

**Final Report
Study of the Quality of
Education of First Nations'
People**

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Title

FINAL REPORT
STUDY OF THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION OF FIRST NATIONS' PEOPLE.

Prepared for

DEPARTMENT OF INDIAN AFFAIRS AND NORTHERN DEVELOPMENT.

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THE QUALITY OF INDIAN EDUCATION IN CANADA.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Evolution of First Nations Education Policy.

2.1 The Educational Attainment of First Nations People.

2.0 THE QUALITY OF INDIAN EDUCATION.

2.1) STANDARDS OF QUALITY IN INDIAN EDUCATION.

2.2) CURRICULUM PRACTICES AND ISSUES

2.2.1 The Need for Curriculum Modification and Development of Special Curriculum Materials.

2.2.2 The Indian School in the Community.

2.2.3 Native History, Culture and Values.

2.2.4 Native Language Instruction.

2.2.5 Academic Subject Materials.

2.2.6 Second Language Instruction.

2.2.7 Native History and Culture Courses.

2.2.8 Curriculum Modification.

2.3) SCHOOL FACILITIES

2.4) TEACHING STAFF

2.5) SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX 1. A LIST OF PROPOSED DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS.

- A) STRUCTURES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF THE INDIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.
- B) A CURRICULUM PLANNING CENTER AND CLEARING HOUSE
- C) STANDARDIZED TESTS - MODIFICATION AND DEVELOPMENT
- D) ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE AND READING PROJECT
- E) PROVINCIAL CURRICULUM MODIFICATION JOINT PROJECT
- F) COMPUTER-BASED LEARNING PROJECT
- G) ITINERANT SPECIAL SERVICES PROJECT
- H) ATTENDANCE INCENTIVES PROJECT.
- I) INTENSIVE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROJECT.
- J) NATIONAL INDIAN CORRESPONDANCE SCHOOL.

APPENDIX 2: COMPARATIVE SURVEY OF INDIAN AND PROVINCIAL SCHOOLS.

- A) FIGURES 1,2,3,5: SIZE OF SCHOOL.
- B) FIGURES 4,6: NATIVE TEACHERS AND NATIVE TEACHER AIDES.
- C) FIGURES 7,8: SCHOOL FACILITIES.
- D) FIGURES 9,10,13: MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION.
- E) FIGURES 11,16,21: PUPIL TEACHER RATIOS.
- F) FIGURE 12: SCHOOLS LACKING SPECIAL SERVICES.
- G) FIGURES 14,15,19: TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS.
- H) FIGURE 17: STAFF TURNOVER.
- I) FIGURE 18: INDIAN LANGUAGES AND INDIAN STUDIES.
- J) FIGURE 20: ATTENDANCE.

INTRODUCTION.

1.1 THE EVOLUTION OF FIRST NATIONS EDUCATION POLICY.

The education of native Canadians is dominated by one recurrent theme: The First Nations child lives in two worlds. There is, on the one hand, the traditional way of life, with its history, culture and values. On the other hand, there is the larger world of non-native Canada, with its own distinctive patterns and values. For the First Nations child, school is the place where the two worlds meet. The challenge for educators is to bridge these two worlds without compromising the integrity of either.

From an historical perspective, First Nations education in Canada falls into five distinctive periods. Each of these is distinguished by its particular educational philosophy and practices:

- o First Nations education prior to European contact
- o Missionary schools
- o Segregated schools for native students
- o Integrated education for First Nations education

Prior to European contact, the Native peoples of North America had well-established education practices for their young people. These centred around the teaching of the life skills, culture and customs that would prepare First Nations youth to assume future roles in their societies.

From the early 1600's to the middle of the nineteenth century, schools for native peoples were operated by the Churches. The missionary schools had several noteworthy characteristics: Basic formal instruction was given in the native languages, although French, and later, English, became more and more

widely used in the schools. The use of the native languages by the missionary educators however, remained a dominant feature of this period. It resulted in some significant advances that would have long-term effects on First Nations education. For example, in 1836, the Reverend James Evans produced the first Cree grammars and primers. Similarly, in 1833, Father Belcourt developed a Chippewa language grammar for use in his work.

The missionary school were generally integrated since acculturation and assimilation were the avowed goals of the authorities. First Nations children and the colonists' children attended the same schools. The pedagogical approach was European. Indeed, decisions regarding First Nations education were frequently made in France and England. First Nations leaders did not play an active part in the education of their children during this period. Rather, their interactions with the pre-Confederation governments were dominated by matters of trade and land.

The move toward segregated schools for First Nations students began in the 1850's. Initially, it was motivated by concerns of exploitation of native peoples. The churches built a number of residential schools and student residences for native pupils.

The passage of the BNA Act of 1867 entrenched the responsibility for First Nations education with the Federal Government. By 1900, the churches and the Government were operating sixty-one residential schools with a total enrolment of 3,257 First Nations students. For the next fifty years the large majority of First Nations children received their education in residential schools.

The establishment of residential schools for First Nations students had three important effects. First, it distanced the relationship between the school and the home. First Nations parents were no longer involved on a day-to-day basis with the

education of their children. The responsibility was effectively transferred to the churches which operated and managed the schools, and the Federal government, which provided the financial support through appropriations and per capita grants.

A second effect of church-run residential schools was that the type of education received by the students varied from school to school. Thirdly, the First Nations residential schools, insulated from the community and run almost exclusively by non-natives, lost most native characteristics.

The movement away from segregated education for First Nations students in residential schools began in the late 1940's. Between 1946 and 1948 the Special Joint Committee of the Senate and the House of Commons on the First Nations Act held public meetings across Canada. During these sessions there were repeated demands from First Nations groups for an end to the policy and practice of segregated education. This provided the impetus for integrated education for native youth.

From 1950 to 1970 there was a dramatic increase in native enrolment in the Provincial school systems. The Department of First Nations Affairs and Northern Development entered into joint school agreements with School Boards and Provincial Departments of Education for the education of native students in Provincial schools. By 1979 there were 683 such agreements providing for the education of approximately two thirds of the First Nations student population in Provincial schools.

The Hawthorn Report of 1967 captures the thinking of the time. It recommended that First Nations students be integrated into Provincial schools which provided better programs and a wider range of educational services.

An important effect of integrated education for native students was the introduction of Provincial curricula into Federal schools, and the upgrading of services to bring Federal schools in line with their Provincial counterparts.

The 1960's also saw increased involvement of First Nations parents in the education of their children. The impetus for this came from DIAND's encouragement of the formation of Parent Teacher Associations and School Committees in Federal schools. In 1963 the Department provided for the organizing and funding of these committees. Over the next decade they grew in number and scope and became a significant factor in the development of First Nations education as well as DIAND's education policies.

INDIAN CONTROL OF INDIAN EDUCATION

In 1969 the Federal government issued a White Paper proposing an end to all constitutional and legislative bases of discrimination against First Nations and advocating that all education services to First Nations be provided by Provincial agencies. These propositions were largely rejected by the First Nations community. The discussion of educational jurisdiction underlined the need for active First Nations participation in First Nations education. It also provided the impetus for First Nation people to explore alternatives to a Federally provided education.

This stance by First Nations associations and individuals was supported by the Report of the Fifth Standing Committee on First Nations Affairs in 1971. The report was critical of the "improvisation attitude of successive governments which regarded First Nations education as a passing thing soon to be handed over to the Provinces". It emphasised the need for a culturally relevant curriculum, pre-school education and special training for teachers of native students.

In 1972 the National First Nations Brotherhood presented its position paper on education to the Standing Committee on First Nations Affairs. In the paper, "First Nations Control for First Nations Education", the First Nations reclaimed the right to direct the education of their children. The paper identifies a number of specific needs:

- . the curriculum should be a positive reflection of native culture and heritage
- . the curriculum should be developed in cooperation with First Nations people
- . appropriate First Nations-oriented materials should be developed, and biased and inaccurate materials removed from the curriculum
- . native studies should be expanded, both as separate programs and as units in other courses
- . students should be given supplementary training in areas relevant to local community needs
- . pupils should be taught in the native language, with later transition to English
- . native languages should be preserved through instruction at school and teachers and teacher-aides should be conversant in the native languages
- . teachers should be trained in First Nations cultural education and in teaching English as a second language.

The Federal government accepted the principles of this report in early 1973. The paper emphasized that Native education must reflect Native heritage and goals and must enable parents to participate fully in their own social, economic, political and educational advancement.

The acceptance of the concept of voluntary local adoption of First Nations control of First Nations education represented a philosophical clarification of roles. By 1982 approximately 125 elementary and secondary schools were administered by First Nations bands and most bands were involved in major aspects of their children's education.

However there is still no "blueprint" for First Nations education. Since 1973 Native people have resisted all attempts by the Department to establish a general policy and administrative framework for the operation of a community (parent) controlled education system because they believe such a decision must be made by the local people themselves. There is no homogeneous Native community, and consequently each region, each tribal group, each band and each community has been struggling for the last decade with the development of a workable system. The provision of locally controlled education to Native children which is of comparable quality to that of other Canadian students is not yet achieved.

2.1 THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE INDIAN POPULATION.

For the first time the 1981 Census distinguished between Status First Nations, Non-status First Nations, and Non-First Nations. This allows us to compare the educational attainment of First Nations and Non-First Nations more precisely than has been possible in the past.

The picture we find is one of severe disparity. For example, although only 4.6% of Canadians in general have less than Grade 5 education, 18.7% of status First Nations living on reserve are in a similar position.

Looked at another way, 35.7% of Canadians have at least some college or university training, compared with only 10.2% of status First Nations on reserves. The percentage of status First Nations on reserve who have a degree is a miniscule 0.9%, about one tenth of the proportion on people with degrees in the general Canadian population.

Figures 1 and 2 show the comparative educational attainment of the general Canadian population and of status First Nations on reserve. It is clear that the First Nations population is disadvantaged in every category of qualifications.

Of course these disparities are most marked in the older age groups. Just 3% of all native people, registered and other, have less than Grade 5 education. By contrast, for native people aged 65 and older the proportion jumps to 57%.

The group that is most disadvantaged educationally is "registered Indians of reserve whose first language is a native language is a native language". This group comprises 20-25% of registered Indians. The educational attainment of this group is much lower than that of other Canadians.

FIGURE 1: THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF STATUS INDIANS, AND NON-INDIANS.

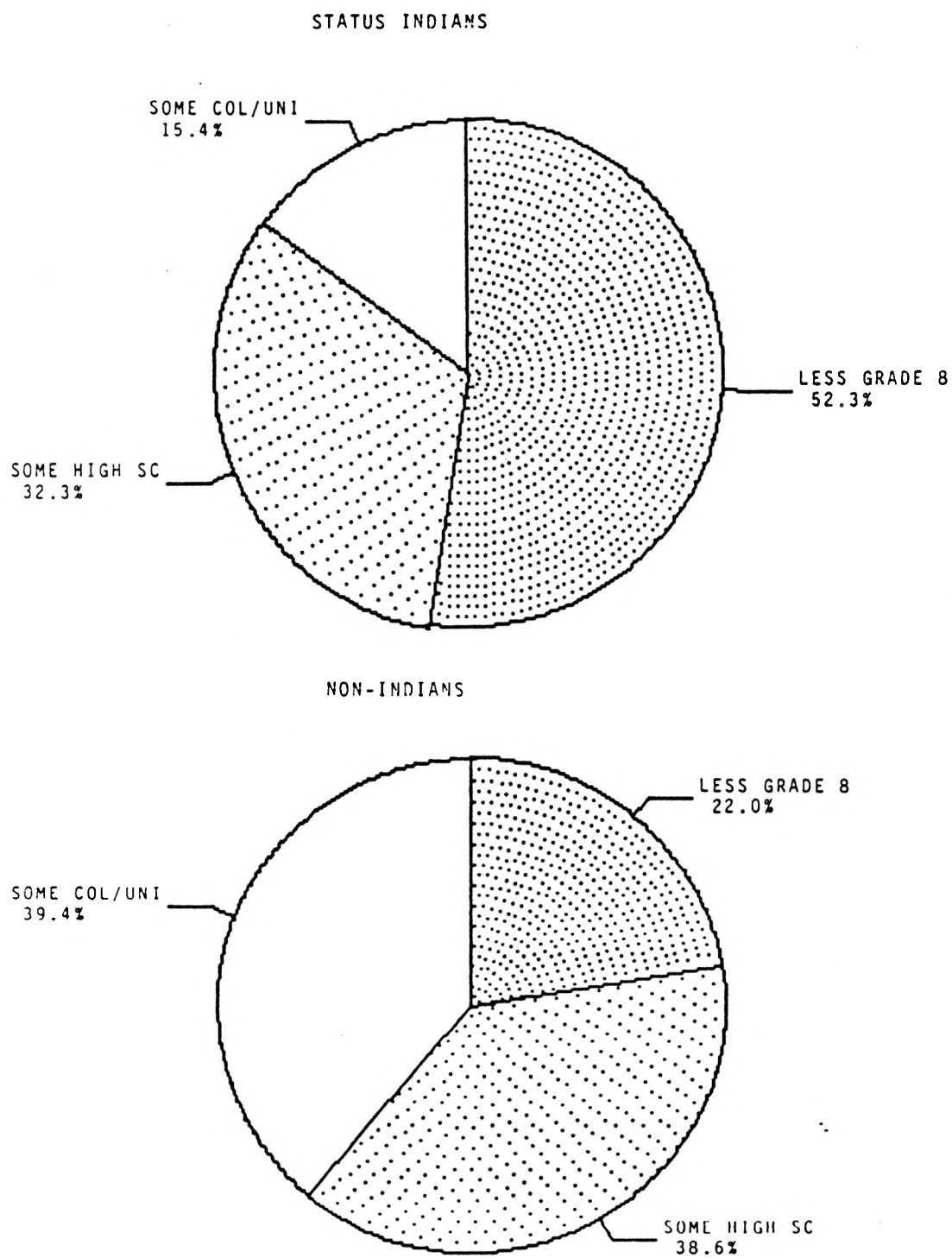


FIGURE 1A: THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF STATUS INDIAN-LANGUAGE-SPEAKERS.

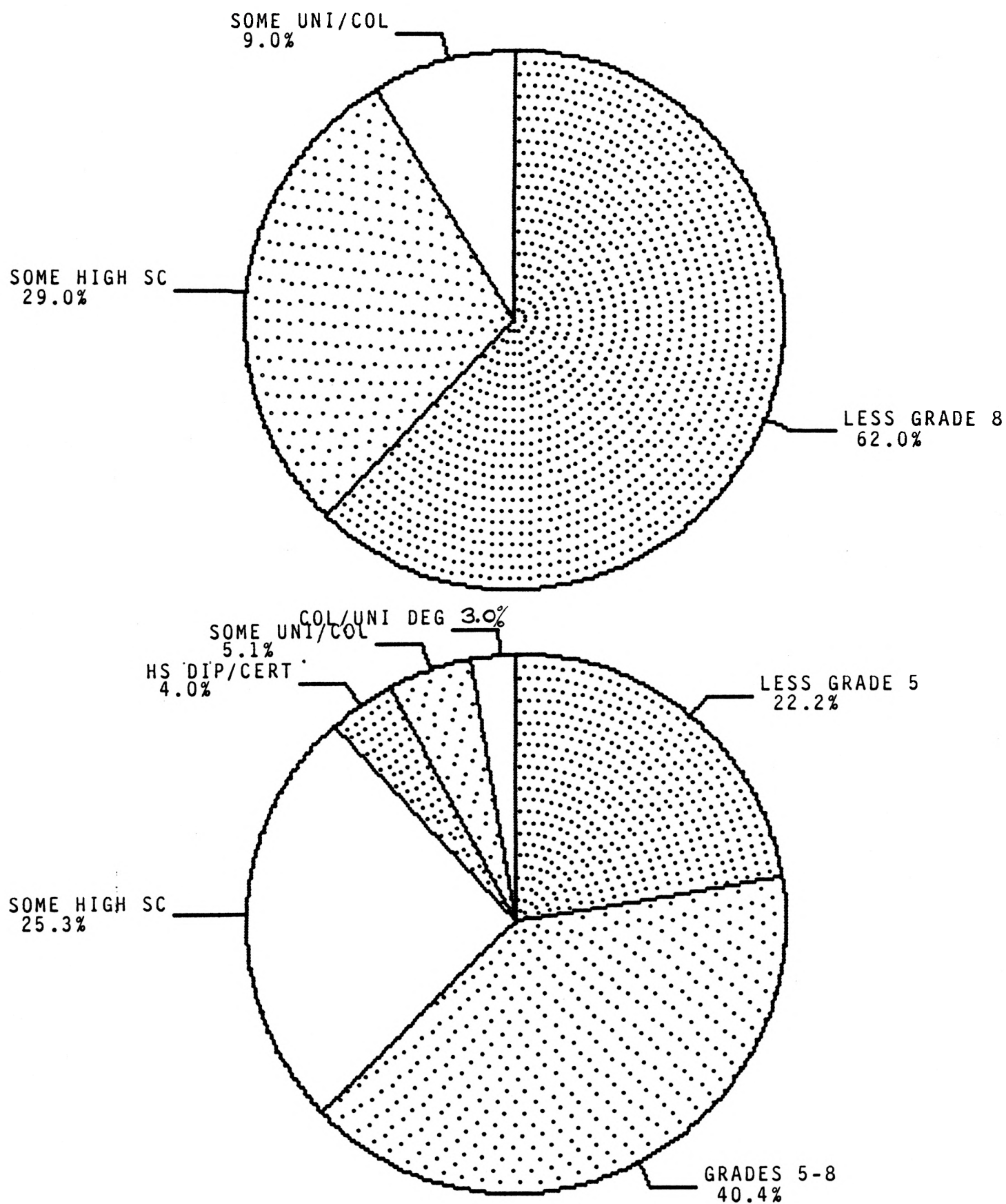
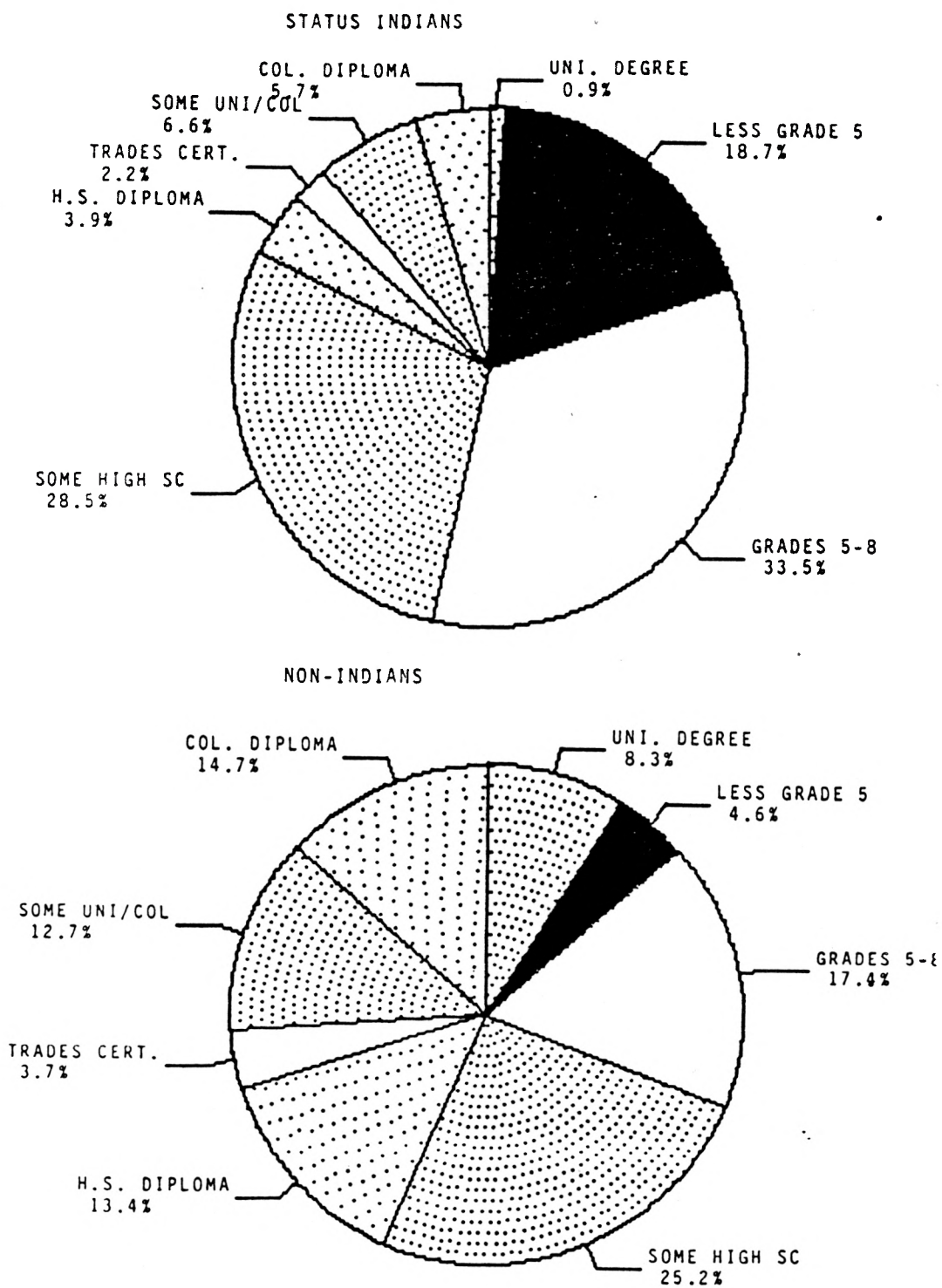


FIGURE 2: THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF STATUS INDIANS, AND NON-INDIANS.



3.1 STANDARDS OF QUALITY OF EDUCATION

The question of establishing standards for educational quality has generated considerable controversy among educators. Those in favour of standards argue that, in the absence of measurable standards, student achievement and educational outcomes cannot be accurately ascertained. Further, educational programs cannot be planned and implemented unless they are focussed on some measurable outcome. Without the driving force of an expected standard of achievement, there can be no accountability in education, and no way of discriminating between effective and ineffective programs. Finally, those in favour of educational standards point out that the process of education is one of building a hierarchy of skills. It is sequential and incremental. Until a student has attained a minimal acceptable standard in the lower-level skill, he cannot be expected to cope at the next level. Measuring student achievement against established standards demonstrates his readiness to progress.

Opponents of uniform program standards take the position that a common standard for all First Nations pupils denies individual differences in rates of maturation and learning. If education is concerned with facilitating the highest level of individual achievement, then there can be no defensible standard beyond that defined by the individual First Nations student's capacities.

There is also a widespread belief that the standards which have been used in the past have been inappropriate to First Nations students. This is partly because of differences in situation (urban vs. isolated rural communities, for example) and partly because of differences in language and culture.

At the extremes, both positions are illogical. The concept of individual differences is not, of itself, incompatible with the setting of standards that describe minimal levels of acceptable student performance as a criterion of program success. In practice, teachers do teach to standards, although these may not always be explicitly stated.

The standards for educational programs and student achievement established in a First Nations school are generally developed by bringing together "norms" of many kinds. There are community standards and expectations, school standards, the personal and collective experiences of teachers, developmental norms, test norms, research and theory.

The quality of First Nations education can be defined in many ways, but all definitions seem to have at least three main areas:

- A) Social and Cultural Values and Behaviour;
- B) Academic and Job-related skills;
- C) Physical health and Well-being.

The "bottom line" of all this is community satisfaction. Are the parents and the students themselves satisfied that the school is providing the highest quality instruction that can reasonably be expected?

A survey of First Nations Schools in Fall 1982 found that most First Nations schools use two methods as a basis for measuring student achievement: general records of student work, and teacher-made tests.

However, most importantly, the survey found that between 70 and 75 percent of First Nations schools use standardized achievement tests. Band schools are slightly

less likely than federal schools to use standardized achievement tests, and small schools are slightly less likely than large schools to do so. However, the differences are not great (see table). Band schools are somewhat more likely to administer standardized achievement tests to all students each year, while federal schools are somewhat more likely to administer these tests only to certain grades. Some band schools are inclined to administer standardized achievement tests only to individual students, and this also appears to be the pattern in large rather than small schools.

Table 1: Schools Using Standardized Achievement Tests by Administrative Status and School Size.

Standardized Achievement Tests Used?	Administrative Status		Size of School			
	Federal	Band	Less than 100 pupils	More than 100 pupils		
Yes	(106) 75.2%	(45) 66.2%	(63) 70.0%	(88) 73.9%		
No	(35) 24.8%	(23) 33.8%	(27) 30.0%	(31) 26.1%		
Total	(141) 100.0%	(68) 100.0%	(90) 100.0%	(119) 100.0%		

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

In 1982, one hundred and eleven First Nations schools (53 percent schools) used the Canadian Test of Basic Skills. Eighty-four federal schools used the test (60 percent) and twenty-seven band schools (40 percent). Approximately thirty other standardized achievement tests were mentioned by respondents.

However, along with this very high usage of standardized tests, there is a very high level of dissatisfaction with them. First Nations school principals report that this is the single biggest problem and need in terms of managing the quality of First Nations children's education. (See Figure). Standardized tests are used in First Nations schools and will continue to be used because they are essential, but the particular tests which are available are neither oriented in their content towards the experiences of First Nations children nor are they "normed" for a comparable population of First Nations children.

First Nations schools have a number of important unmet needs in the area of evaluating quality of instruction. Among these, there are five which stand out as being both widespread and urgent.

(1) Three-quarters of First Nations schools use standardized achievement tests. However, there is a high level of frustration and concern among teachers that the standards are not appropriate for First Nations pupils. There is also a great variety of tests being used.

(2) Efforts to evaluate the quality of instruction in First Nations schools are often frustrated by basic communications problems. If a student cannot read the instructions in a maths test, for example, then the test is not likely to measure his ability in mathematics.

(3) Virtually all First Nations schools follow the Provincial Curriculum, with only minor modifications overall. In this situation, teachers are concerned with the lack of tests linked with the Provincial Curriculum.

(4) In many First Nations schools, irregular attendance/absenteeism makes achievement testing program inoperable. Yet, very few schools take attendance into account in promoting students to the next grade, and the curricula are

generally not modified to respond to sporadic attendance.

(5) Some of the problems arise from the extreme decentralization of the First Nations school "system". Specialist services such as diagnostic screening for students with learning disabilities cannot be provided by one isolated school .

3.2 CURRICULUM PRACTICES - ISSUES.

The activities of the elementary and secondary education program fall into two broad categories: providing or funding elementary and secondary instruction for First Nations students in Federal, Band-Controlled and Provincial schools; and, providing or funding special programs, services and supplies to make the curriculum more appropriate and culturally relevant for native students.

These latter activities are conducted through the cultural/education centres, DIAND Regional Offices and through special joint projects between the Department and the Provincial Education Departments. For example, the PONA series developed by the Ontario Ministry of Education was cost-shared with DIAND.

At the present time, the DINA National Office does not have a separate curriculum program. The function was disbanded in 1979 when the Education program underwent a significant retrenchment. However, curriculum development remains a budget item in the allocation of education resources to the Regions and the Bands.

The disbursement of these funds is left to the discretion of the Regions and the Band Education Authorities. Thus, it was possible for curriculum monies to be diverted to other educational purposes, depending upon the needs and priorities of the Regions and Bands.

The DINA Education program also supports the development of curriculum materials indirectly through the cultural/education centres. In 1982, the Department funded the activities of 59 such centres for a total of \$6.57 million.

At the present time, curriculum development activity for native students is dispersed among various authorities: Bands, Provincial Education Departments, INA Regional and District offices, cultural education centres, colleges and universities, and local schools. This decentralization of the curriculum function is consistent, at one level, with the Department's Education objective:

"...to ensure quality education through First Nations control by establishing operational policies consistent with the principles of First Nations control and ministerial responsibility for the expenditures of funds and the outcomes of programs."

Source: The First Nations Education Policy Review - Phase 1.

However, First Nations and Northern Affairs is also responsible for ensuring "quality education" for native students. An appropriate and culturally relevant curriculum is an important determinant of quality of education.

The effectiveness of instruction in Federal schools is clearly a direct DINA responsibility. In Band-operated and Provincial schools, this responsibility is shared with the Bands and Provinces respectively. However, a residual responsibility for quality of education remains with the Department. The question arises as to what role the Department can play in the curriculum effort that will meet its objective of quality education, without undermining the principles of First Nations Control and the jurisdiction of Bands and Provinces over their education systems.

3.2.1 THE NEED FOR CURRICULUM MODIFICATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL CURRICULUM MATERIALS.

In the broadest sense, education is a process of socialization. It is a process by which an individual becomes a functioning member of his own group. The school, as an institutionalized setting for education, transmits the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for socialization. Unfortunately, this has not generally been the experience of First Nations students.

Until the mid-1960's native education in Canada was distanced from its roots. At the time, the majority of First Nations students were integrated into Provincial schools, with the remainder attending Federal or private schools. With few exceptions, these schools provided a standard Canadian education based on the values, goals, skills, language and attitudes of white Canada. For First Nations parents, involved for the first time in School Committees and PTA's, this represented a one-eyed view of the world. Increasingly they voiced their discontentment with educational programs that derived nothing from the history, culture and values of native peoples. Without some sense of shared experience and common purpose, education would remain an aside that was irrelevant to the main events of the students' lives.

3.2.2 THE INDIAN SCHOOL IN THE COMMUNITY

The need for mechanisms for parental and community involvement in the design, development and delivery of native education programs has been recognized for many years by both the Department of First Nations Affairs and Native groups. Student apathy, poor attendance, low retention rates and lack of achievement are seen as symptomatic of the larger problem - the lack of a positive relationship between the school and the community. DIAND's earliest

initiatives in encouraging parental participation in Reserve schools were an attempt to alleviate this problem.

Parental involvement on School committees and PTA's does not however, of itself, translate into broad-based community support of the school. If the reserve school is to be viewed as a community resource whose function extends beyond the three R's, then it must provide programs that encompass the broader issues of native culture and history, arts and crafts, language, religious and social events and ceremonies. Clearly this requires curriculum modification and the development of new instructional programs and materials.

The enrichment of the school curriculum in this manner has many beneficial effects. First, it draws the community into the educational process in an active and meaningful way. Parents and native resource persons can share their knowledge and skills with teachers and students and thus become involved in the education of their children. Community participation in this manner goes a long way in breaking down the barriers and suspicion that have characterized home and school relationships in the past.

A second benefit of curriculum modification and enrichment is that students' experiences at school are not totally discontinuous with those in the home. This strengthens the bond between home and school. The skills, attitudes and knowledge learned in the one place are reinforced and enhanced in the other. Parents are able to relate to the school experiences of their children and share these with them.

The Department of First Nations Affairs was aware of the benefits to First Nations education through community participation when it embarked on its curriculum program in 1968. The Department was also aware that while curriculum

enrichment and modification would facilitate community participation, it would also be necessary to educate the community about education. Many of the Department's initiatives in the Band Training Program were developed to address these needs.

3.2.3 NATIVE HISTORY, CULTURE AND VALUES

Related to the issue of community participation in First Nations education is the question of the inclusion of native history, culture and values in the school curriculum. In its 1972 document "First Nations Control of First Nations Education", the National First Nations Brotherhood specifically addressed this question. It emphasised the need to develop educational programs that reflect native culture and heritage in a positive way. As well, the document called for the expansion of "native studies" in the curriculum, both as separate courses and as units in other courses.

The need to expand and improve the portrayal of native peoples, their history and culture, in the school curricula is important for two reasons. When the accomplishments, contributions and complexities of historic and present-day native society are presented to students in a comprehensive and positive way, they promote the development of self-understanding and self-esteem. These attributes are recognized as essential to learning and achievement. The inclusion of native history and heritage in educational programs is also viewed as a mechanism to reduce the alienation of the student from the school. Non-native teachers and administrators involved in this type of cross-cultural education are much more likely to provide an empathetic learning environment.

If First Nations students are to learn about their social, legal,

governmental, economic and artistic development, as well as their historic and present accomplishments, then new and different curriculum materials will need to be developed. At the simplest level this means altering any superficial, demeaning or inaccurate references to native peoples in existing textbooks. Comprehensive courses will however require the development of new materials and curricula, and will need additional resources. As well, such courses will need to be comparative rather than tribe-specific so that they reflect the broad context of native history. This has rarely been the case.

The role of the school in teaching cultural values is less clear cut. One can argue that value-oriented instruction belongs in the home. On the other hand, schools must recognize that they are dealing with students whose worldviews and way of thinking may be different. Educational practices and programs must accomodate these differences. The Native Teacher aide program initiated by the Department and the hiring of Native teachers in Federal and Band-controlled schools goes some way toward ensuring that the value-orientation of the school is not inconsistent with that of the community.

The teaching of cultural values can be accomplished indirectly through the school curriculum. When native history, customs and traditions are presented from a native perspective they invariably communicate values. Similarly, the use of elders and native community resource persons in school programs conveys cultural values, and mobilizes community support for the school.

3.2.4 NATIVE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The educational disadvantage of Native children has been well documented. Reasons for this have also been advanced. In addition to the alienation between the school and the community and the discontinuity of the child's experiences at school because of cultural differences, significant numbers of First Nations students are also confronted with linguistic barriers when they first enter school.

Approximately 60% of First Nations children entering schools across Canada lack facility in the English language. For many of these children, their first exposure to English is at school. The remainder, who do speak English, show a reduced vocabulary with errors in grammar and syntax. The effects of this on a child's ability to progress at school are self-evident. Linguistic competence is pre-requisite to the skills that measure success at school: the ability to conceptualize, symbolize, abstract and generalize.

The school has a special responsibility toward children for whom English is a second language. The language needs of native children can be met in a variety of ways. All of these involve the use and development of special curriculum materials and instructional strategies.

Many native educators have proposed that First Nations children receive their primary education in the Native language, with the transition to English or French in the later grades. This type of native language instruction followed by a bilingual program requires the development of an entirely new curriculum, texts and instructional resources.

A second approach, and one that is more commonly used, is TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language). Instruction in English as a second language

requires that teachers be specially trained in these instructional strategies. As well, special instructional materials developed for the needs of native students are necessary. However, most of TESL programs used in the schools do not distinguish between teaching English to native students from other linguistic groups. Undoubtedly, some of the efficacy of the TESL approach is lost because of the lack of special curriculum materials designed for native students.

The third aspect of language instruction is the teaching of the native language as a second language for cultural enrichment. Here as well, it is necessary that a sequential curriculum supported by appropriate instructional materials be developed.

Whichever approach is used, it will need to be supported by special curriculum materials. In addition, the core content of the curriculum for a given subject in a given grade will need to be adjusted so that the twin demands of learning both the language and the prescribed skills do not impose an insuperable burden on the pupils.

3.2.5 ACADEMIC SUBJECT MATERIALS

The language problems faced by First Nations students at school are frequently compounded by texts and instructional materials that are largely irrelevant to the life experiences of the pupils. The archetypical urban experiences of Dick and Jane in a Grade 1 primer are meaningless to a young child living on an isolated reserve. They also make the task of learning to read more difficult because they require that the child not only decipher the word, but also grasp the concept. Under these conditions it is less likely that the child will develop any real interest in learning to read.

From the aspect of cognitive development there is a great deal to be said for using instructional materials that draw upon pupils' experiences and their environment. When the things students learn about are drawn from their everyday lives their interest and motivation is increased. This makes the learning experience a positive one and stimulates further learning.

Experience-based education is also highly desirable from the socio-cultural point of view because it makes the process of education a process of enculturation.

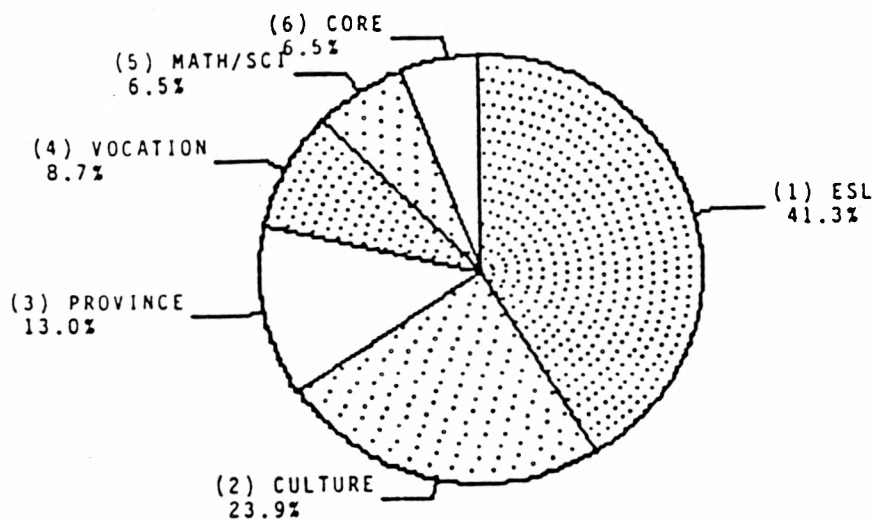
Over the last 15 years, some sporadic efforts have been made to develop curriculum materials that are relevant to native students. DIAND National office had an active curriculum program from 1968 - 1978. Curriculum development remains a budget item in Education and all Regional Offices are involved in curriculum development to varying degrees.

However the present situation in First Nations schools has many problems in both content of curricula (See Figure 3) and in the process of curriculum development (See Figure 4).

3.2.6 SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The main problem is an inadequate ability to deal with the First Nations children whose English is poor or non-existent. In about one quarter of the First Nations schools more than 75% of children enter with no English or French. The percentage of students who speak only a native language on entry to school does not vary significantly between federal and band-administered schools, but is much higher for small schools than for larger schools.

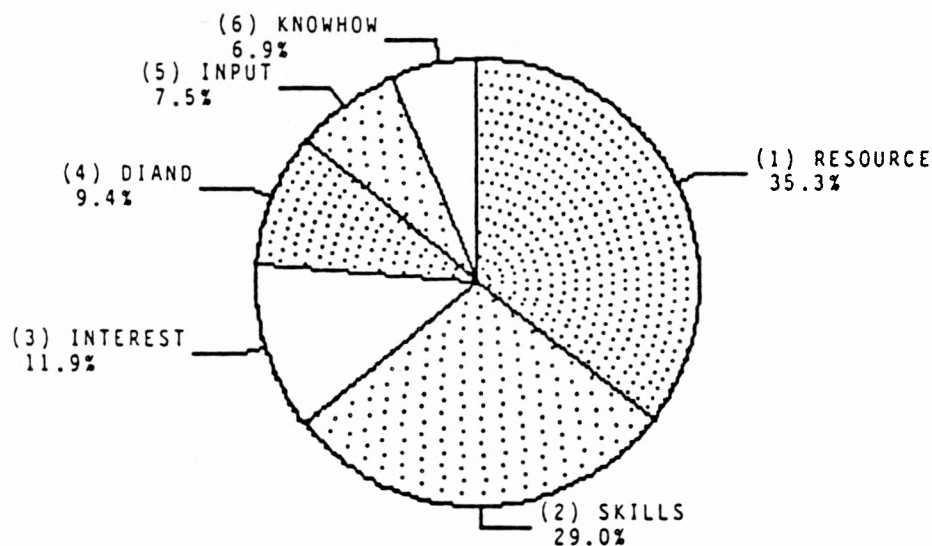
FIGURE 3: THE MAIN PROBLEMS WITH CURRICULUM CONTENT IN FIRST NATIONS SCHOOLS AS REPORTED BY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, FALL 1982.



1. Inadequate second language, language arts materials.
2. Inadequate materials on and knowledge of Indian cultures outside the reserve.
3. Inflexible provincial curriculum.
4. Inadequate vocational/life skills curriculum.
5. Inadequate mathematics and sciences materials.
6. Lack of basic/core curriculum.

Source: DIAND survey of Principals of First Nation Schools, fall 1982.

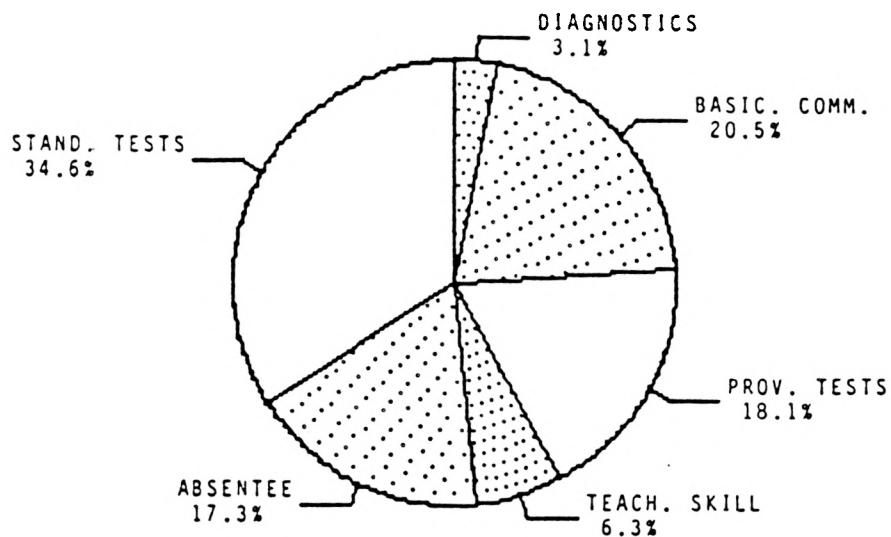
FIGURE 4: THE MAIN PROBLEMS WITH CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN FIRST NATIONS SCHOOLS AS REPORTED BY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, FALL 1982.



1. Lack of funds/time.
2. Lack of expertise in curriculum development.
3. Lack of interest/cooperation by the community.
4. Lack of DIAND interest/support/leadership
5. Lack of Indian input.
6. Lack of teacher knowledge of local culture and community needs.

Source: DIAND survey of Principals of First Nations Schools, fall 1982.

FIGURE 5: PROBLEMS IN MEASURING THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION IN FIRST NATIONS SCHOOLS AS REPORTED BY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, FALL 1982.



1. Lack of standardized tests appropriate to Indian students.
2. Lack of diagnostic screening tests for students with disabilities.
3. Basic communications problems, inadequate English/French.
4. Lack of tests integrated with the provincial curriculum.
5. Lack of necessary teaching skills.
6. Instability and absenteeism.

Source: DIAND survey of Principals of First Nations Schools, fall 1982.

It is also noticeable that First Nations schools tend to cluster at the two extreme ends of the range. For example 54.5 percent of federal schools have no unilingual native language speakers on entry, while 23.1 percent of the schools have more than three-quarters of their students unilingual native language speakers on entry. This is an important distinction. Those schools which have a large number of unilingual native language speakers on entry require a very different curriculum for the early grades from that which is appropriate for anglophone or francophone students.

This "polarity" among schools indicates great differences in the need, for example, for special classes in English/French as a second language. Federal and band schools show the same pattern of extremes. Also, smaller schools are more likely to have few pupils who speak a native language as the main language at home, while larger schools are more likely to have relatively a high proportion of students with a strong native First Nations language background at home.

Although the native First Nations language context in many schools seems very strong, relatively little time is spent teaching in a native language. This is equally true of federal and band schools. In both cases, more than three-quarters of the schools spend less than 10 percent of teaching time conducting classes using the native language.

The 1982 survey of First Nations schools indicated that band-controlled schools have relatively more teachers who speak the native language of the reserve than federal schools. 44 percent of federal schools have no teachers who speak the language of the reserve while 33 percent of band-controlled

schools have no teachers who speak the language of the reserve. In contrast, 22 percent of band-controlled schools have more than half their teachers speaking the language of the reserve, while 9 percent of federal schools have this proportion of native language speakers among its teachers. It is also the case that smaller schools have relatively a smaller proportion of native language speakers among the teachers than do larger schools.

Although there are very different patterns of need and capability among various First Nations schools, there are few significant differences between them in terms of their provision of English as a second language classes, and they do not provide ESL classes significantly than Provincial schools. (See Appendix 2, Figure 12) About 20 percent of all First Nations schools offer special classes in English/French as a second language. Between 12 percent and 20 percent of First Nations schools offer English/French as a second language in Kindergarten, grade 1, and grade 2. However, this percentage drops off sharply in grade 3 and above. Band-controlled schools are somewhat better equipped with teachers specially trained in "English as a second language," and large schools are slightly better staffed than smaller schools.

Table 2 : Percentage of Pupils Speaking Only the Native Language on entry to school, by Administrative Status and Size of School.

% of Students	Administrative Status		Size of School	
	Federal	Band	Less than 100 pupils	More than 100 pupils
0%	(78) 54.5%	(37) 56.1%	(62) 68.1%	(53) 44.9%
1-19%	(14) 9.8%	(15) 22.7%	(12) 13.2%	(17) 14.4%
20-39%	(8) 5.6%	(1) 1.5%	(3) 3.3%	(6) 5.0%
40-69%	(8) 5.6%	(3) 3.0%	(1) 1.1%	(9) 7.5%
70% +	(35) 24.5%	(11) 16.7%	(13) 14.3%	(33) 27.9%
Total	(143) 100.0%	(66) 100.0%	(91) 100.0%	(118) 100.0%

Number of Missing Observations 3

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

Table 3 : Schools Offering Classes in English as a Second Language, by Administrative Status of the School and Size of School.

ESL Classes	Administrative Status		Size of School	
	Federal	Band	Less than 100 pupils	More than 100 pupils
Yes	(26) 18.2%	(15) 22.7%	(15) 16.9%	(26) 21.7%
No	(117) 81.8%	(51) 77.3%	(74) 83.1%	(94) 78.3%
Total	(143) 100.0%	(66) 100.0%	(89) 100.0%	(120) 100.0%

Number of Missing Observations 3

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

3.2.7 NATIVE HISTORY AND CULTURE COURSES.

Only a minority of First Nations schools offer full courses in native history and culture. On average, native students receive approximately one hour of instruction in native history and culture per week. This does not seem to vary much by grade level. The higher grade levels seem to receive modestly more instruction in native history and culture than the younger students, but not greatly more.

Very little material on other First Nations cultures outside the immediate reserve is presented. Approximately 40 percent of First Nations schools present no material on native history and culture other than their own reserve.

Relatively few (15-20%) First Nations schools offer any courses developed specially for native students other than in the area of history and culture.

Table 4 : Proportion of Schools Having a Native History and Culture Curriculum, by Administrative Status and Size of School.

Native History and Culture Curriculum?	Administrative Status				Size of School			
	Federal		Band		Less than 100 pupils		More than 100 pupils	
Yes	(30)	52%	(14)	42%	(16)	43%	(28)	52%
No	(28)	48%	(19)	58%	(21)	57%	(26)	48%
Total	(58)	100%	(33)	100%	(37)	100%	(54)	100%

Number of Missing Observations 121

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

Table 5 : The Content of Native History and Culture Courses, by Administrative Status and Size of School.

Content of Native History and Culture Courses	Administrative Status		Size of School			
	Federal	Band	Less than 100 pupils	More than 100 pupils		
Our Reserve Only (19)	35.8%	(13) 40.6%	(15) 44.1%	(17) 33.3%		
Other Cultures (34)	64.2%	(19) 59.4%	(19) 55.9%	(34) 66.7%		
Total	(53) 100.0%	(32) 100.0%	(34) 100.0%	(51) 100.0%		

Number of Missing Observations 127

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

3.2.8 CURRICULUM MODIFICATION

Virtually all First Nations schools, Band and Federal, follow the provincial curriculum, either with no modification or with relatively minor modifications.

The approach that First Nations schools take to modify the provincial curriculum does not appear to vary greatly by size of school or by type of administration. The most popular method is to use books/film strips/cassettes about First Nations as supplementary material in school courses. A significant number of schools, about 25 percent, reduce the content or number of skills to be covered in a particular subject in a year.

The greatest modifications are made to provincial curriculum in the area of second language training. Thirty-seven percent of First Nations schools report making major modifications in this area. Substantial but much lower proportions of schools make major modifications in the areas of language arts, social sciences, history, and, to a lesser extent, art and music. Almost no

schools make major modifications in the areas of mathematics, science, or industrial arts. In the area of second languages training, the schools that do modify the curriculum tend to make major modifications. In all other subject areas (minor modification) is by far the dominant approach.

The general approach of First Nations schools to making curriculum modifications is to allow each teacher to decide separately on curriculum modifications for his/her class and subject.

Most of the curriculum materials specially developed for First Nations students are made by the teachers in the school. Approximately 60 percent of First Nations schools report frequent use of special teacher-made materials. Other materials are use much less often. Between 15 and 20 percent of schools indicate frequent use of materials from cultural education centres, provincial education departments, the Department of First Nations and Northern Affairs' Regional Office, First Nations cultural and research institutions, and Canadian publishers.

Table 6 : Proportion of First Nations Schools following the Provincial Curriculum, by Administrative Status and Size of School.

Following Provincial Curriculum?	Administrative Status				Size of School			
	Federal		Band		Less than 100 pupils		More than 100 pupils	
Yes	(46)	31.9%	(24)	35.3%	(31)	33.7%	(39)	32.5%
Yes, with Modification	(96)	66.7%	(40)	58.8%	(56)	60.9%	(80)	66.7%
No	(2)	1.4%	(4)	5.9%	(5)	5.4%	(1)	0.8%
Total	(144)	100.0%	(68)	100.0%	(92)	100.0%	(120)	100.0%

Source: DIAND Survey of First Nations School Principals, Fall 1982.

3.3 SCHOOL FACILITIES

Federal and band school facilities and maintenance programs are inferior to provincial school facilities. A comparative survey in Fall 1983 found that:

- (1) First Nations schools have fewer special function rooms in every case than Provincial schools - see Appendix 2 Figure 8. The largest differences were in the availability of libraries, art rooms, gymnasiums and laboratories.
- (2) Twice as many First Nations schools as Provincial schools are made up in large part by pre-fab buildings - see Appendix 2 Figure 8.
- (3) First Nations schools have a greater percent of multiple grade classes than Provincial schools - See Appendix 2 Figure 11.

Many of the Department's Regional Directors General categorize this issue as the biggest problem which they face in administering the education program.'

In the period prior to the adoption of the local control policy, the push for integration demanded heavy capital investment by the Department in joint provincial schools. Between 1955 and 1980, the Department entered into 678 joint federal/provincial capital agreements costing \$103 million.

Because of the contractual nature of the joint school agreements, the Department, in allocating its budget, traditionally gives this program first priority for funding to the detriment of the federal and band school construction programs. This led to the comparative neglect of federal and band requirements with the result that today many buildings are run down and there is a large backlog of school construction requirements. With fewer and fewer joint school agreements now being made, the Department has refocused its attention to the construction of federal and band schools.

Nevertheless, the backlog remains enormous. Compounding this problem was the introduction in 1971 of Government of Canada School Accommodation Standards. These standards were very high and this resulted in a reduction in the number of schools constructed. To provide for construction of a greater number of schools, the Department eventually reduced its standards. As a result, many federal and band-operated schools do not have adequate vocational facilities, gymnasias, libraries, art rooms, and other features which are of great significance to small communities, particularly in isolated areas. Since the school is often the focal point in the community, lack of adequate facilities reduces the range of potential social and educational benefits.

Another major impediment to the provision of adequate facilities is the inability of the Department to mount and sustain a first-rate repair and maintenance program. The field organizational structures place this responsibility with the Engineering and Architecture Branch, a responsibility it assumes along with the construction of houses, schools, teacherages, roads, water systems, etc.

Hence, given the importance of providing safe and healthy community facilities, the construction and maintenance of schools and other educational facilities are often given a low priority. Failure to maintain the teachers' residences properly, for example, adversely affects the teacher's performance, and attitude towards his/her work. In summary, federal and band-operated schools adhere only nominally to provincial standards, and the poor facilities are a contributor to lack of success in the education programs.

Another aspect of facilities is the department's policy, as articulated by the Honourable Jean Chretien to bands in 1973, not to respond to band requests

for the construction of on-reserve school facilities where the Department's investment in a joint federal/provincial school is still undepreciated.

This caveat is seen by some bands as a failure to honour the spirit of the local control policy. To support their position they point to the penultimate paragraph of that same 1973 letter which states:

"There will be times, however, when it is clear to all parties concerned that neither negotiations nor changes in the conditions of an agreement will solve the problem. Under such circumstances the Department would have to recover as much as possible of the original capital investment before terminating the agreement and providing a school on the reserve."

There are occasions where the Department for various reasons has agreed to the termination of existing joint capital agreements. Based on certain trends, particularly in the West, it is expected that there will be increasing demands from First Nations bands to terminate joint school agreements.

The possible ramifications of a policy change in this area must be considered. Between January 1949 and June 1981 the Department invested \$103,985,000 in joint federal/provincial schools. It has been estimated that replacement of that accommodation would cost \$491,000,000 at today's costs. In the current economic climate, with enrolments declining, there is little likelihood that school boards would agree to refunding any portion of the Department's equity in their schools.

A more specific and updated reappraisal of the current policy would form part of a work plan.

3.4 TEACHING STAFF

In many ways the staffing of First Nations schools is comparable to Provincial schools for example,

- 1) The pupil/teacher ratio is similar - see appendix 2, figure 21.
- 2) Teacher turnover does not appear to be significantly different - see appendix 2, figure 17.
- 3) First Nations schools have more teacher aides, and more First Nations teachers - see appendix 2, figures 4 and 6.

However there are some aspects of staffing in which the First Nations schools are significantly disadvantaged. These include:

- 1) Significantly more First Nations schools than Provincial schools have only a part-time Principal = appendix 2, figure 9.
- 2) Teachers in First Nations schools are somewhat less qualified than their Provincial counterparts. About 60% of First Nations school teachers appear to have a degree compared with 80% of Provincial teachers: appendix 2, figure 14.
- 3) More First Nations school teachers than Provincial teachers obtained their teaching certification in a Province other than that in which they are teaching, or in another country = appendix 2, figure 15.

The current staffing picture in First Nations education is also characterized by inadequate training for transcultural education, and low morale. These problems are rooted in a variety of organizational and environmental factors.

The Federal Government restraint policy is reflected in the disparity between salary levels of federal and provincial education staff. Negotiations

proceed slowly between the union and Treasury Board. The Education Group's most recent Collective Agreement expired in August 1981.

The staffing process in First Nations education presents special problems for the Department and is much more complex than that of the typical provincial jurisdiction. The additional concerns of the Department relate to maintaining staff in isolated posts and ensuring the effectiveness of teaching staff in transcultural situations.

The staffing of federal schools is now done in accordance with Public Service Staffing Regulations. This causes great delay in offering jobs to qualified candidates because of the need to interview surplus employees. Too often excellent candidates are no longer available after the necessary procedures have been followed.

Regional education managers were formerly authorized by the Public Service Commission to staff teaching positions and this procedure was much more effective. Another major drawback is the fact that under Public Service Regulations teachers do not have to give the same notice of their intention to resign which is demanded of provincial teachers. Federal teachers resigning at the end of August cause serious recruiting problems.

The transition from Departmental to band control should enable bands to retain the services of federal teachers they wish to keep in their communities. However there are problems at the present time there is great variety in the quality of benefit packages which bands are in a position to offer their employees. A recent sampling of the perceptions of school employees involved in band take-overs revealed:

- a) long periods of anxiety (1 to 6 months) during which they did not know if they were going to be employed by the band;
- b) only half considered their new pension plans equivalent to former plans;
- c) all respondents saw less job security with a band;
- d) no respondents had collective arrangements.

The cumulative effects of these conditions are low staff morale, and associated problems with the educational task.

Teachers in First Nations schools also receive less support and supervision than Provincial teachers. They are provided with lower levels of administrative support (appendix 2, figure 9 and 10), and professional supervision is much less in First Nations schools. (appendix 2, figure 13).

Recent reductions in regions' person-year allotments have had adverse effects on education staff. Work loads have severely reduced superintendents' time available for professional concerns. Classroom consultants' positions, which are critical for teacher professional development and the maintaining of morale in situations of professional isolation, have all but disappeared. A review indicates that only one classroom consultant is employed by DIAND Manitoba Region, while Alberta has none at all.

The effectiveness of teaching staff has been affected by the reductions in recent years of funding for orientation and in-service training. Reduced funding has also restricted the Department's ability to involve provincial teachers of First Nations children in forums with First Nations parents and departmental staff.

3.5 SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

First Nations children have a great need for various ancilliary or "special" education services, such as psychological counselling, speech and hearing services, eye/ear health services, nutritional counselling and supplementation, alcohol and drug counselling, english as a second language programs, remedial reading and remedial mathematics programs, vocational training, visual arts/music and drama, and athletics.

Despite this serious need, First Nations schools provide much less than Provincial schools. In the health areas related to education, in the basic remedial programs in reading and mathematics, and in the vocational, arts and athletics areas, the First Nations schools are clearly disadvantaged. (see appendix 2, figure 12).

Much of the problem arises from the extreme decentralization of the First Nations school system, especially the band schools. It will never be possible for a single small school to provide these services from its own resources. Only if First Nations schools cooperate in larger "school districts" can these very important services be available to First Nations children. (See Appendix A). Structures for the Management of the First Nations School System).

It is also the case that the diversion of funds to non-discretionary education programs in recent years are led to other supplemental services being discontinued. Certain of these actions have become very sensitive issues and have brought on very negative First Nations community and political association reaction, as in the case of noon lunches being discontinued in the Atlantic Region.

Lack of supportive supplemental services naturally increases the burden placed on the classroom teacher, and adversely influences the quality of education. For First Nations students who attend school and are boarded in urban areas, guidance and career counselling are of great importance in helping them to adjust to the different environment and to keep their focus on their career aspirations. In recent years the counselling function has been transferred to band authorities. In most cases bands employ "social" counsellors who do not have the training to assist students in academic or career planning matters.

APPENDIX 1. A LIST OF SUGGESTED DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS.

A) STRUCTURES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF THE INDIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.

.Purpose and Issues.

To overcome the structural problems of extreme decentralization that presently exist in the First Nations education system; and to provide the necessary infrastructure for an effective school system.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

B) CURRICULUM PLANNING CENTER AND CLEARING HOUSE

.Purpose and Issues.

To provide a centralized clearing house for the identification, collection, and dissemination of special curriculum materials for First Nations students; and for the development of courses and programs that use these materials for explicit educational purposes, rather than only as general cultural background.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

C) STANDARDIZED TESTS MODIFICATION AND DEVELOPMENT

.Purpose and Issues.

To standardize the Canadian Test of Basic Skills for First Nations students, by adapting its content to familiar First Nations experiences, and by norms for the whole First Nations population as well as for the most nearly comparable sections of the Canadian population as a whole - namely those students in rural and isolated areas.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

D) ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE AND READING PROJECT

.Purpose and Issues.

To demonstrate the effectiveness of intensive use of English as a Second Language materials and training in overcoming the severe communications problems of First Nations students.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

E) PROVINCIAL CURRICULUM MODIFICATION JOINT PROJECT

.Purpose and Issues.

To modify the provincial curriculum materials in a few selected subjects and grades in a single province, with emphasis on developing methods of working jointly with provincial curriculum development committees to provide materials and approaches more relevant to First Nations students.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

F) COMPUTER-BASED LEARNING PROJECT

.Purpose and Issues.

To investigate and demonstrate the benefits of programmed-learning/computer-based learning techniques for First Nations children, especially those whose attendance at school is erratic or whose mobility from school to school is high.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

G) ITINERANT SPECIAL SERVICES PROJECT

.Purpose and Issues.

To demonstrate the increase in educational effectiveness that comes with the provision of a full range of ancilliary services common to most provincial school boards.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

H) ATTENDANCE INCENTIVES PROJECT.

.Purpose and Issues.

To investigate the effectiveness of various incentives in promoting regular school attendance by First Nations children, and to demonstraste the changes in academic effectiveness that result.

.Tasks.

.Timing and Responsibilities.

.Resources Required.

I) INTENSIVE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROJECT.

.Purpose and Issues.

To develop a model demonstration of First Nations parental control of a school, by integrating the school administration into a comprehensive community development project.

- .Tasks.
- .Timing and Responsibilities.
- .Resources Required.

J) NATIONAL INDIAN CORRESPONDANCE SCHOOL.

.Purpose and Issues.

To provide a full correspondance curriculum for a restricted range of elementary school grades (perhaps to Grade 6), emphasizing curriculum material especially developed for First Nations schools and of equal standards with provincial curricula.

- .Tasks.
- .Timing and Responsibilities.
- .Resources Required.

APPENDIX 2.

COMPARATIVE SURVEY OF INDIAN SCHOOLS AND PROVINCIAL SCHOOLS IN CANADA.

1.1 INTRODUCTION.

In September 1983, the Department of First Nations Affairs and Northern Development conducted a survey of the conditions in First Nations schools and in a comparable group of Provincial schools in Canada.

The results of this survey are presented in this report in graphic form. In all cases, the First Nations schools are depicted by a black bar in the graphs, and the Provincial schools by a dotted bar.

2.1 SURVEY METHOD.

The survey is an attempt to select a representative sample of First Nations schools and to match them with comparable Provincial schools.

In each First Nations school district, one school was selected at random. In some cases the selection was done for all districts in a region at the DINA regional office. Only elementary and secondary schools were selected. Schools that had only kindergarten classes were not selected.

Once the First Nations schools had been selected, they were matched with a similar Provincial school. If the nearest Provincial school was within 25% of the size of the First Nations school, then that school was selected. If the nearest Provincial school was much larger or smaller than the First Nations school, then another Provincial school reasonably close by and of a similar size was selected.

By this method 40 First Nations and 40 Provincial schools were selected: six pairs in British Columbia; five in Alberta; seven in Saskatchewan; six in Manitoba; twelve in Ontario; three in Quebec; and two in the Atlantic provinces.

3.1 THE SUCCESS OF THE MATCHING PROCESS.

The two groups of schools are closely matched in terms of the size of the school (see Figure 1), the grades in the school (Figure 2), the number of teachers (Figure 3), and the number of classrooms (Figure 5).

4.1 THE FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY.

The survey found that the First Nations schools were significantly disadvantaged in most aspects.

Figure 4: Percentage of teachers who are native First Nations.

Many more First Nations schools had native teachers. However there were significant numbers of First Nations teachers in the Provincial schools; and almost a quarter of the First Nations schools had no native teachers.

Figure 6: Numbers of Native Teacher Aides.

The First Nations schools have many more aides, native and non-native, and in particular more native aides.

Figure 7: Numbers of Schools having Special Use Rooms.

First Nations schools have fewer special function rooms in every case than Provincial schools.

Figure 8: Number of Pre-fab Schools.

Twice as many First Nations schools as Provincial schools are made up in large part by pre-fab buildings.

Figure 9: Number of Schools having only a part-time Principal.

Significantly more First Nations schools than Provincial schools have only a part-time Principal.

Figure 10: Allocation of the Principal's Time.

Overall Provincial Principals spend a little more time on administration. However fifteen First Nations school Principals, compared with eight Provincial school Principals, spend no time teaching.

Figure 11: Percentage of Students in Multiple Grade Classes.

First Nations schools have a greater percent of multiple grade classes than Provincial schools.

Figure 12: Number of Schools Lacking Special Services.

There are serious disparities between First Nations and Provincial schools in the special educational services available to the children, despite the fact that the needs of First Nations children for these services is for the most part greater. The only areas where the First Nations schools provide better service than the Provincial schools are in alcohol/drug abuse and nutrition counselling.

In the health areas related to education, in the basic remedial programs in reading and math, and in the vocational, arts, and athletics areas, the First Nations schools are clearly disadvantaged.

Figure 13: Professional Supervision of Teachers.

Supervision of teachers is more intensive in Provincial schools than in First Nations schools.

Figure 14: Qualifications of Trachers.

This question was not well answered. Some respondents confused being a graduate (a first degree) and having a graduate degree (a master's degree or other advanced degree). However about 60% of First Nations school teachers appear to have a degree compared with 80% of Provincial teachers. This may overstate the qualifications of both groups.

Figure 15: Place of Teacher Certification.

More First Nations school teachers than Provincial teachers obtained their teaching certification in a Province other than that in which they are teaching, or in another country.

Figure 16: Largest Class in the School.

On the whole Provincial schools have larger classes than First Nations schools, if the largest class in the school can be taken as a reasonable measure of this.

Figure 17: Percentage of New Teachers this Year.

Teacher turnover does not appear to be significantly different in the two groups of schools.

Figure 18: Number of schools offering First Nations studies and language.

More First Nations schools offer classes in First Nations studies and in First Nations language than Provincial schools.

Figure 19: Number of Staff Training Days.

There are no significant differences between the two groups of schools on staff training days.

Figure 20: Average Daily Attendance.

Average daily attendance at First Nations schools is significantly lower than at Provincial schools.

5.1 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

Although this survey is only a general indicator of the conditions in First Nations and Provincial schools, and not a rigorous statistical examination of a

large sample, the general conclusion that First Nations schools are disadvantaged in ways that are likely to affect the quality of education is clear and consistent enough to be accepted with some confidence.

The degree of disadvantage does not appear to be massive, but neither is it trivial. The First Nations schools appear to be from 15% to 30% worse off than Provincial schools on many important indicators of quality.

FIGURE 1: SIZE OF SCHOOL.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
and Comparable Provincial Schools,
Fall 1983).

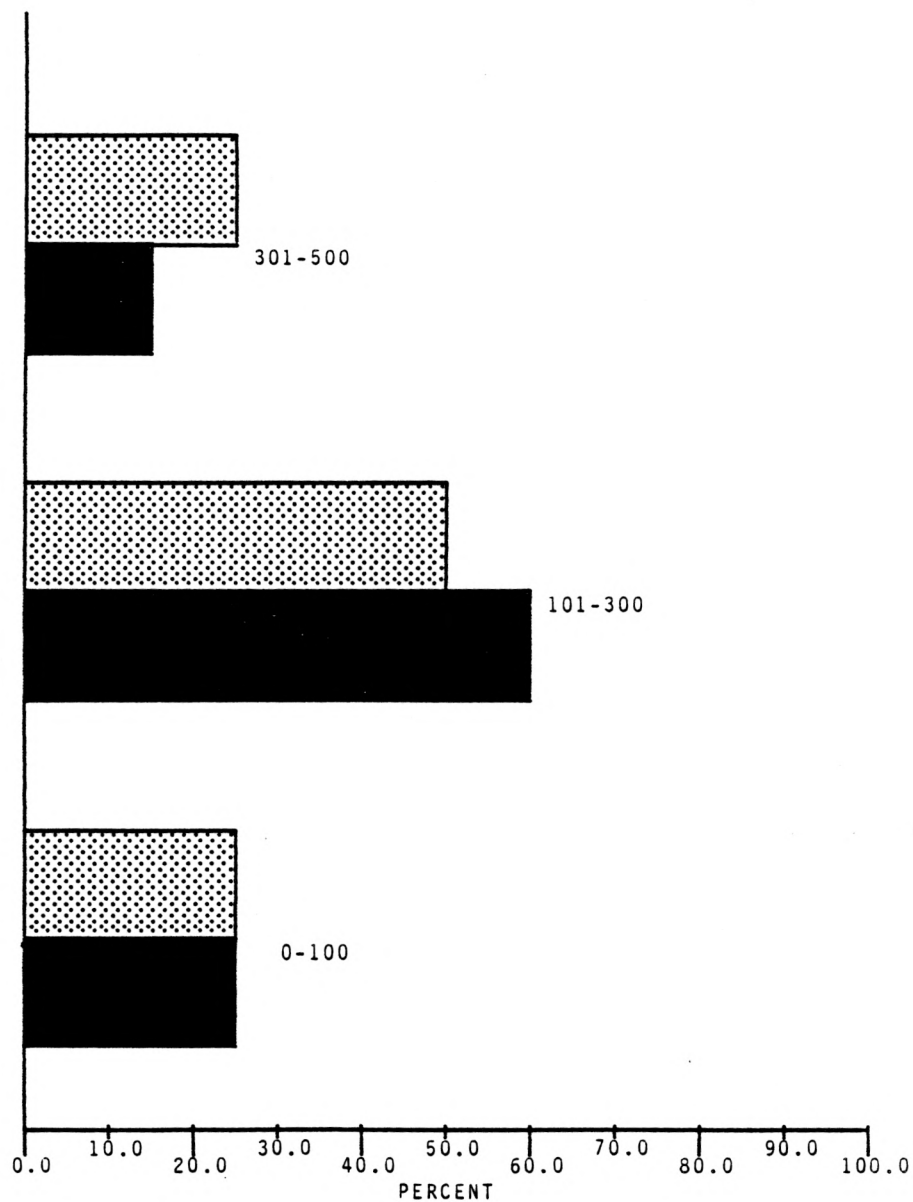


FIGURE 2: GRADES IN SCHOOL.

(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
and Comparable Provincial Schools,
Fall 1983).

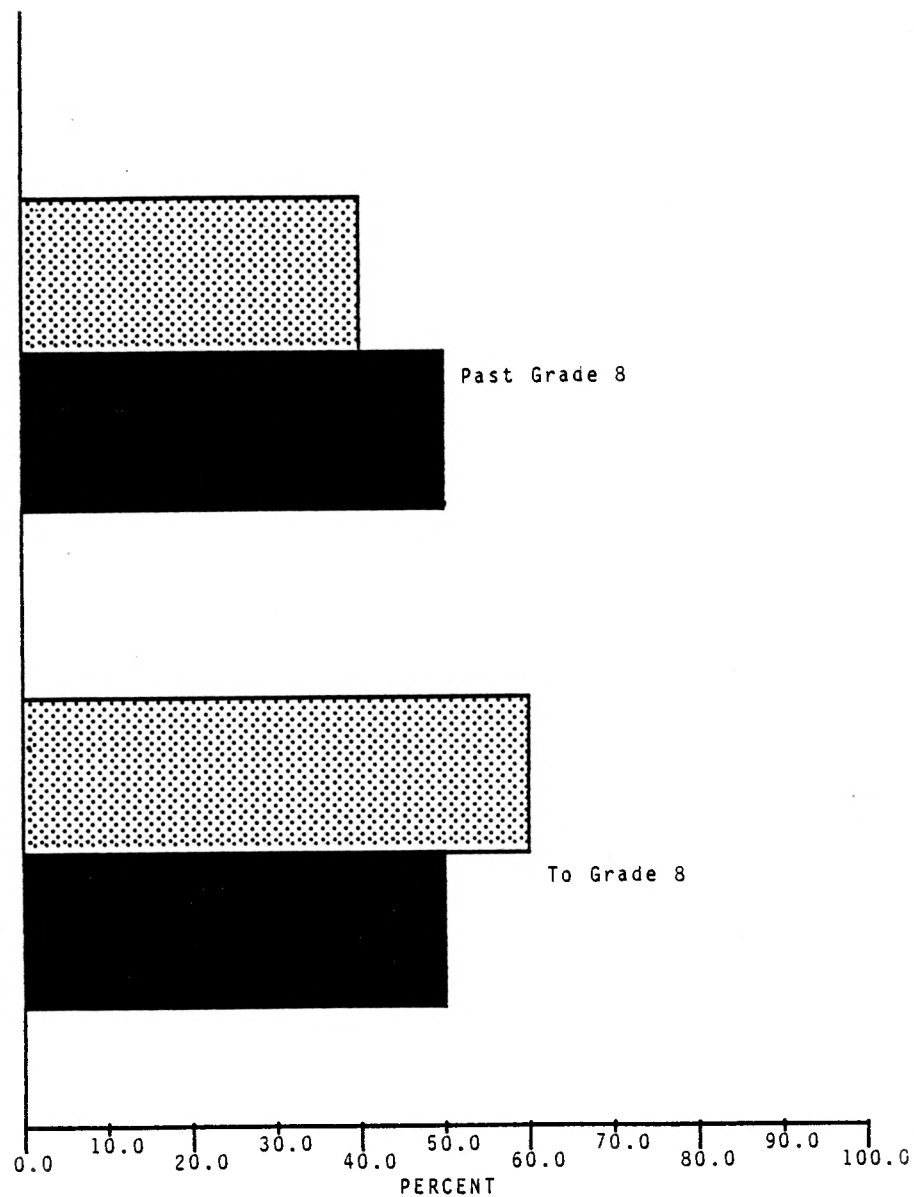


FIGURE 3: NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOL.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)

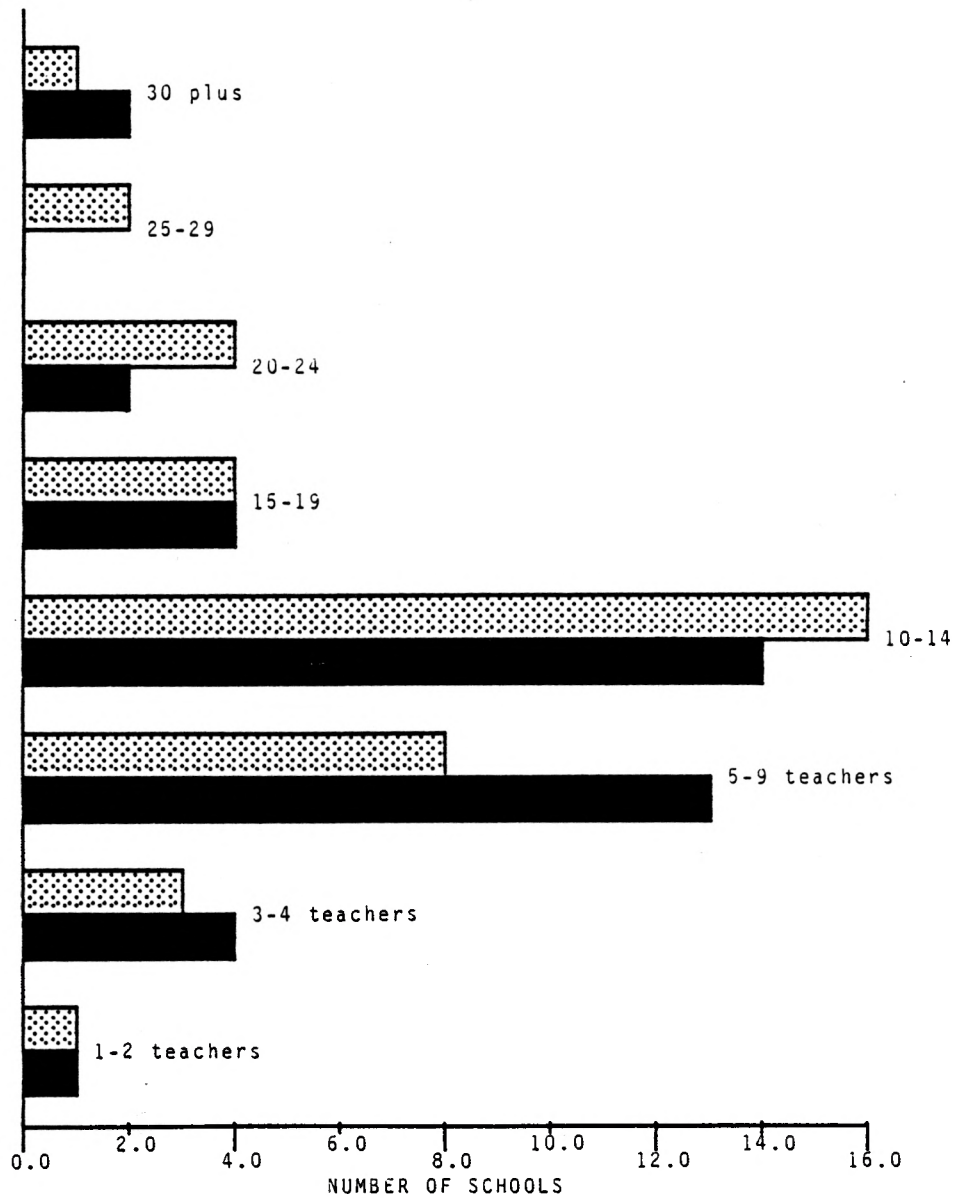


FIGURE 4: PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS WHO ARE NATIVE INDIANS.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)

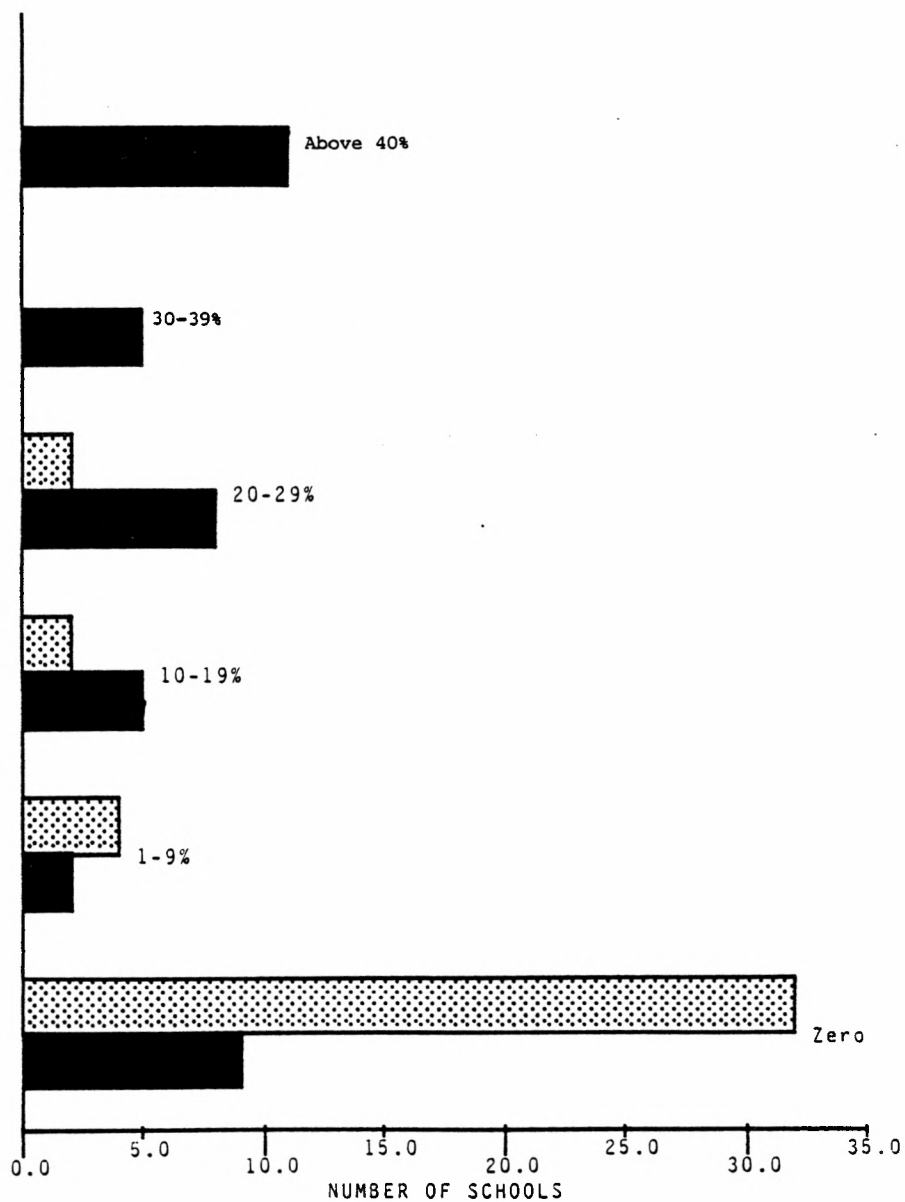


FIGURE 5: NUMBER OF CLASSROOMS IN THE SCHOOLS.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
and Comparable Provincial Schools,
Fall 1983.)

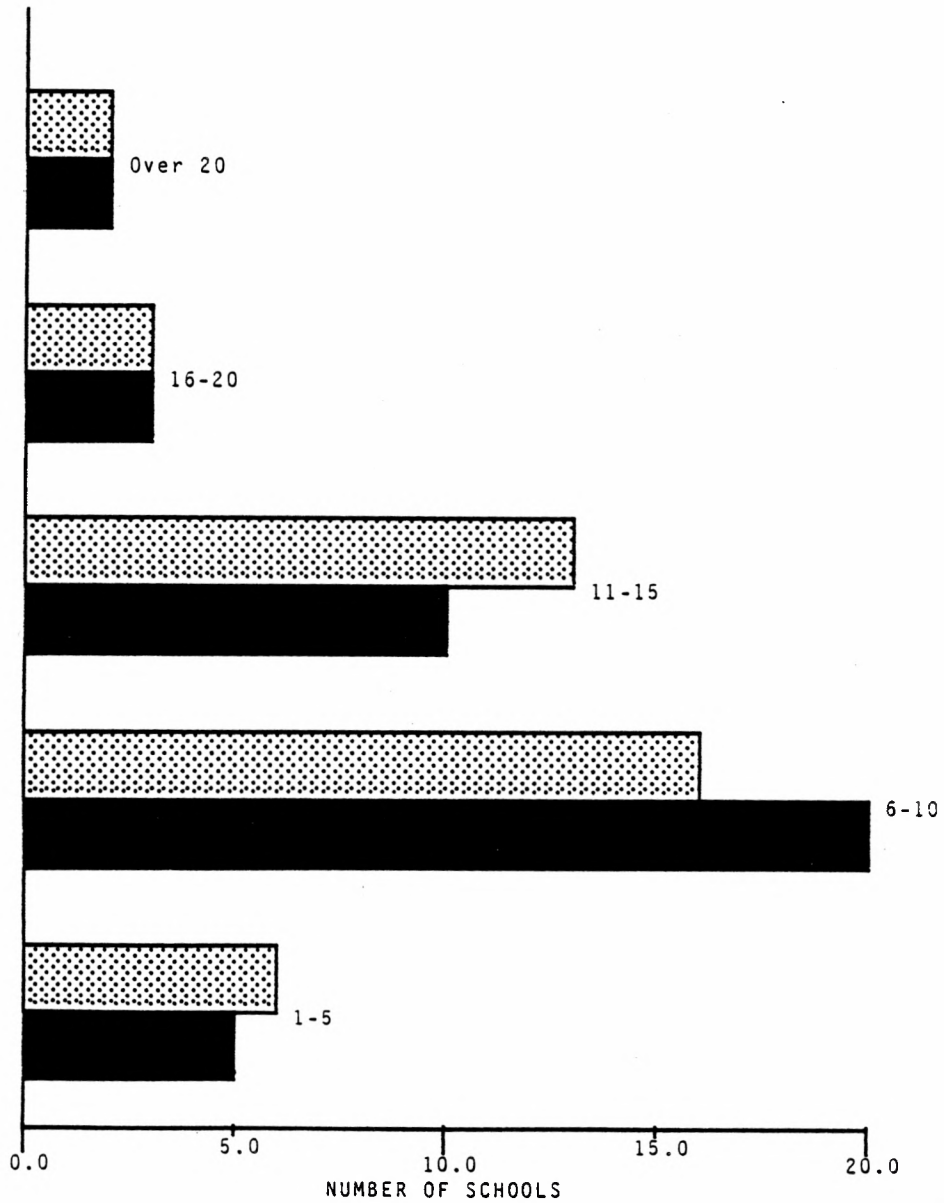
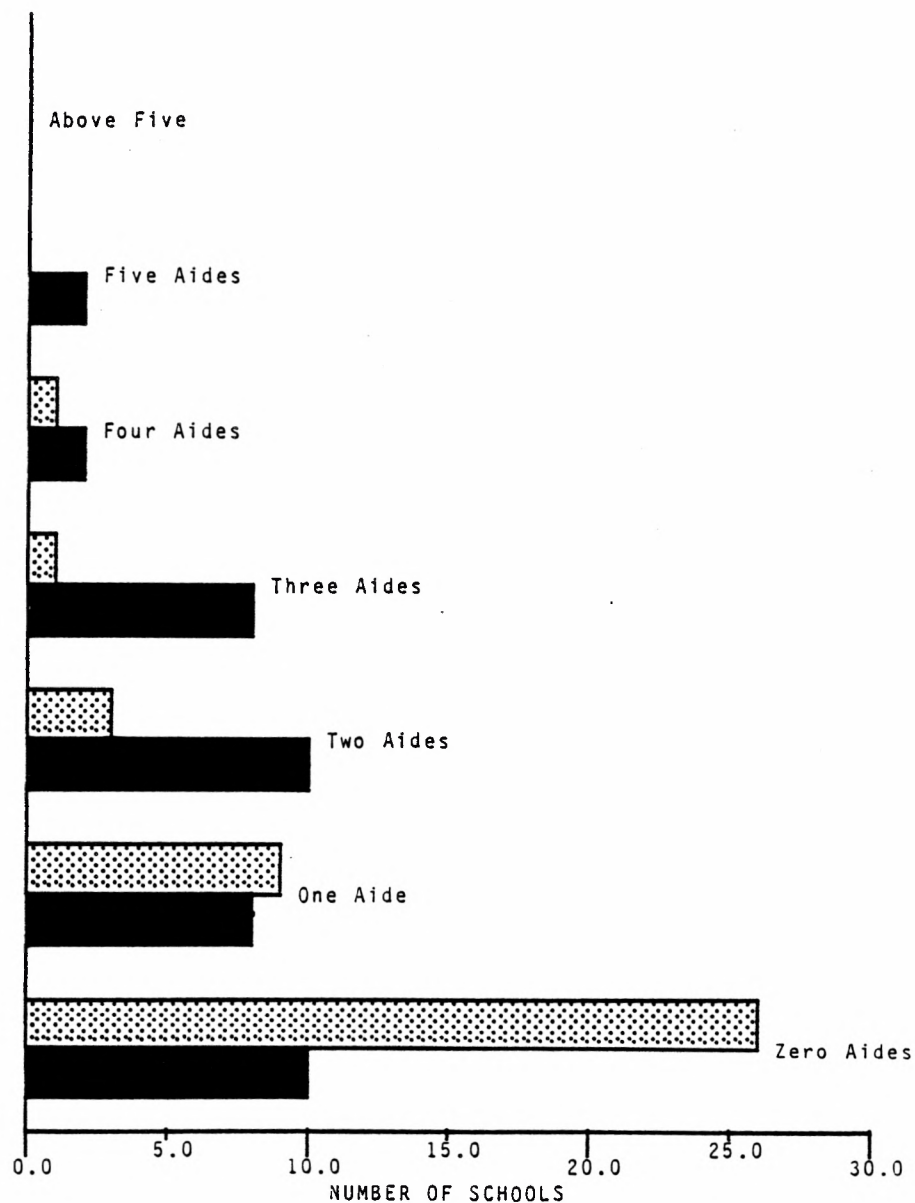


FIGURE 6: NUMBER OF NATIVE TEACHER AIDES IN THE SCHOOL.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)



NOTE: The total number of aides, native and non-native, in Indian schools is 73, and in the corresponding Provincial schools is 41.

FIGURE 7: NUMBER OF SCHOOLS HAVING SPECIAL USE ROOMS.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)

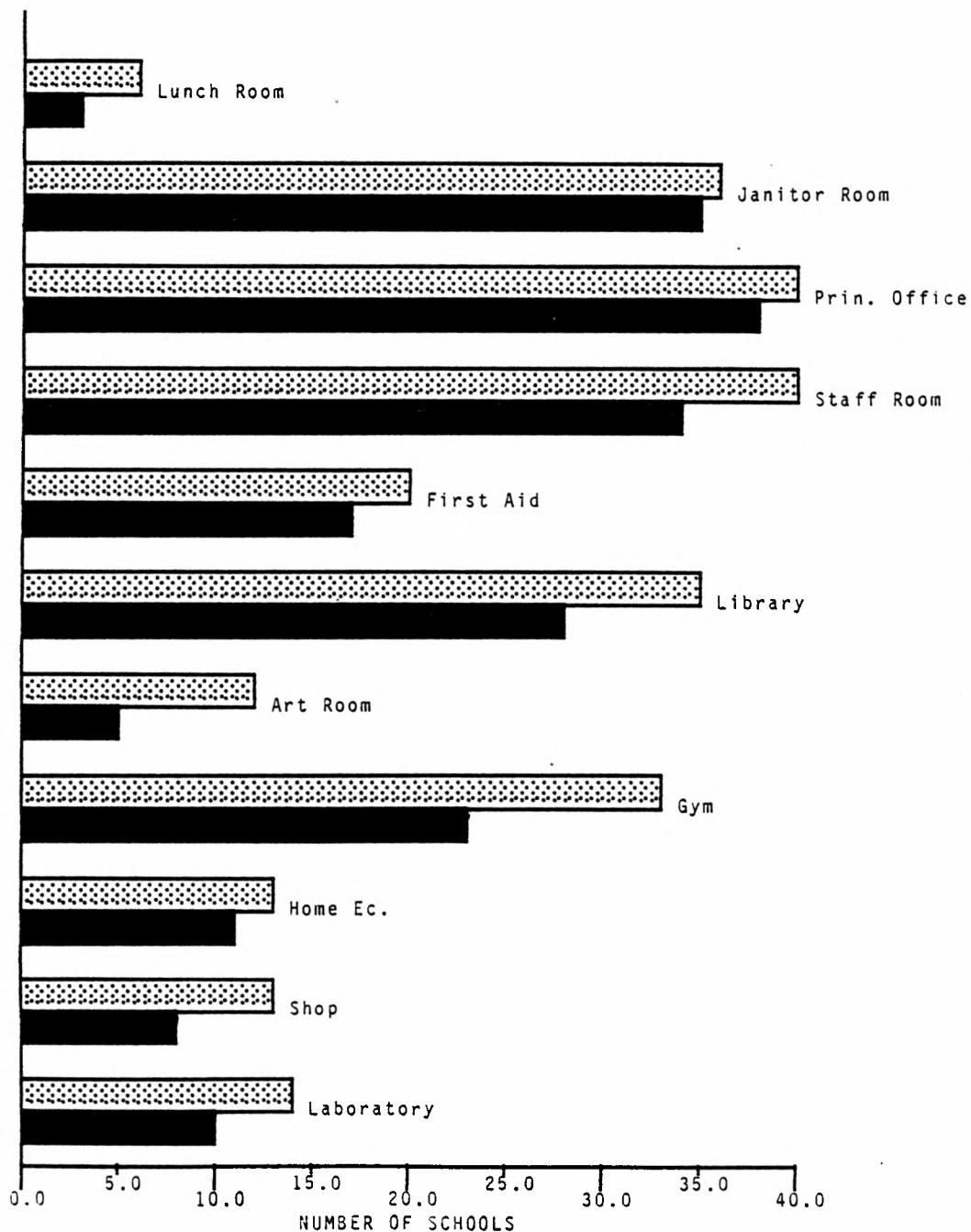


FIGURE 8: NUMBER OF PRE-FAB SCHOOLS. (ALL OR LARGE PART)
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
and Comparable Provincial Schools,
Fall 1983.)

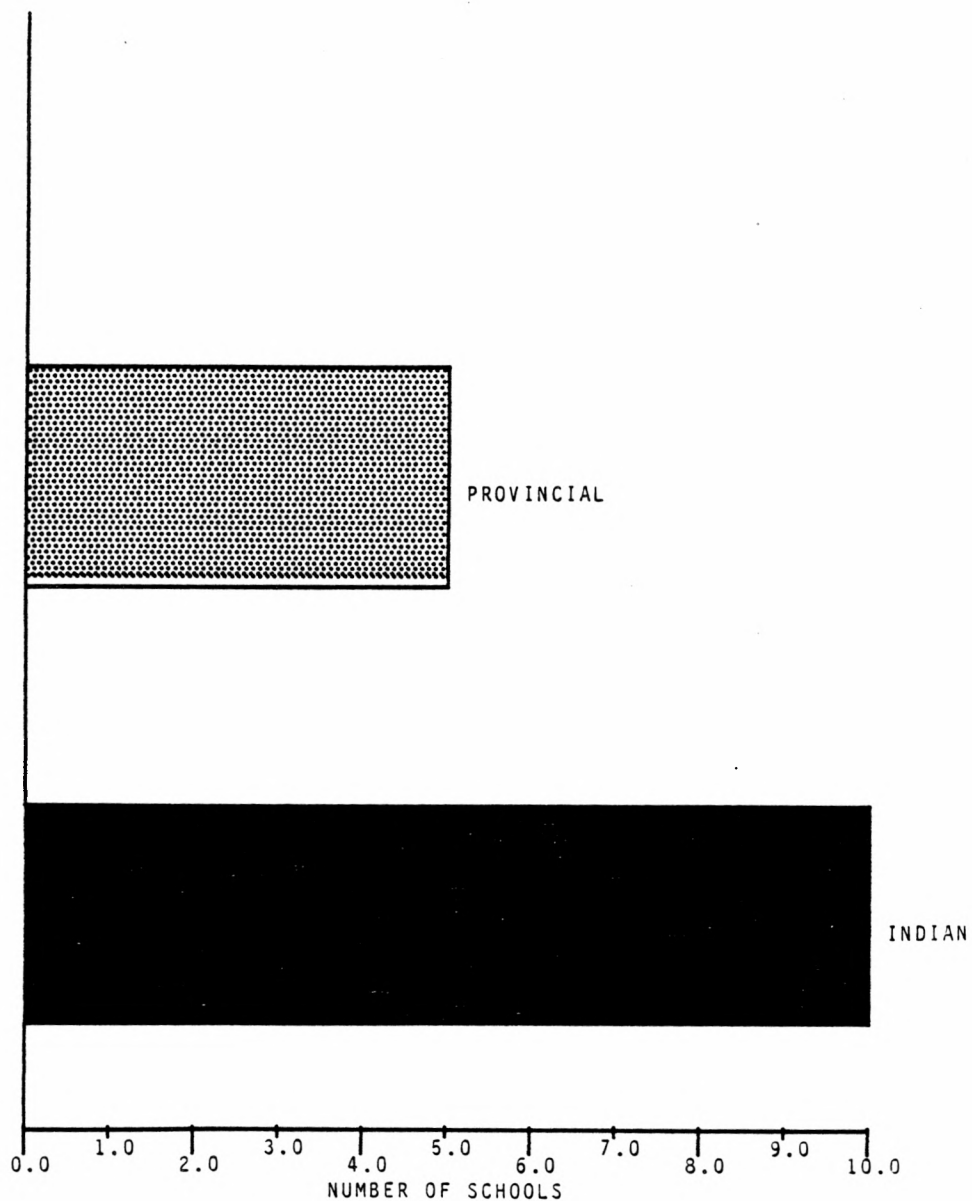


FIGURE 9: NUMBER OF SCHOOLS HAVING ONLY A PART-TIME PRINCIPAL.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
and Comparable Provincial Schools,
Fall 1983.)

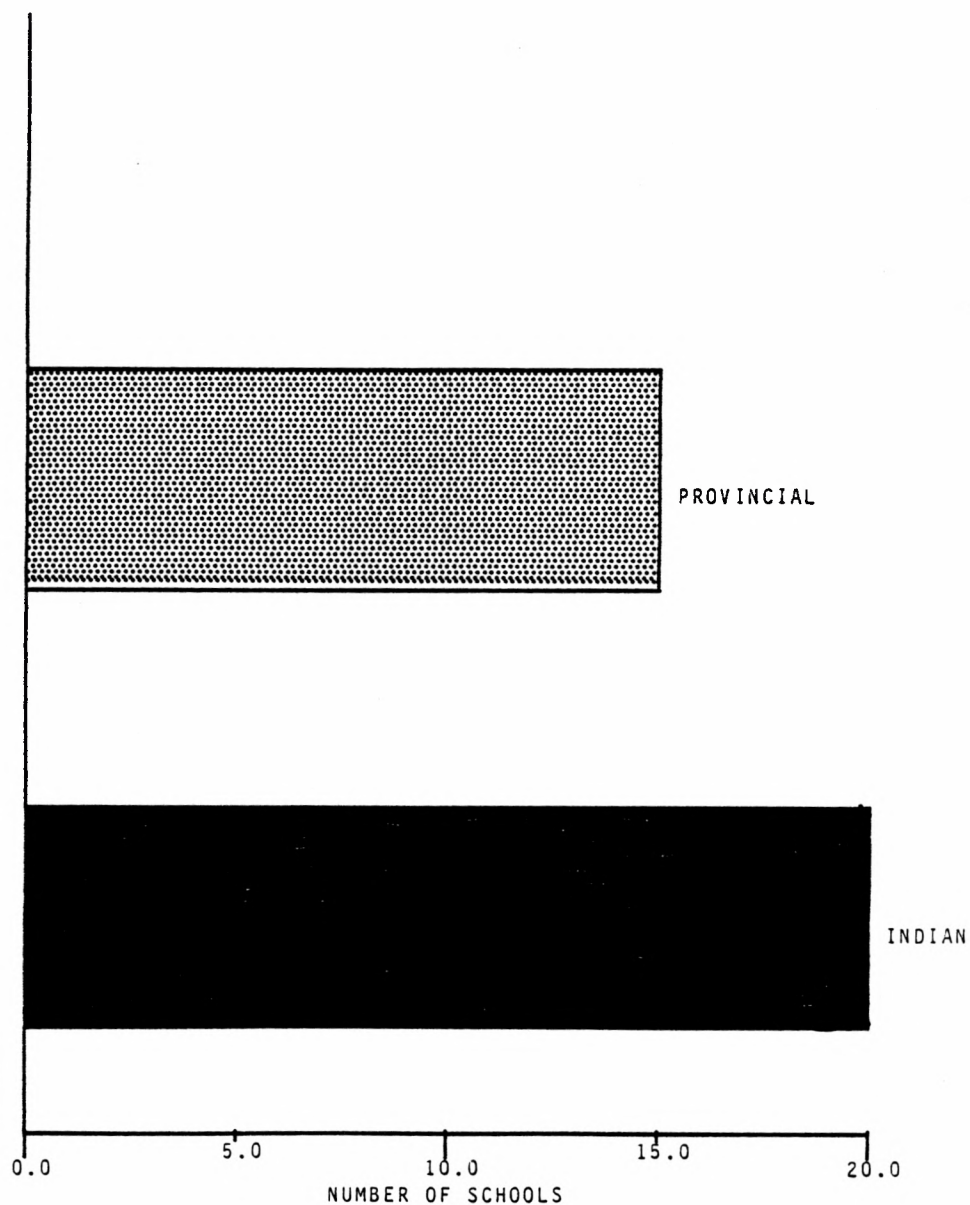
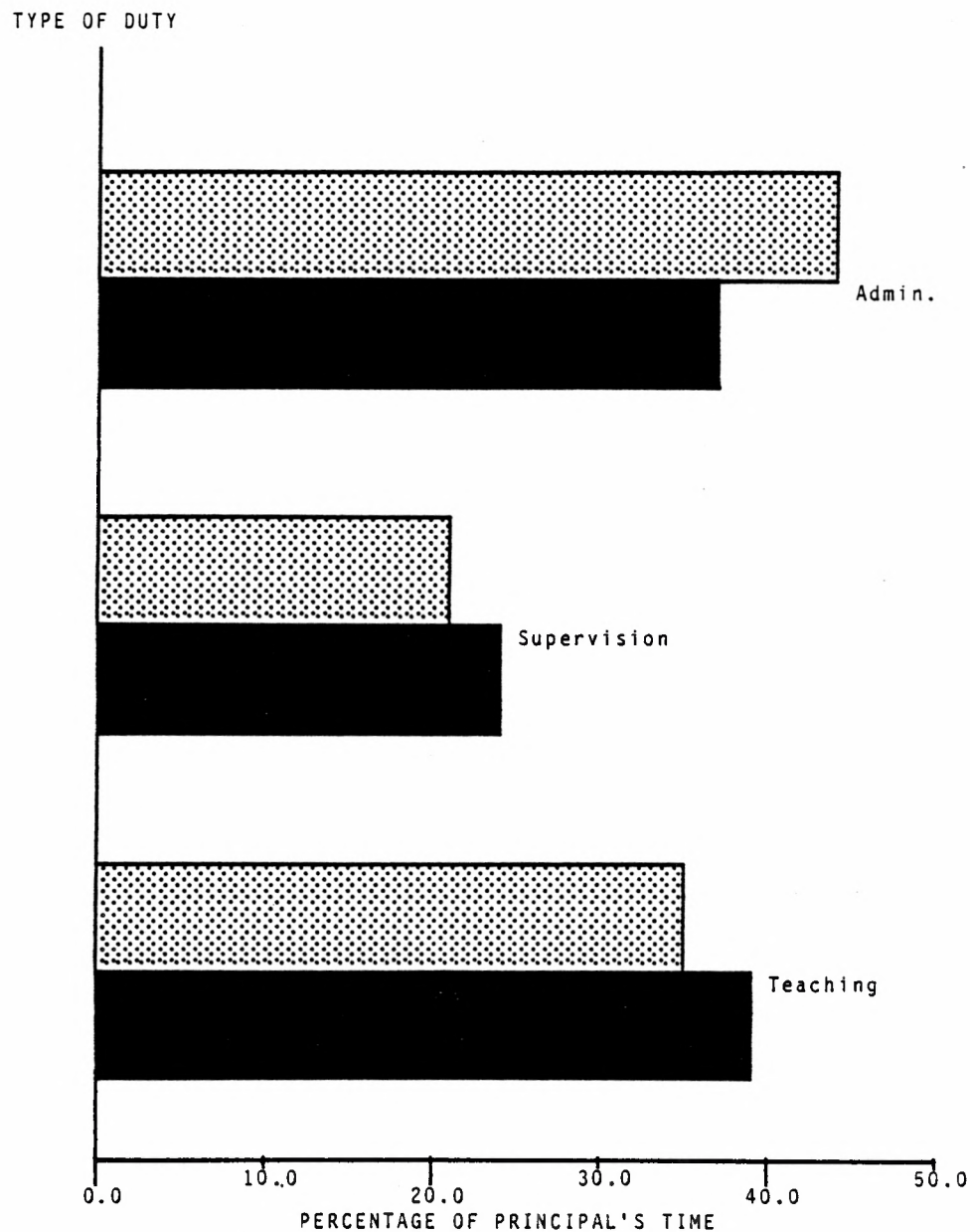


FIGURE 10: ALLOCATION OF PRINCIPAL'S TIME.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)



NOTE: 15 Indian school principals and 8 Provincial principals spent no time teaching.

FIGURE 11: PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN MULTIPLE GRADE CLASSES.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian
 and Comparable Provincial Schools,
 Fall 1983.)

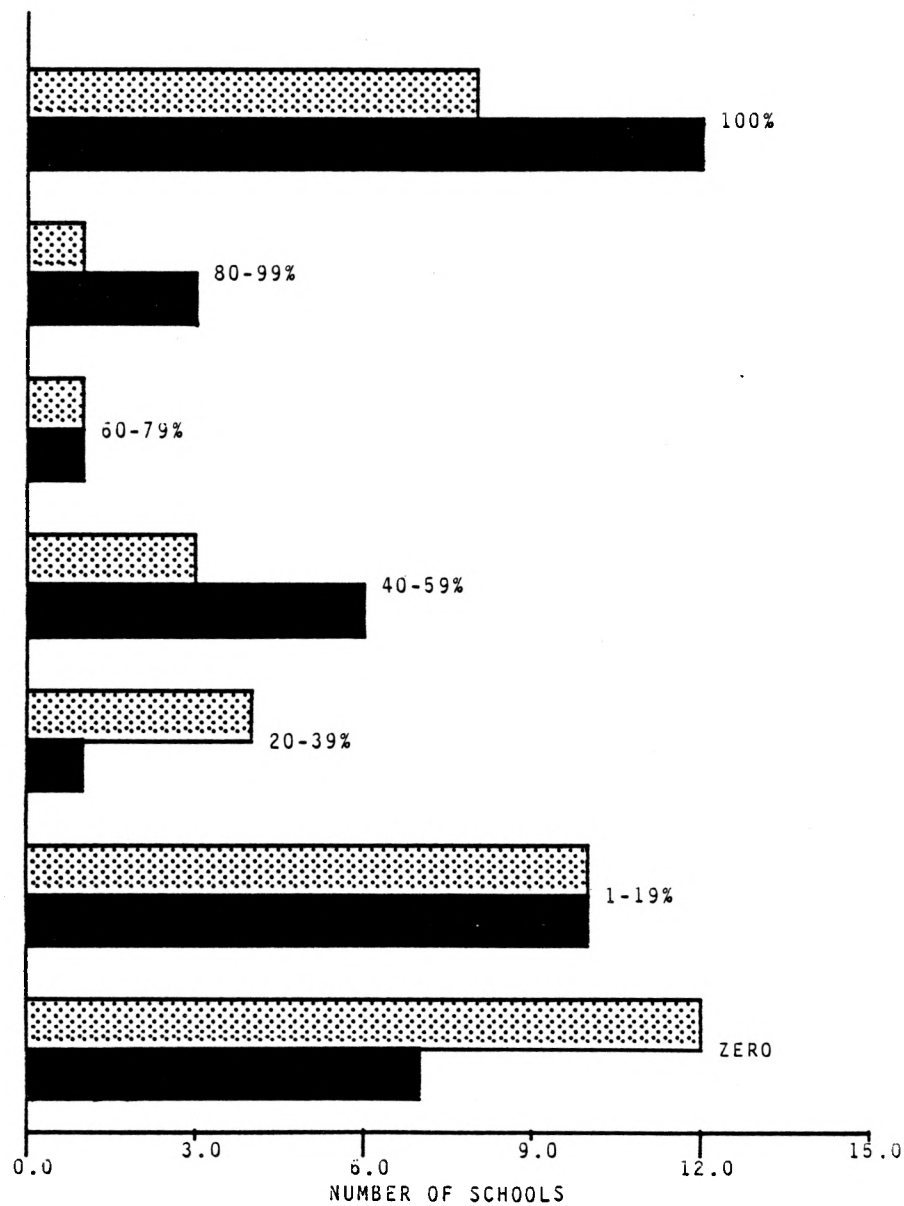


FIGURE 13: PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION OF TEACHERS.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
 and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

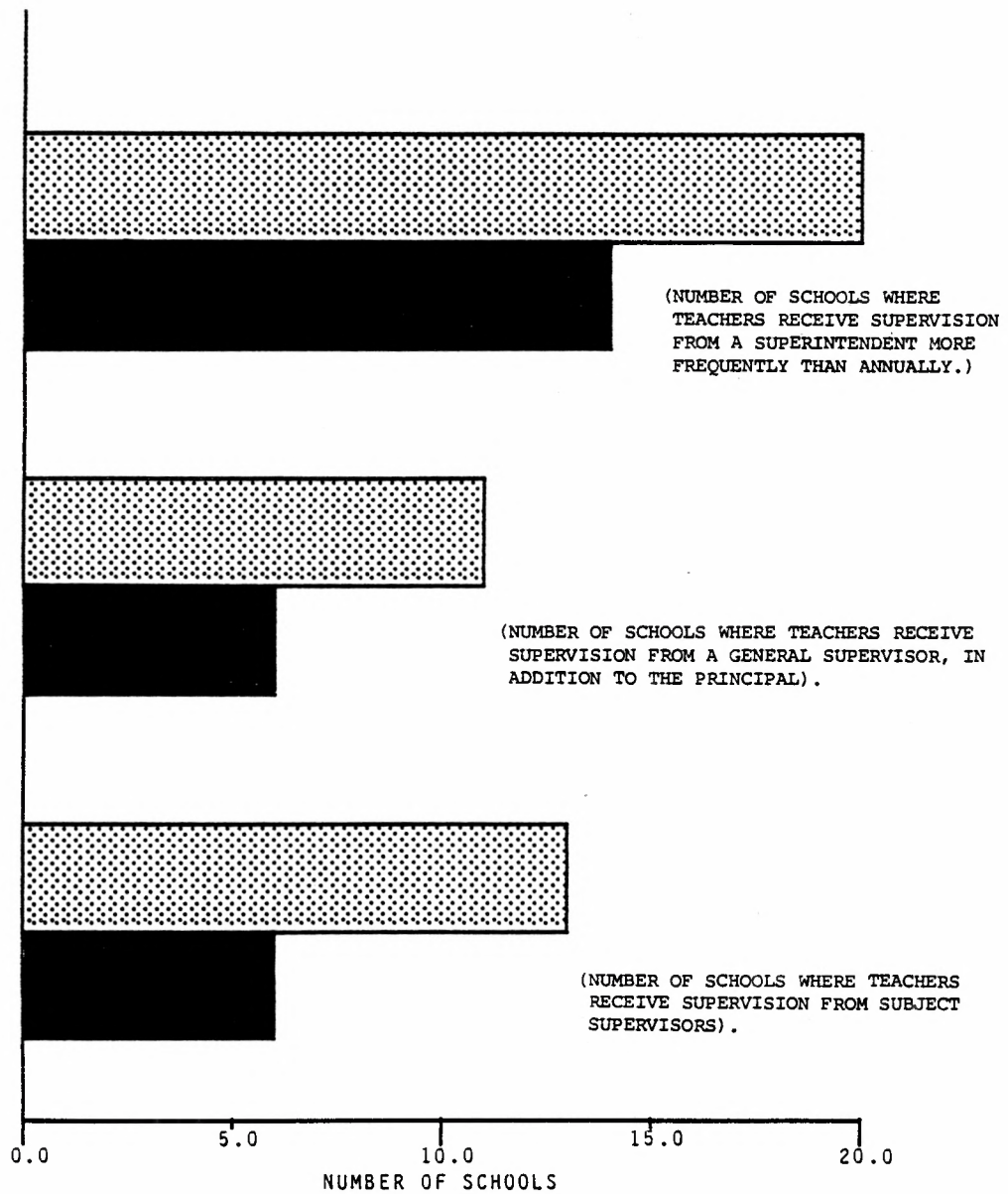


FIGURE 14: QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

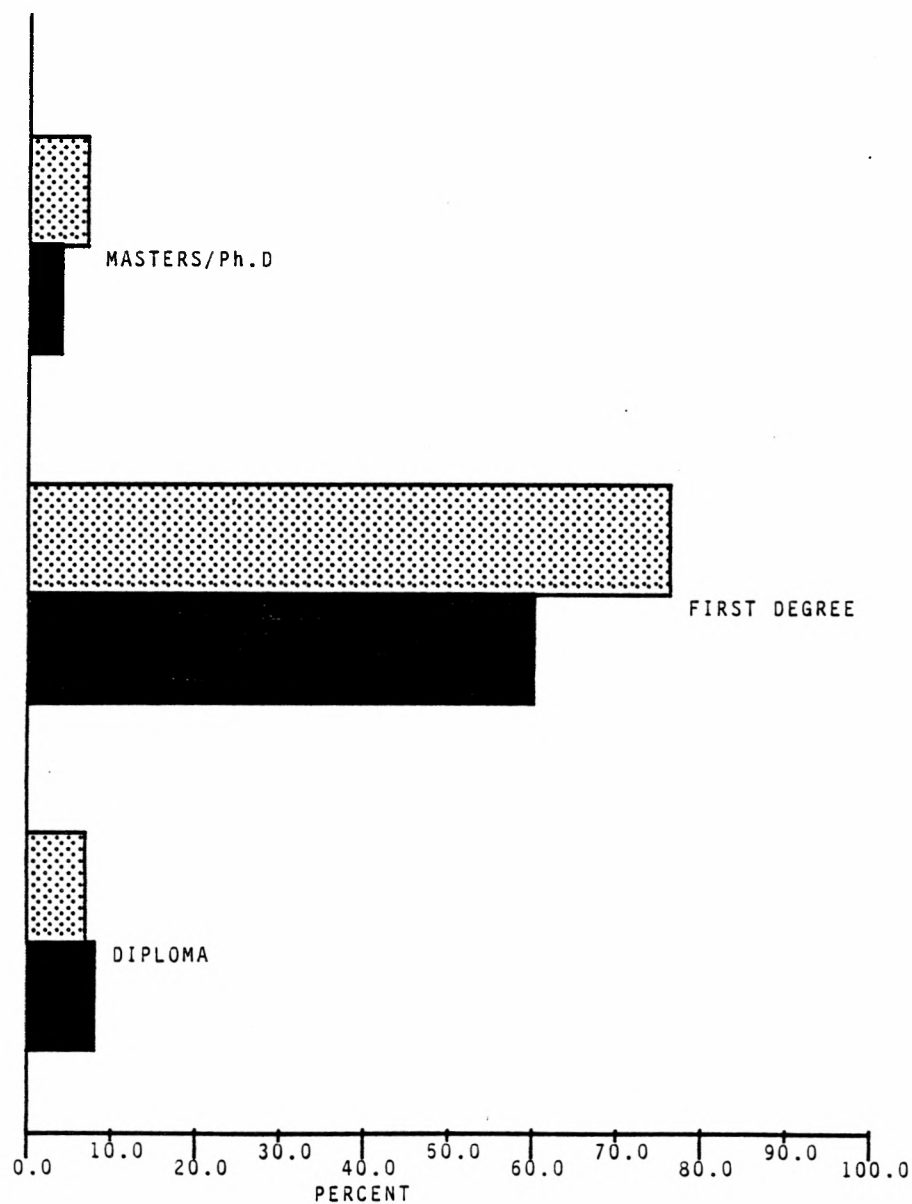


FIGURE 15: PLACE OF TEACHING CERTIFICATION.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

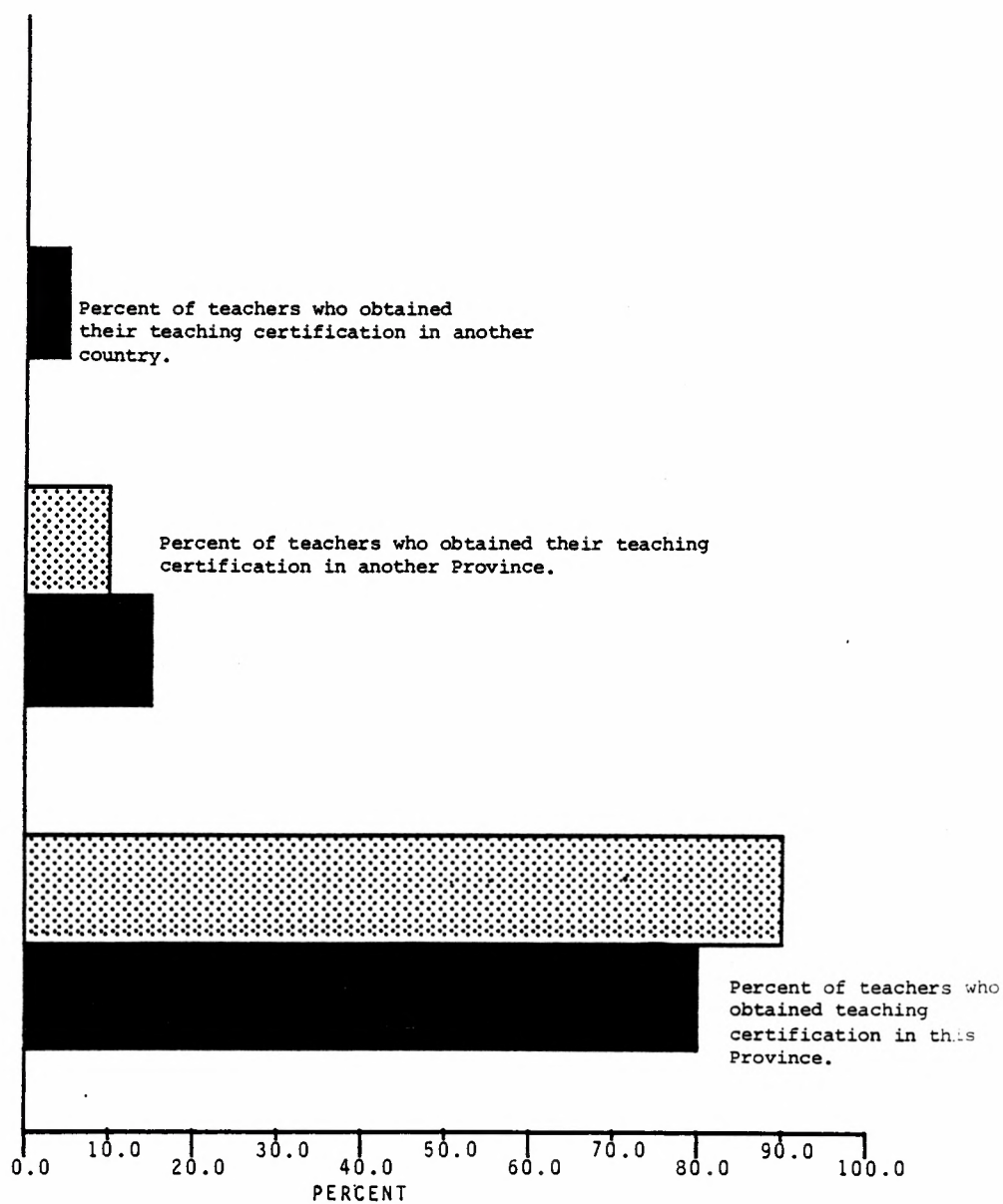


FIGURE 16: LARGEST CLASS IN THE SCHOOL.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
 and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

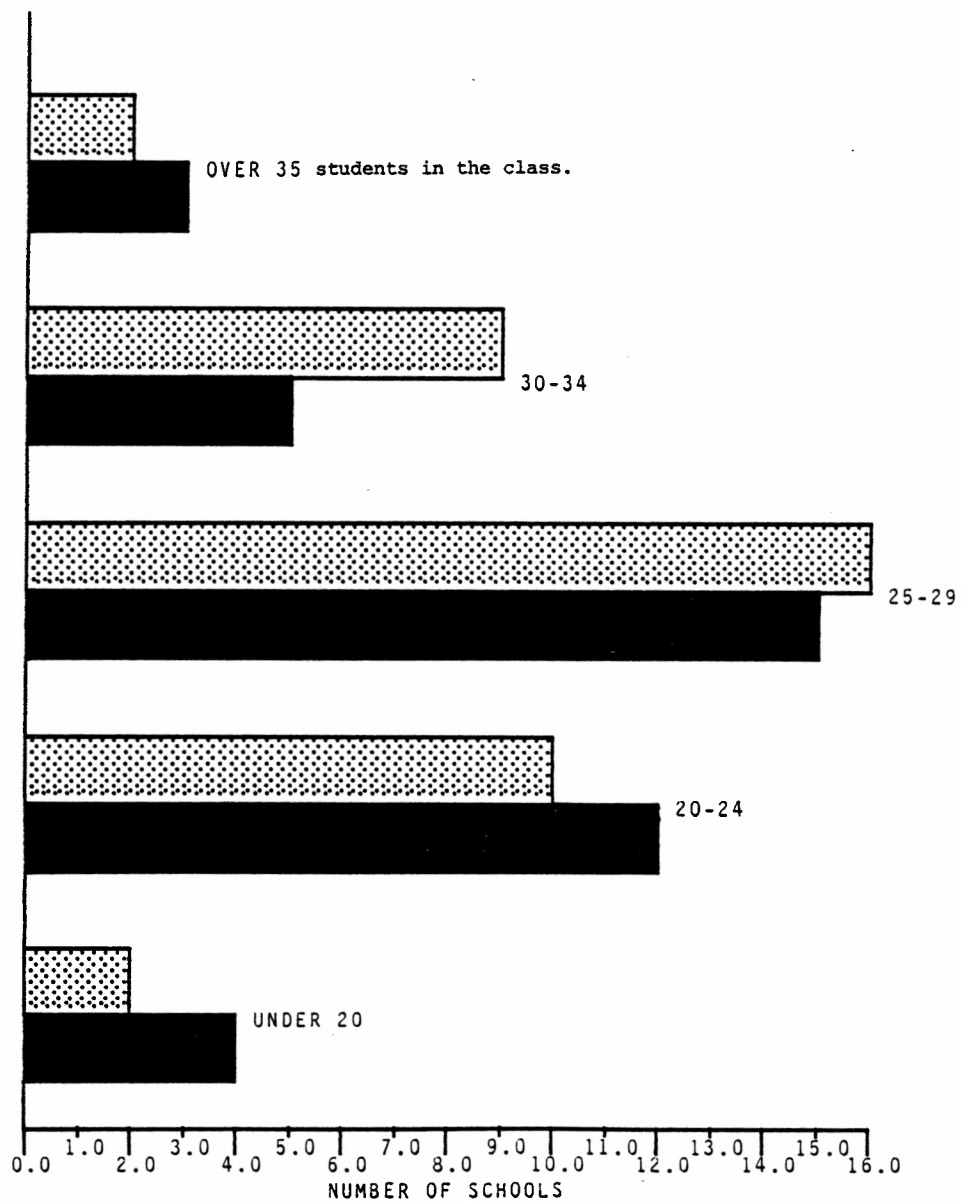


FIGURE 17: PERCENTAGE OF NEW TEACHERS THIS YEAR.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

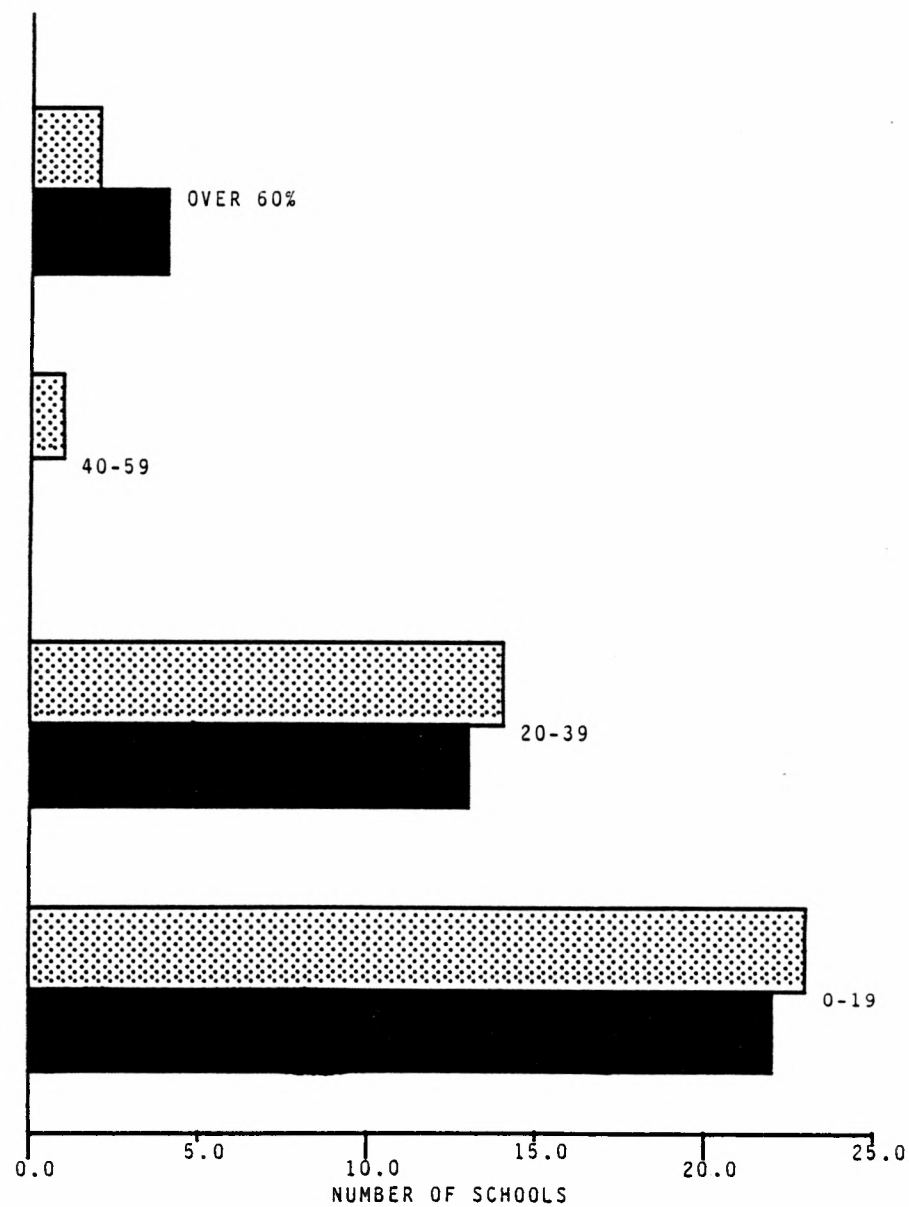


FIGURE 18: NUMBER OF SCHOOLS OFFERING INDIAN STUDIES/LANGUAGE.
(Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

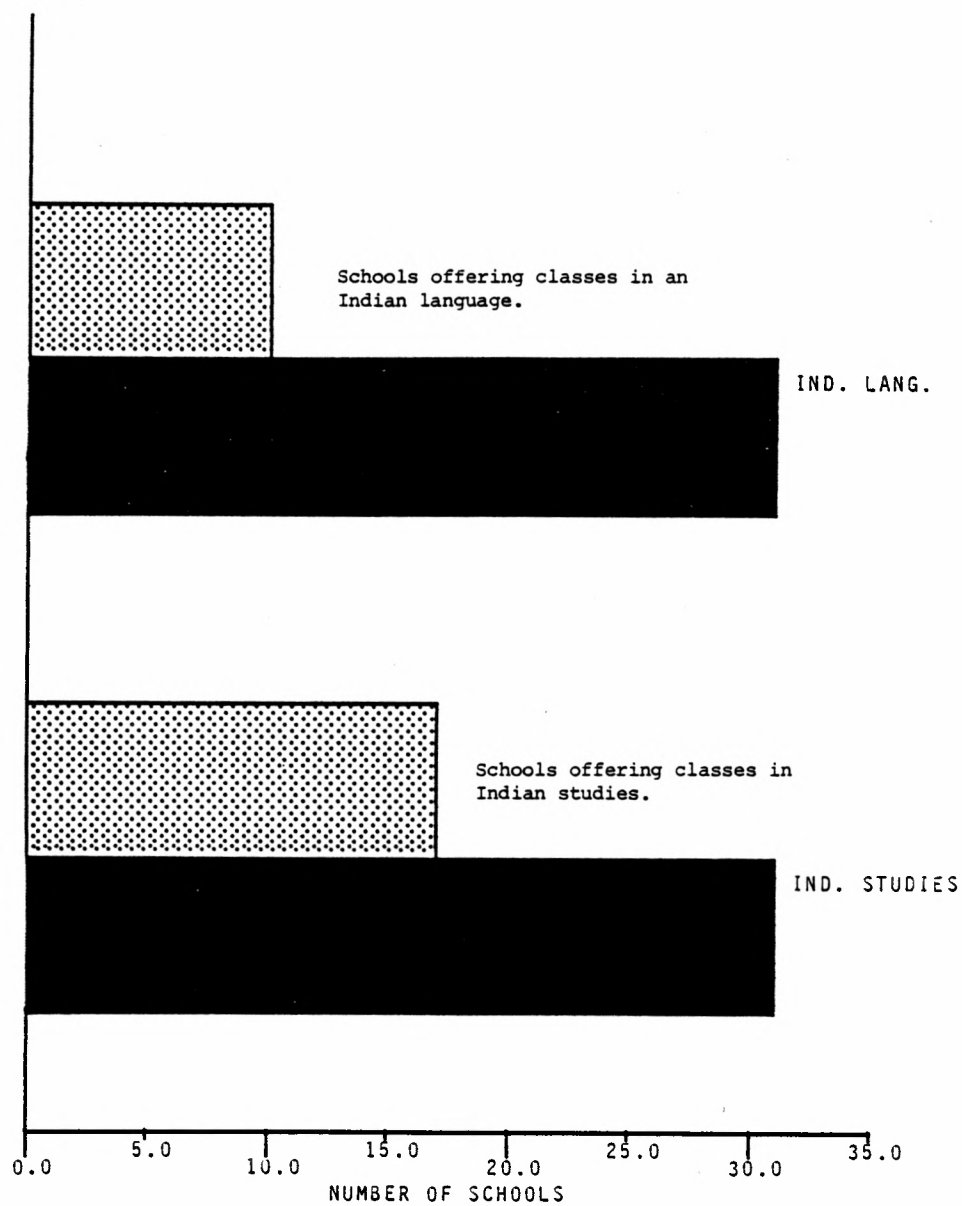


FIGURE 19: NUMBER OF STAFF TRAINING DAYS.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
 and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

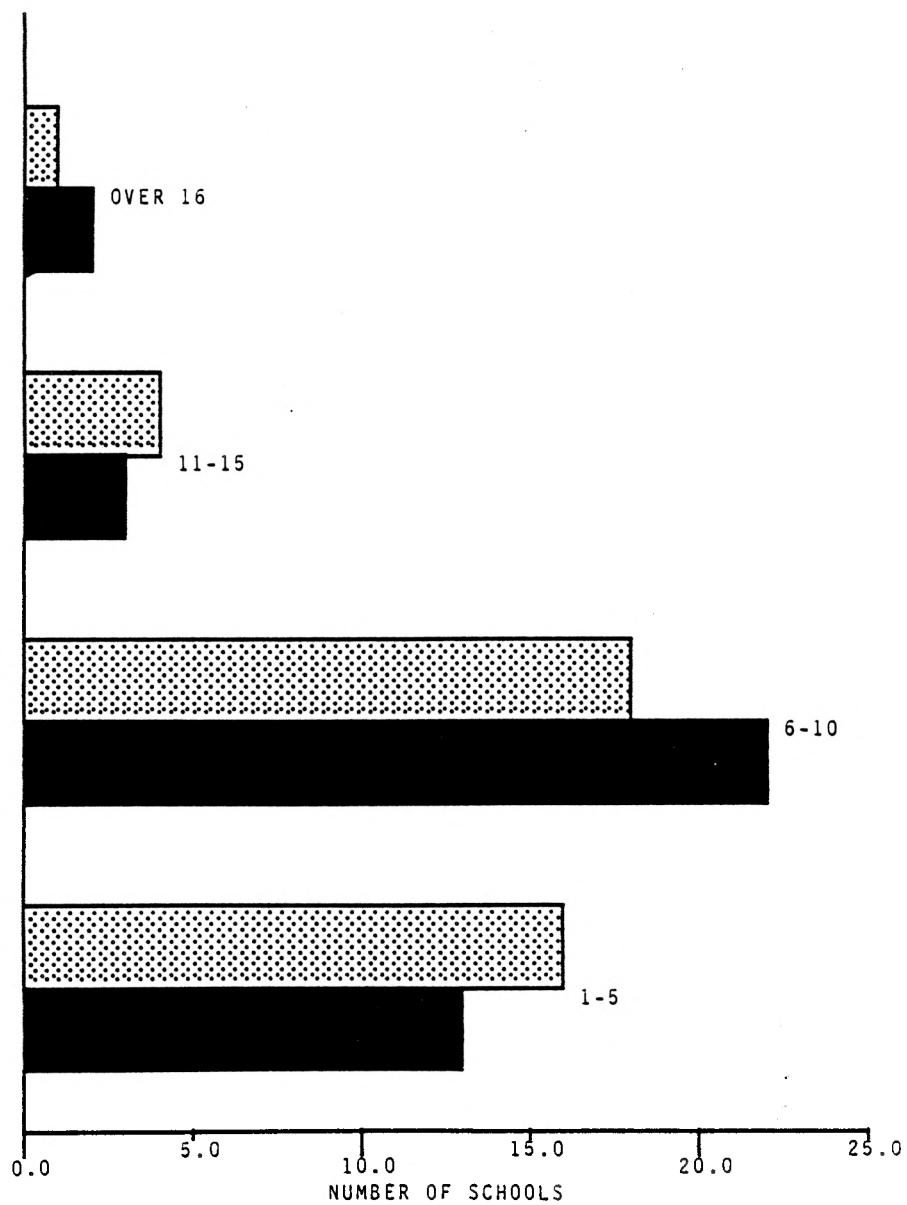


FIGURE 20: AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
 and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

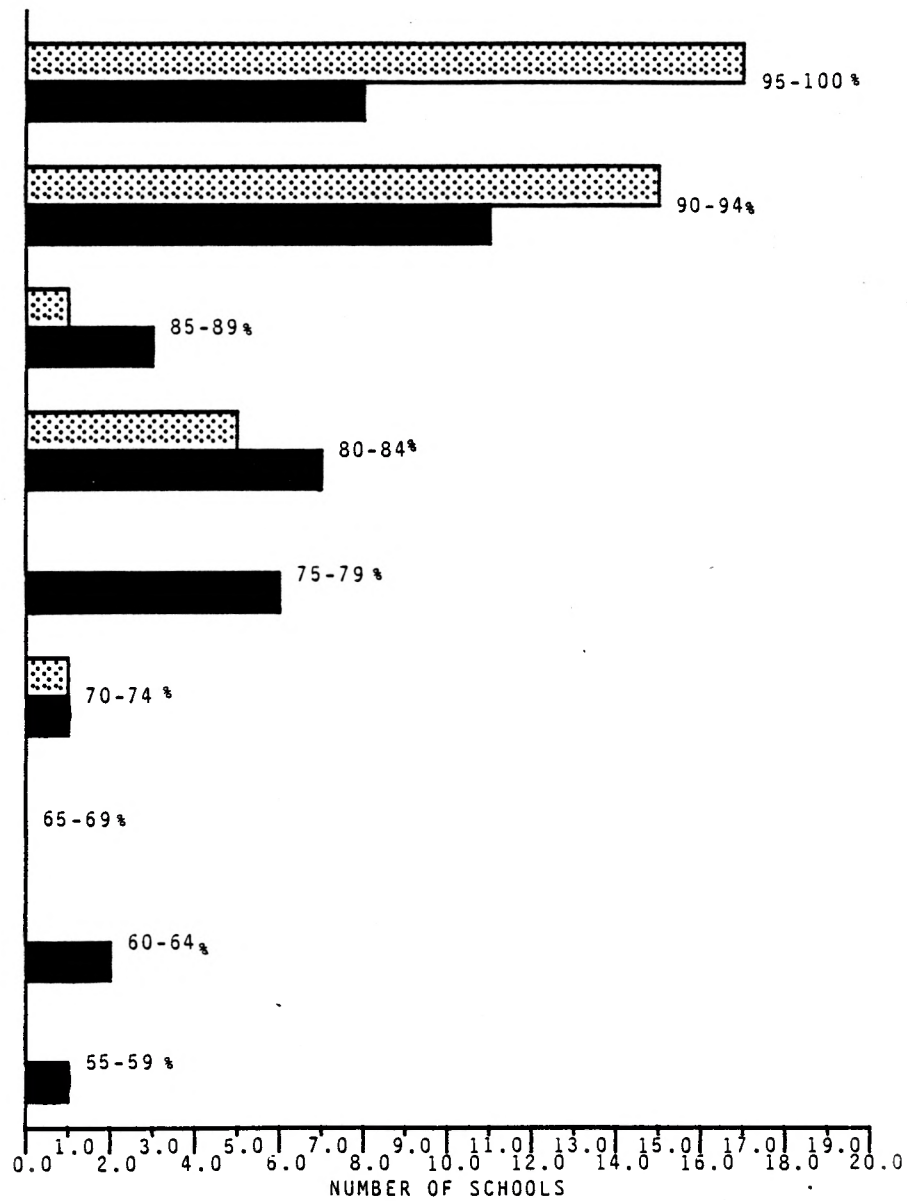


FIGURE 21: PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS.
 (Source: DIAND Survey of Indian Schools
 and comparable Provincial Schools, Fall 1983.)

