachers in non-core subject areas. Amid uncertainty on how to absorb provincial cuts, the Peel Board of Education²⁴ in Ontario recently sent lay-off notices to 519 teachers and teaching assistants (8 per cent of staff) on March 4, 1996, to take effect on August 31, 1996, unless positions are opened up through attrition and early retirement (Galt, 1996).

The *pupil/educator ratio*, a general indicator of the number of professional education staff per student, has a large bearing on teacher workload. From 1982-83 to 1994-95, the national

²⁴ The Peel Board of Education (just west of Metropolitan Toronto) is the third largest school board in Canada, with a relatively stable enrolment of about 96,000 students.

*pupil/educator ratio*²⁵ decreased from 18.4 to 15.8 in elementary and secondary schools (CESC, 1996b). However, with retrenchment and impending reduction of teachers, this ratio is set to increase substantially.

12.4 Regulations concerning the situation and social and professional status of the teaching staff and measures adopted to improve them.

No information available.

13. Pre-service and in-service training of education staff

13.1 Enrolments in different types of training establishments. The role of universities in teacher training

Pre-service teacher education

In Canada, two basic models for teacher education exist: a bachelor of education degree taken over four or five years (three years in Quebec) and a post-degree bachelor of education degree taken over one or two academic years. Both models are used for elementary and secondary school teacher training, and are a balance of academic and professional preparation. The professional aspect includes general and subject-specific theories of teaching and learning, and practical experience in the field. Entrance to the secondary school teacher post-degree programs require that the previous degree be a major in the subject area in which the student will specialize (Fleming, 1993).

Since the 1970s, both elementary and secondary teacher education programs have forged closer ties with universities, through the development of faculties of education. As faculties in a university setting, these institutions enjoy a large degree of independence in deciding course content and methods of delivery.

King's University College in Edmonton, Alberta, became the first private college in Canada authorized to grant bachelor of education degrees, beginning in the 1995-96 school year. The college offers a two-year, after-degree B.Ed. program in elementary education; graduates will receive Alberta Teaching Certificates. The college has limited B.Ed. degrees to 35 students per year, and will charge tuition of \$5,580 per year. The program is entirely self-financed. Opposition to this accreditation was voiced by the Alberta Teachers' Association, which contended that teacher preparation ought to be delivered through public universities (CEA, 1995d). Since then, Concordia University College of Alberta has also been authorized to offer a two-year after-degree B.Ed. program in elementary education.

²⁵ Educators include classroom teachers, consultants, guidance counsellors, resource teachers, and school administrators.

13.2 *The qualifications required to teach at different levels of education*

The teaching profession in Canada is generally held in high esteem and the remuneration is not unattractive — teachers' salaries range from \$30,000 to \$65,000 (with varying packages of benefits) for a ten-month work year. Despite the levelling off of demand for teachers in the last two decades, the supply of hopefuls who want to enter the profession continues unabated. Across Canada, close to fifty universities and institutions offer training leading to teacher certification. Newfoundland and Labrador and Prince Edward Island have one such institution each, while Ontario and Quebec have 10 each. Despite the abundance of institutions, only about 10 per cent or so of applicants are accepted for lack of space. High marks are usually the minimum prerequisite for entry into such institutions — letters of reference, work experience, and personal interviews are also increasingly used to screen applicants.

All jurisdictions except British Columbia have bilateral or multilateral agreements with the other provinces and territories for the recognition and transfer of teacher credentials. Provincial/territorial ministries and departments have special units to review applicants' transcripts before issuing a teaching certificate. In British Columbia this role is fulfilled by the College of Teachers, the professional governance body. Presumably, Ontario's recently established College of Teachers will perform a similar function.

13.3 *Elements of the pre-service training curriculum for teachers related to: (a) mastery of the subject matter; (b) pedagogical and methodological skills; (c) the capacity to develop human relations. Program elements corresponding to new expectations (education for democratic citizenship, intercultural/multicultural education, and education related to values, the environment, health, population, new technologies, art, media, sustainable development, etc.)*

Undergraduate education programs usually include primary/elementary and secondary education, vocational education, special education, native and northern education, human kinetics, and adult education, as well as special programs in art, music, industrial arts, second language, religion, daycare, and physical education. For example, the program at the University of British Columbia has several core courses that all students must take, such as introduction to principles of teaching, curriculum and instruction, and communication. There are also components on special education, native education, and multiculturalism as modules within courses. In the concurrent elementary program at the University of Regina, students take one introductory education and seven arts and science classes in their first year. The second, third, and fourth years include generic education classes called educational professional studies, methods classes in their specializations, and upper level methodology and/or arts and science classes, along with a graduated practicum (practice teaching). The practicum moves from one day a week in a school (second year) to a semester internship (fourth year). Human relations issues about under-represented groups are examined within the cross-cultural, social studies, and special education classes. The combination of educational professional studies and field experience is similar in the secondary program (Williams, 1995).

13.4 In-service training and self-improvement facilities for teachers; types of centres and programs, compulsory or optional training, regularity, the percentage of teachers involved

Generally speaking, there are no provincial mandatory requirements for in-service professional development across Canada, though Ontario's new College of Teachers promises action in this regard. Local school boards or schools may mandate in-service programs in relation to provincial or board priorities, using the five to ten professional development (PD) days each ministry/department schedules during the school year (students do not come to school on these days). All teachers and administrators take part in PD days, though not necessarily in the same activities. Board-organized PD days often offer a number of activities from which to choose.

There is some incentive for teachers to upgrade their qualifications in some area of speciality through further university/faculty study. For example, a teacher with a recognized master's degree in a teaching subject or a master's degree in education (subsequently accredited by the ministry or department) will be situated higher on the pay scale according to category. Many school boards subsidize at least some of the costs of these courses if the teacher is already in their employ. Such study is usually undertaken part-time. A variety of workshops, brief courses, summer institutes, and professional conferences are offered by teachers' federations and other agencies. Some are of general interest, others are highly specialized.

Regional consortia within provinces/territories, usually involving several school boards and/or universities, have increasingly played a major role in offering a variety of in-service programs. Professional development activities are usually made available to institutions on a cost-recovery basis, although federations may subsidize members for their programs. Subject councils (e.g., provincial associations of teachers of mathematics) contribute significantly to ongoing development of their members, through conferences, newsletters, or journals, and through professional development programs, especially for secondary school teachers. Educational television channels in British Columbia, Alberta, Ontario, and other provinces, regularly feature programming on specific professional development issues. TFO, the French arm of TVOntario provides an electronic bulletin board for education, where teachers and others can raise questions, share ideas, and debate issues of importance in either French or English. Regional education offices of the ministry/department in several jurisdictions also play an important role in providing ongoing professional support.

13.5 Training for school principals, inspectors, educational advisers and other educational staff

Many school boards require principals to hold a master's degree, usually in educational administration, leadership, or curriculum, before they will be hired. In some cases they must make a commitment to complete the degree within a specific period of time. Administrator associations generally play a strong role in specialized forms of professional development. Ontario is the only province in Canada that requires vice-principals and principals to qualify for a principal's certificate by taking a ministry-approved course, or to require a supervisory officer's certificate for supervisory school board staff and ministry education officers.

14. Education research

14.1 Objectives, fields of research (teaching, psychology, sociology, etc.)

A recent CEA (1995e) survey identified 213 units researching education in Canada. These units are of several types: universities, community colleges, federal government departments, provincial/territorial ministries, school boards, national organizations, provincial/territorial organizations, and others. Fields of research related to education for these units vary widely, but generally focus on curriculum, finance, policy, administration, women's studies, language, psychology, history, sociology, and philosophy.

As an example, the University of British Columbia has seven education research units listed in the CEA survey, involving a total of 250 faculty, 1300 graduate students, and numerous support staff: the Faculty of Education, Department of Curriculum Studies, Department of Language Education, Centre for Study of Curriculum and Instruction, Psycho-educational Research and Training Centre, Centre for the Study of Teacher Education, and Centre for Policy Studies in Education.

Education research is undertaken by the federal government at Health Canada, the Department of Justice, Heritage Canada, HRDC, and Statistics Canada. In addition, Industry Canada sponsors \$90 million in funding for the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, which administers grants and fellowships, some education-related, for mainly university research.

A number of Canada's largest school boards spend significant time and effort researching education and/or conducting pilot studies. For instance, the Halton Board of Education, near Toronto, has six full-time researchers with a current focus on assessment and retention.

Many national organizations also have education research as part of their mandate. AUCC, located in Ottawa, employs seven researchers to study the changing environment, university funding, student assistance, and governance. Examples of other national organizations include CTF, CSBA, CEA, the Roehrer Institute, and ACELF.

Provincial/territorial organizations, such as superintendents' associations, teachers' federations and associations, and trustee or school board associations, also undertake education research.

Finally, other organizations somewhat involved with Canadian education research include the Fraser Institute, the Canada West Foundation, the Assembly of First Nations, the Canada Council on Social Development, the Conference Board of Canada, the Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, the C. D. Howe Institute, the Institute for Research into Public Policy, the Canadian Tax Foundation, the International Development Research Centre, and the Walter and Duncan Gordon Foundation.

Canadian education research is disseminated through various channels. The primary ones are the Canadian Education Index (of the CEA), ONTERIS (the Ontario Educational Research Information System), and EDUQ (*Éducation Québec*).

15. Bilateral, regional, and international exchange programs

15.1 *Data concerning the exchange of pupils, teachers, school principals and educational researchers with foreign countries*

There were about 36,000 foreign students studying in Canadian universities in 1994: 20,200 undergraduates and 15,500 graduates (see Appendix 29). This represents a 33 per cent increase over 1987, but less than the peak of 37,254 recorded in 1991. In Alberta, for example, the majority of 1995-96 foreign students came from Hong Kong (1001), China (240), India (126), and the U.S. (109), though there was representation from a total of 99 other countries (CMEC, 1995a).

HRDC and Foreign Affairs and International Trade Canada recently launched programs aimed at promoting international mobility in higher education and training. Under the Program for North American Mobility in Higher Education and Training, consortia of universities and colleges in Canada, the United States, Mexico, and Europe undertake international joint activities focusing on increased institutional cooperation and academic exchange. These initiatives help to increase the development of institutional linkages designed to increase student mobility at the graduate and undergraduate levels, and strengthen the international dimension of higher education in Canada.

15.2 *Types and effectiveness of exchange programs*

Examples of educational exchanges between Canada and other countries abound. The British Columbia Pacific Rim Educational Initiatives Program includes study and tours relating to Asian language and culture; in 1990-91, about 600 students toured the Pacific Rim, and nineteen were selected to study there for one year (CMEC and HRDC, 1994). Alberta promotes intercultural awareness through various teacher and student exchange programs and school twinning with other countries. Saskatchewan Education and the Ukrainian Ministry of Public Education agreed in 1990 to share curriculum and to host student and teacher exchanges for high schools and universities. The secondary school Ontario Student Exchange Foundation and the Ontario Foundation of Educator Exchange have both increased exchange activities in recent years. Also in Ontario, Sheridan College began Japanese work placements in 1996, assisted by the Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada; the program is for graduating students in science and technology, and students prepare by taking Japanese language and culture courses. Quebec colleges and universities offer many services to foreign students from francophone countries — partly supported by wider cooperation among the *Association des universités partiellement ou entièrement de langue française*, as well as the *Agence de coopération culturelle et technique de la Francophonie*. In Nova Scotia, the Council on Higher Education facilitates student exchanges with New England.

There has also been some development of a Canadian global education curriculum in elementary and secondary schools, in part supported by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). Most provinces committed resources to the development of global education through advisory committees, teacher education, workshops, newsletters, conferences, exchanges, etc. The Alberta

Global Education Project hosted a national conference on the theme of global education in 1994. Unfortunately, CIDA announced termination of its Global Education Project support effective August 31, 1995, throwing further development of the program into jeopardy (CCEA, 1995).

15.3 Urgent educational needs for which foreign aid would be highly appreciated

Not applicable.

16. Challenges of the future

Problems, obstacles and difficulties in the development of education; future prospects

Information technology has exploded into all levels of the education systems. Equitable access — making infrastructure and networks available to all learners — promises to be a major challenge. The articulation of technology and education will also have an impact on pedagogy, quality, and efficiency. What traditional goals may become displaced, and what new goals promoted, in an electronic classroom? In a virtual future, will schools, colleges, and universities, once composed of brick and mortar, change their form? Will capital outlays for technological infrastructure prove wise and efficient investments?

The retrenchment movement sweeping across all levels of Canada will likely continue. Though federal and provincial/territorial governments have attempted to reduce public deficits, few have successfully eradicated long-term debt problems. Education, health, and social services will continue to compete for scarce public resources.

Retrenchment has led to restructuring and downsizing. As ministries and school boards amalgamate or even disappear, fewer — often substantially fewer — people are being called upon to do more. With cutbacks of middle-line program support personnel, will education support, planning, and design deteriorate? With 'last in, first out' contract bumping guidelines, will there be an adequate infusion of new teaching talent in schools for the rest of the 1990s and into the next century? Will new collaborative structures, instituted for efficiency reasons, have positive effects on education quality and effectiveness?

As budgets continue to shrink, some goals of public schooling may be seen as too costly, and others may be treated as constraints at best, to be satisfied at a minimum level. On the one hand, the increasing percentage of needy children and youth, changing family structures, and the demands of an increasingly diverse student body oblige educators to address social concerns and equity. Yet growing public demand for value-for-money schools, and recent curriculum and assessment initiatives, are pulling educators towards accountability for academic achievement. Does "what gets counted" count most?

The emergence of community/parent councils at the school level raises interesting issues. On paper, councils are advisory, but may bring conflict between school authorities and council members, and between members and parents, in a less compromising political culture. The momentum within teaching ranks for greater professional autonomy may or may not prove compatible with lay influence at the local level.

In conclusion, Canadian educators are moving toward the twenty-first century with excitement, anticipation, and some concern. Remaining faithful to excellence and equity, Canadians will attempt to defend and improve on what they have already built.

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