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ABSTRACT

In 1967 the OECD Committee for Scientific and Technical Personnel launched a series of case studies concerning problems of innovation in higher education. The present report on the New College systems in Canada reflects the OECD higher education program concerning problems faced by countries in planning and setting up new structures of postsecondary education. The extraordinary expansion of postsecondary education in a country where the Provinces carry the full responsibility for educational matters presents a quasi-unique opportunity to analyze within a comparative framework different strategies aimed at the development and diversification of postsecondary systems. The report focuses on 3 new types of institutions, the Colleges d'Enseignement General and Professional (CEGEP) in Quebec, the Colleges for Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) in Ontario, and the Junior Colleges in Alberta, all of which were set up to provide a variety of educational opportunities at postsecondary level outside the existing university framework. All 3 college systems have a common denominator in that they represent the 'open door' nonuniversity section of higher education. A comparative analysis of their specific objectives, their internal organization, their curricula, their teaching staffs, their links with universities, and of several other aspects, shows clearly the variety of policies and solutions by which this 'open door' sector can become the essential component of a commitment to mass postsecondary education. (Author/PG)

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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT PARIS 1973

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NEW COLLEGE SYSTEMS IN CANADA

by

CICELY WATSON

Department of Educational Planning
THE ONTARIO INSTITUTE FOR STUDIES IN EDUCATION

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT PARIS 1973

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FOREWORD

In 1967 the OECD Committee for Scientific and Technical Personnel (replaced by the Education Committee since 1970), as part of its programme of work on the development of post-secondary education, launched a series of case-studies concerning problems of innovation in higher education in Member countries. In the following years five such studies were published : two of them dealt with particular new universities (1) and three with major reforms in the system of higher education (2). The present report, originally conceived as a sixth study in this series, also reflects the more recent shift in emphasis of the Organisation's higher education programme to problems faced by Member countries in planning and setting up new structures of post-secondary education (3).

It is in this perspective that the present study on New College Systems in Canada may be considered of particular interest to other countries. The extraordinary expansion of post-secondary education in a country where the Provinces carry the full responsibility for educational matters presents a quasi unique opportunity to analyse within a comparative framework different strategies aimed at the development and diversification of post-secondary systems.

The report focusses on three new types of institutions, namely the Collèges d'Enseignement Général et Professionnel (CEGEP) in Quebec, the Colleges for Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) in Ontario and the Junior Colleges in Alberta (4), all of which were set up to provide a variety of educational opportunities at post-secondary level outside the existing university framework. Student demand for this type of education together with the increasing demand for middle level manpower were crucial factors in the development of these institutions.

All three college systems have a common denominator in that they represent the "open door" non-university sector of higher education ; at the same time a comparative analysis of their specific objectives, their internal organisation, their curricula, their teaching staff, their links with universities and of several other aspects shows clearly the variety of policies and solutions by which this open door sector can become the essential component of a commitment to mass post-secondary education.

The study was undertaken under contract by the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and written as well as directed by Dr. Cicely Watson, Professor, Department of Educational Planning,(OISE). The text represents an abridged version prepared by the OECD Secretariat of the original and more detailed document by Dr. Watson.

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1) New Universities in the United Kingdom, H.J. Perkin, OECD, Paris, 1969, and Three German Universities, Aachen, Bochum, Konstanz, by E. Böning and K. Roeloffs, OECD, Paris, 1970.

2) French Experience before 1968, C. Grignon and J.C. Passeron, OECD, Paris, 1970 ; Reforms in Yugoslavia, Institute for Social Research, University of Zagreb, OECD, Paris, 1970, and Technical Education in the United Kingdom, Tyrell Burgess and John Pratt, OECD, Paris, 1971.

3) Towards New Structures of Post-Secondary Education, OECD, Paris, 1971. Short Cycle Higher Education : A Search for Identity, OECD, Paris (to be published).

4) Although Junior Colleges in Alberta have existed for over fifty years, their rapid expansion during the past decade and the creation of a system of colleges justified their inclusion.

AUTHOR'S ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter 1

BACKGROUND OF THE INNOVATIONS

In September 1970, the beginning of academic year 1970-71, an estimated 74,000 students throughout Canada entered post-secondary non-university institutions. Since 1965, the number of enrolments in this new sector of the education system has increased about threefold, and the sector itself has been radically transformed and redefined.

The types of courses offered in Canada before 1965 which might have been described as post-secondary were extremely varied in purpose, content, standards, curricula, teaching methods, institutional locations, recruitment and financing. There was no "system". There was, indeed, no definable "sector" - just a "residue". Three traditional levels of education, varying somewhat in nomenclature, existed in each of the provinces of Canada, namely elementary (1), secondary (2), and higher (3) education. There was some need to "translate" the nomenclature from province to province and from the English-language system to the French-language system, but with explanations and definitions of equivalents, the systems could be fairly precisely described.

Between the secondary and higher education sectors there were institutions offering courses that overlapped to some extent, at least in level of study, with the universities and the secondary schools, creating parallel but quite different study streams. Because these institutions were sponsored by many different public authorities, their relationships to each other and to the more traditional sectors of publicly supported education were difficult to pin down. Their existence was based on a variety of public regulating acts and private agreements which might almost be regarded as negotiated "treaties". The academic standards of these institutions ranged from equivalence to the liberal arts and pure sciences of the university to equivalence to trade and apprenticeship studies. The institutions with the latter, less sophisticated, standards offered courses that required no prior study other than the basic general education of the level of grades 9 or 10. Between these extremes were teachers' colleges for training elementary school teachers, hospital and regional nurses' training schools, agricultural colleges, programmes of business education controlled by professional organisations, and programmes of industrial education controlled by trade organisations.

Before 1966, this complex constituted the "residue". In many ways its treatment was consistent with such a definition. Public involvement and responsibility defied description : in some cases, control was minimal ; in others, these institutions were comparable to the schools of any local education authority or to the faculties of any university. Some programmes were self-supporting, through fees or professional subsidies ; others were operating on directly allocated public moneys.

Over the past few years in several Canadian provinces, this sector of education has been rationalized ; "new" systems have emerged, with provincial "systems boundaries",

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1) Or primary or public schools.

2) Or high schools, collegiates, or academies.

3) Universities and liberal arts colleges.

differing somewhat but all recognisably similar. This report is concerned with three of these systems. Moving from east to west, it will examine (1) les collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel of Quebec (CEGEP), (2) the colleges of applied arts and technology of Ontario (CAATs), and (3) the colleges of Alberta. Underlying all the work in this study have been these questions : How new is the system ? If there has been a real innovation, wherein does it manifest itself - merely in the systematisation, or in the matters that directly characterise the institutions as educational agencies such as their purposes, students, teachers, programmes of study, and financing ?

In recognising innovation we have been extremely generous. Admitting that, in one sense, "there is nothing new under the sun" in the field of education, we still take the position that if something is completely new to a jurisdiction it must be considered "new", even if it has been copied, in almost every detail, from a neighbour. We therefore regard a radical departure from tradition as innovation. We also regard, in the same way, the decisive victory of one trend or school of thought over another in a jurisdiction where there was confusion and conflict prior to the period under study.

Since there are degrees of innovation, we must not merely try to decide whether these colleges represent an innovation but to decide of how radical a nature. Canada shares a continent with the United States, from whom she borrows many educational movements and ideas. She shares the general educational heritage of the English-speaking and French-speaking worlds, and of Great Britain and France in particular. So it would indeed be surprising if innovations in Canadian educational service were entirely divorced from developments in these three countries. But do these Canadian innovations contain the seeds and conditions for a new sector, that can really cope with some of the educational problems of the country, or is Canada slavishly following a model derived from elsewhere - be it junior college, technical institute, or classical college ?

THE CEGEP OF QUEBEC

The development of the CEGEP in Quebec can be understood only by considering their establishment in the light of the educational revolution that has been taking place in that province, and in the setting of the social, economic, and political changes that were brought about by successive provincial governments since 1960.

The Parent Commission

In April 1961, a Royal Commission to study possible reforms for Quebec's education system was set up. Its five-volume report (4), which appeared in the years between 1963 and 1966, drew up a blueprint for a complex, modern education system suited to the needs of a highly industrialised urban society. It recommended the creation of a ministry of education and an advisory superior council of education. It also favoured local administration for the schools and an elementary sector that would give children six years of full-time schooling. This sector would not necessarily be divided into a lock-step, age-grade system but would be organised to allow for continuous progress by subject, and would be housed in schools distributed on a neighbourhood basis. Secondary education would extend over a period of five years, from seventh to eleventh grades, and would be given in comprehensive high schools administered by a regional education authority. The first two years of these secondary schools would be general in nature, and the final three more

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4) Report of The Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec (Quebec 1963-1966) Chairman : Alphonse-Marie Parent.

specialised, with a series of core subjects and options built into a wide variety of programmes designed to serve all the youth of a region between the ages of twelve and seventeen (5).

The second volume of the Parent report recommended the creation of a new sector, intermediate between the reformed secondary level and the university level. These new institutions, which were to be called "institutes", would offer pre-university and vocational courses lasting two and three years respectively, following the secondary level (i.e. a twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth year). Thus, they would be, at one and the same time, intermediate and terminal institutions : intermediate, in that students would be required to spend two years at an institute before seeking admission to a university faculty or school ; terminal, in that non-university candidates would directly prepare for employment by special vocational programmes.

The report envisaged some thirty institutes, distributed throughout the province to serve the youth of each region. They would offer a large number of programmes, but only at the post-grade 11 level. These programmes would be comprehensive in character, with courses of varying degrees of academic sophistication - some theoretical, and others more applied with a system of options that would provide for extreme flexibility. Each institute would be a public corporation with a considerable amount of local autonomy, although it was expected that the Ministry of Education would establish uniform admission standards and various quality controls. A minimum of 1,500 full-time students was suggested as being sufficient to ensure the desired "poly" character of the institute without limiting the institutes to large urban centres. The foundations of this system already existed in the form of classical colleges, technical institutes, trades schools, and teacher training schools. The report envisaged the federation of several local institutions into one, as well as the creation of some institutes.

This codification and extension of a number of existing education programmes into the new sector would be matched not only by the reorganised lower levels of education but also by the reform of higher education. It was recommended that the university system be augmented by the creation of a number of new institutions, the charters of which would permit the award of first-level degrees only, i.e. they would provide three-year programmes leading to bachelor degrees but they would have no professional or graduate schools. It was estimated that these institutions, distributed throughout the province, might be able to offer a sufficient range of studies if each had a minimum enrolment of 2,000. In addition, university "centres" were advocated. As branches of established universities they might provide, under the supervision and control of the parent institutions and for as few as 1,000 students in a district, the first year or the first two years of degree programmes in the more popular disciplines of the faculty of arts and science.

Background to the legislation

An Act, based on the findings of the Parent Commission, was passed by the Quebec legislature on June 29, 1967. The proposals of the Parent Commission were not followed in their entirety. The ideas of the university centre and of the university with a limited charter were, for example, not adopted. The new "intermediate" institutions were given the name collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel. An implementing agency the Mission des collèges had already been at work since November 1966. It consisted of a chairman and secretary drawn from the Ministry of Education and eight persons representative of educational agencies and teachers' federations who toured the province, meeting

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5) Taking into account the system of subject promotion at present in effect, students at both the elementary and the secondary levels may complete their studies in either a lesser or a greater number of chronological years than is the normal average.

with college organisation committees in each region, and helping them prepare the documentation needed to plan a college.

The heritage of these CEGEP, and indeed of all the post-secondary institutions with which we are concerned, is of such importance that their creation will be explained in some detail. It is more appropriate to stress the past of these institutions than to insist upon their novelty, as the public statements of many of their administrators have done. They may have something genuinely new in spirit - and there is some evidence that they have been moving steadily in the direction of innovation since they were created - but they were born "mature", so to speak, and people concerned with running these institutions are very conscious of their past. "The ghost of the *Institut de technologie de Montréal* is hovering over the *CEGEP du Vieux Montréal*" it is said.

Since the new institutions were part of a general reform of the education system, the first CEGEP were formed by the voluntary amalgamation of existing institutions in a locality. There were two powerful "ancestor" systems, the allegiance of which would be paramount for success : the classical colleges (6), represented publicly by a federation embracing some 80 institutions, and a considerable technical education system directly administered by the Ministry of Education. There were some 12 institutes of technology, offering two- and three-year diploma courses beyond the eleventh grade. All were described as being of a *secondaire supérieur* level, although some offered programmes that properly belonged in the new comprehensive secondary schools. It is interesting that the CEGEP have also been defined as being of a *secondaire supérieur* level, although this term is not applied to the classical colleges, the adjective *pré-universitaire* being used instead (7). The support of the *Fédération des collèges classiques* (FCC) for the new system was ensured by involving its officials in the planning. As early as 1966 its general secretary was made a member of the *Comité de planification de l'enseignement pré-universitaire et professionnel* (COPEPP).

In addition to the "ancestor" systems there were other powerful interest groups to be used to further the reform, to convert or nullify opposition. There was, for example, the *Conseil supérieur de l'éducation* (CSE), created in 1964 at the same time as the Ministry of Education. This council is a general advisory body and also a product of the Parent Commission. It has four study commissions - one each for elementary education, for secondary, for general and vocational (i.e., CEGEP), and for higher education.

Another "interested party" was the university system, or rather, the university systems, since there are French-language and English-language universities in Quebec and they were by no means uniform in their reaction to the proposed new sector. The universities were involved in two ways :

1. This was to be an intermediate sector which meant, for the French-language universities, that the students would now enter university from the CEGEP and no longer from the *collèges classiques* or the publicly supported or private secondary schools. For the English-language universities, students would no longer enter university from the Protestant or Catholic publicly supported or private high schools;

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6) Counting only their college-level programmes. In the pre-Parent education system of Quebec the public elementary system had seven grades and its pupils might enter the lower school of a fee-paying private classical college which had both a secondary school and a "college" programme. The entire programme took eight years, ending with examination for the *baccalauréat ès arts*, which was the entrance requirement for many of the faculties of university.

7) These definitions are taken from *Vocabulaire de l'éducation au Québec*, a publication of the information service of the Ministry of Education, 1968. The definition of the CEGEP, for example, states "On peut regretter que le CEGEP n'ait pas été baptisé l'école secondaire supérieure polyvalente (car il s'agit bien d'un enseignement du second degré)". *Vocabulaire*, p. 11. ["It is a pity that the CEGEP were not called 'comprehensive higher secondary schools', since they are indeed providing secondary education"].

2. This amounted to a CEGEP "take over" of some of the early work of the universities, so the universities were expected to agree to the loss of part of their responsibility together with the income these students represented and to recognise, as a full entrance qualification and without further selective examination, the graduates of the general programmes of the CEGEP.

The negotiations culminated in Regulation 3 which was passed by Order-in-Council of March 30, 1966 and which provided for two-year pre-university programmes, the courses of which would be "determined by regulation after consultation with the universities". It further provided for a joint committee of six representatives from the universities and six from the Department of Education to "make recommendations regarding the studies required for admission to the first year or university work". The academic vice-rectors of the French universities were their institutions' negotiators and, on the whole, they were not hostile to the reform. However, the teaching force and particularly the senior administrators of some schools (the deans and the faculties of medicine, law, and the social sciences, where the baccalauréat ès arts had been required for admission) were strongly opposed. The position of the faculties of arts was, of course, directly threatened.

The attitude of the three English-language universities (McGill, Sir George Williams and Bishops) is worthy of comment because, although the opposition of the English community was not sufficient to seriously affect the reform, it did delay the creation of English-language CEGEP for two years. The English-language school system of Quebec has strong British (mainly Scottish) antecedents, but its general frame of reference is North American. Like its French counterpart, it traditionally had a seven-year elementary school and a high school consisting of a further four or five years, with junior matriculation leading to four-year degree programmes after the eleventh grade, or senior matriculation with advanced standing at the end of the twelfth grade. The English-language system, whether Protestant or Catholic, diversified its secondary level earlier than the French-language system and exhibited the same high student pass rates that are found in other English-language educational institutions in Canada. To lose the first two years of their degree programmes to another system was not only to lose control over their curricula and standards but would also require extensive reform of the portion that remained. Moreover, it was unlikely that participation in university studies would be pushed beyond the existing 48.6 per cent of high school graduates, so that the loss of students at the junior level would not be offset by expansion in numbers at the senior level, as was to be the case in the French-language universities. An absolute loss of revenue could therefore be expected.

Nor was the opposition of the English-language universities unreasonable, from the point of view of their traditions. The creation of junior colleges in the United States and Canada usually came about for three reasons : they were to relieve the pressure of numbers on the senior institutions sufficiently to avoid the need of creating more universities ; they were inexpensive, comparing the unit costs of the two institutions ; and they were a selection device, which enabled "borderline" academic students to study at the post-secondary educational level, and still permitted the senior institutions to weed out the weaker students at midpoint in the degree programme. In these terms there was no need for junior colleges in the English-language Quebec university system. They probably would have supported something like the Ontario CAATs.

CEGEP government

Each CEGEP is governed by an appointed board of governors, which operates the college under a set of regulations and controls supervised by the General Directorate of College

Education (DIGEC) of the Ministry of Education (8). The dichotomy of central system control and local institutional authority, which is a continuing problem for each of the provincial post-secondary systems studied herein, is discussed in Chapter 3. It is merely noted here that Section 8 of the 1967 Act makes it mandatory that the college governors be drawn from certain categories of people : five from nominees put forward by local school and higher education authorities and local community organisations ; ten college representatives, four of whom are teachers ; four parents of students and two students ; two college administrators - the president and the academic dean (9) - and two members at large nominated by the Board itself.

The role of the Ministry officials in DIGEC is primarily one of planning, coordination, and indirect control of standards. There is, however, considerable uniformity in the administrative structure of these colleges and all institutions have, or are considered to have, a uniform set of administrative posts, varied only according to the size of the institution. Details of the administration of CEGEP are discussed in Chapter 4.

Size and location of the CEGEP

The minimum requirement of 1,500 full-time students suggested by the Parent Report, has not been strictly observed, and CEGEP have been approved which have operated for some years below this number. However, 1,500 is held to be the minimum acceptable enrolment, and it was expected that by 1970-71 all institutions set up in 1968-69 would have attained this figure. In 1967-68, the CEGEP Salaberry-de-Valleyfield started with an initial full-time enrolment of 458 and the CEGEP Edouard Montpetit with 476, but one year later, the latter had 1,259 students and the former had only 515. By November 1968, eight of the 23 operating CEGEP still had fewer than 1,000 full-time students.

It seems to be fully accepted that the size of the CEGEP will vary greatly. For the 1969-70 academic year the smallest full-time enrolment was 410, the largest 6,187 (10).

The disparity in size, of course, arises from the decision to locate CEGEP throughout the province in order to serve the population of each region. Coupled with the university centres and other reforms that were to be made in higher education, this was clearly a decision to "take the programmes to the people".

A CEGEP was expected to serve a population of about 150,000. Administratively they are grouped into eight regions which, with only one exception, correspond very closely to the nine administrative regions of the comprehensive district high schools. In each region at least one college was functioning by September 1968, and in the Montreal region five opened in September 1967, seven more in 1968, with further openings already planned up to 1973. There is no overall regional administration ; coordination is through DIGEC.

Organisation of the CEGEP

In September 1967, twelve CEGEP opened their doors to students. These colleges represented the amalgamation of parent institutions, joined according to five basic organisational principles :

1. Unified administrative direction (i.e., with a single board of governors, a single budget, etc.) ;
2. Unified educational direction (i.e., with a chief academic officer exercising authority over all teaching programmes) ;

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8) Article 6 of Bill 21. The title of the branch is the Direction Générale de l'enseignement collégial.

9) Called the Directeur général and the Directeur des services pédagogiques.

10) CEGEP Victoriaville and CEGEP Vieux Montréal respectively.

3. A unified teaching force (i.e., all were employees of the CEGEP, and were under the direction of the president, through the dean) ;
4. A unified student body (i.e., each student was subject, whatever his programme, to the regulations of the CEGEP system) ;
5. Unified equipment (i.e., the CEGEP had to have one central main campus).

Nine more colleges were formed in the spring of 1968. These 21 CEGEP incorporated 80 of the programmes that had been offered in the six types of parent institutions : institutes of technology and trade schools ; the "A" diploma programmes of teachers' colleges (11) ; the classical colleges, seminaries, and day colleges ; nursing schools ; domestic science institutes, schools of social work, agricultural schools ; and other vocational institutions. By the end of academic year 1969-70, 31 CEGEP had been authorised. Altogether, some 47,000 students had been enrolled - more than had been estimated in April of 1968 - and they were divided almost equally between the general (pre-university) and the vocational programmes. It is expected that by 1973 or 1974 the system will be "complete", with about 40 CEGEP, probably four serving the English-speaking students of the greater Montreal area.

THE ONTARIO COLLEGES OF APPLIED ARTS AND TECHNOLOGY

In the 1969-70 academic year there were 20 colleges of applied arts and technology (CAATs) in Ontario, serving almost 21,000 full-time students. Since many of the colleges have more than one campus, their institutional locations actually numbered thirty. These institutions have all come into existence since May 21, 1965.

This new sector had its roots in the educational history of Ontario. It was designed to bring together and coordinate much that had been fragmented ; it followed, and was made necessary by, massive reform in, and expansion of, the two related sectors - secondary schools and universities. It was a service to meet the need for craftsmen, technicians, and technologists, created by Ontario's growing economy and its inadequate domestic production of such qualified manpower ; but, above all else, the colleges were seen as fulfilling the government's obligation to provide equality of educational opportunity so that each individual might develop to the maximum of his ability.

Background to post-secondary education

Until the end of World War II, Ontario had an education system strongly biased toward the academic tradition. But the realities of life in Ontario - first, a pioneer agricultural society ; secondly, a booming agricultural economy, which was rapidly proliferating small industries for local needs and then, a burgeoning industrial society, concerned with providing the rest of agricultural Canada with goods and with extracting and exploiting its abundant primary products, particularly its minerals and its wood - constantly impelled parents and educators to consider the need for practical learning. In terms of curriculum this implied the constant demand to make subjects "useful" and to relate them to the students' lives : to provide geography (with an emphasis on the student's own locality and province) as well as Latin, or to provide accounting and commercial subjects as well as foreign languages. In basic school service, this trend can be seen in the emphasis on developing the "common" schools at the expense (if need be) of the "grammar" schools. One very good example of this trend that is often quoted is the failure to foster a very superior classical type of secondary school. The so-called

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11) Teacher training schools are authorised to give the course leading to the "A" Diploma which, in part, covers the same ground as the "cours collégial". Royal Commission II: 161.

collegiate was intended to serve the academically selected few. In order to be labelled a collegiate, and to receive the corresponding higher provincial grants, the school had to have a minimum number of "specialist" teachers, a minimum of academic equipment, a certain size of library, etc. The high school was for "the rest", the non-academic students, who would continue to study English (begun in elementary school) and add to their curriculum commercial subjects and natural sciences, with particular reference to the needs of agriculture. The labels, however, became blurred. Very shortly after the passage of the 1871 Education Act, high schools were qualifying for the collegiate grants and teaching classical and modern languages. By the early 1920's, high school was still largely academic, with courses of four years (junior matriculation) and five years (senior matriculation). The idea of practical education did not die ; it remained the "also ran" within the system.

Above the high school system were the universities. Initially established under the aegis of various religious denominations and providing a liberal, scientific or professional education, they date from 1827. There were both federations of colleges and unitary organisations. Each was legally based on a particular charter and the charters initially varied greatly, although they tended over time to cover much the same set of responsibilities and to contain comparable rights, privileges, and safeguards. By 1931 there were five universities and three liberal colleges in Ontario (12).

Vocational education was not entirely neglected during these years but it exhibited the "identity instability" that still persists. In 1872 and 1874 two institutions were founded at what would be defined today as the technology level. It is interesting to note that they both had in their title the word "college" which links them with the traditional, academically respectable, English usage of "college" - the liberal arts and science college. However, they also had descriptive adjectives, which testified unmistakeably to their vocational role, e.g., the College of Technology (Toronto) and the Ontario Agricultural College (Guelph). Even when they were founded, the "level" argument waxed hot. Were they to produce technologists or professional engineers, good farmers and farm managers, or agricultural scientists ? Quite rapidly they developed into primarily full-time institutions for the education of youth. By 1900, the technology college had become the University of Toronto's faculty of applied science. The agricultural college has continued to offer some diploma-level work and provides a very important practical agricultural extension service. In 1887, however, it became affiliated with the University of Toronto for the award of degrees in the agricultural and veterinary sciences, and gradually its fields of interest were extended until, in 1964, it became the University of Guelph.

In 1900 another institution with the post-secondary, non-university stamp was established - the Ontario College of Art. Again, the title claims identity with college work but defines a limited purpose. Today it operates under an autonomous board of governors ; it is not part of the CAAT system.

Following World War II, all of Canada, and the province of Ontario in particular, underwent a tremendous population growth. There was a boom in birth rates that lasted for ten years. The crude birth rate grew from 19.7 per thousand in 1945 to 26.8 per thousand in 1957, the peak year, and was 23 per thousand in 1964. This was a period of rapid economic growth, which was accompanied by massive immigration. During these years an educational change was taking place which was as massive as this population change.

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12) University of Toronto in Toronto, McMaster in Hamilton, University of Ottawa in Ottawa, Queen's in Kingston, University of Western Ontario in London ; Assumption College in Windsor, Collège de Sudbury in Sudbury, Royal Military College in Kingston.

Although the technical and vocational sector was not ignored in the educational reforms, there was still the impression of sporadic, piecemeal effort - this sector constituted the "also ran". Nevertheless, many excellent institutions and programmes were created and a large investment was made (partly with federal funds). During the 20-year period following the War, for example, six provincial institutes of technology offering two- and three-year diploma courses were created with specialisations in the fields of mining, forestry and textiles. By 1966, some of these institutes had added branches of business studies to their original technical specialities, and together they had a full-time enrolment of over 4,000 students. In the same year, on decision of the Council of Regents of the newly created CAAT system, these six institutes were incorporated into the colleges of their region.

During these years, with the encouragement of federal funds under the Federal-Provincial Technical and Vocational Training Agreement, provincial institutes of trades and vocational centres were also established. They offer one- and two-year courses, short courses, and apprenticeship training in a wide variety of specialities for students entering from grades 10, 11, or 12 (the longer courses having more demanding admission requirements, with subject prerequisites). In 1966, by decision of the Council of Regents they, too, were absorbed into the CAAT system.

Ryerson Institute of Technology

One other "ancestor" of the CAAT system should be described, the Ryerson Institute of Technology, in Toronto. It was largely the tremendous success of Ryerson that fostered the rapid development of the provincial institutes of technology and the widespread public acceptance of the excellence of its graduates that laid the basis for generous public acceptance of the CAATs.

In 1944, thousands of ex-servicemen were promised free education, with generous support grants, while they tried to make up for the break in their training occasioned by their war service. They flooded into Ontario's universities. A year later, some 15,000 ex-servicemen were taking undergraduate degree programmes. There was a comparable but smaller stream needing technical and vocational training, and late in 1944, at short notice, a set of programmes was offered by the Training and Re-establishment Institute. The first courses bore a strong resemblance to the trades programmes of a British technical school. By 1948 the post-war task was completed, and in August of that year the Ryerson Institute of Technology was established by Order in Council. It was to be a polytechnical institution directly administered by officials of the Department of Education.

Ryerson quickly established a unique image in Ontario's educational establishment, extending its programmes well beyond those suitable for the "bright mechanic" into areas of business administration and the applied arts - merchandising, hotel administration, printing management, journalism, photographic arts, and radio and television arts. It concentrated on a three-year programme which, de facto, increasingly recruited from Grade 13 graduates even though its formal admission requirements were completion of Grade 12. Ryerson built its programme around the humanities, the social sciences, the physical sciences, and mathematics ; though less abstract in teaching methods than the university, it was as theoretical in content. By using advisory committees for its programmes, Ryerson was assured of being au courant with the latest thinking in the appropriate business or professional fields and of having instructors who were professionally reputable. Its students had no need to worry about "relevance" and, in a rapidly expanding economy, no need to worry about job placement and promotions. No educational institution was ever created at a more opportune time.

In 1963, Ryerson ceased to be administered directly by the Department of Education ; it was re-named the Ryerson Polytechnical Institute, and it acquired its own board of governors (13). In the 1965-66 academic year, it had an enrolment of more than 3,500 full-time students and employed 212 full-time and 45 part-time teaching staff.

The term "polytechnical" is misleading. It stems more from the North American usage rather than that of Great Britain, which borrows the term from the western European tradition. Ryerson is polytechnical only in the sense that its courses and programmes cover a comprehensive variety of disciplines of study and vocational fields. Unlike the colleges of the CAAT system, it is not polytechnical in level. It is a highly selective academic institution, which offers almost entirely three-year diploma programmes. Most Ryerson graduates have completed their sixteenth year of full-time study.

Ryerson is not typical of a CAAT. Although it has had, and will continue to have, a tremendous influence on the development of the colleges, it is not treated in this report as a part of the CAAT system.

The pressure for change

The Minister of Education, in May 1965, announced that the Ontario government was now free to move on the reform and rationalization of the post-secondary technical sector because it had successfully implemented a "far-reaching reorganisation" of secondary schooling and had already "underwritten the expansion of our university facilities". He might have added that it was the expansion and reform of the secondary level that necessitated radical action at the post-secondary level.

Public secondary school enrolments in Ontario increased from some 120,000 in 1945 to almost 420,000 in 1965, and by 1969-70 had reached some 538,000. According to recent estimates (14) there will be no decline in absolute numbers in the secondary school before 1978. This increase has been due less to population increase than to an improvement in retention rates, which is the fruit of considerable educational reform as well as of the public conviction that the education of its children is a sound investment. One reform that has continued steadily since World War II is the consolidation of small local education systems into larger township and district systems. The creation of the district high school transformed the attendance pattern in rural areas. In 1962, a secondary school reform plan diversified secondary schools and encouraged their comprehensive development : there would be two-year and four-year programmes which would be terminal, and five-year programmes in arts and science, business and commerce, and science, technology and trades, which were intended as university preparation.

Alternative proposals

The report of the Committee of University Presidents of May 1962, entitled Post-Secondary Education in Ontario, 1962-70, advised the expansion of existing universities and the creation of new institutions. Six universities had already been chartered since 1945 (15). It was now suggested that undergraduate places at existing institutions be increased from an expected 42,000 for 1965 and 58,000 for 1970 to 49,000 and 74,000 respectively. This was regarded as a maximum effort, and it presupposed immediate, adequate, and sustained financial support. The report stated that if the universities succeeded

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13) Ryerson Polytechnical Institute Act, 1962-63, c. 128, amended 1966, c. 139.

14) Ontario Secondary School Enrollment Projections to 1981-82, (1969 projection), Cicely Watson, Saeed Quazi and Aribert Kleist, Enrollment Projections No. 5, (OISE, 1970).

15) Carleton University, 1952 ; University of Windsor, 1953 ; University of Waterloo, 1959 ; Waterloo Lutheran University, 1959 ; York University, 1959 ; Laurentian University, 1960.

in making available the maximum number of places proposed there would still be, in 1965, about 6,000 students not accommodated and, by 1970, 20,000 to 30,000 students. The report, therefore, recommended the creation of at least three more liberal arts colleges to be associated with existing universities.

The committee had considered alternative ways of diverting some of the expected flow of students : "the addition of grade 14 to the high school systems ; the conversion of teachers colleges (16) and technological institutes into composite Junior colleges ; the compression of the thirteen school grades into twelve and the establishment of junior colleges giving two years beyond the new grade 12" (17). But the committee members could not approve any of these suggestions. Instead they settled for the three proposed new liberal arts colleges, which would provide for the estimated 91,000 students in 1970 whom they regarded as their responsibility. There would be another estimated 91,000 enrolled in Grade 13 that year, a large portion of whom would need post-secondary training of some other kind, which was not their responsibility. Some would be accommodated in new teachers' colleges (two or three new ones were proposed), and even more would find their way into greatly expanded institutes of technology. The committee warned that the planned expansion to accommodate 6,000 technical students (from the 1962 enrolment of 3,800) would be inadequate by 1970.

The report of the university presidents had great influence on the educational scene in Ontario ; its views on the non-university post-secondary sector carried weight with the government. Having decided their needs, their roles and the responsibilities they would accept, it is clear that the universities defined "the rest" in terms that left no doubt as to which sector would be superior.

The report of 1962 was revised in January 1963, and a supplement was issued in June 1963 entitled The Structure of Post-Secondary Education in Ontario. This supplement further examined the possibilities for the creation of new institutions to serve "the rest" (the 91,000 Grade 13 students who would not enter the universities in 1970), and it examined the recommendations of the recently issued Report of the Select Committee on Manpower Training (18).

The conclusions of the university presidents' report were unequivocal. They strongly rejected all suggestions for a junior college system. Their estimate of future numbers of students and their review of the approved university expansion plans had convinced them that there would be no need for transfer programmes in other institutions. They admitted that "there may be a difficult period in the years from 1965-66 to 1967-68 because some universities do not now believe that they can expand as quickly as they had hoped". However, over the fifteen-year planning period, the places to be provided at the universities should be adequate.

The university presidents did, however, urge the fulfillment of the need for a college of technology and applied arts that would...

> represent a democratic effort to improve the opportunities and enlarge the horizons of citizens, both young people and grown-ups... We make this proposal believing it

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16) Elementary teacher training institutions are operated by the Teacher Education Branch of the Ontario Department of Education. In 1962, at the time of the report, these institutions provided a two-year course recruiting students from Grade 12 and a one-year course recruiting from Grade 13. They had in 1962-63 an enrolment of 5,514. The two-year course was phased out in 1966, so that at present only the one-year course is offered. In 1970-71 admission to the course is after at least one year of university work.

17) Post-secondary Education in Ontario, 1962-70, the Committee of Presidents of Provincially Assisted Universities, Toronto, 1962, p. 14.

18) Ontario Legislature, February 1963.

to be a logical development of the educational system of Ontario. The kind of college we have described is needed to make adequate provision for the thousands of good students whose aptitudes are different from those required for university work. Constantly we hear it said that the universities should take in these students. But the trouble is that if you make the universities do things that are not their proper function, you ruin their chances of doing properly the things that they alone can do (19).

It was not expected that these new colleges would necessarily replace the provincial institutes of technology or the provincial institutes of trades - in fact, the university presidents urged that tho number of these institutes be increased. The new colleges would be more local in their orientation and control, and the range of their programmes would be subject to local needs and decisions. They would include more part-time, split work/study and evening programmes.

The public debate on the nature of new post-secondary institutions continued as the conviction grew that they would shortly be established. The next contribution to the argument came in the report of the Grade 13 Study Committee which recommended the abolition of the matriculation examination and the substitution of alternative university admission criteria. The group also recommended that many specific reforms of Grade 13 courses be made and that the grade be regarded solely as a matriculation year, that is, as preparation for entrance to university, teachers' college, and other such institutions. Furthermore, it proposed that graduation from high school follow Grade 12 and that the need to expand educational opportunity be met by establishing a new kind of institution that would provide for the interests of students for whom a university course is unsuitable.

All these apparently unrelated reports formed the background to the decisions regarding the nature of the CAAT system. The Minister of Education's speech to the legislature on May 21, 1965 therefore contained few surprises. The new colleges were to be community colleges, designed to meet the needs of the local community. No residences would be provided, except in the thinly populated northern area of the province. The new institutions would have three main responsibilities : "to provide courses of types and levels beyond, or not suited to, the secondary school setting ; to meet the needs of graduates from any secondary school programme, apart from those wishing to attend university ; and to meet the educational needs of adults and out-of-school youth whether or nor they are secondary school graduates". The Minister illustrated the range of these responsibilities by citing a long list of courses, but he specifically omitted transfer courses claiming there was no need for such courses in Ontario at the present time. However, he did express the hope that "no able and qualified student [would] be prevented from going on from a college of applied arts and technology to a university". A precedent for this already existed in the advanced standing accorded to the graduates of technology institutes. The colleges would be financed by provincial funds and (20) the "modest fees" they might charge. It was expected that the required teaching force would be recruited from industry, commerce, and professional practice, with a few from the secondary schools and universities. The new system would operate "for the present time at least" under the Ontario Department of Education rather than the Department of University

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19) The Structure of Post-Secondary Education in Ontario, Supplementary Report No. 1 of the Committee of Presidents of Provincially Assisted Universities and Colleges of Ontario, June 1963, p. 29.

20) A contribution of 50 per cent of capital and operating costs was expected from the government of Canada. However, in 1967, the funding agreement was unilaterally ended by the federal government to be replaced by the Fiscal Arrangements Act, by which only 50 per cent of certain post-secondary operating costs and the costs of the manpower retraining programmes can be recovered.

Affairs (21) and a council of regents would be appointed as a coordinating, approval and advisory body.

The legislation

The Department of Education Amendment Act was approved in October 1965 and regulations governing the operations of the college took effect the same month. The Act confers absolute powers on the Minister of Education to make regulations for the new system with regard to the following : the Council of Regents and its duties ; the composition of the board of governors of the colleges and their powers and duties and advisory committees ; the type, content, and duration of programmes of study ; admission and expulsion conditions ; the award of certificates and diplomas ; the qualifications of and conditions for the service of the teaching force ; and the payment of registration, tuition, and laboratory fees. None of these regulations would apply to any university programme or course given in any college. The regulations for such programmes are provided for under another subsection, and the responsibility is markedly different : "Subject to the approval of the Minister, a board of governors of a college *may* enter into an agreement with a university for the establishment, maintenance and conduct by the university in the college of programs of instruction leading to degrees, certificates and diplomas awarded by the university".

It was provided that each college would be governed by a board which would be a corporation with powers and duties as designated by the Minister of Education, in addition to the powers it would derive from the Corporations Act. There would also be an advisory committee, to assist the board, for each branch of studies taught in the college.

CAAT government

The details of the administration of the new system are discussed in Chapters 3 and 4. The Council of Regents includes fifteen members, appointed by the Minister, for three-year periods and eligible for reappointment. The Council's first chairman, elected by its members, was the former principal of Ryerson. The first Council included four persons who might be considered as representing industry, one from organised labour, two from the school system, three from the university system, three from public service, one from the technology institutes, and one other.

The boards of governors were to consist of twelve persons, eight appointed by the Council of Regents for four-year terms, and four appointed by the council of the municipalities where the colleges were located for four-year terms (22). Each board was given heavy responsibilities and wide powers, but most of these were subject to the review and approval of the Council of Regents and the Minister of Education. What emerged, therefore, is a two-tier control system, which is discussed in Chapter 4.

Each board of governors was charged with the task of appointing the "director of the college". The Council of Regents later adopted the term "president" (the nomenclature of the universities). The board was also to appoint a principal for each college programme division (23), a registrar, a bursar, and such other administrative, teaching and non-teaching personnel as proved to be necessary, all according to the salary scales, terms,

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21) In 1971 the responsibility for the system was transferred to the Ontario Department of Universities and Colleges, thus recognising it as an integral part of higher education in the province.

22) Actually two of the Regents' appointees are replaced each year and the order of retirement is decided by the Regents, so it is conceivable that some of the appointees could sit for eight years. One of the local council's appointees is replaced each year, the order of retirement being decided by the local council. Board members are eligible for reappointment.

23) The term "Dean" came to be used.

and conditions decided upon by the Minister on the recommendation of the Council of Regents.

Subject to the specific prerequisites and conditions decided by the board of any college and approved by the Minister, the following general admission regulation applies for the CAATs : "Any person who is the holder of (a) an Ontario secondary school graduation diploma obtained at the end of Grade 12 from any branch or program or (b) the secondary school honour graduation diploma obtained upon completion of Grade 13 shall be admitted to an appropriate program of instruction upon payment of the fee required" and subject to the same limitations "any person who has attained the age of nineteen years on or before the date of commencement of the program of instruction in which he plans to enroll shall be admitted to an appropriate program of instruction".

Geographical distribution of the CAATs

At its first meeting in February 1966 the Council of Regents recommended that the system of CAATs be based on the ten established economic development regions of the province. This was largely followed, although some of the regions were split so that finally there were 20 CAAT areas designated by the Minister of Education. Initially, there was to be one college with one board of governors in each area, although it was recognised that a college might have to have several branch campuses in the principal towns of its area.

The first meeting of the Council of Regents also recorded the decision to incorporate into the CAAT system the post-secondary institutions operated by the Department of Education in Ottawa, Hamilton, London, Windsor and Sault Ste-Marie. A number of standing committees were set up to deal with faculty affairs, public relations, and finance ; a governors committee, which has effected close liaison with the general operation of each college, was also set up. In September of that year the first new college, Centennial College in Scarborough (a suburban district of Metropolitan Toronto), was opened and throughout that academic year others were developed so that 18 were operating in 1967-68, and the final two by September 1969. The system appears now to have come to the end of its establishment phase.

THE COLLEGES OF ALBERTA

As a result of legislation passed in June 1969, it is now proper to speak of the "college system" of Alberta. It bears a very close resemblance to junior college systems in the western United States. This system cannot develop into a real community college, post-secondary system unless the three agricultural colleges, the two institutes of technology, and the hospital training schools become more fully part of the system than they are at present. The colleges must be broadened considerably in scope and the other institutions brought within the same general administration.

The 1969 legislation covered ten public institutions (24), providing for their "coordination" under a provincial colleges commission which replaced the provincial post-secondary board but was similar in its membership (interests represented) (25). However,

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24)-(a) Five public junior colleges : Mount Royal, Lethbridge, Red Deer, Medicine Hat, Grande Prairie.
-(b) Two provincial institutes of technology directly administered by the Department of Education : Southern Alberta Institute of Technology, Calgary, and the Northern Alberta Institute of Technology, Edmonton, generally referred to as SAIT and NAIT.
-(c) Three agricultural and vocational colleges directly administered by the Department of Agriculture : Olds College, Vermillion College and Fairview College.

25) A Summary Statement of Proposals of the Provincial Board of Post-secondary Education, p. 5.

only the junior colleges would have boards of governors and come fully within the Commission's regulations. The cabinet rejected the proposal that the two institutes of technology and the three agricultural colleges be similarly provided with a board and enjoy an identical relationship with the commission. Instead, they were to continue to be under the Department of Education and the Department of Agriculture. None of these institutions was new ; each sector had developed a distinct character and unique traditions. This coordination was the provincial government's effort to meet the province-wide need to counteract the local and specific initiative that had always characterised the junior colleges. This point will be discussed in Chapter 3, but for now it should suffice to say that the creative drive to establish new institutions in Alberta has, in the past, come from local interest groups. Once these groups had demonstrated a viable product, the provincial authorities certified their approval by a legislative enactment that rationalised and regularised the situation and provided encouragement for a generalisation of the product.

Background to the college system

The oldest and largest of the junior colleges in Alberta is Mount Royal in Calgary which until recently was a private institution. It was incorporated in 1911 and offered a wide range of programmes, many at the secondary rather than the college level. Its facilities included a conservatory of music and an evening high school and, because there was no possibility for transfer credit to the University of Alberta, it developed a variety of college programmes for transfer credit to various colleges, institutes, and universities in the United States. Mount Royal concluded specific agreements with these institutions to provide a full year-for-year credit, and in order to effect this it had to outline its programmes, resources, examination systems, requirements, and teacher qualifications in great detail. These agreements, tentative until the adaptability and capability of the students were proved, multiplied over the years as a result of the reputation of the college but at no time did the receiving institutions try to impose controls on Mount Royal either in the form of required curricula or of review and approval of programmes, teachers, or examinations.

Mount Royal was to a considerable extent "open-door" in its flexible admission standards, and it acquired the reputation of performing a remedial function, with many of its courses being academically not far beyond secondary school.

A second long-established private junior college of a denominational affiliation is Camrose Lutheran College. It, too, offers a considerable high school programme, but as early as 1939 it provided a thirteenth year (26) for pre-seminary students. Camrose received recognition as a junior college, however, only in 1959, the year that its one-year transfer programme to an Albertan university started. Its students may transfer (with full credit) to the undergraduate degree programmes of many U.S. institutions and to the University of Alberta, Edmonton. Although Camrose qualifies for some public financial support under the Universities and Colleges Assistance Act, it is not part of the public system and is not considered in this study.

Two other church-affiliated institutions of considerable activity that remain private colleges and are not, at present, part of the junior college system, are *Collège St. Jean* and Alberta College in Edmonton.

In addition to the foregoing private institutions, there was also a public sector which calls for a few introductory remarks. Much of Alberta's educational development can be explained as being the result of three factors. The first is geographic, involving vast distances and a difficult climate ; the second is demographic, with a small

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26) Grade 12 is the final year of secondary school in Alberta.

population, few urban centres, and recent growth dramatically concentrated in the cities of Edmonton and Calgary ; and the third is local tradition which views education as "good" and considers it the citizens' duty to participate actively in providing the maximum "good" for the youth of the district.

The first public junior college in Alberta was authorised under the Schools Act, and was the product of initiative taken by a Lethbridge district school board to provide local youngsters with the opportunity to do their first-year university studies cheaply and conveniently near their homes. In September 1949 the Board of Lethbridge School District No. 51 asked its assistant superintendent to look at existing junior colleges in Canada and the United States and advise the board as to whether the city of Lethbridge could support such an institution. The following year the board commissioned a survey of post-secondary needs. Following these inquiries, in June 1955, the Board agreed to "apply to the Board of Governors of the University of Alberta and the Minister of Education for the establishment of a college in Lethbridge, Alberta, in which may be taught subjects of university level and other subjects of a general and vocational nature beyond the level of high school in accordance with... the School Act...".

The University approved an affiliation agreement in April 1957, and when the college opened in September of that year it drew financial support from eight participating school districts as well as from provincial grants. The affiliation conditions of the University of Alberta define unequivocally the dependent status that exists to this day. The completion of the transfer programme will ensure (assuming an acceptable grade) full credit for the year's studies without the need for entrance examinations. The credit agreement relates to specific courses, which are accepted as requirements toward a specific degree programme, and all these courses or programmes must be formally approved by the University Committee on Junior Colleges. This committee defines the acceptable level of the library and the laboratory facilities for each course. It also ensures that the admission standard of the college is identical with that of the Albertan university receiving the student, the examinations at the end of the courses are the regular university examinations for these first-year courses, and the staff/student ratio for these courses is within a given range. The 1957 agreement required that Lethbridge have at least six teachers employed the majority of time on transfer teaching, they hold at least a master's degree or its equivalent in the subject to be taught, and each appointment be reviewed and approved by the committee.

Lethbridge has, in many ways, been the pilot college for the development of the Albertan post-secondary system. The inception of this college was due to local determination to provide facilities for first-year university study for its youth, who would have otherwise have had to travel to Edmonton. So successful was the college that it bifurcated, growing into a university on one hand and a college on the other.

The Junior Colleges Act

That the Lethbridge Junior College met a great need and was very successful became evident as enrolment in its full-time university programmes grew. With the passing of the Public Junior Colleges Act of 1958 it was evident that the Lethbridge experience had been accepted as standard. The colleges were permitted to provide "subjects of university level not higher than the level commonly accepted for the first year beyond university matriculation in a course leading to a bachelor's degree". With the approval of the university, the colleges might also offer courses beyond the first-year level. They were also expected to give courses of "a general vocational nature not provided in the high school curriculum of the province".

These colleges could be established by a school board or under an agreement between a number of school boards, provided that the Minister of Education consented to the arrangements and that they met with the approval of the university. The application for incorporation had to name the boards actually involved, the nature and location of the facilities to be used for the college, and the university accepting the transfers. The Act provided that the college board would have two members drawn from the school board of the initiating district and one school board trustee from each of the participating districts. Its members would hold office for three years and would be eligible for reappointment, provided they continued to be elected members of the public school board. They were appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on the nomination of their school board. The Act confirmed that students registering for the university courses must meet the same admission requirements as those entering the universities proper, and that the courses must be prescribed and approved by the universities. The board was empowered to accept funds in the form of grants from the government of Canada or from the province ; gifts ; tuition fees, the amount of which the board could set ; and contributions from the participating school boards. The charter specified the actual financial responsibility of each of these school boards for the first two years of operation, after which their contribution was based on a formula related to the number of students. The annual budget of the college had to be submitted to the Department of Education.

Royal Commission on Education

The Royal Commission on Education in 1959 expressed concern about "the proliferation of educational programs under various departments of the province" and recommended that the Department of Education be designated to act as the sole governmental administrative agency dealing with the expanded school system. The Commission supported the development of "community colleges". It recommended that a master plan of regions should be drawn up, under which, at local option, a community college might be established in a recommended location (27). Instead of implementing this idea of a master plan, with institutions regionally distributed, the Alberta government until 1969 allowed colleges to proliferate at a rate dictated by local initiative.

The Commission's report proposed that "students should be eligible for education at public expense up to age of twenty-one years or for a total of twelve years of schooling, whichever is first". It considered that the colleges ought to have access to local school grants and provincial grants, but that they should also charge fees. Their recommendation regarding courses for adults is of interest because it involves a principle that seems to apply universally and that is most unjust : "The general principle that adult courses, taken by people who are normally employed, should be approximately self-supporting should apply in the community college as it does elsewhere".

Public financial support of junior colleges

The 1958 Act legally defined public junior colleges but a much more important piece of legislation was the University and College Assistance Act of April 1964 which laid down the principles for their financial support and public financial support to private colleges. Private colleges providing instruction for 25 or more students became eligible for grants. The hierarchy of public investment in post-secondary level education was made quite clear : Part A of the Bill contained the schedule of per capita aid for undergraduate university students, and Part B the schedule payable for college students. The universities received $2315 per annum per student, the public colleges $1050 per transfer student but only $500 per vocational student, and the private colleges $900 per

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27) Quoted in Special Study on Junior Colleges, Andrew Stewart, 1965 (mimeo), p. 76, hereinafter referred to as Stewart's Report.

transfer student - even though all might be said to be studying at the same "level".

The mode of payment to the two post-secondary sectors was also markedly different. The total amount available to the universities was paid to the Universities Commission (comprising members from each university). The fund was calculated by multiplying expected enrolment by the per capita grant figures. The Commission reviewed the budget requests of each university and disbursed sums within the total amount available for the year. Colleges, on the other hand, presented their budget estimates for detailed review and approval by the Department of Education.

The 1968 amendments to the Act provided a more flexible arrangement and a grant system for the colleges more closely resembling that of the universities. Each college would prepare a budget for scrutiny by the Post-Secondary Board and, after an item-by-item review, the Board would allocate funds from a total pool determined by the Cabinet.

However, some differences remained in the funding of the two sectors. The colleges continued, until 1969-70, to receive income from their participating boards. Although this was diminishing in value as a portion of their total annual revenue, it was still considerable. These local revenues were used to reduce the fees paid by the students of the district. Thus, for transfer courses the annual fee was the same as that charged at the university proper for a comparable undergraduate programme ($300 to $350), but the fee actually paid by the local student was $150 to $175.

Trend towards university role

In 1964, the board of Lethbridge Junior College requested permission to offer the second year of a transfer programme. It also recommended that the word "junior" be deleted from the Public Junior Colleges Act so that these institutions might eventually teach at the bachelor's degree level. It argued that more university places would shortly be needed because of population growth : "Lethbridge has already pioneered the way with a successful first-year program. It is quite logical, therefore, that the Lethbridge Junior College be allowed to continue its progress". (28)

Some of their recommendations were accepted. The Junior Colleges Act was amended to allow the colleges to offer second-year courses starting in 1965-66, and the General Faculty Council of the university approved the change, provided that the students be required to spend their final year on the university campus and that credit be granted for no more than 10 courses (i.e., 2 full years' work) ; that the second-year courses given at Lethbridge be counterparts of courses given at the University of Alberta, Calgary ; that the instructors for these advanced courses have qualifications "substantially beyond the master's degree in the subject of instruction" ; and that the college not be permitted to offer honour programmes or honour courses.

Reacting thus to local pressures was the corollary of the government's failure to act on the 1959 Royal Commission's recommendation of a master plan. Inevitably this was again forced on the public consciousness. In October 1965 the report of the "Public Expenditure and Revenue Study Committee, Departmental Surveys, Department of Education" declared :

> [The relevant question [of the junior colleges] centres around the direction in which they are to develop. At present they are tied very closely to the universities... There are those who believe that the Junior College in this Province should offer a somewhat broader service to its community... Is the junior college to become a service station to the university as one educator phrases it, or, is its function to be more that of a community college ? (29)

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(28) Quoted in Stewart's Report, p. 69.

(29) Ibid., p. 37.

In 1965 the government commissioned Dr. Andrew Stewart chairman of the Universities Commission, to advise on the role of the junior college in the province's educational structure. In his report he suggested that the province be divided into districts for the provision of colleges. He recognised that the rate of population growth varied in these areas, and that their present variance would be likely to increase. Therefore, although he recommended that a district board for post-school education be established, he allowed the possibility of one district's buying services from another - not all districts would necessarily have a college. He recommended that the governing of post-secondary education be separated from that of school systems and that college boards be permitted, if they so wished, to add representatives of the colleges' professional staff. He recommended the establishment of a provincial board whose function would be "to generate the philosophy of post-school, non-university education, to encourage cooperation and coordination between district boards, and to report to the government of the province on the operation of the district boards and on their needs" (30). He examined the case for comprehensive colleges, and warned that "it would obviously be unwise to attempt to impose a similar pattern on all districts. The district boards must be flexible in accommodating their activities to the needs of their districts".

It is difficult to devise funding formulae for students in different programmes of studies without distorting the programme decisions of the district board and the choices of the students ; and he considered that the formulae for support of the junior colleges had contributed to the preoccupation of the colleges with university education and to their failure (except in Lethbridge) to undertake other programmes. He therefore recommended a per capita grant based on the population of the district.

One of his main recommendations was that the three-year bachelor degree be abandoned and that all university degrees be at least four years study beyond Grade 12, and that students should normally attend the university for the final two years before the award of the degree. He was critical of the decision that permitted Lethbridge Junior College to provide second-year programmes in 1965-66 because it might thereby be possible for students to spend only one year at the university before receiving their degrees. This seemed inadequate. Some students should be permitted to enter university directly from high school, but it would be normal for many to do the first two years of university-level study at a college. There should be a forced diversion of "flow", presumably by severely limiting the number of first-and second-year places on the university campuses in Edmonton and Calgary. With the development of a strong system of colleges, the universities would be enabled to stay within their proposed growth range, at least until the mid-1970's (31).

To accommodate this diversion, a district college would be needed in the city of Edmonton but "there would be no need for immediate consideration of another university campus". In his opinion the proposed elevation of Lethbridge Junior College to university status would not relieve pressure on the Edmonton and Calgary campuses. Dr. Stewart did not entirely oppose developing university programmes at Lethbridge but would have

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30) Ibid, p. 40.

31) It had been estimated that, given the existing trends and conditions, university enrolment would equal 22,000 in the northern region and 11,000 in the southern region of Alberta by 1975-76. If 50 per cent of the first-year students were diverted to colleges the estimated Edmonton enrolment (18,334) for 1975-76 would still be too high. If, however, two-thirds of the first-year students were diverted, the estimated Edmonton enrolment would be reduced to 17,112. Much of the argument for Dr. Stewart's recommendation seems to rest on its usefulness as a safety valve to relieve pressure on the universities rather than on any intrinsic value in college study itself.

preferred to have it become a branch of the University of Calgary rather than an autonomous institution. On the Lethbridge issue he commented,

> There have been some problems in combining the university and technical-vocational activities in the same organisation and using the same facilities. The relative position of the university section has been strengthened by the introduction of second-year courses in 1965-66, and the move to establish a university has not eased the tensions between the two sections (32).

As with most of his other recommendations, this warning of tensions was ignored. A University of Lethbridge was created in 1967 - again as a result of local pressure exerted over a number of years. The college brief of 1964 had mentioned degree programmes. The government, at that time, also received independent briefs from the Lethbridge Chamber of Commerce and other local interest groups. In 1965, the city of Lethbridge had employed consultants to study the feasibility of locating a university in their city. They reported that a third university would be needed in the province, and Lethbridge obtained the charter. But its junior college did not grow into a university as had been anticipated. Instead, a new university was created and the two institutions remain. Each has a separate campus. The junior college transfer role was, for the time being, abolished.

In 1967-68, the college reorganised its internal structure to place much greater emphasis on its technical-vocational programmes and terminal courses. It now has four "schools" : the School of Business Education ; the School of Technical-Vocational Education, which combined the old occupational and technological schools ; the School of Nursing Education which opened classes in September 1969 ; and the School of Liberal Education which in its first year (1967-68) offered four programmes, three of which would be called "applied arts" in Ontario. They are home economics, journalism, and recreation leadership ; the fourth is a university preparatory programme designed as a remedial experience to upgrade students who otherwise would not be accepted for transfer courses, so that at the end of the programme they might qualify for entrance to the first year of university. It is evident that the creation of a university on its doorstep has brought Lethbridge closer to the "community college model" than was ever the intention of those who founded Lethbridge Junior College.

This lesson was learned by other junior colleges, and the idea of an "iron law of growth" seems strong - each college appears to be on its way to becoming a university. However, while the local interest might still be firmly fixed on the attractive college transfer programmes, the provincial authorities read different lessons from the Lethbridge experience :

1. Without incentives, colleges dominated by local school boards show little enthusiasm for their community college role ;
2. Under the existing funding arrangements, the local boards had decisive voice in the distribution of their resources ;
3. Existing grants actually penalised the technical programmes vis-à-vis the transfer programmes ;
4. As each new college became "successful" its expectations of elevation to university status would be quite expensive to fulfil.

And so, in 1967, with the creation of the Provincial Board of Post-Secondary Education and, in 1969, with the legislation creating the Colleges Commission, the Alberta government has moved to reverse the trend - to establish system control and coordination, to encourage more diversified programmes, and to broaden the local groups represented on college boards so that "business" as well as "school" interests are provided for.

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32) Stewart's Report, P. 27.

The colleges(33)

Red Deer Junior College is a "transfer" institution in all but name. In his 1965 study, Dr. Stewart made the following comment : "The college has made a contribution in providing programs to students proceeding to university degrees. It is significant that it has not sought to assume any responsibility for other programs of post-school education". By 1969 the situation had not greatly changed ; only two small vocational programmes had been initiated. The ethos of this institution lies in the fact that it is entirely an academic liberal arts college. Initially, it was administered by the superintendent of schools of Red Deer Public School District No. 104, a dean, and a secretary-treasurer. By the end of 1969 its administrative structure had grown to include a president, vice-president, registrar, director of continuing education, chief librarian, and bursar. In the autumn of 1968, Red Deer petitioned to be allowed to add a second year of university studies, as had Lethbridge before it, but was refused. However, in the academic year 1970-71 second - year university transfer courses were begun in arts, science, education, and physical education.

In September 1965, Medicine Hat Junior College offered its first courses, a first-year university programme, in premises leased from Medicine Hat High School. Its first non-transfer programme (34) was added in 1967-68, but the development of vocational courses has been slow.

The fifth public college of the system (and the last to have been approved) is Grande Prairie Junior College. In 1963 the Grande Prairie School District No. 2357 agreed to apply for a junior college that would be affiliated with the University of Alberta, Edmonton. In April 1965, the university approved in principle the establishment of the college but insisted that an affiliation agreement regarding its programme be delayed until its student body and staff were larger and its facilities had improved. Apparently these conditions were satisfied, for its first courses were given in 1967-68. They included a first-year university arts transfer programme to the University of Alberta, Edmonton, as well as a business education programme and a continuing education programme.

As mentioned above, for the most part, Stewart's Report was not implemented. Lethbridge University was established ; the three-year degree remained until 1970 ; junior colleges still exist in spite of the fact that they have dropped "junior" from their names ; Red Deer, Medicine Hat, and Grande Prairie devote most of their attention to university transfer work ; Mount Royal has "gone public" but Camrose remains private ; the per capita grant system was not adopted and the subsidies still make the presentation of university courses financially more rewarding than vocational courses. It was not until the 1969 legislation that the colleges were freed from local school board control and, even now, their boards are not "district" boards in the sense envisaged by Dr. Stewart. A provincial post-secondary board of education was set up which was replaced in 1969 by a colleges commission, but it remains to be seen whether it will effect the rationalisation urged by the Royal Commission in 1959.

Institutes of Technology (NAIT and SAIT)

Let us turn to the two other educational sectors now considered, in theory, as part of the post-secondary system but, by tradition, quite separate : the institutes of technology and the agricultural colleges (35). Of the two provincial institutes of technology,

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33) For Mount Royal and Lethbridge Colleges, see above.

34) In business education

35) There are also a number of other schools directly administered by the Division of Vocational Education of the Department of Education, but they are not considered part of the post-secondary system - e.g., the Fire Officers' Training School of Vermillion, the Petroleum Industry Training Centre and the Industrial Training Centre for the Retarded at Edmonton, the Vocational and Rehabilitation Research Institute at Calgary and the Alberta Vocational Centre at Fort McMurray.

one might say they were sired by Britain out of Ontario. Such a description would probably anger western educators and probably does some injustice to U.S. influence but, of all the educational institutions in Alberta, the two institutes of technology seem the most "British", whereas the junior colleges are utterly "American". The institutes of technology were not consciously modelled after the Ryerson Institute of Technology in Toronto (SAIT pre-dates it by many years, but in the past 15 years its programmes have been greatly extended and transformed so that it might well be considered a "new" institution), but they clearly subscribe to the same school of educational philosophy. Like their British counterparts, they provide excellent technical (and more recently, business and art) education, which extends from trade and apprenticeship training on a "sandwich" or part-time basis through to rigorous applied science programmes in specialised technologies. Unlike the junior college, they have no ambitions to become universities (particularly in the correct "universal" sense of embracing all fields of knowledge, although there are individuals within these institutions who dream of extending their mission "upward" to degree-granting status). They take great pride in the specialised excellence and the utilitarian value of their graduates. In their own way, they are as academically "elitist" and selective as the most prestigious university, but they apply criteria different from other educational institutions. They look to the tradition of the creative, inventive mechanic. They spell out admission to their programme in terms of completion of various school levels and prerequisite courses, but they are more generously remedial in their outlook - not because they eschew selection but because they reject the academically biased pupil-allocation system of the lower schools.

Agricultural colleges

The final educational sector, the agricultural colleges, includes a large number of high school students as well as students in programmes that might properly be considered post-secondary. (The public and private junior colleges also have high school programmes, but the balance differs). All offer a variety of two-year agricultural technology courses and one-year programmes in office training and horticulture, as well as some apprenticeship courses. Olds has a unique one-year fashion and design technology course, and one in irrigation technology. Vermillion has one in home economics. Enrolment, except for the high school students, is mainly in the agriculture programmes ; only recently have the other courses (except for home economics) been attempted. Males outnumber females but not to the same extent as in technology institutes (see Chapter 5 for discussion of the characteristics of students).

Like the CEGEP of Quebec, but to an even greater extent, the new dress in Alberta was remodelled from old clothes. The new style was designated a "community college" intended to serve all the diverse educational needs of a community not otherwise taken care of by the universities or the schools, and deliberately designed to overlap to some extent with each. All three systems have been planned as a youth service, that is, their need was justified and their capacity determined by reference to projected numbers of full-time day students ; but all are also said to have responsibility for "continuing education". Developing the "poly" character of a true community college will be difficult in Alberta. Its college system is likely to be hampered by past success as a transfer system.

Chapter 2

THE PURPOSE OF THE INNOVATIONS

Discussion of the underlying purposes for which social institutions and systems have been created is often clouded by grandiose philosophy and rhetoric which sometimes bears little relation to the plain facts. In drafting this chapter we therefore had to consider whether to assess the purpose of the innovations on the basis of

a) The formal reports and constitutive documents ;

b) The informal statements of those with whom we talked ; or

c) what the new institutes were actually doing.

We decided that the case study should reveal all three types of evidence and, where appropriate, should compare or contrast them.

FORMAL STATEMENTS OF INTENT

Quebec

Introducing Bill 21 in the Quebec provincial legislature in June 1967, the Minister of Education explained that more than half the 500,000 young people enrolled in secondary schools had the ability to continue studying beyond that level but, traditionally, the post-secondary level had never accommodated such numbers. The Parent commission had advocated, in the interest of encouraging participation in education, the establishment of a new level, "complete in itself... clearly separate from the secondary school course and higher education" (1). The general information section of Enseignement collégial, the yearbook of the Quebec Ministry of Education opens with the words "Depuis la création, en juin 1967, des collèges d'enseignements général et professionnel, le système scolaire du Québec comprend quatre niveaux distincts - l'élémentaire, le secondaire, le collégial, l'universitaire". And it goes on to announce, "Le niveau collégial n'est pas destiné à tous les finissants du secondaire. Une partie seulement de ces derniers peuvent suivre avec profit, pour eux et pour la société, des études de ce niveau... environ 50 % des finissants du secondaire peuvent s'inscrire à des études de niveau collégial" (2).

Thus, in Quebec, the scope of the new system is quite broad. It covers all pre-university liberal education for youth as well as vocationally-oriented education ; about 50 per cent of the Grade 11 graduates would be served but not the high school drop-out, nor those below the Grade 11 level of general education such as the apprenticeship students, the manpower retrainees and the students in "trade" courses.

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1) Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec (Quebec, 1963-1966), Alphonse-Marie Parent, pp. 368-69.

2) Enseignement collégial, enseignements généraux, sommaire des cours, 1969/70, 1970/71, p. 5. "Since the creation of the CEGEP in June 1967, the Quebec education system has four distinct levels : elementary, secondary, collegiate and university... The collegiate level is not intended for all secondary school graduates. Only part of them can follow studies at this level with profit to themselves and to society. About 50 per cent of secondary school graduates can enrol at collegiate level".

Ontario

In his May 1965 speech, the Minister of Education for Ontario said, "We now have accepted the principle of secondary education for all. We probably now must recognize the inevitability of some form of post-secondary education (i.e., beyond Grade 12) for all capable of profiting from it" (3). Before the details of the proposed CAAT system were known, the Director of the Applied Arts and Technology Branch of the Department of Education listed as its two immediate purposes : "to provide a valid alternative to university education to students who do not wish to attend university [and] to provide a second chance for students not initially qualified to enter university". The first long-range aim was "to provide the individual, to the limit of his capacity, with the facts and techniques necessary to support himself throughout his life in the most satisfying manner at the best possible standard".

Thus, in Ontario, the system is serving the non-university stream graduating from the last two years of secondary school, some of whom might later become university candidates, as well as high school drop-outs, apprentices for trades training, and unemployed workers in manpower retraining courses which have no study prerequisites.

Alberta

The Provincial Board of Post-Secondary Education envisaged a college as "an institution designed primarily to serve persons who cannot, need not, or do not wish to attend universities (with the exception of those in university transfer programs) and who normally cannot be expected to return to public high schools" (4). The definition of purpose presented by the Chairman of the Alberta Colleges Commission to the Cabinet in August 1970 was as follows :

> The public college in Alberta is a truly comprehensive two-year post-secondary educational institution providing training and education for students of a wide range of interests, aptitudes, and types of intelligence. The general functions of the two year college are :
>
> 1. To broaden the base for higher education in Alberta ;
> 2. To ease the problem of access to higher education ;
> 3. To advise students according to their capabilities ;
> 4. To provide a "salvage function" to those students who have dropped out of school ;
> 5. To assist students to adjust their aspirations in ways that make their potential and the requirements of specific programs compatible ; and
> 6. To serve in some geographical locations as a cultural center for the community in which it exists (5).

Thus, in Alberta, a portion of the university-bound youth as well as high school graduates interested in vocational programmes were provided for. The plans envisaged that by 1972 the system would serve 80 per cent of the youth graduating from Grade 12 not continuing immediately to university : the university would take 30 per cent of those completing Grade 12, the colleges 56 per cent and 14 per cent would enter the labour market.

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3) Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology, Basic Documents, p. 8.

4) A summary Statement of Proposals of the Provincial Board of Post-Secondary Education to the Honourable R. Reierson Minister of Education and Cabinet reactions to the Proposals in Principle , n.d. unpaginated.

5) Alberta's Public College - Current Operation and Proposed Development, submitted to Cabinet by Dr. H. Kolesar, August 26, 1970, p. 4.

Many of the college students would enter university parallel courses. Others, who lacked the prerequisite admission standard for transfer programmes but were not attracted to vocational studies would enter "combination" programmes which would be a reinforcement of high school work with some university level study. The combination programme might be defined as a transfer programme for a transfer programme.

ADMISSION REGULATIONS

Quebec

Of all the systems, the CEGEP of Quebec have been the most carefully planned and exhibit the greatest uniformity and the most effective organisation. It has uniform admission regulations which appear to be observed in every college. The CEGEP yearbook, Enseignement collégial, specifies the admission requirements ; in order to be admitted to college to study for a diploma a student must have passed the Secondary V class or the equivalent.

The admission of students whose prior studies have been outside the Quebec system is also allowed for. The dean of a college may accord equivalence for preparatory courses of the same level in institutions recognized by the Ministry of Education. For full-time day students, the competition for entrance is strong. In the English-language colleges in Montreal, for example, students who were accepted averaged well above 65 per cent on ten papers of the Quebec junior matriculation examinations, and for some general (pre-university) programmes the level was over 70 per cent. (For purposes of comparison, a "pass" in the matriculation exam is 50 per cent and the average score on ten papers for university entrance to a four-year bachelor of arts programme in the past has been 60-65 per cent.) The French-language CEGEP have been even more rigourously selective, the de facto average required for admission to a general programme being 70-75 per cent. The CEGEP do not serve the equivalent of the Ontario four-year stream graduates, but only the five-year stream. They pay little deference to "adults" of eighteen and nineteen who cannot meet their formal standards.

Ontario

Admission standards, approved by the Council of Regents in February 1967, have only the status of "guidelines" so much local flexibility is permitted. The colleges were not intended to be entirely "open door" colleges. Their programmes cover an immense range of academic levels, particularly since the 1969 decision to include the manpower retraining centres as an integral part of the institutions, and there has never been any doubt that many of the programmes require a high level of prior academic study. A youth of nineteen is eligible to study at a college, subject to two limitations : the number of places available in a specific programme and the precise admission requirements of the programme. The college does, however, offer some opportunity for upgrading to the necessary standard by means of remedial courses. The admission standards seem to have been applied rigourously for the first two years, but since 1969 some colleges have moved quite far towards an "open door". From the outset the Council assumed that each college would have an upgrading programme for students who could not meet all the admission requirements ; it supported advanced placement for persons whose background was above the minimum entrance standard as well as a testing programme to screen entering students to determine better their appropriate level. Nonetheless, admission to a CAAT is selective. Algonquin's calendar for 1969-70, typical of a large, rather conservative college with comprehensive programme coverage, states as follows :

> It is the purpose of Algonquin College of Applied Arts and Technology to serve the Ottawa Valley by providing educational opportunities for secondary school graduates who do not wish to go to university and for adults and out of school youths who are not high school graduates... The minimum educational requirement for admission [to a three-year diploma program] is the Ontario Secondary School Graduation Diploma at the successful completion of Grade 12 of the five-year program or the equivalent.

The calendar also notes that admission to the two-year diploma programme requires the Ontario Secondary School Graduation Diploma awarded after successful completion of Grade 12, of either a four- or five-year programme. Even the one-year certificate programmes in applied arts and in business require an Ontario Graduation Diploma, although the one-year technical programmes are less restrictive : they require either a diploma or that a student be nineteen or older "with proven aptitude and a minimum education of Grade 10... or its equivalent". The college does not select the student for its apprenticeship programmes ; these are controlled by the Ontario Department of Labour and, according to the calendar, "basic requirements are age sixteen and Grade 10 of a four-year or five-year program".

Algonquin recognizes "mature students", persons of twenty-two years and over, who may be admitted whatever their prior study if they can "provide evidence of both the background and the ability to succeed in the desired program".

Each of the CAATs of Ontario has a manpower retraining division in which there is a considerable commitment to accept the student, whatever his background, and upgrade him to a level where he can undertake the desired vocational study. They also offer trades and apprenticeship training, programmes well below the post-secondary level : for their standard post-secondary service, however, they expect the established academic standards to be observed.

In Ontario, it is clear that the officials see the students as mainly non-academic, and they regard their major task as motivating them to strive for excellence, kindling their enthusiasm, while, at the same time, maintaining fairly high standards.

Obviously, the admissions officer of an Ontario CAAT is torn between two demands. There is the desire to have "sound" programmes. Courses that are at a post-secondary level in technology, business and applied arts require a prior knowledge of mathematics, the physical and social sciences, and the ability to write well and read widely. There is the real danger of "turning the public sour", as one dean put it, if students are admitted, their expectations raised and then they are ruthlessly "failed" out of programmes. Yet, neither the professional pride of the teachers nor the reputation of the system will tolerate awarding diplomas to graduates who will take jobs they cannot do well and cannot hold.

However, there is also the desire to "serve" their regions, to attract persons who formerly would never have gone beyond the secondary school. The "missionary spirit" in the Ontario CAATs is intense to the point of being an inverted form of snobbery (academic élitism in reverse). There are, of course, variations in the senior administrators' and teachers' interpretations of their mission and it is evident that different colleges are at different points along the continuum of comprehensiveness.

In 1968-69, the president of one of the Metropolitan Toronto CAATs estimated there had been about 5 per cent "unorthodox" admissions in his college and about 10 per cent admissions under the "mature student" rubric, so that 85 per cent of the full-time day students were high school graduates who fulfilled all the standard admission requirements. He also reported that some courses were "extremely exclusive". This was particularly true for programmes which were new and unusual for the entire system. He felt the college "should set out to be successful with the student", not necessarily in what the student originally wished to study but in what the student seemed capable of studying. He saw the solution in admissions counselling and "diversion". The students were going to have to face diversion more and more.

In every CAAT visited, much the same opinion was expressed, and in no case was categorical denial of such a philosophy or opposition to it encountered. There was a difference of opinion as to where the "floor" and "ceiling" should rest, but there was general approval of present practice. Since outspoken criticism of other aspects of college policy was encountered in every institution, this cannot be regarded as polite evasion. In general, the officials of these institutions see themselves as playing a "selection" role. Nowhere were the CAATs regarded as a community resource, like a library or a primary school, open to all (or to all of a given age group) for all purposes. No one expressed what might be called a "right of use" philosophy ; the only exception to this was the evening use by other municipal or provincial agencies of the facilities of the college and, to some extent, the obligation to provide adult extension courses.

Alberta

There are no general admission guidelines for the colleges of Alberta but there is a unanimity which is a by-product of the control imposed on the transfer programmes by the universities. The 1969-70 calendar of Red Deer Junior College, for example, states the following matriculation requirements :

a) The minimum standing required in any matriculation subject is "B" or at least 50 % ;
b) A minimum average of 60.0% is required on the Grade XII subjects submitted for matriculation ;
c) Normally a high school diploma will be required. This may be waived in the case of adult students (18 years old).

For the arts transfer programme, the matriculation requirements are English, social studies, a language other than English (French, German, Latin, or Ukrainian), a science (biology, chemistry, physics, or mathematics), and a fifth subject (another language, another of the sciences, an extra mathematics course or one of the Grade 12 fine arts group).

In general, admission requirements for the non-transfer programmes, business administration for example, are either "adult status" (eighteen or in some cases twenty-one years of age or over and admission on an individual basis "if their educational background and business experience warrants") or a high school diploma, preferably with matriculation or near matriculation. The business courses are by no means the most exclusive. There is a list of medical technology programmes at NAIT all of which require matriculation, as well as engineering and science technology courses that require a diploma with "B" standing in two mathematics, physics and English. NAIT, SAIT, Lethbridge, and Mount Royal seem much the same - less exclusive in programmes at the lower end of the academic range and more exclusive in the university parallel programmes. Red Deer, Medicine Hat, and Grande Prairie offer courses almost entirely at the upper end of the academic continuum.

To conclude : there is evidence of a prevailing educational philosophy among the administrators of the Ontario and Alberta systems, and there seems to be more intra-system variance along the continuum of "open door" and "comprehensiveness" than inter-system variance. This cannot be measured as precisely as one would wish since the interview schedule is not an objective instrument of measurement.

In all colleges some distinction seems to be made between admission to the college and admission into a specific programme of the college. The latter is contingent not only upon the availability of a place, but also upon a separate selection review by the chairman or faculty of the programme in question.

Because of the more precise conditions laid down in the Quebec legislation, the situation in that province is somewhat different. In all three provinces, however, the aim of the legislation has been to create a post-secondary institution in the sense of a level above the secondary school, not only in time but also in academic rigour and type of study. The extension "downwards" in comprehensiveness may start a programme at a level parallel to the secondary school system, but it is expected that the student will be well beyond that before he leaves the college.

SOCIAL ECOLOGY OF THE COLLEGES

This leads us to look at another aspect of the aims of these three systems - the inclusion or exclusion, at the upper level of the comprehensive spectrum, of courses specifically intended as part of a degree programme, and the related problems of the academic autonomy of a feeder institution. In one sense, of course, there are no longer any autonomous educational institutions : all are forced, willy nilly, to consider themselves and their service in relation to other levels, and to other institutions at their own level. However, for colleges there is a greater threat than the mere influence of the rest of the system. It becomes a question of whether their programmes are designed for a purpose of their own or whether they are an integral part of a larger programme controlled by the persons who have decided the purposes and parts of the larger programme. The constraints of the latter position are considerably greater and the responsibility for performance less. In any case, it is not the purpose of this study to decide which is the better policy, but merely to record that the three provincial college systems apparently have different positions of purpose on the question of university studies.

Quebec

In Quebec, the Parent Report had suggested that the only entrance to the university should be through the institutes. The CEGEP system provides for two-year general programmes which are pre-university studies, and three-year vocational programmes which are complete in themselves. (It has an exclusive franchise. When the system is complete all institutions in Quebec, including the private ones, will operate pre-university programmes or vocational programmes at this level.) This is no parallel system. "The universities must give up certain fields of instruction which have traditionally been theirs." (6)

Since the first CEGEP incorporated a large number of academic institutions, they were overbalanced on the general studies side. It had been intended that CEGEP enrolment be split 60 vocational to 40 academic, but many of the first institutions still are CEG (Collège de l'éducation générale) lacking the "P" (professionnelle) programmes. They are akin to junior colleges, or more properly to classical colleges, except that they have a monopoly on this level of study. In the first two years, enrolment actually was 30 vocational to 70 academic, and serious student unrest developed because of the fear that the requisite number of university places would not be created by September 1969 for the first graduates of the general programmes (June 1969). However, these fears were unfounded and, with publicity for programmes, student guidance and control of registration, the CEGEP have succeeded in achieving a better balance (almost 50 vocational to 50 academic for the year 1969-70). With the creation of new vocational programmes and new facilities, it is expected that the desired 70 vocational to 30 academic distribution will be achieved in a few years.

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6) Royal Commission Report, p. 189, paragraph 301.

But the Quebec system was consciously conceived as an "investment" and its officials made no bones about the need to produce the required technical and paraprofessional personnel for its labour market. The chief difficulty is that this market has been behaving badly for several years. At the beginning of the academic year 1969-70, unemployment was running at 5.4 per cent in Quebec, one of the highest rates in Canada. Much of the unemployment is among unskilled labour which desperately needs to be upgraded before it can be reabsorbed into employment. However, there is also in this province considerable technical unemployment and a real economic recession. Whatever may be the causes, by June 1970 when some 3,470 CEGEP students graduated into the labour market, Quebec was experiencing an unemployment rate of 9.2 per cent. This is a temporary phenomenon, but the problem of trying to balance the flow of skills and the number of jobs - the supply and demand for technically qualified labour - remains a real difficulty for Quebec. And the more these college systems move in the direction of mounting "viable vocational programmes", the more they will confront this problem.

Ontario

In striking contrast to Quebec, in the CAATs the development of interest in programmes leading to university (transfer courses) was held to be deplorable but inevitable: appropriate for a small group of students, but likely to have a bad overall effect, and something to be kept strictly under control. Differences in attitude regarding transfer courses were rare among the senior personnel of the institutions visited, the chief criticism being the loss of control over the programme. On the whole, personnel of the academic or general arts division were more favourable to transfer than any other group. There was no support for the CAAT's granting university-level degrees.

Wholehearted acceptance of the preparation-for-employment role distinguishes the Ontario and Quebec systems from that of Alberta. Nowhere in Ontario was there found any tendency to evade the responsibility of placing the CAAT graduates in jobs. Even the administrators of the general arts or the academic division accepted this as a college "mission", although not their particular responsibility. In the applied arts, technical and business divisions, officials generally spoke with pride of the positions their graduates had gained, the number of companies that had carried out interviews on their premises that spring, and the small proportion of students not placed. It was part of the CAAT teacher's role to cultivate the professional, commercial and industrial contacts that would help place his graduates. The colleges are product-oriented ; indeed, the term "product" was used frequently in the interviews, and there is widespread conviction that the college will be judged by the excellence of its product. There was some disagreement, particularly between officials of small and large colleges, as to whether their "labour market" ought to be the local community or the provincial market. If a small college in a rural community is heavily committed to planning programmes according to its local labour needs, it will end up with a short list of programmes indeed. This approach was considered too restrictive and undesirable in view of the mobility of Canadian youth. There was common acceptance that college programmes ought to include general education and be taught in a manner that would enlarge the student's horizon ; on the other hand there was insistence upon relevance, up-to-date knowledge of current industrial developments and professional practice, practical utility with field experience, and the need to have some knowledge of manpower requirements so that the number of places might be restricted to the ability of the economy to absorb the graduates.

One would expect that assuming this responsibility would lead the colleges to a docile acceptance of the need for systems rationalisation, central setting of priorities, overall allocation of the number of programmes and student places in order to avoid wastage, duplication and overproduction. But this is not so, as we shall see in Chapter 3. The acceptance of system centralisation seems greater in Quebec than in Ontario, where the gentle hissing of a constant escape of steam through decentralized evasion of "guidelines" seems an endemic condition.

Alberta

In this province the junior colleges were set up primarily to provide an alternative route to the university, but not necessarily a route for borderline academic students. It was cheaper because it enabled the student to live at home. There was also a public saving since the unit costs were lower than those of the university. It also made transition from secondary school to university easier because the college teachers, although not the highly trained scholarly professors of the university, could devote their full-time efforts to the students as their career depended solely upon teaching. Junior college students did not represent the lowliest of the low, as would first-year undergraduates in a large university. Classes were smaller, supervision was individual and personal, and the process represented a comfortable half-way point between the high school and the university. For the majority of the university-bound students, however, direct transition is still preferred ; the colleges accept a large proportion of the second best and are regarded as second best. Some junior colleges made slight bows in the direction of comprehensiveness, but only Mount Royal has a considerable number of non-transfer programmes. Even with the 1969 legislation stressing the community orientation of the colleges, it is doubtful that their pre-university and university parallel functions will be superseded.

On the other hand, large numbers of students are leaving the high schools with grades below university entrance standards. Some further training is desirable for them. The high cost of university places which, in any case, are not suitable to the needs of these students, will encourage the development of comprehensive colleges. Alberta's labour force needs personnel at the paraprofessional level as much as that of Quebec and Ontario, although not necessarily the same occupational types. The "manpower" influence on programmes which has been specifically recognised in the Ontario legislation and genuinely accepted by the administrators of that system has not been endorsed in Alberta. With one or two exceptions, there was unquestioned acceptance of an educational policy which would provide places based entirely on social demand (i.e., the estimated number of applications from students) and rejection of any alternative policy suggestion.

The presidents of the Alberta colleges were more sympathetic than their staff to providing non-transfer programmes, although they too placed highest value on transfer courses and were determined that their institutions would not become vocational colleges. They admitted that this might be academic snobbery. It was in Alberta that objections were raised to the use of the term "staff" to refer the college teachers, "faculty" being the term commonly used. The common college ambition in Alberta was to obtain junior college status and then to work hard to become a university, but it was felt that this ambition would slowly change.

In Alberta stress has been avoided largely by having a system so decentralised as to be a non-system, each institution being virtually autonomous and locally oriented or confined to a specific educational task. There is at present no real control of programme duplication. There is a review and approval procedure whereby new programmes are submitted to the Colleges Commission, but not existing ones. The philosophy of the system is definitely a social-demand philosophy rather than a manpower-demand philosophy. The colleges accept no responsibility for job placement, nor for overproduction of one type of employee, although overproduction would not be desirable ; nor did the officials interviewed seem concerned with the problem of underproduction of provincially needed skills. They did make some exception for NAIT and SAIT, which were regarded as being in a separate category from the colleges, and for which a policy of providing programmes and places more related to estimated employment needs might eventually have to be adopted. Thus far, placement had not been a problem since many of their technology students have had jobs before they graduate and a sizable number come from outside the province, particularly from Saskatchewan.

This refusal on the part of the Alberta college officials to consider themselves responsible for the employment of their graduates, or to relate their enrolment to some estimate of jobs available, was mirrored in each institution visited, though not always to the same degree.

SUMMARY

Clearly, the intention in setting up these new systems was to effect a generous expansion of the whole system of publicly financed education, but not one that was to be unrestricted or unselective. The umbrella covered more in some provinces than it did in others.

Possibly, Canada has oversold education as an "investment". Certainly, the university as the avenue to the good life is a firm myth in English-speaking North America, and in Quebec not less so. The goal of having all educational roads lead to (or at least seem to lead to) the university is stronger in western Canada than in the east. The college system in Alberta has obviously been greatly influenced by those of the western United States, particularly of California. In Ontario, largely because of the universities' stand but also because of costs, the government tried to divert the student flow and create an attractive new system, complete in itself and closely linked to employment at the paraprofessional level. For the applied programmes it will probably succeed. It will be enough if a sizable stream of its three-year diploma graduates eventually enter university for degree programmes in their specialised fields, without too serious a time penalty. If this occurs, the basic character of the CAAT system, as a desirable and valuable diversion system with its own status and place in the academic hierarchy, will be retained and accepted as a good base for upward mobility. However, if its excellent students from its best programmes are locked effectively into a dead end, the demand for full formal transfer or even for degree granting status will grow.

This still leaves the problem of a heavy stream of general academic students into the post-secondary level. The direct flow into the universities of the top academic youth of the secondary schools (22 per cent of the 18-21 age group is the estimate for 1973) (7) will continue. Financial pressures will probably move the Alberta system closer to the Ontario position. Status pressures will probably move the Ontario system closer to the other two systems in the matter of introducing general academic post-secondary programmes that earn high transfer credit for the university. But there is no evidence to suggest that the CEGEP solution will come about in Ontario nor that real junior colleges will develop. Increasingly, general arts and science students may be accommodated in three-year colleges affiliated with the universities rather than in the universities themselves, or may enter combined liberal and vocational programmes which start in a university and finish in a CAAT. If the pressure of numbers and costs becomes too great universities

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7) Ontario University and College Enrollment Projections to 1981-82, (1968 projection), Cicely Watson and Saeed Quazi, Enrollment Projections Series No. 4, (OISE, 1968), p. 14.

might even subcontract their first year of general arts and science to the CAATs. This is already possible under the legislation.

But what of the academically below-standard or borderline general arts and science student ? The CAATs already have a few General Arts and Science (GAS) programmes taken mostly by small numbers of female students who are not attracted to vocational courses ; the men seem to choose the two-year business programmes as their general education stream. If this enrolment increases greatly, some transfer tradition will surely emerge such as giving one-year credit for a three-year General Arts and Science programme (i.e., for degree courses in the humanities, social sciences, or sciences, this would mean approving at least five courses out of the total taken at the CAAT, probably those at the third-year level).

More evidence is needed to assess the purpose of an institution or a social system than statements of intent found in legislation, or pious platitudes and generous philosophical statements made by senior spokesmen on public occasions. When one looks at the educational tasks undertaken, there seem to be marked differences of purpose for these three systems. Their degree of comprehensiveness differs : one extends farther upward in academic level, another extends more downward, than the others ; but all are mainly post-secondary in their emphasis. The balance of academic and vocational orientation shifts (even at different points in time within the system itself and certainly from college to college).

Chapter 3

CONTROL AND CO-ORDINATION

Administrators, teachers, civil servants and politicans concerned with these new institutions are beginning to refer to them as a "system". It was clearly the intention in each province to create a group of institutions all having a common purpose, common governing structure, common regulations, and a common relationship with government. For more than fifty years, each of these provinces has had a school system, in so far as the organisation of schools, their teaching force, their curricula, their examination systems and standards, their governing structure, and their financing have been subject to common public control and common regulations.

The post-secondary institutions, on the other hand, have generally been created as unique autonomous bodies. In the eastern provinces at least, each university has an individual charter defining its legal status, and the charters differ widely in the powers they confer and the responsibilities they recognise. Originally, these were private institutions and, today, they remain essentially private, even where they depend almost entirely on public funds for their operation. Only slowly and reluctantly, almost painfully one might say, have they come to create the semblance of a system for themselves. Even in Alberta, where the university system has been strongly influenced by such American states as California, the universities have been successful in maintaining what is essentially a non-system.

The largely informal university system of Ontario seems to be subject to greater de facto control. In Quebec, where the French-language universities have a long history of denominational affiliation, public control of the system is very recent ; it is however the most complete and the most overt of those studied. Universities of both language groups in Quebec operate under public charter and, since the Parent reforms, are governed centrally by the Direction générale de l'enseignement supérieur of the Ministry of Education which has responsibilities for planning, coordinating, regulating finance, and information. For university policy questions, the Minister of Education (whose portfolio covers all education both publicly supported and private, from pre-school to the graduate and professional schools of the universities) is advised by the Higher Education Commission of the Superior Council of Education.

QUEBEC

In Quebec, the details of procedure and regulation for the administration and co-ordination of the CEGEP were planned and defined before the enabling legislation was presented to the House. And in the Mission and COPEPP the government had two excellent systems devices operating from the very beginning. The Mission ensured that local interested parties systematically followed common procedures when preparing a request for the formation of a CEGEP, so that much the same range of information regarding existing premises, faculty and programmes and estimates of students, regional population and costs was available before any institution was chartered. The Parent Commission had intended that the new educational sector would be formed, initially, by amalgamating the existing resources - material and human - and this in fact occurred, so that for the first two or three years the new CEGEP greatly resembled the fabric from which they had been fashioned.

Gradually the diversification implied by their title is being carried out. Preference was given to the employment of staff of the parent institutions, so that when the CEGEP opened, most of their instructors had been similarly employed previously. Since most simply transferred from the Collèges classiques, it is not surprising that they exhibit a high degree of system consciousness. It might be said that the FCC had taken over the CEGEP. The first college appointments invariably included the people who had been members of the organising committee of the college. In 1969-70 this situation began to change. In the early months of 1970 there was a massive changeover in DIGEC personnel; the five senior officials resigned and were replaced by people recruited from the CEGEP themselves.

The organisation chart for the administration of the CEGEP, suggested by DIGEC, was followed almost uniformly, even as to specific title, with only one or two minor differences in small colleges where several functions were combined in one post. Not only had those people been recruited from the old colleges, frequently without even the formality of an interview, but there was an almost perfect correlation between the positions now occupied and those previously occupied. Moreover, the old system network was in perfect operating condition, and people interviewed in May 1969 could describe specifically the next step in their career line.

The tendency towards centralisation

The centralising influence of French thinking is readily evident in Quebec. The CEGEP Act did not set up a specialised agency to ensure system regulation of the colleges. Once the system was operating, i.e. after the Mission had completed its task, this was unnecessary. Like all other educational sectors in Quebec, the system is centrally governed, in an operational sense, through a branch of the Ministry of Education, and, in a policy advisory and review sense, through the Superior Council. Uniformity at college level was self-evident. Thus, on admissions policy, we were referred to article 14 ; on representation of faculty, student, and community interests on the board, we were referred to paragraph 8 of the College Act of 1967. On fees and curricula we were referred to regulations which specified that no fees are to be charged for full-time CEGEP study, and "full-time" in every college is defined as "at least four courses". There is central definition of grades, evaluation systems, diplomas, the college year and holidays. Even the numbering system for the classification of courses is uniform. Descriptive documentary material on the CEGEP is abundant and readily available from the Ministry of Education in Quebec City.

Finance

There is one very noticeable exception to CEGEP documentation - virtually no detailed financial data are readily available (i.e., figures on costs, grants, and budgets) and no information on the procedures, rules, norms, or guidelines for budgetary allocations. There is no elaborate "formula" system for financing the CEGEP. The "budget norms" each year are decided in DIGEC and communicated to senior administrators in the form of unit grants. Thus, the library allotment would be $50 per student one year and might vary the next. The allotment for sports and entertainment would be $7 per student, for pastoral guidance $11, etc. ; from these rates, a line-by-line budget is devised at the college and scrutinized and approved at the centre.

Staff

There are no professorial ranks in the CEGEP (such as there are in Quebec's universities), but there are two categories of full-time professors : permanent or tenured, (those with more than two years' teaching experience in a public educational institution) and non-permanent (those with less). Salaries are determinated by a two-factor scale, in which the number of years of full-time study (for various qualifications and degrees) and the number of years of teaching experience are taken into account.

Qualifications : Minimum qualifications for professors, by type of programme, are generally from 17 to 20 years of full-time study for teachers in the general programmes (with the average in 1969 being 18 years) and from 12 to 20 years for vocational teachers (with the 1969 average being 15). The vocational are expected to be "specialists" in their trades or fields. Upgrading is encouraged for existing staff who fall below these qualifications, and a fund equal to 1.2 per cent of the total academic and administrative salaries of a college was set aside to finance their part-time study.

Mobility : In reply to questions about their career movements, the CEGEP respondents, all of whom were senior administrators with no teaching duties (1), indicated, with one or two exceptions, their satisfaction with and allegiance to the system. The senior echelons have been described as a club (2) : the administrative personnel in one college know almost everything about what is happening in another college. The carefully defined procedures of DIGEC were reinforced by a constant exchange among colleges of information on functions, duties, and powers. One has the impression of a clear career commitment of administrators to this system. The system has enough units and a large enough administrative force to make lateral transfer promotion a common experience. If our impression is correct, the college system can be expected to follow the school system in this characteristic. To a lesser extent, the university system in these provinces also exhibit this career characteristic, the difference being in the definition of the system. At the university level, the system is not provincially bound as it is for school personnel ; it is continental - one might almost say worldwide.

Representation : A system-wide overall pupil-teacher ratio of 15 to 1 was adopted in the collective bargaining agreement signed on July 15, 1969 by the provincial government, the colleges, the Syndicats des professeurs de CEGEP (CSN), and the Sector CEGEP of the Corporation des Enseignants du Québec. This agreement also governs the colleges' regulations on tenure, promotion, and salary scales so that, at the level of the institution, the Board of Governors has little regulatory power in these areas. Until this agreement (which was required under paragraph 23 of the CEGEP Act of June 1967), there had been some variation in staff conditions among the colleges because of contracts which had been in force prior to the merger of the different institutions. The Rand formula has been adopted whereby membership dues are levied whether the teacher is a union member or not.

Programmes

One very important task of system regulation is the control of programmes - the approval of specific courses of study as outlined and the decision to permit certain colleges to offer certain programmes. Both these controls are well developed in the Quebec

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1) In this, they differed from Ontario and Alberta where chairmen of divisions, departments, or programmes all have teaching responsibilities, and even some deans, principals and presidents also insist on teaching a few hours per week.

2) This is probably because Quebec, using a different language from the rest of the North American continent, is something of a "closed society", whose bourgeoisie have been interrelated and restricted in numbers. Particularly in higher educational circles, "everyone knows everyone else".

system. Initially there was little conscious programme coordination, but since there was a long tradition of general academic courses in the collèges classiques and these were transferred to the CEGEP with only slight modification, there was, in fact, considerable standardisation. Changes of content and teaching methods have been taking place, fostered by DIGEC, particularly since 1969. DIGEC hold programme revision meetings twice a year to which each college sends the appropriate directeur du secteur (e.g. general arts, mathematics and sciences). These committees study suggested changes in course content or programme sequence which have been submitted by committees of teachers in individual colleges or teacher representatives from groups of colleges. They also review examinations and suggested changes in methods of teaching and evaluation. But real "process" change in education moves slowly since it is difficult to teach "old hands" new habits.

A major task of the Ministry has been to encourage the development of new kinds of vocational programmes in order to shift enrolment closer to the proportionate distribution of general and vocational that was originally intended. These efforts seem to be succeeding. With the proliferation of vocational programmes, however, the delicate balance between the supply of graduates and their absorption into employment becomes crucial, the need for central planning becomes more imperative, and controls tighten. This trend seems in conflict with public statements of DIGEC that :

> The spirit in which the government wishes to set up the General and Vocational Colleges is to see in them actual partners to whom the largest possible measure of responsibilities can be delegated. The trend, therefore, is clearly toward the progressive widening of the autonomy of these institutions. The colleges will find themselves in a position that will stimulate a sense of initiative and deep involvement among their staff, real internal dynamism and the plunging of deep roots in the socio-economic environment (3).

Review

In June 1967, the Superior Council of Education requested its Commission of Technical and Vocational Education to evaluate the first year's (academic year 1967-68) operation of the colleges, so in January 1968 a questionnaire was circulated to all college principals (4) and during the first three months of 1968 five institutions were visited by an investigating sub-committee. The details of their report, General and Vocational Colleges: Development During Their First Year, are discussed in the chapters which deal with administration and curricula. Here this investigation is cited merely as an example of the "system monitoring" which is a feature of the Quebec mode of operation. The report is also important in that it throws some light on early "system" operation, particularly on the question of the relationship of DIGEC to the Boards of Governors of the colleges. They found :

> It quite often happens that the directorate communicates directly with individuals in the colleges without passing through the board of directors or the principal in the process. It seems both to us and to those whose task is to run the colleges that an impossible situation is created whenever the directorate conveys instructions directly to the section or department heads or even to individual faculty members, whenever it engages teachers or department heads as part-time advisers, whenever it arranges meetings for teaching staff members, heads of departments or service directors, without informing the college principal of what it is doing. Hence, we feel

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3) College Education and the General and Vocational Colleges, Quebec Department of Education, 1968, p. 47.

4) Eleven of the twelve CEGEP then operating provided data.

that the Directorate of College Education should make sure that relations between the staff and the colleges take place in an orderly way and respect the authority of those in charge of college administration (5).

This situation might be interpreted as the product of administrative inefficiency and inexperience rather than any attempt strictly to control the system.

ONTARIO

The Act setting up the CAATs in Ontario and the regulations filed in October 1965 established a system control device known as the Council of Regents (6), a fifteen-man advisory body whose members until summer 1970 were appointed by the Minister of Education for a three-year period, with eligibility for reappointment. They are now appointed by the Lieutenant Governor on recommendation of the Cabinet. The legislation authorises the Minister to make regulations regarding admissions ; the type, content, and duration of programmes ; the payment of tuition fees ; and the qualifications and conditions of service of teaching staff. It is the Council of Regents' standing committees that draft these regulations, advised and assisted by the personnel of the Applied Arts and Technology Branch (7) of the Department of Education. How much of what ensued resulted from the initiative of certain individuals and how much of the responsibility can be attributed to each agency, we cannot say. We can only report the impressions gained from the college administrators interviewed.

Co-ordination by contrived consensus

From the beginning, the overt system device in Ontario, the Council, and the covert device, the Branch, have complemented each other. The former has enabled the Minister to seek "advice" (and incidentally to tap a considerable quantity of unpaid labour of a useful representative character) and expertise in naming board members and drafting loose general regulations. The latter has ensured public fiscal control, since the Branch reviews all proposed expenditure and limits cost variations, and has allowed for the intervention of a group of professional education experts in the details of expenditure.

Since very few of the decisions of a college could be said to be entirely divorced from expenditure, Branch officials were able to act as consultants to the boards to ensure that when the proposed action of the president or the board finally reached the Council with a request for approval, it had already been so amended as to fall clearly within the acceptable range of policy. Until an administrative reorganisation in 1970, the Branch employed an official responsible for field liaison with each college and each region. In the early days he visited the college frequently. He was readily available, quietly providing expert background information, a knowledge of comparable decisions taken elsewhere, a knowledge of the pros and cons of alternative actions and, most important, a knowledge of which action would be preferred at the centre, which decision might be approved and which would be clearly unacceptable. The swift, successful, and smooth creation of the CAAT system was due largely to the excellence of these "travelling salesmen".

There are no formal regulations and guidelines for the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology published by the Council. Instead of a comprehensive set of rules

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5) General and Vocational Colleges : Development during their First Year, pp. 13-14. Hereinafter this is referred to as First Year.

6) Hereinafter referred to as the Council.

7) Hereinafter referred to as the Branch.

and regulations, such as those published by the Quebec Ministry, the rules for the CAAT system must be gleaned indirectly from mimeographed reports and briefs, suggested guidelines and procedures, and the Minutes of the Council. The standing committees of the Council were redefined and reorganised from time to time (8) to improve its operation over the years 1966 to 1968.

The most common term appearing in the minutes of these first years is "property" - requests for approval of leases, renovations, permission to buy, permission to employ architects and engineering consultants, discussion of space needs. They seem to have been dealt with on an ad hoc basis, the preferences and plans of each college being regarded as unique. There is no evidence of standardisation in regard to property, except possibly in the discussion of the optimum size of site and the optimum size (in terms of full-time enrolment) of a college. The size was set at 100 acres (except in high-density urban areas) ; enrolments at 4,000 students with a maximum of 6,000, and consideration to be given to forming a new college when the enrolment exceeded 3,000. All studies, briefs, and plans were routed to the officials of the Branch as well as to the appropriate standing committee, and since the same people reviewed case after case, there is no doubt that common standards emerged from the common experience. The only formal evidence of common standards, however, is a set of guidelines on planning a college, drawn up for the Council by the Department of Educational Planning of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and distributed widely to college officials and boards.

Apart from suggested appointments of board members and approval of the appointments of senior college officials recommended by boards (which seems to have been a formality), the Council did not interfere in staffing.

The second most common item in the Minutes dealt with programmes of instruction (9). Their recommendations on programmes were much more general than those of Quebec. For example, there is a note that each college was expected to have an upgrading programme (in connection with admission standards) and, therefore, that all colleges ought to have some uniform testing procedure to sort out their entrants and provide for advance placement. At a following meeting, the Council recommended that each college should appoint a capable counsellor to develop a vocational and academic counselling service for its students, but there is no evidence of follow up to require the colleges to do this. In 1969 and 1970, the testing arrangements and counselling service varied greatly from college to college and were uniformly criticised by administrators but defended as "the best that can be accomplished, given the budget".

Quite early in its history (January 10, 1967), the Council drafted the formal admission requirements which are so admirably reflected in Algonquin's regulations, quoted in Chapter 2. But leeway was left for decisions at the institutional level which would relax these requirements. Indeed, at a meeting three months later, Council members themselves recommended ignoring their guidelines so that a graduate of a four-year secondary school programme might enter a three-year diploma course if his overall high school standing were 70 per cent.

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8) Revision in September of 1966 from four committees (Governors, Student Affairs, Faculty Affairs and Public Relations) to two (Finance, Property and Administration), dealing with matters external to the colleges and one (Student and Faculty Affairs) dealing with their internal operation. Revision on April 8, 1968, to four : Executive and Finance, to deal with urgent matters between meetings and matters relating to operating budgets, Property and Administration, Student Affairs and Curriculum, and Staff Relations. Revision on January 7, 1971 to four : Executive, Administrative and Student Affairs, Curriculum Affairs, Staff Affairs.

9) Although faculty matters were almost equally cited.

The Council reviewed suggested programmes of study and their Minutes contain endless references to their having approved programmes and courses for a particular institution. They devised a common procedure for requesting approval of new programmes and courses, or revisions of existing ones. The procedure is remarkably similar to that of Alberta but quite different from that of Quebec. Details are given in Chapter 7.

By 1968, the Council members were becoming more formally system conscious and more concerned with their role. They recommended that colleges be required to submit, by March 1968, a report of their 1967-68 year's operation and their plans for 1968-69, with the following information : cost per student for teaching activities, for library and audio-visual services, for general administration, capital investment per student, average class size, average staff teaching load, average student classroom hours per week, average student laboratory hours per week, computer services, and the total number of courses taught, by division. This recommendation, however, was never implemented.

At a special meeting with the Minister, the Council members reviewed a "Report of the Committee on Terms of Reference : The Role of the Council of Regents for CAATs in Ontario". They reported that some serious problems were arising from the need to coordinate college programmes, financing and personnel matters, and a number of proposals were made. The Council of Regents should recommend a set of provincial priorities in programmes and spending, develop a formula for the calculation of operating and capital grants to the colleges, and set up a standing committee to deal with programmes and activities. It was recommended that the Council's membership should be enlarged to include four representatives of the colleges and that the Applied Arts and Technology Branch become the secretariat of the Council. The Council should establish a provincial policy governing teachers' salaries and employment conditions, and a standing committee should be set up to negotiate such matters. Finally, it should be the boards of governors who set actual salaries of faculty and staff.

The Minister accepted the report "with reservations". Although the full list of recommendations was never implemented point by point, there are a considerable number of these proposals which are found to be the practice today.

Finance

Ontario is one of the wealthiest of the Canadian provinces. In these establishment years its gross provincial product grew from 24.9 billion dollars in 1967 to 29.2 billion in 1969. In 1966, it was spending on education 37 per cent of the provincial expenditure. This was quite apart from various other public expenditures on education under provincial ministries other than that of education, and from private investment in the form of fees and endowments. Some inefficiency, duplication, and even extravagant waste could be tolerated, without hardship, to achieve quick "flight". And in the cost-benefit ratio, one must not undervalue the tremendous benefit derived from the enthusiasm, the sense of accomplishment and communal purpose, the creative release of being in a position to put a "dream into reality". "Build now and plan later" was almost a slogan. This was especially the case since the euphoria stopped short of expensive permanent commitment in the form of grandiose buildings. Twenty colleges with 30 campuses have been achieved at a remarkably low figure, an operating cost of less than $1,200 per full-time student in 1968 and $1,450 in 1969, for a range of programmes that is not equalled in the other two systems.

It is now accepted as inevitable that a formula grant system, comparable to that used for the universities, will be applied to the colleges. This was recommended in the Council report of the Committee on Terms of Reference, but by late spring of 1970 definition of the formula reportedly had "hit snags" and its imposition was postponed.

In the autumn of that year there was worry that the current tight money and economic recession would affect college budgets, but in fact this did not occur. However when it becomes necessary to exert system financial control it is clear that this will be effected by a formula which will allow each institution considerable autonomy to decide where the "fat" will be stripped off. The instrument of system control will probably be the per student unit grant, weighted according to programmes, and the agent of control will be the Branch.

Staff

In effect, it has been the President who has chosen the administrative staff of the CAATs down to the level of the chairman of programme or department head. These people, in turn, in consultation with the dean and the president, choose the teachers. Only in 1970 was there a beginning of effective teacher participation in choosing faculty and lesser administrators, confined to a few colleges. The Council does not participate in choice of staff but there is some system control in that the Council has defined the ranks of full-time teachers : instructors, assistant master, associate master, master, and senior college master.

Qualifications : The Council of Regents has also listed the formal qualifications and salaries for each rank, closely following a hierarchy of degrees. There is an effective bar to the master rank unless the teacher has a bachelor's degree, whatever his other qualifications. Since the maximum on the associate scale which has applied since September 1969 is $13,000 per annum and the minimum on the master scale $12,100, this is a serious bar.

Control of teachers' qualifications, we thought, would be a very important aspect of the Council's work as it had drawn up an elaborate set of guidelines. To what extent are they actually followed and what monitoring system is used to check college practices ? The general reaction of the CAAT presidents seemed to be that they kept the guidelines in mind, but had a fairly free hand to fix starting salaries. If they wished to depart from the rules they had to "sell" their case to their Board, not to the Council.

The Council had also ruled on the number of hours a chairman ought to teach. We found this was commonly breached. Increasingly, the administrative load of chairmen is such that they teach only if they insist upon it ; but we also found some CAATs where it was college, not system, policy which required all administrators to do some teaching. The Council defined probation status and drafted suggested dismissal procedures ; the former seemed generally to be regarded as a farce, and the latter as inadequate. There was some criticism of boards for permitting teaching staff to "jump over the heads of their administrators".

The evidence from our interviews is clear - the system control of faculty rank and salary is effective for teaching staff ; initial appointment generally, but not always, is a function of number of years' experience and background. Increments are centrally recommended, and we heard of no case in which the annual increment had been withheld (if the teacher were unsatisfactory and still on probation, he was dismissed). Promotion is "unknown" unless you "get yourself into another bracket by taking courses of study or getting another degree". Strictly interpreted this is not true, but it is widely believed. The possibility of "beating the degree system" is better for administrative appointments. These are few, and a strong recommendation can be effectively made "on merit". Ironically, there are more exceptions to the system guidelines for chairmen than there are for teaching staff. There are a number of lower-level partial administrators, coordinators, and other such people with special allowances. In a great many interviews, the salary system was disparagingly likened to that of the secondary school system, and preference was stated for a university-type reward system. A president and a dean in commenting on the Union representation controversy, predicted that probably both professional unions would push the system's salary policy "closer to the lock-step type of scale of the secondary school". On the other hand, many of the chairmen, having described the salary system's operation, added that it was likely to change and promotion according to merit become possible once the union problem was settled.

Mobility : There are regulations covering the seniority and fringe benefits for teachers and administrators who move from one college to another within the system but they have been unimportant so far. In all cases, CAAT officials indicated that recruitment of teachers or administrators from other colleges was neither encouraged nor discouraged, but was very uncommon. In the Ontario university system, for example, there is a gentlemen's agreement that one provincial institution will not "raid" another for staff.

Our questioning revealed that CAATs thus far have had no difficulty in recruiting staff, although they might not in all cases have been able to appoint someone of the calibre they wanted. We were told in more than one remote college that it was likely that their experienced staff would be lost to the metropolitan centres. In all cases in Ontario, discussions indicated an awareness of system careers. Everywhere there is the decided impression that presidents will be recruited from outside the system, but a large number of other positions will be filled by promotion from within the college or the system. Many presidents could not conceive of mobility within the system for themselves. Some, of course, were presidents of very large colleges. In Ontario, they did not consider central system moves likely because the members of the Council of Regents are part-time advisers and the Branch officials are civil servants. For other ranks, the system career expectations in Ontario might be partly the product of the size and rapid growth of the system. There are, after all, twenty colleges with thirty campuses, and promotion has been rapid. Very frequently, we were reminded that the time of rapid promotion was now coming to an end.

Representation : The recommendation of the Council of Regents' Committee on Terms of Reference regarding staff representation were put into effect almost immediately by the creation of a permanent committee. It was instructed to consider the terms and conditions of employment of college faculty and staff. It consisted of ten persons - five councillors and one board member from each of the five geographical regions of the province. It was agreed that this committee would negotiate a salaries and benefits agreement on a province-wide basis. Unfortunately, there is still some difference of interpretation as to who should do the negotiating from the other side - so this aspect of Ontario's system is not as settled as is that of Quebec.

Faculty salaries and employment conditions have been a problem in the CAAT system from the beginning. Initially the CAAT salaries compared well with those in other educational sectors and in their various reference labour markets, but in recent years they have declined relatively. The controversy first was over the power of the CAAT Board to make binding agreements with representatives of their staff, and which "union" should represent teaching staff - the Civil Service Association of Ontario (CSAO, the union to which the "tech" teachers belonged before the CAATs were formed) or the Ontario Federation of Community College Faculty Associations (OFCCFA) between which there has been constant jurisdictional dispute since the latter's inception in 1967.

A plebiscite of the teachers was held in March 1971 which accepted the CSAO as a bargaining agent by a slim majority. Because of the dispute, neither union had been able to function effectively as a system agency. Their energies were distracted from their real purpose and they have failed thus far to become the "force" which the faculty unions are in the Quebec system.

Meanwhile the Council has had to make certain recommendations relating to staff matters. Common contract forms were designed (but they have not been generally used). The terms of probationary appointments were specified (but they are ineffectual). Staff appeals procedure has been recommended (but there have been crises which have required Board intervention). Lists of administrative titles were recommended (but they are not binding and much variation has ensued). Salary schedules for administrative positions were issued ; the teaching duties, and vacation and fringe benefits of chairmen of departments were set out (which are frequently ignored because, we were told, chairmen find it impossible to follow the recommendations due to their administrative work load). On the other hand, policy on payment of moving expenses of teaching staff, payment of professional dues, payment of fees for further education, and payment of mileage rate for teaching and administrative staff travelling between branch campuses seems to have been implemented. Policy on sick leave, severance pay, and transfer of seniority from one appointment to another in the system has been formulated and seems acceptable. The relationship of administrative salary scales for large and small colleges has been decided. Although many system decisions about staffing policy remain to be taken, it must be concluded that the Council has been at least partly successful in this aspect of system control.

Programmes

One of the items in the Council of Regents' report was their wish to develop guidelines for priorities of programmes. If they do refer to a set of criteria in judging which colleges shall teach which programmes, this is not commonly known within the system. If they have some rationale for allocating programmes, it is a mystery to college administrators ; they do not seem to have controlled the proliferation of courses. Many examples could be cited of programmes given in four or five CAATs when a programme in one should have been enough, and of others offered in ten or twelve colleges where perhaps three could be justified. One has the very strong impression that in Ontario the college president has thus far been allowed a fairly loose rein, with the result that the colleges are very different from each other and some have developed with admirable imagination and enterprise. But even the administrators of these colleges, whose pride in their institutions is immense, consider that the days of unrestricted "free enterprise" are about to cease. Each would hate to be restricted and coordinated himself, yet each regards it as necessary for the college system as a whole.

In an ideal system, it ought to be possible for students to transfer, to begin a programme in one college and continue without undue difficulty in another. The general position in Ontario seems to be that such transfer is possible, but exceedingly rare ; it will place a make-up burden on the student because programmes vary considerably. This is one area of system rationalisation that needs attention.

ALBERTA

The Act which in 1969 created the Colleges Commission might be regarded as merely a refinement of the 1967 amendment to the Public College Act which had created the Provincial Board of Post-Secondary Education. All the institutions of the new system already existed, although the level of provincial investment had not been as high as that to which the government now seems committed. Alberta's legislation provides for what could develop into a stringent centralised system controlled through the Colleges Commission, but such a development is most unlikely. This would run counter to a long standing tradition of local initiative and action and would be politically unwise. Moreover, if conducted in the name of efficiency, it would be bitterly resented and unnecessary. Given Alberta's geography and population distribution, a high degree of local autonomy is unavoidable.

A minimum system

Alberta's is the least developed system of the three under review, and perception of its system is minimal (except among the central system officials and advisers). The presidents of the colleges admitted that some co-ordination and control would be desirable or, more exactly, was inevitable, but each was critical of any control which would effectively limit the autonomy of his institution.

Part 1 of the 1969 Act creates the Alberta Colleges Commission. Under section 6, the Commission is empowered to appoint officers and employees, and considering the work it is expected to perform, one would expect it eventually to have need of a sizeable secretariat.

The old Provincial Board of Post-Secondary Education had a professional staff of three ; the Colleges Commission inherited them. Since NAIT and SAIT and the agricultural colleges remain under the direct administration of the Department of Education and the Department of Agriculture, the number of institutions for which the Commission had direct responsibility has not changed. A new college in the Edmonton area was added in 1971.

Finance

Alberta is a rich province, accustomed to making a high investment in education. In 1967, Alberta spent close to 210 million dollars on education, roughly 25 per cent of the province's total annual expenditure ; more than 42 million dollars went to the universities and colleges. With educational investment running high, Alberta seems able to tolerate considerable duplication and "waste", considerable latitude of standards and practices.

The Colleges Commission was given sweeping powers in the 1969 Act which created it. Taken at face value the regulations give the Commission authority to advise on the operating grants needed by colleges ; to gather data about the system in order to prepare plans for it ; to advise on the need for new colleges ; to control the proliferation of colleges or their programmes, services, and facilities in order to avoid unnecessary duplication ; and to allocate funds among the institutions. (In Ontario, the legislation rests this authority in the Minister, with the Council of Regents acting in only an advisory capacity.). The Colleges Commission is an autonomous public authority in its own right. It may "regulate or prohibit" ; it may "divide" moneys as it "sees fit". Presumably, it is expected that conflict between the government, which in the final analysis represents "the people", and the Commission, which need not necessarily be representative of "the public interest", will be avoided by always having three senior civil servants on the Commission.

Under section 22, the Commission may "approve or disapprove the capital and operating budgets of the members of the college system". Section 24 provides for its approval, amendment, or disapproval of the college boards' requests for funds for buildings, furnishings, equipment, and land. This section also empowers the Commission to prepare long-range plans in respect to the needs for buildings.

Section 26 gives the individual colleges authority to set admission requirements and fees but, except for the fees of part-time or evening students, these are subject to Commission approval.

Staff

Under section 45 of the new act the individual college board is empowered to appoint the college president and define his tenure of office. His salary is, however, subject to commission approval.

Under section 46 the board is empowered, without approval, to appoint college officers and employees, prescribe their duties, and decide their salaries and conditions of employment, but this section does not apply to the academic staff. Under the following section, "A college board may employ academic staff members in accordance with any requirements in that regard that may be prescribed by the Commission". Subject to this limitation, the Board enjoys an authority in dealing with its teaching staff far beyond that of the CAAT or CEGEP Boards.

Mobility : In Alberta we found very little system career recognition among administrators at the level of programme chairmen or dean. They mentioned promotion within their college or a career move outside the system, the most common being a university appointment after completion of a Ph.D. They did not expect to achieve "promotion" by movement to another college. However, the Albertan presidents did speculate on the likelihood of appointment to the secretariat of the new Colleges Commission, although generally they dismissed it as unlikely.

Representation : The Act also provides that the college board and the academic staff association may agree on a number of matters concerning its academic staff members such as terms and conditions of employment, teaching responsibilities, leave, salaries, grievance procedures and reassignment.

The Alberta system has inherited faculty agencies. All the colleges have a faculty association, and there is a provincial association of college faculty, but it apparently has little influence. Much more important is the powerful Alberta Teachers' Association ; and since very many of the college teachers were drawn from the school system and retain their membership in the ATA, it is a "force" in the system, although it has twice been refused the right officially to represent the college teachers.

Programmes

Section 25 gives the Commission regulatory control over the colleges' affiliation agreements with Alberta's universities, following consultation and agreement with the Universities Coordinating Council. It will be interesting to watch the trend of this particular power. The section seems to confirm the independence of the Universities Coordinating Council and to insist on various conditions and sefeguards. By the words "an agreement" the Council seems to have been given a decisive negative voice. Presumably when a college or a group of colleges wish to establish a transfer affiliation with one or more universities, the Commission will represent them in the negotiation. Which agency would represent NAIT or SAIT in such a matter, the Commission or the Department of Education, is not clear.

Section 27 gives the college board authority to provide "courses of a general, academic, vocational, cultural or practical nature, subject to the approval of the Commission...". Short courses or part-time programmes for special interest groups do not require approval.

It remains to be seen what kind of a system will develop from the new legislation. At present the tradition of localism prevails. Each college is very much a law unto itself, and no doubt something could be gained from outside review, even without utilizing the very extensive powers of uniformity embodied in the legislation.

Review

Under section 35 of the Act the board of each college is required to "prepare and transmit to the Commission such annual and other reports and returns as are from time to time required by the Commission". This is an innovation. The colleges formerly did not generally publish annual reports ; although they did prepare an annual budget and review of each programme for their board, these were not available to the public. Under the old arrangements colleges did not provide an overall report to the Provincial Board of Post-secondary Education ; they were required to submit only estimates of needed funds, a statement of probable expenditure, and a statement of probable revenue from other sources.

UNOFFICIAL CONTROLS

There remain unofficial, or at best quasi-official, system controls which can best be discussed by grouping all three provinces together under one subject heading, rather than segregating them geographically. It is possible for a system to develop (both in terms of the feeling of belonging to it and in terms of following common policies and procedures and having system agencies that regulate and control activities) from unofficial agencies, particularly if the official agency is inactive. Sometimes this informal system develops to counteract and oppose the official system, in order to prevent official control from being particularly effective. These three provincial college systems, though new, are developing such unofficial agencies, patterned on well-known models. One of these is the colleges' organisation.

College associations

Quebec : In Quebec, there is the voluntary Fédération des CEGEP to which all colleges belong. The CEGEP Federation is comprised of three principal bodies : a general assembly, a general council and an executive office. The general assembly is formed of presidents, directors general and directors of pedagogical services of all colleges. This group is joined by a representative of each of the four committees of the Federation, grouping respectively the Directors of Services to Students, the General Secretaries, the Directors of Equipment and the Controllers of each college. The general council is composed of nineteen elected members of the general assembly. The council must, however, include at least three presidents, three directors general, three directors of pedagogical services and a representative of each of the committees. In turn, the council chooses seven of its members to form an executive and one as president of the Federation.

In effect the FDC is a well-organised administrators' lobby with four stated purposes :

1. To organise and facilitate exchanges of personnel, materials, ideas, and procedures among the colleges ;
2. To represent the colleges officially ;
3. To study matters of common concern ; and
4. To disseminate information among the colleges and to the public about the colleges.

The FDC enjoys public funds at second hand, so to speak. Each member college contributes $7 per year per full-time student up to a maximum of $10,500 per college. Judging from the status of its permanent officials, the impression gained during interviews, and its publications, the FDC is a "force", the most important informal system agency in Quebec.

It is not yet clear whether the comparable agencies in the other provinces will develop such strength.

Ontario : There is an Association of Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology of Ontario (ACAATO) which holds annual conferences in June of each year. The association plays an important role in bringing together the administrators of the various colleges according to function : thus, the registrars meet periodically, and there are workshops for applied arts chairmen, for example. For these activities, the association works in cooperation with the officials of the Branch and, since it has no full-time employees, the actual work of organising events is shared by Branch employees and the honorary officials.

The most important, active, and powerful subgroup of the ACAATO is the Committee of Presidents which meets once a month. It has an observer member on the Council of Regents. Since it does not publish the proceedings of its meetings or issue any literature, it is impossible to gather objective data on ACAATO's activities and difficult to assess its role. Outwardly, at least, it does not seem to have become a force.

It is clear that ACAATO's Committee of Presidents has been modelled on the Committee of Presidents of Universities of Ontario which is indeed a force, and which has a secretariat of 15 full-time employees, and calls on the unpaid service of 34 committees of experts and representatives drawn from the universities' faculties. In May 1969, a meeting was held of the CAAT Committee of Presidents and the University Committee of Presidents, at the request of the latter. However, there is no evidence that this combined group has ever faced the provincial government as a concerted lobby. To some extent, they represent rival interests.

Alberta : There is no association of the junior colleges of Alberta, but there are provincial organisations to which their administrators and faculty belong. The real reference system for these colleges, however, is that of some of the western United States. The Alberta Association of Junior College Administrators does not seem sufficiently active to be a "force", but we were told in 1969 that an organisation for college business administrators was being formed.

There are periodic meetings of college presidents under the auspices of the Colleges Commission, but there is no Committee of Presidents in the Ontario style. The Presidents' Advisory Committee consists of the chief executive officer of each college. It acts as an information dissemination group, preparing briefs and reports. Its influence is hard to judge. According to report, its members are quite divided in their policies and interests. It does not seem to have been a "force" in making policy for the college system.

Student activity

Quebec : Among student agencies, that of Quebec is by far the best organised, has the largest membership, and has been the most militant to date. The academic year 1968-69 was one of strikes and sit-ins in many CEGEP, with disruptions lasting for weeks. The students' reform demands were of three kinds - those relating to improvements in college programmes, courses, and teaching methods ; those relating to college services, amenities, and student life ; and, undoubtedly most important, those arising from disillusion with the system planning which apparently had allowed the CEGEP to mushroom without making proper provisions to absorb their graduates into the universities and on to the labour market.

The whole internal student political scene now seems to have "cooled off". By July 1970 the administration had met the CEGEP leaders in openly conducted negotiations and made some real concessions. The general membership has since lost interest, and the radical left does not seem able to whip up a cause.

Ontario : In Ontario, the college administrators reported, without exception, very little student "activism". In what might be termed internal politics (i.e., college or college system affairs), there have been some minor incidents. All colleges have student councils and there is a rather surprising amount of student representation on college committees, considering that the Ontario system has been labelled as the one providing the least "recognition" of students, which is undoubtedly true in a legal sense. Administrators described the CAAT students as "basically conservative" (not in the sense of political party allegiance). The usual explanation given was that, in contrast to the university students, they were strongly vocational in their orientation and lower white collar or upper-working class in their family origins - "solid labour". On the whole, administrators spoke approvingly of their students, in a "sound common sense and reasonable" sort of way. There is a provincial students' organisation, but it represents a minority of the students. CAAT students have not joined in the demonstrations or political activity of the university students in Ontario. They are not a "force".

It should also be noted that the CAAT students have few complaints about participation. They were given a "voice" on college councils before it was requested. The administrators do not consider that the student contribution to college councils has been very noticeable.

As for general politics, we were told that the political parties were not very effective in the colleges. In some places there is an NDP club (democratic socialist) or a Progressive Conservative club (the provincial government in power) or a Liberal Party club (the federal government in power). There are no big political issues affecting the student world, but this may in part result from Ontario's being a rather tranquil, well-administered province. The students have become involved in some non-party issues : pollution seems to have been the most prominent in 1970 ; poverty is another rather interesting "cause".

Alberta : In Alberta, in general, neither the college nor the university student union is considered a "force". In internal college affairs, student representation was offered by the administration even before the students requested it. In January 1969 we were told that student representation on college committees on the whole had not been very useful and that students do not make much of a contribution except in matters in which they have had direct experience, which is hardly surprising. Nevertheless under the college legislation of June 1969 students are guaranteed one seat on the college board.

Students may become members of a college student organisation, and, through affiliation, become members of the Alberta Union of Students which also represents the university students. It holds a number of provincial and regional meetings each year so at least the local executive members develop a "system" awareness. (In Ontario and Quebec, college students have a separate provincial organisation from that of university students.)

In conclusion, neither the faculty nor the student agency in Ontario or in Alberta can be said to have become an effective informal system counteracting and influencing the official system. The situation is different in Quebec.

SUMMARY

The problem of the appropriate number of system staff is a complex one, linked obviously to the style of the system and a separate study in itself. However, it seems that the mode of operation of DIGEC in Quebec, the Council of Regents and the Applied Arts and Technology Branch of the Department of Education in Ontario, and the Colleges Commission and the Division of Vocational Education (DVE) in Alberta are determined more by the provincial traditions of public administration than by any intrinsic need arising from the size of the system being administered.

One cannot sidestep the difficult question of which decisions should be made locally and which centrally. The problem is how such a question can be confronted empirically (i.e., other than by reference to "our traditional way of doing things"). All three provinces speak of controlling programme duplication to some acceptable level - by distributing regionally the more specialized programmes. Here, they run into the dilemma of the "community" orientation of the colleges, the demand for courses and the distribution of population which manifests itself in the questions : "Why should my child have to go 200 miles away to study computer sciences just because we live in a small town that is remote from other centres" ? "Why should all the large, well-funded, differentiated, and interesting colleges be in Toronto, Ottawa, Hamilton, London, Montreal, Quebec City, Edmonton or Calgary, and our local college be limited to a few standard programmes you can find anywhere" ? All three provinces want their system devices to ensure minimum standards for students (course content, staff, facilities, etc.), without stifling creativity and originality. All three provinces must demonstrate that, through their system devices, they are allocating resources equitably, keeping costs to an acceptable level, eliminating all the inefficiency and waste that is desirable. It is in their methods of operating that they exhibit variations, and in their "tolerance of variation" that they differ. For example, the complaint about lack of DIGEC staff in Quebec is obviously related to the nature and degree of supervision being attempted. The CEGEP system has detailed specific guidelines which are, in fact, rules centrally set up with the intention that they shall be applied. Thus, there is specification as to the precise number of hours of each course and its functioning ; a central grading system, which even spot-checks examinations ; a detailed "book of rules", governing all the rights, obligations, and remuneration of staff. For such a system to operate smoothly, not only is very detailed documentation needed but also tradition (a common set of prior cases and decisions) and experience (staff who know of these cases and have faced comparable situations). At first the latter two conditions were absent in Quebec, so that in spite of considerable prior planning, the machinery ran badly and the DIGEC staff spent its time "trouble shooting" by direct intervention, but it seems that this is no longer necessary.

Although in our opinion the CAAT system is fairly effective as a system, it has set itself much more limited control targets than those attempted in Quebec. It consciously permits considerable diversity of programmes, recruitment of teaching staff, administrative structure, admissions. Some of its guidelines are fairly consistently followed, others are generally ignored, and with approval.

The Ontario "way of doing things" is not to regulate too closely, not to define too precisely on paper but to ensure that in practice that there is an acceptable level of comparability and compatibility, without friction (or, at least, without public opposition) by having people act with moderation - persuasively, but with compromise and restraint.

In Alberta, the Act gives the Colleges Commission the power to control, or supervise and influence (depending on the precise interpretation), the same matters that are coordinated by DIGEC in Quebec, and jointly by Council and the Branch in Ontario. Their system could conceivably, a decade from now, be the most centrally controlled of all three with a numerous secretariat-apparatus. In January 1971, it was the least centrally controlled and had but a handful of professional staff.

Chapter 4

COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

The administration of primary and secondary schools is a well developed field of the discipline of education. The administration of both university and adult training although, less well developed, is nevertheless a recognised area of study. The administration of community colleges, however, is a relatively underdeveloped field in Canada ; the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE), for example, offers no special programmes for college administrators, although there are some appropriate courses given in its adult education department that seem to be well known throughout the system. Their emphasis is, however, on the mature student, the adult part-time learner, while the major concern of the colleges is the young full-time student.

The administration of higher education is not a subject of study in Quebec's universities ; it is therefore not surprising that the subfield of college administration should have been neglected there. In Alberta, the provincial universities at Edmonton and Calgary have large faculties of education with well developed departments of educational administration. A few courses appropriate for college administrators are given, and it is likely that programmes specialising in college and higher education will be developed shortly. We found more recognition in Alberta than elsewhere that the proper study for college administrators might be college administration. Indeed, the Alberta system was the only one in which the presidents and deans showed any interest in administrative theory or any knowledge of specialised programmes for college administrators. All references were to doctoral and master's programmes in universities in the western United States. This is further evidence of the United States educational influence, which has been much stronger in western than in central or eastern Canada.

THE BOARD AND THE ACADEMIC COUNCIL

In each system the legislation itself provides for a board of governors. Thus, in Ontario, "There shall be a board of governors for each college of applied arts and technology, which shall be a corporation..." ; in Quebec "The rights and powers of a college shall be exercised by a board composed of the members of the college" ; and in Alberta, "Subject to subsection (3) there shall be a board of governors for each public college". The Alberta subsection provides for a board administering more than one college. This is also possible under the Ontario legislation, where branch campuses with considerable decentralised authority already exist under one board. The same situation is found in Quebec. The composition of the boards of the three systems differs, reflecting a different emphasis on which interests should be provided for.

Quebec

In Quebec each CEGEP has a board of directors appointed by the Lieutenant Governor on the recommendation of the local organising committee from lists drawn up by various local interests. Five of the 19 directors represent local groups, two are college administrators (the equivalent of the president and the dean), four are named by the faculty association of the college, two by its students' organisation, four by its parents' association (i.e., parents of students studying at the college ; if his child graduates during his term of office, the member resigns and is replaced by another nominee), and there are two members-at-large named by the board itself "to ensure a proper balance between community and college representation".

The problem of which interests should be represented on the board is particularly acute in Quebec. In their review of the first year's operation of the CEGEP, the Superior Council's Commission asked, "Whom do CEGEP parents' associations now represent ? The small number of parents present at the election of their representatives to the board of directors may lead us to question the appropriateness of their presence on the board. Yet, in our opinion, parents should be represented on the board..." (1). Regarding the other representatives - the students, teachers, labour leaders, etc. - the report continued : "They should serve on it as administrators... The moment they are chosen by their colleagues, they are no longer - for example - union representatives but members of the board of directors... We noted that, for want of experience in the case of the general and vocational colleges, the representatives of the intermediary bodies... all too often have regarded themselves as official spokesmen for the bodies to which they belong" (2).

"In the near future it will be essential for the Department of Education, in consort with the colleges, to prepare a document available to the boards of directors and indicating in as much detail as possible what these boards are supposed to do, their duties and the limitations on their power... Should a college board do no more than scrutinise general budgets and financial statements ? Should it determine the college's major policies ? Should boards go so far as to examine the college's educational policies and give their opinion regarding them ? What powers does a board of directors have in negotiating the purchase of buildings ? Here are questions which the boards are sometimes loath to answer, or at least answer differently." (3)

The difficulty in regulating such questions is generally recognised. Experience and "case law" will help, and as the colleges develop, the president, the board, and the senior administrators will come to terms with their expectations of each other. This is not to say that regulation and guidelines are unimportant, particularly if there is a low tolerance of variation in the system. But if one puts too strong a curb on the enterprising leader (whether chairman, president, dean, teacher, or student), one pays a high price in mediocrity.

The Act in Quebec provides for an executive committee of combined board and senior administration membership. It is hardly surprising that in the early days there was considerable conflict between board and president, and between board and CEGEP staff. Such an arrangement (unless strictly limited) invites governors to interfere in the day-to-day operation of the college in order to satisfy themselves that board decisions are being implemented. The commission reported that in several colleges an informal president's committee had emerged which included the academic dean, the dean of students, the controller, and the secretary general. The commission thought such a "team" for day-to-day operations ought to be encouraged in all colleges.

Sections 17 and 19 of the CEGEP Act stipulated that each college should have an academic council, and gave each college the freedom to regulate this body's activities, subject to the Minister's approval of its by-laws. The Commission found that academic

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1) First Year, p. 9.
2) Ibid., pp. 10 and 11.
3) Ibid., pp. 7 and 8.

councils were in fact functioning, but in no instance had their regulations been submitted for approval. They asked : "Does this mean that such recourse is stipulated too often in the act concerning the colleges ? This is the opinion held by several colleges and our Commission, both they and we believing that greater autonomy should be granted to CEGEP".

Ontario

Eight members of a CAAT Board are appointed by the Council of Regents, and four by the Minister on recommendation of local municipal councils. Great stress has been laid on representing the districts and municipalities of the college area. Attention is also paid to having representatives of different interest groups but these members in no way "represent" their professions or businesses. They are described as "prominent and public persons".

It may readily be seen that the CAAT Boards strongly reflect the business community and, only slightly less, the educational community. The president is the only official member from the college itself, and it is therefore commonly said that these boards are not representative of the colleges. This is not entirely true.

No specific board membership is provided in the enabling legislation, but the October 7, 1965 regulation provides for the ex officio membership of the "director of the college" ; a total number of 12 ; four municipal members where more than one district is covered by a college ; and eight appointees named on the recommendation of the Council of Regents. Therefore, when the board agrees to staff and student representation it can be easily provided by creating a practice that two or three of the Regents' eight appointees shall be such representatives. Since board members are appointed for term, the changeover can take place painlessly.

Several CAAT boards have a member of the student council as an "observer". Some presidents had objected to this practice and apparently had told their councils that they would not oppose a full-member representative (if the board agreed), but that they could not afford to have people of "amateur status" involved. The board conducts much confidential business. They considered that a student came on the board as a voice of student interests, but not as a "representative" reporting back to student organisations. A student or a teacher would have to accept full board responsibility as did any other member. In Algonquin College, after such a discussion, the student council decided not to pursue the matter of representation and the faculty association made the same decision.

During the interviews in many colleges we learned that although the president is the only administrator officially present there are in fact others who attend almost every board meeting ; that meetings are open, except where they deal with confidential financial matters such as salaries, land purchases, and the rest, or where they deal with issues of personnel conflict, or with individual student cases (such as grades or discipline). For matters of general policy governing academic matters - such as programmes, course content, examinations, and evaluation - discussion is not secret. There is no consistency from college to college as to whether the staff or the students are more insistent about representation. Nowhere did it seem to be a burning issue. According to some deans and presidents, the staff members have been the more vociferous in their claims ; according to others, the students. They all thought that the staff apathy was due in part to the controversy over the union and the federation of associations ; once this issue has been settled, faculty are likely to make a concerted demand for board participation.

If the deans and presidents in Ontario CAATs were to be categorised, those with an "education" background would be found generally to approve the appointment of faculty and students somewhat more than those with a public service and business background, but the dichotomy if not consistent and there is no intransigent position. There is no opposition among officers of the Branch to the representation on the board of faculty and students, and the Minister is known to favour such a development. Indeed the question was recently put to each board by the Council of Regents, but a decision is unlikely to be forced at this time. Approval for such representation rests with the boards and they seem to vary unpredictably. Personality seems to play a considerable role ; one or two strong-minded people influence the whole board. Where boards include professors and university administrators, they are more inclined to accept representatives of students and faculty. Since this has become commonplace in Ontario's universities.

It is evident that the real influence of a CAAT board varies widely - some are a "rubber stamp", while others are a "force". It is perhaps unwise to place too much emphasis on such formal representation. "Mere tokenism" was the most common reaction we found in discussing this matter. There is considerable faculty/administrator/board interaction on specific matters in a CAAT. There are college standing committees (the members of which consist of board, administration, faculty, and student representatives) reporting either to the dean, the president, or the board itself depending on the policy under study. It was our impression that these institutions have so far kept themselves happily free from the university system of "government by committees", but are equally untrammelled by the school system of government by regulation and decree, from the director of education and the superintendent at the top through the school principal to the teacher at the bottom.

The CAATs vary considerably in their dependence on committees. It is our impression that this variance depends upon the personality and background of the president and, to a lesser extent, the background and experience of the teachers rather than upon any philosophy of administration. The latter lack the university teachers' acceptance of a heavy committee service as part of their role. (This is less true of faculty recruited from institutions like Ryerson. It seems to be true, however, of those recruited from the business and professional world).

It is also our impression that the small outlying colleges are conservative in this matter of board representation. The president of Georgian CAAT in Barrie, for example, reported that there was no administrator other than he ordinarily attending board meetings, and there was no faculty or student representation. The dean and the director of extension confirmed that they had no relationship with the board except to report occasionally through the president. However, in discussing Georgian's procedures with its president, it was evident that this college is small enough for a great deal of informal consultation to take place, and that the relationship between students and faculty and faculty and administration is relaxed. In describing the functioning of the college, the president reported that there is a president's council, which meets informally several times a month and is representative of all interests. It is largely an information-dissemination agency for ensuring that procedures are understood and guidelines well thought out. There is a faculty council that includes all teaching staff up to the dean, which is the main instrument for the formulation of academic policy and which one student, a member of the executive of the students' council, attends. And there is a students' council, on which the faculty have an observer, and which the dean and registrar attend ex officio.

We found not one case of a CAAT which lacked comparable advisory bodies, though the nomenclature varies somewhat and the membership/representation arrangements are not uniform. There has been no centralised direction to ensure "standard" college administration throughout the Ontario CAATs. The larger institutions have, in addition, divisional, departmental, and programme faculty/student committees. These committees seem to deal mainly with curriculum matters and the college-wide bodies deal with student services and college conditions. None is "activist" in a radical political sense, and they eschew introducing "outside" politics into college affairs.

Alberta

In Alberta the college boards are appointed by the Lieutenant Governor, from nominations submitted by the Colleges Commission. The enabling act of June 1969 provides that the board shall consist of the president of the college, an academic staff member nominated by its staff association, a college student nominated by its students' council, and "five other persons, one of whom shall be designated as chairman". This is a real departure from tradition. When we visited the colleges in January 1969 such representation was unknown.

However, even before the legislation each college in Alberta had a general faculty council which functioned as an advisory body on academic matters. At the department level, administrators and teachers were unsure as to who had the right to call this council ; it was generally thought to be the prerogative of either the president or the dean. Usually there was faculty/student exchange of representatives on such advisory bodies. At Red Deer, for example, the executive of the general faculty council had one student member appointed by the executive of the students' council, and the students' council executive had both elected and appointed members. (The latter, named by the dean, included the head of the guidance service.) We did not gain the impression that the general faculty council had been a "force" in college affairs, except at Mount Royal prior to 1968. Mount Royal in the past had an extremely active council which carried authority on all questions of college policy, but it has not been called since the appointment of the present president. The GFC's advisory function relating to programmes has been taken up by a curriculum committee of the faculty association on which sit all chairmen of divisions and directors of programmes, representatives of the student services' office, and two representatives of the students' association. Committees of their faculty association also advise on such personnel policies as the appointment, promotion, tenure, summer leave, and sabbatical leave of teachers, and they have no members other than faculty.

At Red Deer, Medicine Hat and Grande Prairie, we found a similar organisational atmosphere to that of the smaller Ontario CAATs, although the educational philosophy differed (its being strongly academic and the CAATs' being vocation- and employment-oriented). In January 1969 the dean of Red Deer reported that although the precise terms of reference of its general faculty council had not yet been agreed it was, nevertheless, studying college policy on faculty salary, appointment, recruitment, promotion, and tenure, and its interim recommendations were "working" although not yet formally approved. The dean had an informal executive committee which included the assistant dean, the chief counsellor, and the chairmen of programmes, and initiation of activity was almost entirely administrative.

In all provinces, either by act or by regulation, a list of powers of the board is set out which add up to operating the college, employing its staff, and serving its students. But in all cases there is a "weasel" clause such as "subject to approval", which detracts from its independence in favour of some central control, so that it is not the letter of the law that is important but the spirit of its operation. The manifestation of these system controls has been described in chapter 3. In real terms, in all three systems, the boards' powers seem to be residual. They have unique responsibility for everything that the central agency does not review and "approve"; in the latter case, they initiate policy action within guidelines and their decision is subject to amendment. The major exception to this seems to be in faculty affairs. Alberta has given the power to negotiate to the college ; in Ontario the situation is still muddled by the union conflict ; and Quebec has given the responsibility to the central agency, which negotiates a province-wide collective bargaining agreement.

THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Indication of the importance given in the Ontario system to the involvement of industrial, commercial, and professional groups may be seen by the inclusion in the Act itself of provision for advisory committees : "... each board shall be assisted by an advisory committee for each branch of a program of instruction offered in the colleges...(4). Furthermore, regulation 9 provides that these committees will be appointed by the board to give advice "regarding programmes of instruction and the introduction of new programs of instruction". That is, they have important curriculum responsibilities, and although it is not spelled out in regulations, it is universally conceded that they should also have important public relations and placement functions.

In the Quebec legislation no mention is made of such committees, but their formation is encouraged by the Ministry. The Commission reported : "... it might be interesting for certain non-metropolitan colleges to set up joint committees comprising representatives of local industry. These committees might work together in studying the programmes for certain vocational courses and play a leading part in setting their goals. Experiments of this sort have already been carried out in at least two CEGEPs" (5). However, far from limiting them to an advisory status, the Commission felt they should "have authority to direct and to make decisions regarding the programmes and objectives of certain courses". This recommendation was not implemented, but the advisory committees have multiplied.

However, in the Quebec system, except for the Joint Committee (6), which makes decisions about the general courses required for university entrance, their advisory committees do not compare in importance with those of the Ontario CAATs.

This also seems to be the case in the new Alberta system. The Act of June 1969 is a long and elaborate piece of legislation regulating, in detail, all aspects of college life. The commission, the board, faculty associations, students associations, and even the non-academic staff are covered, but there is no mention of advisory committees and their role. We found, during our Alberta interviews, that there were indeed such committees, but except for those at Mount Royal and Lethbridge they do not seem to be important. And even in these colleges, they play a minor role for the full-time day programmes, although they are important in the extension work. But this seems to be due more to the personalities of the men involved and a strong adult education tradition, than to college policy. The only institutions where advisory committees are to be found comparable in role to those in Ontario are NAIT and SAIT.

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4) Section 14 a, subsection 3 of the Department of Education Act, 1965, reprinted in Basic Documents, p. 24.

5) First Year, p. 55.

6) This committee is set up under paragraph 1, section 5, of the Regulations. Under regulation 3, approved by Order-in-Council No. 591, dated March 30, 1966, it originally consisted of six representatives of DIGEC and six of the Universities. Now it also includes representatives of the CEGEP.

We shall therefore confine our discussion of these committees to Ontario, where they are an important part of the heritage from the Ryerson Polytechnical Institute. The function of these committees is so generally familiar to the educators of Ontario that the Council of Regents does not seem to have drawn up lists of their duties and activities or guidelines for their members. The board's appointments to advisory committees are not subject to review, and so the Council's minutes make no mention of them.

There is a plethora of advisory committees, their exact definition varying from college to college. In the smaller institutions there is sometimes an all-purpose continuing committee for each division (applied arts, business, technology, continuing education) and special ad hoc committees are only set up to help define a new programme. More commonly, however, there are "continuing" programme committees which meet with the chairman of the programme and with representatives of its teacher and (sometimes) current students or graduates. The membership of these advisory committees is frequently printed in the annual calendar of the CAAT.

Are these committees useful ? As in all other aspects of CAAT operations their activities vary a good deal, not only from institution to institution but also from division to division within an institution, and judgment of their success varies from person to person. On the whole they are very important for the planning of courses ; they are less successful in reviewing the year-by-year conduct of courses. Where their attention seems perfunctory, it is perhaps largely because the administrators "cool them out". They are, after all, part-time unpaid advisers who give their time and travel long distances for meetings. If the documentation is inadequate and the preparation for meetings poor, they lose interest. If routine procedures for visiting, investigating and assessing are not set up for them, the members are unlikely to "put their noses in where they're not wanted". The critics of the advisory committee system allege that meetings are haphazard, time-wasting and disorganised ; members are irregular in attendance and act as a "rubber stamp" approving the decisions of administrators and ignoring the grievances of students and teachers. But surely the provision of documentation and the organisation of meetings and visits to the college are the responsibility of the staff or the board's secretary, not of the advisory member ; and since most of the advisory committees now have student or graduate and faculty representatives, will not their presence reduce the other criticisms ? If a member does not attend, why not change the member ? Or if this is undesirable, why not have "written meetings", providing members with documentation which they can return with their comments and votes ? Or they could hold open-line telephone meetings, provided the numbers are small. If a large committee is necessary for public relations, why not have frequent meetings of a working subcommittee of three or four by open-line telephone and a full meeting less frequently ?

For some time advisory committees have existed for the technician and technologist programmes. They are also well known in trades courses, where they have a concrete function - to describe the conditions of work and practice, the details of skill, the responsibility, and the background knowledge, and to help the teachers put these factors into learning sequences and learning experiences. They have specific job classifications and task "images" to help them, and there is some agreement on the desirable characteristics of the end product. This is also true of those dealing with curricula for business programmes, although not to the same degree. These committee members can also report the state of the local manpower market and the emphasis their companies place on a particular aspect of skill. With the general academic programmes this guidance is lacking, and with some of the applied arts programmes it is difficult to identify employers because these are new areas of service. The existence of employment opportunity is hard to predict, and since many of the employee roles are new it is difficult to define precisely the suitable background and skills. For example, the upper limits of responsibility of a social work assistant, a library assistant, or a teacher assistant are not known. How much case-work practice should be part of the programme ? What proportion of the study should be courses in basic social and behavioural science ? The extension of the advisory committee to this curriculum area may not be successful - it is too early to tell.

However, there is no doubt of the value of the advisory committee as a public relations device to bring members of the community into the college (for other than attending a course and leaving immediately after class) and to afford them an overview of its purposes and activities. To quote President Quittenten of St. Clair :

> These committees bring some two or three hundred people into the colleges, depending on how many committees you have, giving them a chance to know the college and study a programme which we provide. They should not only be influential in curriculum development ; they ensure that our work is always relevant ; they help with the placement of our graduates ; they inform us about the kinds of jobs our students can do and what they should be looking for ; they get people interested in and committed to the college.

THE PRESIDENT

The chief executive officer of a college may have a number of titles. In the reform commissions in Ontario, for example, where the possibility of creating a community college system (or "city" colleges or "colleges of applied arts and technology") was first bruited, the head was generally called principal and the teachers instructors. The heads of institutes of technology invariably were principals, as are the heads of elementary and secondary schools. This was also true of the western provinces, but in Alberta, for example, before the 1969 Act, the head of the junior college was generally called the principal or the dean ; only at Mount Royal and Lethbridge was the title president used.

English-speaking Canada, educationally, has been strongly influenced both by the United States and by Great Britain (Scotland and, to a lesser extent, England). The terms and titles used not only differ geographically - reflecting greater Scottish or New England American influence in eastern and central Canada, and greater western American influence in the Canadian west - but also historically. The American influence is becoming more pervasive, so that recent titles will be American ; those of a century ago are more likely to have been British and may have survived unchanged.

The universities of English-speaking Canada show great variation in their nomenclature. The older ones have chancellors, and the newer ones chairmen of boards of governors ; they have bursars, or they have business officers ; they have principals, or they have presidents. The larger ones, some of which are federations of colleges, institutes, centres, faculties, and schools, are administratively very confusing to the outsider. The "director" may be the head of a very large institution with hundreds of employees, a large independent budget, a very specialised function, and a very loose relationship with the university ; or he may be the head of a largely paper organisation with a very small budget, which has only one or two staff and borrows its personnel from other faculties and departments of the university. The University of Toronto is a classic example of this complexity. Increasingly, however, the university head in Canada is being called its president, after the fashion in the United States, and the heads of colleges are also known as presidents. This is one of the manifestations of their desire to identify more with the university system than with the school system.

Quebec

Names are nowhere more important than in Quebec, which at the moment is very language conscious. Before the details of the CEGEP system were revealed in legislation, a spirited public debate lasted for months over the relative merits of the title "institute" or "college". The Quebecois not only share with the rest of Canada the danger of being swamped by the strong linguistic and cultural influence of their neighbour, the United States ; they have the unique dilemma of reconciling their local French tradition with the metropolitan French tradition, from which they have long been separated and which, in education, has developed differently. The little vocabulary booklet of the Ministry of Education explains :

> "Le rapport Parent avait proposé pour ces établissements nouveaux la dénomination d'"instituts", qui ne fut pas retenue parce qu'étrangère à la tradition française. La dénomination de "collège d'enseignement" est empruntée à des établissements de France que la réforme Fouchet a remplacés par les "collèges d'enseignement secondaire". Cependant, ces collèges, en France, ne sont pas du même niveau que le CEGEP québécois ; ils correspondent plutôt à notre école secondaire, moins notre secondaire V. Le CEGEP, en réalité, existe au niveau des années qui, en France, suivent le collège d'enseignement secondaire : cycle long de trois ans menant à un baccalauréat ou à un brevet de technicien, cycle court de deux ans menant à des brevets d'études professionnelles dans les domaines de l'industrie, de l'administration ou du commerce. Traditionnellement, au Québec, le terme *collège* désigne des établissements qui dispensent et l'enseignement secondaire et un enseignement du niveau actuel du CEGEP (jusqu'au baccalauréat). En appelant *collèges* les "instituts" du rapport Parent, on a maintenu partiellement la tradition québécoise. En les appelant collèges d'enseignement général on s'est référé à l'enseignement français contemporain. Mais en faisant du collège d'enseignement général, non pas un établissement d'enseignement secondaire comme en France, mais un établissement d'enseignement secondaire *supérieur* (soit professionnel, soit préparatoire à l'université et aux grandes écoles), on a donné au mot "college" un sens qui se rapproche plutôt de celui de "junior college" (en anglais)." (7)

In this report the term "president" is used to designate the head of a CEGEP, CAAT, or Alberta college. In Quebec the appointment of the president by the board is provided

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7) *Vocabulaire*, p. 11.

The Parent Report had proposed the name of "Institutes" for these new establishments, but this proposal was rejected as alien to French tradition. The name *collège d'enseignement* was taken from the establishments in France which have been replaced under the Fouchet reforms by the *collèges d'enseignement secondaire*. In France, however, these colleges are not at the same level as the Quebec CEGEP ; they correspond more to our secondary school, minus secondary V. The CEGEP in reality exists at the level of the years which, in France, follow the *collège d'enseignement secondaire* : the long three-year cycle leading to a *baccalauréat* or a *brevet de technicien* and the short two-year cycle leading to vocational diplomas in industry, administration or commerce. Traditionally, in Quebec, the term "college" is used to designate establishments which provide secondary education and education at the present level of the CEGEP (up to the *baccalauréat*). By calling the "institutes" of the Parent Report "colleges", the Quebec tradition has been partly preserved. By calling them *collèges d'enseignement général* reference has been made to contemporary French education. But in making the *collège d'enseignement général* not a secondary education establishment, as it is in France, but a *higher* secondary education establishment (either vocational or preparatory to the university or the *grandes écoles*) the word "college" has been given a meaning which is closer to that of the junior colleges (in English in the original).

OECD translation.

for in the Act. The responsibility for the appointment rests entirely with the board. Their choice is not subject to central approval, although the salary and terms of tenure are subject to centrally determined scales and guidelines. Presidents are appointed by letter of the chairman of the board and hold office at the discretion of the board.

None of the legislation exhaustively defines the powers of a president. This would be inappropriate, particularly since allowance must be made for differences in "administrative style" and changes in practice over time. The president is the chief administrator of the college. How much power he delegates will be a reflection of his personality, the size of the institution, and its functions. The Superior Council's Commission summed it up neatly for all three systems : "Obviously the Act seeks to make the principal (president) the key man in the college... There are two dangers : either a confrontation between these two authorities (the board and the president) which tends to become permanent and does not allow the board to function normally ; or else the board is completely dominated by the principal and merely echoes his decisions".(8). The Commission suggested that the answer to the dilemma was to define more precisely the activities of the president. This might be appropriate in the Quebec context ; it would be completely out of character in Ontario or Alberta. Such conflict as has arisen in Quebec is probably not due so much to imprecise role definition as to the potential conflict inherent in an organisation which seems to give administrative operating duties to an executive committee of the board. In its Guide pour l'administration d'un CEGEP, the Ministry of Education lists the responsibilities of the president (le directeur général) :

> Le Directeur général est le principal administrateur du collège. Il "veille à l'exécution des décisions du Conseil et du Comité exécutif" (article 20).
>
> Il délègue certaines de ses responsabilités ainsi que l'autorité correspondante à ses directeurs de services tout en conservant la responsabilité générale.
>
> Il assure en particulier :
>
> 1. La préparation des plans de développement à court et à long terme qu'il doit soumettre au Comité exécutif et au Conseil ;
> 2. La coordination de tous les services, l'unification des efforts et la communication constante à tous les paliers du personnel ;
> 3. La préparation du budget, le contrôle budgétaire, de même que la préparation des états financiers et les statistiques ; c'est lui qui doit les présenter au Comité exécutif et au Conseil ;
> 4. Les relations internes et externes du CEGEP ;
> 5. Le recrutement des membres du personnel nécessaire au fonctionnement du collège ;
> 6. La direction et l'exécution de toutes les tâches que le Comité exécutif et le Conseil peuvent lui confier (9).

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8) First Year, p. 7.

9) Guide, p. 18.

The president shall be the principal executive officer of the College. He shall execute the decisions of the Council and of the Executive Committee (art. 20).
He may delegate any of his responsibilities and the corresponding authority to his directors of services while retaining general responsibility.
He shall, in particular, be responsible for :
1. preparing long- and short-term development plans, which he shall submit to the Executive Committee and the Council ;
2. co-ordinating all services and unifying efforts and constant communication at all levels of the staff ;
3. preparing the budget; budgetary control, and preparing financial statements and statistics ; he shall present them to the Executive Committee and the Council ;
4. the internal and external relations of the CEGEP ;
5. recruiting the members of staff necessary for the functioning of the College ;
6. directing and executing any tasks which may be assigned to him by the Executive Committee or the Council.

OECD translation.

The list is one which well describes the other presidents. But as the old saying goes "It's not what you do, it's the way you do it". The first CEGEP presidents were recruited from the educational institutions from which the system was formed. Many of these were denominational, run by clerics, and their administration was hierarchical and authoritarian (at least these are the allegations made by students and faculty). In any case the descriptions speak to an administrative style that is no longer common in Ontario or Alberta.

The Commission's report of the first year of the CEGEP suggests that the major problem at that time was one of integration, fashioning the new system out of the pieces of many former systems. This is discussed primarily in terms of students and curricula, but it is no less a problem of administration. According to discussions we had in the fall of 1970, difficulties remain. The various senior officials were recruited from institutions over which frequently they had had complete direction. It is not easy to persuade them to "run things differently". This is less true of Ontario for there were fewer officials to be absorbed. In Ontario and Alberta the problems are dissimilar. Most of the first CEGEP presidents had directed classical colleges. There was, therefore, one whole aspect of the CEGEP service with which they were unfamiliar : the vocational CEGEP administration has been further complicated by the intention to arrange studies so that the vocational and academic students take many of their courses together, and thus avoid divisions of students and staff according to programme. This is a noble ambition, but what seems to emerge is that the academic dominates the rest ; and with a president accustomed to exercising personal authority, "interference" descends down to the actual course itself.

However, formal limitations to the president's power have been standardised throughout the system. Thus, over time his role should become more that of catalyst, coordinator, and public relations figure than at present seems to be the case. For example, each college must have a dean (directeur des services pédagogiques), directors of programmes (directeurs du secteur), and heads of departments (chefs de département). Though influential, the president shares powers of appointment with these lesser administrators. In the early days of organisation, he made many personal decisions. Now he tends to approve recommendations of committees. In many colleges the department is coterminous with a subject discipline. In some colleges there has been an attempt to avoid the subject department as inappropriate for a CEGEP, and simply move to the "program" as the basic organisational unit. We learned that, by 1969, applicants for head of department were being first reviewed by a search committee on which sat student and faculty representatives of the department concerned, and then the committee recommendations were reviewed by the dean and the president. It is the dean or the president who decides which of the final candidates will be appointed and what will be the appropriate starting salary within the scale. On the other hand, "The director of program is formally appointed by the Board and his appointment is for one year and may be renewed" (10). Now such appointments are preceded by public advertisement and some sort of competition or examination. In June 1969 they were still less formal. Candidates were recruited by personal contact rather than by advertisements ; applicants were reviewed by committees which were chaired by the dean, and recommendations were made through him to the board or, more commonly, to the executive committee of the board (of which he is a member).

In their formal appointment procedures, therefore, the CEGEP are more like the universities than the school system or the technical institutes and classical colleges which they have replaced. There is at present a system of representative review committees

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10) Guide pour l'administration d'un CEGEP, Ministry of Education, Quebec, April 1967, p. 36.

which "advise" the administrators. In all teaching and allied appointments the dean's power is more directly exercised than the president's, but effectively it is the president who chooses the dean. However, administration is the living process by which decisions are translated into actions designed to run an institution (in this case, the college) and to provide services and courses for students. Administration may be more or less authoritarian. It may involve many or few people. Although procedures and committees are useful in ensuring that certain arbitrary steps cannot be taken, they are no insurance that a certain participatory spirit will emerge. Authority can still flow down through the system by ukase ; it will merely have to operate somewhat differently. Ideas will not necessarily flow up through the hierarchy, and those at the botton (students, faculty, and even department and sector heads) may evade responsibility since decisions are not effectively theirs.

Ontario

In Ontario the appointment of the president is provided for in the regulations. The responsibility for the appointment, as in Quebec, rests with the board. Also like Quebec, the choice is not subject to central approval, but the salary and terms of tenure are laid down by the Council of Regents. Appointment procedures in the CAATs are farther removed from common university practices and are much less standardised than they are in Quebec. In our opinion, the president of an Ontario CAAT seems to be much more powerful than the president of an Ontario University (11). Because Ontario operates in the English tradition, much more on recorded customs, it was not surprising to learn that the duties and powers of a president are not embodied in the Act, nor in the regulations, nor in any statement of the Council of Regents. Each college board independently drew up its statement of responsibilities. How they are exercised depends very greatly on the individual president and his prior administrative work and experience.

The presidents are not generally appointed for a term ; they could hold office until legal retirement age, at the discretion of the board. A few, at their own suggestion, have letters of appointment which provide for three-year terms in the first instance. Others receive a letter each year confirming their status. But the majority have only a rather vague initial appointment letter and, since there is no case law to establish their precise legal rights, their "tenure" is unknown. Thirteen of the twenty CAATs still have their original presidents. This is not a surprising state when it is remembered that the oldest entered into only its fifth academic year, and the youngest, its third, in September 1970.

The founding president of an institution is not merely an administrator. He is a creator who imprints his personality and philosophy on the organisation. Over time, this image will become blurred by the influence of standard procedures, group interests, and other personalities ; but this has not yet happened and, at present, the CAATs in Ontario are very different from one another. In several CAATs, the overhelming impression, both physically and philosophically, is of an up-to-date, efficient light-engineering factory filled with bright, keen young men.

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(11) He is not hampered by traditional constraints. These colleges are too new to have traditions, except for those that incorporated provincial institutes of trades or institutes of technology. There is some evidence that the presidents of such CAATs either came from the "tech" system and valued it and so have not tampered much with the existing structure, or have "left well enough alone" and concentrated largely on developing the other services. In the latter case, frequently the vice-president, dean, dean of the technological and technical division, or director of technical programmes has been taken over from the old system. That is not to say that the integration is secure ; there is some resentment from the tech side from those who feel that the changes are not improvements.

In a few, the impression is of a swinging college full of rather arty-looking youth, colourful and gay, with something of the atmosphere of an atelier. There is nothing about these colleges and their presidents of the grey-beardscholar nor the ivory tower.

Because in most cases they were creating new organisations and had literally no premises, no teachers, no programmes, and little time, these presidents were forced to play many roles. They had to be personnel experts, appointing key men out of hand and interviewing the applicants for teaching posts. They had to be building and design experts, dealing with real estate brokers, contractors, architects, and interior designers to decide on the leasing and alteration of premises and the purchase of furniture and equipment. They had to be planners, trying to plot the growth and future needs of their areas so that short-term decisions would not impede the grandiose design for their colleges. They had to be community experts, trying to assess the wishes and needs of their districts, to tap its supply of expertise and build up a fund of interest and goodwill. They had to be diplomats, trying to fulfill the conflicting expectations of many groups, to meet the expectations of the local secondary school system and to recruit good students without seeming to exclude too many who were below qualifications ; to meet the expectations of the adult education fraternity, who wanted maximum community use and pushed an open-door policy when the guidelines of the Council of Regents made this impossible ; to meet the expectations of the local university, which wished to be rid of any sense of responsibility for teaching youth of the middle and the lower ends of the intelligence spectrum and yet wanted to ensure that this new system "knew its place and kept its place". They had to be curriculum experts, deciding on programmes and their component courses, ruling on admissions, promotions, evaluations systems, materials, and library resources. Above all else, they had to be able to devise forms and procedures and routines of management and operation that would free them of the trivia of daily paper work and give them time to consider policy. And finally, although this list is not exhaustive, they had to engage in some rapid in-service training of junior administrators.

The presidents were arbitrary. There is much in the administration of the average CAAT that is still arbitrary. This condition is rapidly changing and undoubtedly will change further. In contrast to the universities in Ontario, CAAT faculty members play a very minor role in the administration of their colleges, and CAAT junior administrators (the teacher/administrator at the level of programma chairman or department chairman) also play a minor role compared with their university counterparts. In the majority of cases senior personnel, where they had not been taken over from an existing tech institution, had been personally chosen by the president.

However, if the deans and the chairmen of divisions and even chairmen of programmes were, and to some extent still are, largely chosen by the president, the reverse is not true. They have played little part in the choice of presidents where replacement appointments have been made. It seems to be the chairman of the board who really chooses the college president. Faculty, students and other administrators play no part. Seldom are there formal search committees for senior administrators, such as are common in the universities.

By the end of academic year 1970-71 recruitment was still informal, choice personal, and in-house promotion common. That is not to say that public announcements and advertisements are not used and suggestions are not informally solicited from colleagues, but it is still rare for the division chairman to be involved in a search committee for a dean, or even to have met the candidate before he has been appointed. The dean is considered as "the president's man". Nor are programme administrators usually involved in the choice of such central staff advisers as the director of student services, the dean of students, the head of counselling, or the director of extension. This very important aspect of

CAAT administration resembles the appointment practices of school systems rather than universities.

Procedures for promotion are similar to those for appointment. Although there is not the same degree of presidential intervention, at least not now below a certain level such as dean of the college, dean or chairman of division, or the principal, there is the same line of authority, with little mandatory participation of faculty. There are advisory promotion committees only if the president and dean wish to have them.

Rank promotion for teachers rests on formal qualifications (i.e., getting another degree or taking additional courses) rather than on merit. Merit can be rewarded by salary increments, although many respondents claimed that this was impossible. There is some slight variation from this system, but it is not in the direction of faculty-student participation. One president reported that all new faculty were hired at the assistant and associate master level, not as full masters, and that although promotion rested on qualification guidelines were sometimes broken and promotion made one rank beyond the minimum qualification level. This president thought the whole appointment and promotion system would likely change when there was a strong faculty association and that the question of the qualification criteria for ranks had not been resolved. He had no objection to a system that would involve committees of faculty. We were frequently told that appointment at full master and promotion beyond that rank were rare, and the chairmen did not seem to be sure how the rank system would eventually evolve. Most chairmen reported that they did not feel they could reward merit teaching under the present system. Most agreed that at present the faculty had no real voice in appointment, promotion, tenure, or increment - either at the policy formulation stage or at the implementation stage.

The president's role as planner has continued unabated because the CAATs have grown rapidly. Many colleges have commissioned master plans, and architects and planners have prepared campus and physical plant drawings and projections of enrolment, population to be served, staff needed, and so on. For some colleges, elaborate and impressive published plans that show the range of this work are now available. In almost all cases, the moving spirit has been the president. It is the board that has the legal responsibility for preparing a plan of the development of the college, and there is generally a planning committee of the board with representatives of administration, faculty, and usually also of students. But in the day-by-day liaison with the professional planners and architects, it is the president and occasionally the dean who have wielded real influence and shaped the physical environment of the new institution. This is pioneer work : a decade from now this aspect of the president's role will probably be unimportant.

The president, in the first year or two of operations, played a public relations role that must have been extremely taxing. He made endless public speeches, describing his college and explaining the nature of a CAAT, particularly to secondary school officials and community groups who would influence his potential clients. This seems to have abated somewhat, although presidents, deans and chairmen still seem to do a considerable amount of "school visiting" for recruiting students. Faculty members seem to take little responsibility for this, which is surprising.

A very important aspect of the president's role, which will continue to be of prime importance, is his relationship with the board. This involves attending its plenary meetings and those of many of its committees, and chairing a number of the college and outside advisory committees which serve the board, and the college representative committees which deal with internal matters. Most of the president's curriculum role has now devolved on the academic dean in conjunction with the department or division chairmen.

The president, as its chief administrator, is responsible for the management of the college, for control of its expenditure, and for preparation of its budget. He shares this aspect of his role with the presidents of CEGEP and of the Alberta Colleges, and this is unlikely to diminish as the system matures. The weakest aspect of CAAT administrators' role performance is probably as managers of a large enterprise. In terms of day-by-day management procedures and routines there is an undeniable amateur air about some colleges. This is surprising because it seems to occur in institutions where the president is a former businessman as well as institutions where he has been drawn from education.

It seems to us that standardised office business practices, budgeting, financial control, accounting and purchasing systems, applications, registration, student data systems, filing and reporting systems would free their time and energy, and that of their staff and faculty, for more important work.

Alberta

In Alberta the appointment of the president by the board is provided for in the Act, and its choice is not subject to central approval although the salary and terms of tenure are subject to the Colleges Commission's scales and guidelines. The Act does not seem to have made any legal change in the status of the chief executive officer of a college ; there are no standard contracts used, there are no common "conditions of employment", each appointment is unique. The public colleges use an appointment letter which represents an annual renewable contract with no set term ; the private colleges use a letter which represents employment "at the discretion of the board". The presidents of NAIT and SAIT have the same type of tenure as civil servants.

The new Alberta legislation has generalized the title "president" for all colleges and NAIT and SAIT. The presidents of NAIT and SAIT, however, still report to the Department of Education.

In its brief existence the Colleges Commission has not attempted to standardise the administration of colleges. It has not drawn up directives of duties, powers and responsibilities for its presidents nor issued lists of the activities they should undertake. It has not attempted to lay down norms of role performance or to describe relationships. In this respect, their practice resembles that of Ontario's Council rather than Quebec's DIGEC. It must, however, be remembered that these colleges have been operating for a number of years, their senior administrators are in place and, although a system change has been effected, the internal forces in the colleges themselves will not change overnight.

Three of the colleges, Red Deer, Medicine Hat, Grande Prairie, are very small academic institutions, their directors are educators and their institutions most strongly resemble a sort of upper division secondary school ; the fourth college, Lethbridge, is very much like a technical institute and trades school ; and the fifth, Mount Royal, is like an American Community College. The presidents of the first four were chosen by committees of the school boards which had created the colleges. Mount Royal's procedure cannot be considered typical. In 1968, when it became a public college, its new president was chosen by a committee of the board after an elaborate "search" procedure.

The role of the directors of Alberta Colleges does not, in our opinion, resemble that of the president of a university. These presidents were neither conservative, clerical academics (as was common among the CEGEP) nor powerful businessmen/administrators of large institutions (as was common among the CAATs). They were either "local schoolmen", or people from outside who were heading colleges that were being educationally directed by "local schoolmen". Almost certainly this situation will change, but precisely how is difficult to predict. The legislation of June 1969 tends toward a university administrative model : a student/staff participatory and advisory type of administration. The parallels with the university system in the Alberta legislation are noteworthy. There had been a universities commission, there is now a colleges commission ; the chief administrator of the university was a president, now all colleges have presidents ; there were university faculty associations and student associations, now such associations are formally recognised at both levels and all institutions have boards of governors on which these associations are represented. Whether the system parallels will extend to internal administration is not clear.

In Alberta we found the same lack of standard procedures, forms, practices, and routines that prevails in Ontario, and the same situation - officials who revealed that they were unaware of the practices in their own college. In our opinion this can be remedied only at the system level. System-wide standard forms, practices, and routines would have many advantages, and it has never seemed a serious infringement of academic freedom to use one filing system rather than another, or one form instead of another. However, if system-wide procedures smack too much of regimentation there might at least be a task force to review routines (by visiting the colleges and examining the paperwork) to ensure that they meet some standard of efficiency.

THE DEAN

Quebec

The Quebec Ministry of Education guide for the administration of a CEGEP quotes article 20 of the Act to the effect that :

> Le Directeur des services pédagogiques, sous l'autorité du Directeur général, a la responsabilité des services de l'enseignement. Il exerce les fonctions, les responsabilités et les pouvoirs du Directeur général en cas d'absence ou d'incapacité de ce dernier ; par conséquent, il est le Directeur général adjoint.

However he shares his responsibility with a more direct systems influence. The guide continues :

> Le Directeur des services pédagogiques possède la responsabilité des programmes d'études du CEGEP, en coordination avec le ministère de l'Education de leur implantation et des méthodes pédagogiques (12).

The dean is advised by an academic council (la commission pédagogique), which is provided for in the legislation itself.

The Quebec dean, like his Alberta and Ontario counterparts, is the line authority below the president and above the heads of sections and heads of departments, the faculty, and the students. However, his role as head of personnel for teaching staff is severely limited by the province-wide collective bargaining agreement on the one hand, and by faculty participation in appointment and promotion at the section and department levels on the other. He is a statutory/member of the major committees and councils dealing with the academic affairs of the college, but we doubt whether, de facto, his participation is any greater than that of the CAAT dean, whose participation has no basis in law or regulation. The dean has a statutory position on the board and its executive committee, which exceeds the status of an Ontario dean. He is president of the academic council and a

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12) Guide, p. 31.
Under the authority of the president, the dean shall be responsible for all teaching services. In the absence or incapacity of the president he shall exercise all the powers and responsibilities of the president ; he shall therefore be the vice-president.

The dean shall be responsible for the curricula of the CEGEP and, in conjunction with the Minister of Education, for their layout and teaching methods.

OECD translation.

member of the management committee and the planning committee. His duties and responsibilities are extensive. It is clear that he occupies the key internal academic office. In some respects, for example, in his capacity as vice-president of the college, the Quebec dean exceeds in authority his Alberta and his Ontario counterparts.

Ontario

It is typical that the regulations governing CAATs direct a board to appoint the director of the college, a principal for each college division, a registrar, a bursar, and "such other administrative, teaching and non-teaching personnel as are necessary", but nowhere is there specific mention of a dean (or an academic dean or a dean of the college), and yet this official is found in almost all the colleges. The title "director" is commonly used for divisions ; "chairman" is also used. "Schools" invariably have principals but they are found only in the larger CAATs ; in one case, the vice-president is obviously comparable to a dean of college. There is no consistency of nomenclature. The variance seems to be a function of the size and history of the college. The very large CAATs, which incorporated institutes of technology and vocational centres, have many subdivisions with unique titles. But even the smallest has, in addition to its president, a dean and three divisions - applied arts, business, and extension - each headed by a chairman.

The role of the CAAT academic dean or the dean of the college is fundamentally the same as that of the Quebec directeur des service pédagogiques. A glance at college organisation charts reveals that in most cases the dean has college-wide academic authority over all division heads (whatever their title) except for the Manpower Retraining Programs, for which he usually has no responsibility. At present, he has considerable power over the appointment, promotion, and work load of teaching personnel (where this has been delegated or shared by the president) because there is no recognised provincial bargaining agency and the Council's guidelines are very general. However, all the deans interviewed predicted that this power will diminish as faculty power grows. Their curriculum role, on the other hand - reorganising and reforming programmes, in-service training of teaching staff, study of improved teaching techniques, and organising work/study programme sequences - is likely to grow with time, as college after college completes its establishment phase and turns its attention to the evaluation of the content and the process of its teaching work.

A few of the Ontario CAATs present a distinctly different organisational image. Although they are not federations, like the University of Toronto, they bear a certain resemblance to a federation. To all intents and purposes each component campus, sometimes hundreds of miles apart and offering a range of programmes as great as the "parent" campus, is an autonomous institution merely surrendering to the central office some of its budgetary, fiscal, public relations, and service powers. George Brown College in Toronto is such a variation. Its campuses are not many miles apart (as is the case with Northern and Cambrian Colleges), but they specialise considerably and are spread around the city. Each principal reports direct to the president.

All the CAATs have academic councils (or college councils or faculty councils), their main role being to provide advice on curriculum, academic standards and student affairs. The academic dean in the Ontario system must obtain final approval on educational matters from the central system authority but, so far as we could determine from documentation and interview, this review does not cover the details of teaching techniques : it never debates the relative merits of including one course rather than another in a programme, or one unit rather than another in a course ; and it never determines which reference and other materials ought to be used. In Ontario and Alberta decisions of that type are made exclusively at college level. The central review addresses itself to problems of duplication of existing courses, costs and resources, and assures itself that the recruitment of appropriate staff and the pedagogical details have been carefully studied by the college.

Alberta

Nowhere in the new Alberta legislation is there mention of any college officer but the president. None of their colleges, so far as we know, has a dean and no official plays a comparable role. At Mount Royal, the official who seems closest in responsibilities is the Vice-President for Instruction ; he plays three main roles : final curriculum reference, head of personnel for teaching faculty, and final student reference for academic matters (but not for student services). The organisation chart of Mount Royal shows him in line authority over the directors of programmes, divisional chairman, and the faculty, but there are two parallel line authorities, one through the Vice-President for Student Services, and another through the Vice-President for Business Services. However, it is obvious that he is the "Senior" vice-president with far greater responsibility and authority than the other two. The first sentence of the official description of his position runs : "The Vice-President, Instruction, is responsible to the President for the educational programs offered at Mount Royal Junior College".

In all three systems, in keeping with the nature of his office, the academic dean has been recruited primarily from the world of education. Academic deans are teachers turned administrators. In Quebec most are from the former collèges classiques. In Ontario, they have been recruited either from Ryerson, or similar institutions, or from the school system (particularly the administrative levels of the secondary school). In Alberta the colleges are still small enough for programme heads to report directly to the president. Where there is need for a more elaborate administrative arrangement, the dean is generally an educator, a former teacher.

Administratively, none of these colleges is innovative ; they show the evidences of their past in the nomenclature and arrangement of their subdivisions. They are varied according to their role, the Ontario CAATs encompassing the greatest range of work and hence showing considerable fragmentation and stratification by administrative level. Uniformity in nomenclature and description of function is very high in Quebec, much less in Ontario, and virtually nonexistent in Alberta. But the trend everywhere seems to be in the direction of greater uniformity, and we predict that this will manifest itself in decisions about the size of institutions, the range of their teaching work and the administrative offices permitted. Nevertheless, substantial variation will persist because in each province the distribution of population and the physical geography necessitate it.

These institutions are still seeking an identity. For many years the colleges in Alberta have remained in the shadow of the universities, and there is no evidence of a strong pull away on the part of faculty or administrators ; it is therefore likely that, administratively, they will develop the nomenclature and participatory style of the "superior" institutions. In Quebec, the CEGEP already exhibit many university-style administrative characteristics. In Ontario's CAATs the question is still open. At present, administratively, all three systems could be characterised as inherently conservative, with line authority descending from a powerful president who delegates power throughout the hierarchy. Except in Quebec, there are no countervailing groups of rival power. There, the faculty organisation is a force, but since its membership is also pedagogically conservative, one would not at present expect radical innovation from them. The student organisation is also a force - and more impatient for change.

Chapter 5

THE STUDENT BODY

This chapter attempts to answer a series of questions : Who studies full-time and who studies part-time at these new institutions ? Are there many differences between the three provinces ? There ought, of course, to be considerable variance between the characteristics of the three student bodies - in Quebec, in Alberta, and in Ontario. The first two include students doing pre-university studies or studies parallel to university. In years of full-time study, the pre-university students of a CEGEP probably ought to be compared with the academic stream of the senior secondary schools of Ontario, those in Grades 12 and 13 of a five-year arts and science programme. We not only wished to compare the college students of the different systems but also to compare those of each system with the first-year university students of their own province. Underlying all this is the question "Have we here a different type of student ?" The expansion of the education system which these new colleges represent has been made in the name of increasing access to education, providing greater equality of educational opportunity. Certainly many more persons are studying ; the expansion is evident. But is this expansion a function mainly of a larger population ?

The difficulty in answering these questions is the lack of adequate enrolment data, and many of them could be explored only for Ontario (1). Certainly a massive enrolment expansion has occurred.

QUEBEC

Enrolment

In 1966-67, before the CEGEP began, there were almost 56,000 full-time students enrolled in 221 institutions at the post-secondary level. In the academic year 1969-70 some 49,000 full-time students were enrolled in CEGEP (general and vocational), but of course not all the post-secondary institutions included in the earlier figure have been incorporated into the CEGEP system. Since private collèges classiques still continue to exist, the percentage increase in what might be termed CEGEP-equivalent enrolment is difficult to determine. The ideal enrolment for the colleges proposed by the Parent Commission was 48 per cent of the 17 to 18 year age-group, 28 per cent in vocational studies and 20 per cent in pre-university studies. A Ministry of Education publication (2) discusses methods of predicting CEGEP enrolment and presents two sets of figures, the target of the Parent Commission and the numbers that might be expected from the trend flows in the secondary schools. A poll taken in 1966 revealed that 80 per cent of the students in

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1) For which we have unpublished data arising from other research projects of OISE.

2) L'enseignement collégial et les collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel, Documents d'éducation, 3 October 1967, pp. 13-15.

the terminal class of the secondary schools that year would have liked to continue their studies, but only 41 per cent actually enrolled in any form of programme the following September. And of the 1966 secondary school graduates who entered the labour market, 33 per cent expressed the wish to return to full-time study. Table 5-1 shows the projection figures that were used for CEGEP planning.

Table 5-1

CEGEP ENROLMENT PROJECTIONS

Academic Year	Enrolment, according to "ideal" rate of 48 % - Age Group 17-18	Enrolment, according to projection of present trend	Difference between trend projection and "ideal" rate
1967-68	90,500	68,400	- 22,100
1968-69	97,900	86,100	- 11,800
1969-70	105,700	105,000	- 700
1970-71	112,800	115,900	+ 3,100
1971-72	119,600	122,000	+ 2,400

A comparison of actual enrolments to projections for 1969 shows that enrolments are running well below all estimates, probably because the planned vocational programmes had not yet been developed. In 1968-69, the 23 CEGEP served 35,500 students, i.e. 41 per cent of the lowest estimate ; in 1969-70, enrolment has risen to 49,104 or 45 per cent of the lowest estimate. Nor have the CEGEP been able to meet the desired distribution between general and vocational education, although the situation is improving. In 1968-69 the ratio was 65 to 35, and in 1969-70, 57 to 43.

Size of colleges

The variation in size of college is great : e.g. the enrolment at CEGEP du vieux Montréal is 15 times greater than that of the smallest CEGEP, and in 1969 there were 12 CEGEP with fewer than 1,000 full-time students.

Age and sex distribution

Due to a lack of data on distribution of students entering CEGEP by age and educational achievement or aptitude score, it was not possible to compare the academic achievement levels according to division, or to discover whether the older students represent lower achievement levels. However, the sex distribution of the full-time CEGEP students by division is given in the following table.

Table 5-2

QUEBEC COLLEGE ENROLMENT BY SEX AND DIVISION

Year	Vocational			Pre-University			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1966-67									
1967-68			5,418			7,911			13,329
1968-69	6,032	3,640	9,672	11,799	6,674	18,473	17,799	10,314	28,113
1969-70	11,883	8,637	20,520	17,379	11,219	28,598	29,262	19,856	49,118

Male students predominate in both divisions, but the distribution by sex is more evenly balanced than is common in the Ontario CAATs. Only the vocational students represent a comparable educational stream, however, and since the data are aggregated it cannot be determined whether the sex distribution for each type of vocational programme is similar.

ONTARIO

Enrolment

In 1965-66, before the first CAAT opened in Ontario, there were 5,521 full-time students enrolled in the provincial institutes of technology, the provincial institutes of trades, and the Ontario vocational centres. These constituted what might be termed the CAAT level. In the 1969-70 academic year, the CAATs (excluding Ryerson) had 24,421 (3) full-time students enrolled - an increase of 342.3 per cent (see Table 5-3). The enrolment of 5,521 represented 1.54 per cent of the 17-19 age group ; the 1969-70 enrolment represented 6.23 per cent.

However, to avoid being misled about the importance of this expansion, we calculated the percentage that the Ontario enrolment of 65,776 (4) would represent of the estimated 17-20 age group in 1965-66 and found it to be 14.4 per cent. The comparable figure for 1969-70 is 112,422 or 21.7 per cent of the estimated 17-20 age group in 1969-70 (i.e., the proportionate percentage growth of students at this level has been 50.5 per cent. The percentage growth of the college sector has been 304.5 per cent.

Within the CAAT system there is considerable variation from college to college. Nowhere is this more evident than in enrolment. The correlation between size of CAAT and size of the chief urban centre in its area is unmistakeable, and it is extremely doubtful that the wishes of the Council of Regents regarding size will be maintained. The projected figures for total enrolment for each college calculated by the college itself tend to be exaggerated, but they do indicate the magnitude of the "missionary zeal" of CAAT officials, who see their task as providing the greatest service (within very broad limits) to the greatest number. The CAATs are expected to be community colleges, but there is no restriction requiring a student to attend the college of his area. Students are free to choose among the colleges and, in some instances, they must choose another college because the particular course desired is given in only one or two places. Therefore each college, in projecting its future enrolment, calculates the maximum number of students it will draw from the secondary schools of the area, then adds a portion to represent out-of-area students and mature students. The sum of the individual projections yields a total far beyond a reasonable figure when calculated for the province as a whole. We are inclined to use our own projection figures, although they are extremely vulnerable because of the newness of these institutions.

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3) These figures are taken from Qualified Manpower in Ontario Vol. II : they were provided by a provincial source. Detailed figures contained in the tables are taken from an unpublished survey undertaken for the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Enrollment Projections to 1981/82, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/Enrollment Projection 7, by C. Watson, S. Quazi ; they are based on a federal source. The differences arise from different definitions of full-time student. The lower federal figures include only those who can be classified as being "post-secondary" in level. The detailed breakdown, as used in the tables of this chapter, is not available for the larger total. Therefore in this chapter the more narrowly defined figure has been used, of which the 1969 total is 20,746.

4) That is, the sum of the 1965-66 Grade 13 (September) enrolment, the 1965-66 college level figure given above, the 1965-66 (September) teachers' colleges enrolment, and the 1965-66 (autumn) first-year university enrolment.

Table 5-3

FULL-TIME STUDENTS AND TEACHERS IN POST-SECONDARY SCHOOLS, ONTARIO 1958-1968
APPLIED ARTS AND TECHNOLOGY (CAATs)

	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Provincial Institutes of Trades[(a)]												
Students	696	756	795	1,233	1,442	1,412	1,579	1,623	2,052	2,592	-	
Teachers	59	59	66	94	147	136	159	154	189	240	-	
Student/teacher ratio	11.8	12.8	12.1	13.1	9.8	10.4	9.9	10.5	10.9	10.8	-	
Percentage female teachers	-	-	-	-	2.0	-	.6	1.5	1.9	2.1	-	
Ontario Vocational Centres[(b)]												
Students	-	-	-	-	-	-	880	1,362	2,059	-	-	
Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	65	126	184	-	-	
Student/teacher ratio	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.5	10.8	11.2	-	-	
Percentage female teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	14.7	16.2	20.6	-	-	
Provincial Institutes of Technology												
Students	597	719	856	1,137	1,397	1,600	2,017	2,536	3,144	-	-	
Teachers	36	52	68	64	82	96	121	145	197	-	-	
Student/teacher ratio	16.6	13.8	12.6	17.8	17.0	16.7	16.7	17.5	16.0	-	-	
Percentage female teachers	-	-	-	-	-	1.0	3.3	2.8	3.6	-	-	
Ryerson												
Students	2,040	1,963	2,135	2,696	2,508	2,899	3,304	3,687	4,494	5,162	5,778	
Teachers	113	115	99	138	130	153	167	201	232	247	370	
Student/teacher ratio	18.1	17.1	21.6	19.5	19.3	18.9	19.8	18.3	19.4	20.9	15.6	
Percentage female teachers	17.7	18.3	14.1	10.9	10.0	13.1	14.4	15.9	15.5	15.0	19.5	
Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (c)												
Students	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	569	11,180	16,122	24,421
Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	925	1,933	2,302 (d)
Student/teacher ratio	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.8	12.0	8.34	10.6
Percentage female teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.2			15.7
All Institutions												
Students	3,333	3,438	3,786	5,066	5,347	5,911	7,780	9,208	12,318	18,934	21,900	
Teachers	208	226	233	296	359	385	512	626	834	1,412	2,303	
Student/teacher ratio	16.0	15.2	16.2	17.1	14.9	15.4	15.2	14.7	14.8	-	-	
Percentage female teachers	9.6	9.3	6.0	5.1	3.6	5.5	7.2	8.3	7.3	-	-	

a) Includes Provincial Institute of Automotive and Allied Trades and Provincial Institute of Trades and Occupations for years 1962-67.
b) Three centres for 1965, 1966. Two centres for 1964.
c) Lambton and Centennial Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology for 1966.
d) Teachers at Centennial not included.

Source : Ontario Department of Education, Reports of the Minister, Schools and Teachers.

There are a number of difficulties involved in arriving at a reasonable projection of CAAT enrolment. One is that we are not sure that government policy will provide places to accommodate all the qualified student "demand" flow for admission. In time of economic recession there will be the temptation to cut back on investment in this sector (simply by restraining growth) while maintaining investment in the more traditional sectors of the education system where a cutback would be more traumatic. In 1968-69 in Ontario, there were 82,371 students enrolled in Grade 12 classes in Ontario schools (all programmes). Of these, 71,333 (86.6 per cent) successfully completed Grade 12, and 43,569 (61.1 per cent of these) continued to Grade 13.

The potential first-year enrolment in CAATs in September 1969 would be the remaining 27,764 if "successful completion" of Grade 12 is required, or 38,802 if it is not. The pool also includes a small percentage of the 40,087 Grade 13 graduates of the previous year, a number of mature students, and students from outside Ontario. For example, in 1969 first-year CAAT enrolment was composed of 14.8 per cent (10,549) of the Grade 12 graduates of the previous year, 4.1 per cent (1,661) of the Grade 13 enrolment of the previous year, 1,913 mature students, 274 students from other provinces, and 320 foreign students. In 1975 the Grade 12 enrolment is expected to total 126,240. Less than 20 per cent of these students are expected to attend CAATs immediately, but such a "social demand", particularly if it occurred in years of economic difficulty, would face the authorities with a serious problem.

A second reason for the difficulty in predicting enrolment is the uncertainty of how flexibly the admission requirements and prerequisites will be applied. There is a growing tendency to adopt an "open door" policy. The CAATs could broaden in two directions, their service mandate being already very extensive : they could move upward in academic rigour to university parallel courses, and downward, to adopt a higher proportion of remedial work for persons capable of taking their standard programmes but ill-prepared and to encompass a higher proportion of the manpower retraining courses and the one-year short courses that have no prior study requirement.

The policy alternatives outlined above may not, of course, develop concurrently, but even if they did, the pool of students would not be exhausted because we are assuming an open door policy (in admission terms) for full-time youth coming immediately from the high school, so that some student flow in the secondary schools prior to Grade 12 would be diverted.

In 1969-70 the manpower retraining courses served 13,962 CAAT students. Few of these courses last an academic or calendar year ; they range from three to fifty-two weeks in length, and enrolment varies considerably from one month to another. In the first half of the 1969 fiscal year (April 1 to October 1) a total of 2,750,274 trainee days were provided.

The third major difficulty in arriving at a reasonable projection of CAAT enrolment is the undefined relationship between the two post-secondary sectors of education, the universities and the colleges. Their potential overlap is considerable. Once the decision is made to provide in a separate institution post-secondary programmes which are not at university level (i.e., to give the universities a monopoly of certain kinds of courses), the problem arises of defining the boundary for the students. It would be simple to stand pat with a system that states, in effect, "If the secondary school judges you to be above level x in achievement, you may come into the university. If not, go somewhere else". Few persons, however, now have faith that the assessment of the secondary schools is unbiased and accurate. The achievement rating predicts how well a student is likely to perform in the highly competitive educational process, where achievement rests heavily on the learned behaviour derived from the culture of the student's family ; on verbal ability and reasoning ability laid down in early childhood ; and on attitudes towards knowledge, its acquisition and use, and information about educational institutions and educational processes, which are all a part of the student's conditioning - to say nothing of the specific coaching, teaching, and enriching of his knowledge which his parents, by virtue of their own education, provide. But there is now a communal sense of guilt that the selection of the education system reinforces the socio-economic differentiation of our society, so that much human talent is never developed. The ideal of objectively selecting those who ought to be supported to study various subjects, and somehow matching this selection with the choiçe of those who want to be supported to study various subjects, probably cannot be realised. What is necessary, however, is to demonstrate to the public that the boundary between the two post-secondary level systems has some objective validity and can be crossed.

With all these caveats, therefore, we shall use in this chapter the figures of the recent OISE (5) publication referred to earlier. For the total CAAT full-time enrolment, the estimates for 1975 run around 55,000, or 9 per cent of the 18-21 age group, and for 1981, around 79,500, or 11.8 per cent of the 18-21 age group. The 1969-70 enrolment was 4.8 per cent of this same age group.

Age and sex distribution

Table 5.4 shows the age and sex distribution of CAAT students for recent years, by year of study. Table 5.5 gives the sex distribution by division, and Table 5.6 gives the breakdown by age and sex for first-year enrolments for autumn 1969. Comparable data are not available for the students of the other systems. It is interesting to observe how few full-time students are older than 21, but the percentage which they represent is growing. As can be seen from Table 5.6 there is only a slight difference in the age distribution of students of the various programmes in Ontario : the median age of first-year students in the autumn of 1969 was 18.9 years in the technical division, 18.8 in business, 18.8 in health and 19.0 in applied arts. This is surprising. Since the technical and business students are predominantly male, their median age might have been expected to exceed that of the applied arts student because the flow of male students through the secondary school system of Ontario progresses more slowly than that of females (6).

In 1967, 95 per cent of the technical students were male ; in the next two years this proportion exceeded 97 per cent. In 1967, 77 per cent of the business students were male ; by 1969 this had dropped to about 75 per cent. In comparison, in the health division, the 1967 enrolments for males and females were about equal ; and in applied arts, females outnumbered the males (at 55 per cent). By 1969-70 the male proportion among the health division students had dropped to only 34 per cent, but their ratio to females in the applied arts division had changed so that they had become the more numerous (over 51 per cent). Table 5.5 indicates the relative growth in enrolment in the different types of study over these years. Growth in the technical division has been steady and predictable ; it has been faster in the business division ; but it is in the health and applied arts divisions that percentage growth has been dramatic. Taking 1967-68 as the base year (i.e., 1967-68 = 100) in the technical division, enrolment rose 36 per cent and 61 per cent in the next two years ; in the business division 69 per cent and 96 per cent ; in the health division over 700 per cent and 1,402 per cent ; and in the applied arts 275 per cent and 425 per cent.

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5) Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Enrollment Projections to 1981/82 (1970 Projection).

6) See Ontario Secondary School Enrollment Projections to 1981/82, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/Enrollment Projections, 2, pp. 4, 107-109.

Table 5.4

AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF CAAT ENROLMENT BY YEAR (AUTUMN 1967 TO AUTUMN 1969)

Age by year	First year			Second year			Third year			All years		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Under 16 (1967/68)		1	1								1	1
16	4	9	13							4	9	13
17	222	158	380	4	9	13				226	167	393
18	1,008	567	1,575	83	26	109				1,091	593	1,684
19	1,777	570	2,347	347	38	385	30	2	32	2,154	610	2,764
20	1,808	321	2,129	668	36	704	153	5	158	2,631	362	2,993
21	725	118	843	512	14	526	206	44	210	1,446	136	1,582
22	273	28	301	196	3	199	157	3	160	626	34	660
23	141	22	163	89	2	91	104	4	108	334	28	362
24	81	13	94	51	1	52	49		49	181	14	195
25 to 29	158	29	187	53		53	52	1	53	263	30	293
30 to 34	61	21	82	8		8				70	21	91
35 to 39	25	19	44	9	1	10	2		2	35	20	55
40 & over	28	53	81	4		4				32	53	85
Age not specified	6	3	9							6	3	9
Under 16 (1968/69)		1	1								1	1
16	1	5	6		2	2				1	7	8
17	160	184	344	2	24	26				162	208	370
18	1,288	746	2,034	109	145	254	6	2	8	1,403	893	2,296
19	2,354	756	3,110	538	197	735	44	42	86	2,936	995	3,931
20	1,889	379	2,268	1,122	196	1,318	216	57	273	3,227	632	3,859
21	995	148	1,143	962	108	1,070	398	26	424	2,357	282	2,639
22	460	49	509	457	42	499	290	9	299	1,225	100	1,325
23	172	27	199	219	10	229	141	3	144	532	40	572
24	90	18	108	82	11	93	72		72	244	29	273
25 to 29	219	54	273	111	14	125	62	1	63	392	69	461
30 to 34	74	39	113	28	6	34	13	2	15	115	47	162
35 to 39	25	22	47	7	11	18	2	4	6	34	37	71
40 & over	28	73	101	12	27	39	2	12	14	42	112	154
Under 16 (1969/70)	1	1	2							1	1	2
16	5	9	14	1	2	2				6	11	17
17	247	232	479	14	23	37		1	1	261	256	517
18	1,671	992	2,663	166	227	393	2	6	8	1,839	3,064	
19	2,450	996	3,446	927	389	1,316	46	20	66	3,423	1,405	4,820
20	2,056	459	2,515	1,435	365	1,800	229	44	273	3,720	868	4,588
21	1,110	198	1,308	1,211	167	1,378	398	27	425	2,724	392	3,116
22	563	91	654	680	104	784	426	11	437	1,675	206	1,881
23	279	37	366	342	31	373	229	7	236	853	75	928
24	175	52	227	166	20	186	103	5	108	444	77	521
25 to 29	274	71	345	231	24	255	97	3	100	603	98	701
30 to 34	86	43	129	56	21	77	15	2	17	157	66	223
35 to 39	44	51	95	16	27	43	6	1	7	66	79	145
40 & over	54	80	134	31	43	74	4	3	7	89	126	215

Table 5.5

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF ONTARIO CAAT STUDENTS BY DIVISION (AUTUMN 1967 TO AUTUMN 1969)

Year	Technical			Business			Health			Applied arts			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1967/68	5,154	265	5,419	3,252	971	4,223	43	42	85	650	803	1,453	9,099	2,081	11,180
1968/69	7,143	202	7,345	5,331	1,795	7,126	327	269	596	1,906	2,088	3,994	14,707	4,354	19,061
1969/70	8,497	218	8,715	6,108	2,176	8,284	407	785	1,192	3,189	2,990	6,179	18,201	6,169	24,370

Table 5.6

AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF FIRST-YEAR ONTARIO CAAT STUDENTS BY DIVISION (AUTUMN 1969)

Age, by year	Technical			Business			Health			Applied arts		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Under 16				1		1					1	1
16	2		2	1	6	7		1	1	2	2	4
17	142	9	151	76	125	201	4	27	31	25	71	96
18	898	30	928	506	452	958	37	150	187	230	360	590
19	1,244	34	1,278	783	390	1,173	57	169	226	366	403	769
20	953	23	976	698	142	840	46	97	143	359	197	556
21	509	9	518	318	64	382	34	48	82	249	77	362
22	252	4	256	161	21	182	24	31	55	126	35	161
23	121	2	123	79	11	90	17	4	21	62	20	82
24	80	3	83	61	9	70	3	9	12	31	31	62
25 to 29	119	5	124	80	33	113	6	10	16	69	23	92
30 to 34	44	3	47	22	9	31	3	6	9	17	25	42
35 to 39	21	3	24	11	13	24	1	7	8	11	28	39
40 & over	16	2	18	11	13	24	6	12	18	21	53	74
Total	4,401	127	4,528	2,808	1,288	4,096	238	571	809	1,568	1,326	2,894

As with the CEGEP, we were not able to obtain a distribution of the students entering CAATs by age and educational achievement or aptitude score, so we could not compare the academic achievement levels according to division, nor could we discover whether the older students represent lower achievement levels. We would suspect that the older student body found in some CAATs and in some CAAT programmes is the product of academic retardation, i.e., nonpromotion through the lower grades of school.

Social origin

In the interviews the CAAT administrators voiced the strong conviction that their institutions were catering to a different type of post-secondary student from that hitherto served in Ontario. All but a fraction of those enrolled in three-year diploma courses are students who would not otherwise study beyond high school level and many, in the past, would not even have completed the traditional secondary school studies. Moreover, they believe that these students come from families with no tradition of post-secondary study, where the educational background of the parents is low, and where the parents' occupations and the family income place them in a class lower than that of the university student. The administrators had the impression, although unable to demonstrate it statistically, that their students were drawn from upper working class and white collar class homes ; they were not "middle class".

ir perception seems to be accurate. From a 1968 survey of the financial situation of Ontario's post-secondary level students, this difference can be statistically demonstrated. It was found that the mothers of 13 per cent of Ontario's university students, as contrasted with 6 per cent of the CAAT students, had attended university ; and 25 per cent of the former, as compared with 14 per cent of the latter, had had some sort of post-secondary education. The percentages for the education of students' fathers were 23 per cent to 9 per cent (for university education) and 31 per cent to 15 per cent (some type of post-secondary education). The contrast at the lower level is equally striking. The figures for those parents having less than secondary school gradnation (i.e., elementary, trade training or some secondary) were : mothers of university students, 50 per cent, and of CAAT students, 63 per cent ; fathers of university students, 50 per cent, and of CAAT students, 67 per cent.

It may be argued that, in a net immigration country such as Canada, the inter-generation gap in education makes these figures poor indicators of class status, that formal qualifications are less important for success in Canada than they are in Europe, and that many immigrant parents of low educational background "make good" in Canada and are employed in jobs and earn incomes that enable their families to live in middle-class style. However, the evidence of the occupation indicators is similar to the above findings. Of the university students sampled, 38 per cent reported their father's occupation as "managerial, professional, or technical" (according to the 1961 Census of Canada occupational classification listing) as compared with 20 per cent of the fathers of the CAAT students. Only 15 per cent of the fathers of university students held jobs that could be classified as "craftsmen, production process", as compared with 24 per cent of the fathers of CAAT students. Only 3 per cent of the university student fathers were "labourers n.e.s." (not elsewhere specified), as compared with 6 per cent of the CAAT student fathers. Similarly, for the mothers of the university students, 12 per cent were engaged in "managerial, professional or technical" occupations, as compared with only 8 per cent of the mothers of CAAT students. The proportions of the mothers reported as being unemployed were similar (63 and 64 per cent).

The comparison of university and CAAT students by family income is equally interesting. Of the university students' families, 17 per cent were reported to have incomes of

$12,000 per year or more, as compared with 11 per cent of the CAAT students. The largest income category for both groups is that of the $6,000 to $7,999 per annum, but this includes only 19 per cent of the university students' families as compared with 24 per cent of the CAAT students' families.

Unfortunately, we have no comparable data on the characteristics of college students' families in Quebec and Alberta.

ALBERTA

Enrolment

We have had some difficulty gathering enrolment statistics which would enable us to judge the magnitude of recent expansion for the college-level sector in Alberta. It would appear that, in absolute numbers and percentage terms, this system has expanded least of the three under study. There seem to be two explanations for this :

1. University expansion has been much greater, so that there are higher participation rates in the university sector ;
2. The colleges and universities together have drained the "qualified" pools from the Alberta secondary schools and large expansion can continue only by offering service to a group of students below these "qualification" levels, but none of the institutions has yet lowered its comprehensive coverage very far on the academic scale.

Table 5.7 shows 1969-70 figures taken from the most recent publication of DBS. It covers all ten institutions for which the Alberta Colleges Commission nominally has coordinating responsibility. Unfortunately the DBS definition of post-secondary is quite restrictive so that many full-time students counted at the provincial level for grant purposes (high school, combined high school/vocational or combined high school/transfer programmes) have been omitted.

Table 5.8 gives the DBS figures for total full-time post-secondary enrolment, according to division of study, for 1967 to 1969. Unfortunately these figures are incomplete : in 1967 and 1968 Red Deer and Grande Prairie were not included in the total ; furthermore no separate figures are given for the university transfer courses which represent the largest category.

It was therefore decided to use provincial figures which, it must be recognised, are inflated because they include all students defined by the institutions as full-time. Although the educational statistics of the province of Alberta were found, in general, to be more complete and more accurate than in the other two provinces, there were nevertheless differences among the various sources available, due probably to the inclusion or exclusion of particular categories of students. Fortunately in 1967-68 the Board of Post-Secondary Education approved a number of Master's theses in the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta which were surveys of student and staff characteristics for that year. These are the data which have been used as base statistics and, unless otherwise noted, the statistical information which follows has been taken from these studies (7).

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7) "The Characteristics of Students in the Alberta Institutes of Technology" by Donald Joseph John Schindelka, an unpublished thesis for the M.Ed. degree, Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta, Edmonton, October 1968. Issued as Research Studies in Post-Secondary Education, No. 4, the Alberta Colleges Commission, April 1970. Hereinafter this is referred to as the Schindelka Survey.
"The Characteristics of Students in Alberta Public Junior Colleges" by Alex Blake Letts, Edmonton, September 1968. Hereinafter this is referred to as the Letts Survey.
"The Characteristics of Students in Alberta Agricultural and Vocational Colleges" by Alex Letts a survey carried out at the same time as his thesis survey above and issued as Research Studies in Post-Secondary Education, No. 3, April 1970. Hereinafter this is referred to as the Letts' Survey No. 3.

Table 5.7

TOTAL AUTUMN ENROLMENT BY COLLEGE AND PROGRAMME, ALBERTA, 1969

Institution	Technical				Business			Health			Applied arts					University transfer Total	Total
	1	2	3	Total	1	2	Total	1	2	Total	1	2	3	4	Total		
Agricultural-Fairview	21	20		41													41
Agricultural-Olds	121	100		221													221
Agricultural-Vermilion	26	24		50													50
Grande Prairie					39		39									109	148
Lethbridge Community	55			55	191		191	36		36	77				77		359
Medicine Hat					54	11	65									172	237
Mount Royal	3			3	83	90	173	60	40	100	310	188			498	800	1,574
NAIT	741	511		1,252	528	229	757	351	252	603	147	77			224		2,836
Red Deer					52	18	70	31	30	61	14				14	335	480
SAIT	589	462	153	1,204	315	184	499	65	40	105	170	123	47	44	384		2,192
Total	1,556	1,117	153	2,826	1,262	532	1,794	543	362	905	718	388	47	44	1,197	1,760	8,482

Table 5.8

TOTAL ALBERTA ENROLMENTS, AUTUMN 1967 TO AUTUMN 1969

Year	Technical			Business			Health			Applied arts			University transfer			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Colleges (Not including NAIT and SAIT)																		
1967-68	64	2	66	105	242	347	-	222	222	31	70	101						
1968-69	68	7	75	169	240	409	2	114	116	193	193	386						
1969-70	55	3	58	307	231	538	3	194	197	243	346	589	873	543	1,416	1,481	1,317	2,798
Colleges and NAIT and SAIT																		
1967-68	2,460	133	2,593	664	456	1,120	55	399	454	222	197	419						
1968-69	2,834	167	3,003	893	529	1,422	107	615	722	433	395	828						
1969-70	2,441	74	2,515	1,206	588	1,794	134	771	905	603	593	1,196	873	543	1,416	5,257	2,569	7,826

Accepting the institution's definition of full-time student, Schindelka found that in 1967-68 SAIT had an enrolment of 1,476 students and NAIT, 2,511 students (8). Mr. Letts's study showed that there were 2,174 full-time students attending the five public junior colleges that year, and 512 attending the agricultural colleges (9). Thus, in 1967-68 we have a total full-time enrolment of 6,683. According to DBS, the total enrolment in 1969-70 was 8,482, i.e. a growth of 26.5 per cent. It was probably much greater : the Alberta Colleges Commission estimates the growth in enrolment in college-level programmes from 1964-65 to 1969-70 to have been approximately 130 per cent.

In 1968 almost 73 per cent of the total full-time student body of NAIT and SAIT were *registered in technology programmes, less than 5 per cent in trade and industrial courses,* over 12 per cent in business, and almost 8 per cent in cultural and applied arts programmes. Unfortunately, the programme registration of the students in the three agricultural colleges cannot be compared with these figures because a different classification system has been used. In that year some 64 per cent of these students were in diploma programmes. The rest were in certificate, high school, apprenticeship, and special courses (i.e. the classification is by level). The classification of the programmes in the junior colleges is again by level, although different from the agricultural colleges : high school, combined high school and university, university, vocational, and other. The largest registration, about 44 per cent, is in the university transfer courses ; students in high school courses and combined courses together account for another 28 per cent of the full-*time* student body.

Thus the major programme emphasis of the two institutes of technology resembles that of a CAAT ; programme emphasis of the junior college is similar to that of a CEGEP.

Table 5.9 shows the enrolment forecast from 1969-70 to 1974-75 for the entire post-secondary level calculated for the Alberta cabinet by the officials of the Alberta Colleges Commission. The post-secondary level was assigned from 50 per cent to 80 per cent of the grade 12 pool, but not necessarily for full-time study or immediately. The assumption was that they would "enrol in some form of post-secondary education by the time they are twenty-five years of age". From this pool the Colleges Commission then distributed the enrolments forecast among NAIT, SAIT, the agricultural colleges and the public colleges which are their direct responsibility as shown in Table 5.10. They then calculated another, less conservative projection, based on enrolment trends, indicating the demand for places ; these are given in Table 5.11 (10).

These figures help to explain, but do not in our opinion justify, the recent decision of the Alberta government to create both a new university and a new community college in the greater Edmonton area. The latter will be competing for first-year university level students with the University of Alberta (Edmonton), the new university, Mount Royal College and NAIT. It might of course cater for the marginal university entrant, which would immediately affect the growth of Mount Royal. The latter might then be expected to add additional vocational programmes, which in turn would cut into enrolment at NAIT.

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8) Schindelka Survey, p. 10. The questionnaires returned represented a 73.5 per cent sample of students for SAIT and a 64.9 per cent sample for NAIT.

9) Letts Survey, p. 10 ; Letts Survey, No. 3, p. 10. The questionnaires returned represented a 69.8 per cent sample of students for the five public junior colleges and a 86.3 per cent sample for the agricultural colleges.

10) The Kolesar report referred to on p. 32.

Table 5.9

HIGHER EDUCATION ENROLMENT FORECASTS TO 1974-75

Year	Pool (1) Grade XII Enrolments (80 % retention)	Projected First and Second Yr. University Enrolments	Remaining Pool	% of Remaining Pool (2) Attending Post-Secondary Institutions	Projected Enrolments in Post-Secondary Institutions from H.S. Pool	Adult Pool as % of H.S. Pool	Projected Adult Enrolment	Projected Total Enrolment
1969-70	45,648	15,360	30,288	50	15,144	10	1,514	16,658
1970-71	47,736	17,350	30,386	60	18,231	12	2,188	20,419
1971-72	50,600	19,195	31,405	70	21,983	14	3,078	25,061
1972-73	53,644	20,975	32,669	80	26,135	16	4,182	30,317
1973-74	56,060	22,650	33,410	80	26,728	18	4,811	31,539
1974-75	56,650	23,935	32,715	80	26,172	20	5,234	31,406

1) The pool for any given year is determined by taking the total grade 12 enrolment of the two previous years. Thus, for example, the pool of 53,644 for 1972-73 is arrived at by adding the grade 12 enrolments for the years 1970-71 and 1971-72.

2) The percentages are based on :

1. Previous experience in increasing enrolments ;
2. An increasing demand for higher education ;
3. The establishment of colleges in strategic areas so as to increase the educational opportunities of more students.

Note : The validity of the figures in the sixth and seventh columns is questionable.

Table 5.10

NON-UNIVERSITY POST-SECONDARY ENROLMENT FORECASTS TO 1974-75

Year	NAIT (1)	SAIT (1)	Agricultural and Vocational Colleges (1)	Public Colleges (2)	Total
1969-70	5,600	3,619	669	6,770	16,658
1970-71	6,400	4,059	712	9,218	20,419
1971-72	7,200	4,405	763	12,693	25,061
1972-73	8,000	4,445	808	17,064	30,317
1973-74	8,000	4,485	852	18,202	31,539
1974-75	8,000	4,525	910	17,871	31,406

1) Source : Department of Education mimeographed paper, "Return : Respecting Notice of Motion for Return Dated March 7, 1968".

2) Enrolment projections obtained by subtracting Institutes of Technology and Agricultural and Vocational College enrolments from the projected total Non-University Post-Secondary enrolments. In 1969 there was a shortfall of actual compared to potential, and there will likely be for several years for a variety of reasons.

Table 5.11

ACTUAL AND PROJECTED PUBLIC COLLEGE ENROLMENTS

Year	Enrolments in the Public Colleges		
	Potential	Actual	Projected
1967-68	-	2,571	-
1968-69	-	3,194	-
1969-70	6,770	3,591	-
1970-71	9,218		4,895
1971-72	12,693		8,500
1972-73	17,064		11,200
1973-74	18,202		13,800
1974-75	17,871		15,200

Size of colleges

College-level institutions in Alberta differ greatly in size ; for example, the autumn 1969 full-time enrolment at NAIT was seventy times that of Fairview Agricultural College. Only in the two institutes of technology and Mount Royal did enrolment exceed 1,000. Many of the colleges proper are so small and are located in communities with such a small population that it is difficult to see how they can be anything except senior extensions of the secondary schools.

Age and sex distribution

In 1968 more than half (54.5 per cent) the full-time students at NAIT and SAIT were between 18 and 20 (inclusive), and a further 32 per cent were aged 21 to 25 (inclusive). In the agricultural colleges the student body is even younger : over 61 per cent are between 18 and 20, a further 7 per cent are 17 or under, and 19 per cent between 21 and 25. The comparable figures for the five public colleges are : 66 per cent between 18 and 20, 3 per cent aged 17 or less, and 21 per cent between 21 and 25. The age distribution of the part-time students would undoubtedly show larger numbers in the higher age groups but data are not available for all these institutions.

Since the distribution by sex for students in the agricultural and junior colleges is by level rather than type of programme the correlation between the kind of study and the sex cannot be determined as it has been for the CAAT students. The junior college student body is more evenly divided - 57 per cent males, 43 per cent females - than either of the two more specialised sectors which display some of the male predominance evident in the CAATs. Thus 73 per cent of the students of the agricultural colleges are male and almost 83 per cent of the total full-time enrolment of NAIT and SAIT.

So far as their full-time study programmes are concerned, these colleges serve youth. The students of Ontario are somewhat older than those of the other two systems, since they enter after twelve rather than eleven years of full-time study and there are more mature students. The male students are older than the female students.

We have no evidence of the range of the educational achievement and aptitude of the students in the three systems because there is no data distributing them according to common test scores or other ratings. In any event, a valid comparison between students of Quebec and the other two systems would be extremely difficult because of the language difference. Even between Ontario and Alberta, such a comparison would be of limited value because the secondary school systems differ, and the colleges in Alberta serve an academic stream (transfer) which, in Ontario, is found in the universities. However, it would be useful in future to collect such data in order to demonstrate the range of the population being served by a system, the differences in the educational roles played by different institutions in the system and the relationship of the two post-secondary level sectors : the universities and the colleges.

Chapter 6

THE TEACHING FORCE

This chapter suffers from an unavoidable limitation. Although it would have been preferable to make a study of the recruiting and training of the teaching force in all three systems, sufficiently detailed data were available only for the Ontario CAATs and the Alberta colleges.

We have therefore had to confine our comparisons to the two English language provinces, giving greater detail for the Ontario CAATs.

In considering the teaching force, as in the case of the student body, our first question was "who are they ?". And because these institutions have expanded rapidly, attracting to their teaching force people previously employed elsewhere, we next asked "Where did they come from ? What was their last job ?". We expected the characteristics of teachers to provide the key to understanding the institutions and to afford some clue as to whether the institutions were indeed an innovation in education. We also wanted to know whether the colleges had any difficulty in recruiting teachers for this extension of the education service, since the provision of capable teachers is the rock on which many educational plans come to grief. Other important points were whether the teaching force itself would be innovative or inherently conservative from the educational point of view, and what opportunities they have to influence college policy on staff recruitment and promotion and on such academic matters as student admission, promotion and evaluation, and what part they take in policy decisions. Finally, how does the teaching force differ, if at all, from that of the secondary schools and the universities ?

ONTARIO (1)

In 1967-68 the Ontario CAATs employed 1,832 teachers, 402 of whom had been employed in a CAAT or one of their predecessor institutions the year before. A total of 838 had been recruited from educational institutions (the 402 plus 39 former university teachers, 270 school teachers, and 127 instructors). (2) Thus, 46 per cent had been teaching the year before, and 54 per cent had been recruited from business or professional practice. This fact, when coupled with the large number of administrators who had also been drawn from the business world, makes the CAAT a distinctly different educational institution.

Teachers and professors are a peculiar "labour force" and educational institutions are strange "production units". The academic has usually had little experience outside

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1) Unless otherwise stated, all the data on CAAT teachers in this section are taken from a survey of teachers employed in the CAATs during the academic year 1967-68, which was carried out by staff of the Department of Educational Planning of OISE, in spring, 1968, to gather data for a study of qualified manpower in Ontario. Most of these data are unpublished. Some have been reported in Qualified Manpower in Ontario, Supply/ Demand Relations, Vol. II, Chapter 5.

2) The survey uses the occupational classifications and nomenclature of the Canadian Census, 1961. "Instructors" in this case includes those employed to teach in other than school systems or universities.

the world of education. He has been first a student and then a teacher of students, "never earning a competitive dollar in his life", as one CAAT president expressed it. This is less true of the teaching force of a CAAT than of any other of the Canadian educational institutions. The working experience of CAAT teachers gives an immediacy and a relevance to their teaching which is unique and very important at this time, when students everywhere are concerned about the relevance of their studies. This experience also assures prospective employers that students have had access to the latest business and professional thinking and practice. However, a price must be paid for this advantage; in this case, the price reveals itself in two problems, neither of which has been adequately solved.

In-service training

The most serious problem facing the CAAT deans and their division and programme chairmen seems to be how to ensure the teaching ability of new staff members. It was early decided by the Council of Regents that the colleges would not insist upon pre-employment teacher training. To have done so would have imposed severe limitations in the selection of candidates, because few from the "field" would have had teacher training and even fewer would have been prepared to attend a college of education for a year, without salary. Moreover, a suitable programme of teacher preparation did not exist in Ontario, the teachers' colleges being oriented to the teaching of children, and the colleges of education to the teaching of adolescents. The teaching of adults, particularly the teaching of skills and applied information for employment, had never previously been attempted on this scale. If there were some uncertainty as to what these CAAT students should learn (discussed in chapter 7), there was no less uncertainty as to how they should be taught and how their teachers could be trained to achieve this end. In any case, the Council recommended that no pre-employment teacher training be required, but that all staff who had no formal teacher qualifications be required to attend a training-orientation session prior to their first term.

These courses are a communal effort involving a number of the administrators and experienced teachers of the college. Generally they include seminars, lectures, discussions of a variety of teaching situations and problems, demonstration classes, and samples of examination and evaluation procedures. The person responsible for organising this programme varies from year to year and might be the college chairman, the student services officer, the director of continuing education, or the dean himself. Generally, the most experienced "educator" takes the responsibility. This orientation session is supplemented throughout the year by in-service "professional development" seminars, which include a series of guest speakers and one-day conferences on appropriate topics. Their organisation varies greatly from college to college, depending on the initiative of the person in charge and on the perceived need. Some colleges include many more experienced teachers than others.

However, without exception, all those interviewed agreed that their pre-service training was inadequate, that the programmes varied too much from college to college and that they ought to be extended and improved, but that the administrators were doing their best "in the circumstances". For an adequate teacher orientation and development programme the colleges ought to have more time, a bigger training budget, and more central direction.

Since the colleges have many inexperienced teachers, chairmen of programmes perform a teacher-trainer/supervisor role. Indeed, this seems to be one of their two main roles (the other being curriculum creation and improvement). Unlike the university situation, in the colleges there is no hesitation in observing a teacher. Chairmen meet their new teachers frequently during the first year of appointment to make suggestions, point out weaknesses, and discuss alternative ways of handling situations. New teachers are directed to visit the classes of their more experienced colleagues and there seems to be a great deal of "group therapy". The chairmen discussed with frankness their measures to ensure that the teachers are competent, and their efforts to help the weak teachers and disseminate the influence of the good ones. In all colleges, the chairmen seem to make a great effort to see that teachers are scrupulously evaluated. There are evaluation procedures of which the teacher is aware, and each evaluation is discussed with him.

This being the situation, it is surprising that the system in Ontario has not thus far provided for a common pre-employment teacher training experience, taking the best practices from each college and extending the required attendance period beyond a few weeks. It is difficult for a small college to provide a varied programme for a handful of new staff, and once the initial staffing is complete, only a normal teacher turnover can be expeoted each year. If the Branch or the Council nominated a team of the more experienced employees of the system and designated one college location as a training centre, a much more satisfactory "school of teacher training" might be created for perhaps the three summer months of each year. New teachers could be required to attend courses and experienced ones to return periodically for advanced training. If some reward were built into the salary and promotion system, this "direction" could be made quite palatable. Over the long-run such training need not be an added expense. The teachers of CAATs are engaged on a 12-month contract, but generally they work only ten months ; administrators (including programme chairmen who teach a reduced load) work an 11-month year. At present, there is a summer semester for remedial courses and make-up work ; there is a widespread conviction in the colleges, however, that they will eventually move to year-round operation, with a three-term system, as this develops in the secondary school system.

Sabbatical or work-study leave

The second problem facing colleges with a teaching force and a mission that are heavily business-oriented is that of ensuring that the teachers do not develop the "rigidity of old age" experienced by other institutions of this type. At present, the teachers are fresh from practice but if they remain many years in the academic world, without contact with their professional colleagues, they will necessarily need some refresher experience. Their renewal and development as teachers might be ensured by periodic returns to the training school referred to above. Their renewal as professionals needs different treatment.

The CAATs are too new to have had any experience of sabbatical or paid study leave and, as yet, no such arrangements have been made. Judging by Alberta where sabbatical leave policy exists and by Ryerson in Ontario, the usual study leave is not appropriate for professional renewal. There is the risk that such leave might develop into being used to study for higher degrees.

Under the present salary schemes all three provincial systems find it difficult to "reward merit". Chairmen complain that the scales are linked too closely to formal academic qualifications. For example, for the engineer, drawn from business to teach in the civil engineering technology programme, the return to university to upgrade his B.Sc. to an M.Sc. might not be the best professional renewal investment for the system. It would probably be much more useful for him to return to the business world for a time, combining this experience with some part-time work in his academic field through an advanced university extension course. However, if this use of leave is not as financially rewarding as another academic degree, he will probably study for the higher degree qualification.

The system's investment in the renewal of its teachers has generally had two faults : either it is too unstructured and undirected, such as the traditional sabbatical leave for university professors where the seventh year may be one of "rest" but not necessarily one of "renewal" ; or it is too narrowly utilitarian in financial terms whereas the utility should be assessed in terms of all facets of the teacher's role. It seems that too much of the upgrading study of school teachers and school administrators bears no relation to their responsibilities and, from the point of view of the system, it is a waste of public money and the teacher's energy and time.

Statistical evidence of teacher characteristics

Table 5.3 shows the development of the post-secondary teaching force in Ontario since 1958. These were data obtained, for the most part, from the Branch and they exclude presidents, principals, and teacher/administrators such as chairmen. The dramatic development of the system since 1966-67 is evident. Apart from these total figures, the main source of information for the statistical data on the characteristics of CAAT teachers is the 1968 OISE survey referred to at the beginning of this chapter.

Table 6.1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CAAT TEACHERS BY DIVISION AND LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION

Division	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total number of Teachers
Technical	66.2	26.4	7.4	364
Business	77.2	13.5	9.3	290
Traditional Trades	4.2	57.0	38.8	165
New Trades	68.9	28.9	2.2	90
Arts	25.9	67.0	7.1	282
Academic	96.4	3.3	.3	550

Table 6.1 shows the distribution of these teachers by level of qualification. It will be remembered that the Council of Regents based its suggested salary scales on degrees, with the B.A. honours level being something of a median. The "ideal" CAAT teacher as described by chairmen of programmes holds an M.A., although there is no advanced degree requirement and, on the other hand, good experience is mandatory. Except for the craft and trades courses, the performing and visual arts, and to a lesser extent journalism, it was rarely considered acceptable for the teacher not to hold a degree. Of some 1,800 full-time teachers whose records were surveyed in 1968, 63.8 per cent had at least one degree, 28.4 per cent held a diploma, and the others had no academic qualifications. The males were more qualified than the females : they formed slightly more than 85 per cent of the degree holders, some 63.3 per cent of all males having degrees ; the females were just under 15 per cent of the degree holders, 53.7 per cent of them having degrees. The sex distribution is reversed for those having diplomas : 39.4 of the females had diplomas, although of all those holding diplomas, only 24.1 per cent were females.

It is difficult to match the level of teaching with the level of academic qualifications since courses taught may be of varying duration ; and it is equally difficult to relate the level of academic qualification to the broad administrative divisions of the colleges since courses may be taught in more than one division. However, the subjects taught were recorded in order to analyse the teaching force on the basis of programme of study. Whenever a subject appeared under two programmes, it was listed only under the longer one. It must therefore be kept in mind that a teacher may well be teaching a course with a similar title (but usually with different content and somewhat differently presented) in a shorter programme of the same type.

Table 6.2 gives the numerical and percentage distribution of the teachers by type of specialisation. It is no surprise that the teaching force is heavily concentrated in the technical category. The traditional academic division is largest ; this, however, is not due to the numbers of general academic students but to the large number of mathematics, chemistry, and physics teachers who are teaching the technical students and to the English teachers who are employed to teach in all programmes. Leaving aside the academic division as "service" teachers, the rank order of divisions by numerical strength runs as follows : technical ; business ; visual, fine, and performing arts and crafts ; traditional trades ; and new applied arts trades. However, if certain subjects were shifted from one category to another, this rank order would be changed, so it should not be taken too categorically.

Table 6.2

DISTRIBUTION OF CAAT TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SPECIALISATION

Type of Specialisation	Number	Percentage
Academic (1)	550	30.0
Technical (2)	455	24.9
Business (3)	290	15.8
Visual, Fine and Performing Arts (4)	282	15.4
Traditional Trades (5)	165	9.0
New, Applied Arts Trades (6)	90	4.9
Total	1,832	100.0

1) Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Economics, Geography, History, Political Science, Sociology, Anthropology, Modern Languages, Liberal Studies and Philosophy, and English.

2) Civil Electrical, Electronic, Mechanical, Mining, Industrial, Plastics, Textile, Food, Production, and Medical Technologies ; Industrial Management Technology ; Instrumentation ; and Agrology.

3) Business Administration, Hotel Administration, Secretarial Science, Accountancy, Computer and Data Processing, Advertising, and Banking.

4) Architecture and Interior Design ; Art ; Arts and Crafts ; Communication, Radio and T.V. Arts ; Jewellery and Watchmaking ; Journalism ; Home Economics and Fashion Arts ; Photographic Arts ; Retailing ; and Music (Theory and Instrumental).

5) Graphic Arts, Auto (Mechanical), Auto (Body), Building and Construction, Chef Training, Electrical Equip. Repair, Heavy Duty Equipment, Hairdressing and Cosmetology, Machine and Machine Shop Practice, Plumbing, Printing and Refrigeration.

6) Dental Technicians, Early Childhood Education, Health Services, Law Enforcement, Library Science, Nursing, Physical Education and Recreational Leadership, Welfare Services.

Three-quarters of these teachers were already working in Ontario when they were recruited for the CAAT system. Only 6 per cent are known to have come from abroad ; the geographic origin of 12 per cent was not recorded (see Table 6.3). It would have been interesting to follow the recruitment year by year and to observe whether the rapid expansion of the first two establishment years fished dry the provincial "pools" of available manpower so that more and more had to be employed from other Canadian provinces and abroad. Unfortunately such data are not available. However, it may be said unequivocally that manning this new sector has been principally a local effort, which distinguishes it immediately from the expansion of teaching staff that took place in recent years in Ontario's universities. The additional university places were provided by drawing heavily on the world teaching market, particularly on academic manpower from the United States - so much so that a serious national controversy has arisen over the number of American teachers employed, particularly in the social science departments where growth has been extremely rapid. The largest expansion has been in the number of undergraduate places : in Ontario, from 1952-53 to 1969-70, full-time enrolment rose by 64 per cent in the arts and science faculty and 183 per cent in engineering as compared with 63 per cent in dentistry, and 23 per cent in pharmacy ; in arts and science this expansion coincided with a shift in programme registration from languages and letters into the social sciences. Growth in the physical and natural sciences was much more steady. In 1968-69 the ratio of B.A. to B.Sc. degrees granted in Ontario universities was 5 to 2.

Table 6.3
GEOGRAPHICAL ORIGIN OF CAAT TEACHERS, 1967-68

Origin	Number	Percentage
Ontario	1,378	75.2
Other Provinces of Canada	122	6.7
Other Countries	111	6.1
Not Specified	221	12.0
Total	1,832	100.0

Table 6.4
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY SELECTED SUBJECT IN ONTARIO SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND CAATs, 1967-68

Subject	Percentage of Secondary School Teachers	Percentage of CAAT Teachers
English	15.2	8.4
French	6.6	0.6
History	8.3	1.0
Chemistry	1.7	4.9
Accountancy	0.6	3.3
Electricity	1.8	10.0

The concentration of CAAT teachers by subject taught is sufficient to dispel any lingering myth that these colleges are simply a continuation of Ontario's secondary schools, a sort of new senior secondary sector. In Table 6.4 the percentage distribution of the teaching force among various selected subjects in Ontario's secondary schools is compared with that in the CAATs. In the academic year 1967-68 about 15 per cent of the secondary school teacher force was engaged in teaching English language and literature whereas about 8 per cent of the CAAT teacher force were so employed ; and more than 10 per cent of the CAAT teacher force was engaged in teaching electricity as compared with only 1.76 per cent of the secondary school teachers.

The sources for recruitment and academic characteristics of the teachers ought to vary according to the type of programme in which they are concerned, so it seemed useful to analyse the Ontario numbers in this way. The three-year science and engineering technology programmes are academically the elite courses of the CAAT system, so it is not surprising that teachers of high academic qualification are employed for them. There are large programmes in civil, electrical and electronic, and mechanical technology, and much smaller ones in such fields as mining, industrial management, and food production (see Table 6.5). In recruiting for the larger programmes, the colleges have drawn heavily from the engineering profession and, for the smaller programmes, from natural science and agricultural scientists. For example, 20 of the 41 civil technology teachers had been employed the year before as engineers ; 36 had degrees, and the other five held diplomas. Table 6.5 shows the distribution of the teachers of three-year technology programmes by former occupation, level of qualification, and sex : 37 per cent of the total had been employed as engineers or in related occupations and 42 per cent had been teaching, with more than half of these having taught in post-secondary institutions (3). Almost 68 per cent had at least one degree and only five of the total (1.3 per cent) were female.

Since many teachers give courses that are a part of two-year programmes and three-year programmes there is a discrepancy between the number of technical teachers given in Table 6.1 and the number in Table 6.5. The drafting and navigation teachers form the missing group. Two-year drafting technician courses are given in almost every CAAT, and since they are much in demand, they employ a large number of teachers. There were 84 technical teachers giving only two-year programme courses and some one-year courses : all were male ; 21 held degrees, 55 diplomas, and eight had lesser or no formal qualifications ; 31 were recruited from occupations related to engineering ; 50 were teachers (28 in post-secondary institutions) and three came from other occupations.

Table 6.6 shows the characteristics of the teachers employed in the two- and three-year business administration programmes and the other programmes related to business. It is even more difficult to separate teachers of this division according to level of programme, since the titles of courses are generally identical ; therefore, they have all been grouped together. For this division, no single profession plays the important role that the engineering profession plays in the supply of technical teachers. Business occupations account for the largest group (40 per cent) ; and teachers drawn from other sectors constitute 34 per cent of the total. This is a highly qualified group, 77 per cent having at least one degree. It is also largely male : 77 per cent including secretarial teachers, or 93 per cent excluding them.

Table 6.7 shows this same distribution for teachers in traditional trades. These are courses of one year or less, or apprenticeship courses. Some of the trades teachers teach in two- or three-year programmes and are not included in this Table ; those included teach only in trades programmes. The group is largely male ; few have academic university qualifications and, even then, the degree may bear no relationship to their work. There can be no question that the members of this teacher group are distinctly different in personal background from those of the other two divisions, and creating for them a sense of identity as a college teacher probably presents some difficulties.

Characteristics of the distribution of teachers of the new applied arts trades are given in Table 6.8. Because their field of recruitment is so varied, their former occupations were classified simply as teacher or non-teacher. However, the table contains

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3) Most of those from post-secondary institutions were taken into the CAAT system when the institutes of trades and institutes of technology were incorporated.

Table 6.5

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN THE THREE-YEAR TECHNICAL PROGRAMMES BY FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Programme	Former Occupation				Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Engineering (1) and related occupations	Teaching (2) and related occupations	Other	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Civil technology	25	14 (8)	2	41	36	5	-	41	41	-	41
Electrical & electronic technology	58	78 (44)	48	184	109	55	20	184	183	1	184
Mechanical technology	44	33 (18)	1	78	62	15	1	78	78	-	78
Mining technology	3	3	3	9	9	-	-	9	8	1	9
Industrial technology	1	1	-	2	2	-	-	2	2	-	2
Industrial management technology	3	3 (1)	2	8	8	-	-	8	8	-	8
Instrumentation	2	7 (4)	7	16	7	9	-	16	16	-	16
Plastics technology	-	2 (1)	1	3	1	1	1	3	3	-	3
Textiles technology	-	-	2	2	1	1	-	2	2	-	2
Food technology	-	10 (9)	3	13	2	6	5	13	10	3	13
Production technology	-	1 (1)	-	1	-	1	-	1	1	-	1
Medical technology	-	-	4	4	1	3	-	4	4	-	4
Agrology	-	2	1	3	3	-	-	3	3	-	3
Total	136	154	74	364	241	96	27	364	359	5	364

1) i.e., draftsmen, surveyors, engineering technicians and technologists.

2) University, post-secondary, secondary, and instructors and teachers not elsewhere specified. The figures in brackets show how many were employed in post-secondary teaching the year before.

Table 6.6

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN BUSINESS AND RELATED PROGRAMMES BY FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Programme	Former Occupation				Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Business and related occupations (1)	Teaching and related occupations (2)	Other	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Business administration	44	47 (35)	20	111	103	5	3	111	106	5	111
Hotel administration	1	3	1	5	3	2	-	5	5	-	5
Secretarial science	3	27 (4)	31	61	31	19	11	61	6	55	61
Accountancy	42	12 (3)	6	60	51	7	2	60	56	4	60
Computer and data processing	25	10 (2)	7	42	34	3	5	42	41	1	42
Advertising	1	1 (1)	8	10	1	3	6	10	10	-	10
Banking	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	-	1
Total	117	100 (45)	73	290	224	39	27	290	225	65	290

1) i.e., owner, manager, accountant, auditor, computer programmer, and business-related occupations.

2) i.e., university, post-secondary, secondary, instructors and teachers not elsewhere specified. The figures in brackets show how many were previously employed in post-secondary institutions.

Table 6.7

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN THE TRADITIONAL TRADE PROGRAMMES BY FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Programme	Former Occupation				Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Craftsmen Related	Teacher Related (1)	Other	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Graphic Art	-	-	3	3	-	-	1	3	1	1	3
Auto (Mechanical)	6	27 (2)	1	34	-	32	2	34	34	-	34
Auto (Body)	3	3	1	7	-	7	-	7	7	-	7
Building and Construction	2	6 (6)	1	9	1	5	3	9	9	-	9
Chef Training	1	1	4	6	-	-	6	6	6	-	6
Electrical Equipment Repair	-	6 (6)	-	6	-	1	5	6	6	-	6
Heavy Duty Equipment	-	-	11	11	-	7	4	11	11	-	11
Hairdressing & Cosmetology	-	9 (5)	6	15	1	9	5	15	10	5	15
Machine & Machine Shop Practice	17	32 (2)	5	54	4	23	27	54	54	-	54
Plumbing	1	12 (11)	-	13	1	4	8	13	13	-	13
Printing	1	3 (3)	-	4	-	3	1	4	4	-	4
Refrigeration	-	2 (1)	1	3	-	1	2	3	3	-	3
Total	31	101 (60)	33	165	7	94	64	165	158	7	165

1) The figures in brackets show how many were previously employed in post-secondary institutions.

Table 6.8

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN THE NEW APPLIED ART PROGRAMMES BY FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Programme	Former Occupation			Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Teacher	Non-Teacher	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Dental Technicians	2	1	3	1	2	-	3	3	-	3
Early Childhood Education	16	26	42	26	16	-	42	13	29	42
Health Services	3	1	4	4	-	-	4	3	1	4
Law Enforcement	-	1	1	-	-	1	1	1	-	1
Library Science	-	5	5	4	1	-	5	1	4	5
Nursing	3	3	6	5	1	-	6	-	6	6
Physical Education and Recreational Leadership	14	11	25	18	6	1	25	21	4	25
Welfare Services	1	3	4	4	-	-	4	2	2	4
Total	39 (1)	51	90	62	26	2	90	44	46	90

(1) Of which 12 were engaged from post-secondary institutions and 3 from the universities.

Table 6.9

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN THE VISUAL AND PERFORMING ARTS, FINE ARTS, AND CRAFT PROGRAMMES BY FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Programme	Former Occupation			Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Teacher (1)	Non-Teacher	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Architecture & Interior Design	11 (10)	11	22	11	9	2	22	21	1	22
Art	10 (5)	23	33	6	22	5	33	24	9	33
Arts and Crafts	7 (3)	12	19	4	11	4	19	15	4	19
Communications, Radio & T.V.	8 (8)	10	18	8	7	3	18	15	3	18
Jewellery & Watchmaking	2 (2)	3	5	1	1	3	5	4	1	5
Journalism	4 (3)	1	5	5	-	-	5	5	-	5
Home Economics & Fashion Arts	10 (6)	4	14	12	1	1	14	-	14	14
Photographic Arts	5 (4)	1	6	2	3	1	6	5	1	6
Retailing	2 (2)	1	3	2	-	1	3	3	-	3
Music (theory)	N/A	N/A	27(2)	8	19	-	27	12	15	27
Music (instrumental)	N/A	N/A	130(2)	14	116	-	130	57	73	130
Total	59 (43)	66	282	73	189	20	282	161	121	282

1) The figures in brackets show how many were previously employed in post-secondary institutions.

2) Former occupation not specified.

Table 6.10

DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC TEACHERS BY SUBJECT, FORMER OCCUPATION, LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION AND SEX

Subject	Former Occupation			Level of Qualification				Sex		
	Teacher	Non-Teacher	Total	Degree	Diploma	Other	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mathematics	87	46	133	124	9	-	133	126	7	133
Biology	2	2	4	4	-	-	4	3	1	4
Chemistry	35	54	89	87	1	1	89	82	7	89
Physics	20	22	42	39	3	-	42	39	3	42
Economics	35	22	57	56	1	-	57	55	2	57
Geography	2	1	3	3	-	-	3	3	-	3
History & Political Science	11	8	19	19	-	-	19	18	1	19
Sociology and Anthropology	13	12	25	25	-	-	25	22	3	25
English	111	42	153	149	3	1	153	109	44	153
Modern Languages	8	2	10	9	1	-	10	3	7	10
Liberal Studies & Philosophy	10	5	15	15	-	-	15	12	3	15
Total	334 (1)	216	550	530	18	2	550	472	78	550

1) Of which 126 are former post-secondary teachers and 171 former secondary school teachers.

two specified sub-categories : those engaged from post-secondary institutions and those from universities. The sex distribution of this teacher group is more evenly balanced, but it is still specialized by programme. More than 40 per cent had already been teaching when they were hired and almost 33 per cent of these had been teaching in post-secondary institutions. They are as highly qualified as the technical and business division teachers: almost 69 per cent had at least one degree.

Table 6.9 concerns the distribution of the visual, fine, and performing arts and crafts teachers. Eleven programmes have been included in this group, but two - music (theory) and music (instrumental) - are to be found only in the Royal Conservatory of Music of the University of Toronto for which no academic entrance requirements are set. These music teachers ought not to be considered with the CAAT staff, so Table 6.9 has subtotals that are more appropriate for our use. The art teachers' group includes a number employed by Humber CAAT, but the bulk are employees of the Ontario College of Art which is not strictly a part of the CAAT system. The teaching staff of this division is also a male labour force : fewer than one in four, when music teachers are excluded, are female ; when they are included, however, the female representation increases to almost 43 per cent.

There remain to be considered the CAAT teachers listed as giving such traditional academic courses as mathematics, chemistry, biology, English, history and economics. It is rather artificial to group them as a division because they are essential to the service of all divisions, and they belong as much to these divisions as do teachers who teach courses identifiable as having a special application. Moreover, the various programmes use this teaching force to varying degrees. Mathematics, for example, is an essential part of every technical and technology course and most business courses ; but it is an option for the library assistants course. Some type of English course is included in

Table 6.11

DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC TEACHERS, FORMERLY EMPLOYED AS SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS, BY SUBJECT AND GEOGRAPHIC ORIGIN

Subject	Geographic Origin				
	Ontario	Other Provinces	Other Countries	Not Stated	Total
Mathematics	42	4	3	1	50
Biology			1		1
Chemistry	10	1			11
Physics	7				7
Economics	10	1	1		12
Geography	1				1
History and Political Science	5	1			6
Sociology and Anthropology	5	1			6
English	52	5	11		68
Modern Languages	3	1	1		5
Liberal Studies and Philosophy	6				6
Total	141	14	17	1	173

all programmes. Economics is required for business, but it is also a popular choice in many others. All academic teachers have been treated as a group, regardless of whom they serve and how they are located administratively within the colleges, and their subjects have been arranged under four subgroupings : mathematics, the natural sciences (all of which are heavily used for technical programmes), the social sciences (which, together with mathematics, are heavily used for business programmes), and the humanities (which, except for English, are used more by the arts and applied arts students). The distribution of these teachers according to their prior occupation, level of qualification, and sex is shown in Table 6.10.

These teachers constitute the most academically qualified group of the CAAT teachers, which is not surprising since a bachelor's degree might be regarded as the minimum acceptable level for a teacher of a traditional academic subject. Unfortunately, there is no information on the number with higher degrees (master's and doctorates) ; 96 per cent of this labour force have at least one degree, and 86 per cent of them are men. Clearly, the "service" teachers do not counteract the "all-male" characteristic of technology programmes. As a group, the academic teachers are the most experienced teachers ; almost 61 per cent were already teaching when they were engaged. A large number had had post-secondary teaching experience, and an even greater number were drawn from the secondary schools. To find out whether this drain was likely to have been from the Ontario secondary school system, these teachers were cross-classified by geographic origin (Table 6.11): 81.5 per cent were from Ontario. Such a loss, particularly of the mathematics teachers, is likely to have had serious effects, and yet it does not seem to have been publicly noted by administrators of secondary schools.

ALBERTA(4)

In-service training

The Alberta colleges do not appear to spend a great deal of time and effort on in-service training. They do not require a teacher's certificate as a condition of employment, although a large number of experienced teaching staff is found, particularly in the junior colleges. Teaching ability was not reported as a major problem as, for example, in Ontario. At NAIT and SAIT the teaching staff were more concerned with how to teach non-academic types of students effectively. "Staff development" programmes similar to those in Ontario seemed to be in operation.

Inexperienced teachers are required to attend seminars and demonstrations during the month of August preceeding their first teaching year. There is a similar tradition to Ontario's CAATs with regard to supervision and judgement of their employees' teaching. For example, a NAIT or SAIT programme or department chairman is expected to visit the new teacher's classroom to observe and criticise, and all teachers are rated annually on performance of their teaching and allied duties.

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4) Unless otherwise stated, the statistics describing the characteristics of teachers of the college sector of Alberta are taken from "A Survey of Staff Characteristics in Post-Secondary Institutions in Alberta", by Alexander James Tod, an unpublished M.Ed. thesis, Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Fall 1969, issued as Research Studies in Post-Secondary Education, No. 7, Alberta Colleges Commission, April 1970, p. 26. Hereinafter this is referred to as the Tod Survey. The survey was conducted in January/February 1969 and its data relate to the academic year 1968-69. The study covered full-time professional staff divided into the following categories : administrator ; head of division, department or section (i.e. teacher/administrator) ; instructor, lecturer or teacher ; and "other", which included such officials as the librarian, guidance counsellor, analyst. This staff was distributed as follows : 5% administrators, 11% teacher/administrators, 83% teachers, 1% others.

The junior colleges are closer to the university tradition of the sanctity of the classroom. There seemed to be no systematic or regular inspection and rating of teachers.

Study leave

Most of the junior colleges and the two institutes of technology had a sabbatical leave or study leave policy before they were brought into the colleges system, and these policies have continued. In fact, that of the institutes of technology has been revised because it is intended to upgrade teaching staff, so that its provisions are most generous.

The criticism which might be made of the study-leave policies is that they must be of considerable cost to these institutions, and then the question might be raised as to whether they represent value for money. When asked about career plans, it was found that many administrators were studying for a higher degree (usually a doctorate) and were attracted to the university sector. It was also found that about 40 per cent of staff were working on programmes to improve their qualifications (5) (see Table 6.12). The numbers acquiring trade qualifications were small, 40 out of 814. There were almost as many who were candidates for the doctorate. The largest group were candidates for the Master's degree (12.5 per cent of the whole staff but 30.8 per cent of those who were studying part-time).

The interesting fact is that the junior college staff represent only about one-third of those studying part-time for the Master's degree ; the largest number are staff of NAIT and SAIT. Obviously, although the institutes of technology do not require the Master's degree as a minimum recruitment qualification, their salary structure provides a strong incentive to upgrade to that level. This means, in effect, that where a salary scheme encourages such study and the staffing policy of an institution awards prestige and benefit to academic qualifications, the institution located in a university centre has an advantage in recruitment. NAIT and SAIT are located in the same cities as the two largest universities in Alberta ; the agricultural colleges are in small communities where after-hours university attendance is difficult. It is therefore not surprising that the staff of the former should study part-time to obtain their B.A.s, a second bachelor degree (frequently a B.Ed.) or a Master's degree. Apart from the incentives provided by their salary scales, a higher degree will increase the number of academic markets where they can sell their teaching services and will enhance their career mobility.

The price paid by the institution for their professional staff to be involved in degree credit studies is high. Estimated on the basis of 10 hours' preparation for each two-hour course meeting, a total of 24 hours per week is needed during the heaviest weeks of the college teaching terms. It is supposed that a very large number of this labour force who are not at present studying part-time were doing so in the past. (See Table 6.13).

Statistical Evidence of Staff Characteristics

Like their Ontario counterparts, the Alberta institutions have an overwhelmingly male teaching force, the junior colleges only slightly less than the other two sectors : 85.7 per cent of all staff covered were men.

This is also a young labour force : 29.6 per cent were 30 years of age or less, 64.3 per cent were 40 years or less. The staff of the agricultural colleges were particularly young (43 per cent under 31).

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5) Tod Survey, p. iv.

Table 6.12

DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION AND PERCENTAGES OF THOSE ENGAGED IN PART-TIME STUDY

Type of Institution where employed	1-year certificate	2-year diploma	Journeyman certificate	Bachelor degree	Second bach.	Master's degree	Doctoral degree	Other	Not Studying	Did Not Answer
Agricultural Colleges	2 (3.1%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.5%)	2 (3.1%)	6 (9.2%)	5 (7.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	48 (73.8%)	1 (1.5%)
Institutes	16 (2.7%)	15 (2.6%)	4 (0.7%)	84 (14.4%)	25 (4.3%)	63 (10.8%)	7 (1.2%)	25 (4.3%)	337 (57.7%)	8 (1.4%)
Junior Colleges	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.6%)	1 (0.6%)	5 (3.0%)	7 (4.2%)	34 (20.6%)	27 (16.4%)	1 (0.6%)	87 (52.7%)	2 (1.2%)
Total	18 (2.2%)	16 (2.0%)	6 (0.7%)	91 (11.2%)	38 (4.7%)	102 (12.5%)	34 (4.2%)	26 (3.2%)	472 (58.0%)	11 (1.4%)

Table 6.13

DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION AND BY CALENDAR YEARS OF PART-TIME FURTHER TRAINING NEEDED TO ACQUIRE PRESENT QUALIFICATIONS

Type of Institution where employed	Years of Part-Time Further Training						
	None	1 to 2	3 to 4	5 to 7	8 to 10	Over 10	Did Not Answer
Agricultural Colleges	28 (43.1%)	15 (23.1%)	10 (15.4%)	5 (7.7%)	1 (1.5%)	1 (1.5%)	5 (7.7%)
Institutes	198 (33.9%)	103 (17.6%)	131 (22.4%)	91 (15.9%)	23 (3.9%)	18 (3.1%)	18 (3.1%)
Junior Colleges	57 (34.5%)	46 (27.9%)	17 (10.3%)	27 (16.4%)	11 (6.7%)	5 (3.0%)	2 (1.2%)
Total	283 (34.8%)	164 (20.1%)	158 (19.4%)	125 (15.4%)	35 (4.3%)	24 (2.9%)	25 (3.0%)

Table 6.14

DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION AND PREVIOUS FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT

Type of Institution where employed	Previous Full-Time Employment										
	Agricultural College	Institute of Technology	Junior College	University	Commercial Educational Institute	Total Teachers	Non-Educational Instit.	Student	Other	No response	Total
Agricultural Colleges	6 (9.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.5%)	2 (3.1%)	9 (13.8%)	26 (40.0%)	11 (16.9%)	19 (29.2%)	0 (0.0%)	65 (100.0%)
Institutes	3 (0.5%)	16 (2.7%)	1 (0.2%)	36 (6.2%)	4 (0.7%)	60 (10.3%)	431 (73.8%)	26 (4.5%)	65 (11.1%)	2 (0.3%)	584 (100.0%)
Junior Colleges	0 (0.0%)	3 (1.8%)	10 (6.1%)	15 (9.1%)	3 (1.8%)	31 (18.8%)	37 (22.4%)	26 (15.8%)	68 (41.2%)	3 (1.8%)	165 (100.0%)
Total	9 (1.1%)	19 (2.3%)	11 (1.4%)	52 (6.4%)	9 (1.1%)	100 (12.3%)	494 (60.7%)	63 (7.7%)	152 (18.7%)	5 (0.6%)	814 (100.0%)

Although the college administrators appeared to be strongly influenced by the tradition of the junior college systems of the United States, this was apparently not the result of direct import of American staff. Over 52 per cent had attended an Alberta high school, and a further 26.6 per cent elsewhere in Canada. Those who had, for the most part, attended secondary school in Great Britain or in continental Europe exceeded those from the United States (9.1 per cent and 5.5 per cent as compared to 3.6 per cent). The junior college staff was less "provincial" than that of the other two sectors.

The most common academic qualification for the entire staff was the Bachelor's degree (30.8 per cent). The qualifications of the junior college staff far exceed the others : 47 per cent have a Master's degree. This is much above the qualifications of the CAAT teachers in Ontario, but included in this figure are administrators and administrator/teachers whose academic qualifications are expected to be higher than those of the teaching staff. Probably the characteristics of the staff of NAIT and SAIT are more comparable to those of the CAAT teachers : 31 per cent had a bachelor's degree, 9.8 per cent had two, and 10.1 per cent had a Master's degree.

One difference between the Alberta post-secondary system and that of the other two provinces is that its component institutions are not new for the most part ; and although there has been some expansion, it has not been as rapid as in Ontario and Quebec. Therefore these institutions have not needed to assemble a teacher force hastily, and it is surprising to find that 42 per cent of their staff who reported had been only one or two years with their present employers. When coupled with the data on age, this suggests an inexperienced teacher force to an unexpected degree. In the junior colleges, 55 per cent of the staff had two years or less service in their present institution ; 78 per cent had fewer than five years.

It was no surprise to learn that NAIT and SAIT had recruited heavily from non-educational sources of manpower ; almost 74 per cent of their staff in the academic year 1968-69 reported that their immediately preceding employment was in a non-educational institution (see Table 6.14). This is comparable to the CAAT recruitment sources. The alternative labour markets for the junior college staff are quite different ; they are more traditionally academic, almost 29 per cent of the respondents having been recruited from other educational institutions as compared with 22 per cent from non-educational institutions (6).

In the attempt to calculate student/staff ratios, variations in dates, definitions and other constraints were such as to render the figure at best only indicative of the distribution. Using the surveys quoted above, it was estimated that the institutes of technology employed a staff/student ratio of 1:7, the junior colleges of 1:13, and the agricultural colleges of 1:9. What may be safety concluded is that all these institutions have a teaching process which is expensive in terms of staff.

In both systems for which we have detailed statistical data, the faculty, to a surprising degree, are young men. In Ontario this force has been assembled from industry, commerce and professional practice ; and the engineering and accounting/commerce/business administration professions, in particular, have furnished most of the teachers. In Alberta the teacher force of NAIT and SAIT seem to share these characteristics. That of the junior colleges is more academic with large numbers having been drawn from other teaching institutions. In both provincial systems, few teachers have been attracted from the universities. The ratios of students to teachers give evidence of an expensive educational process. Any notion that post-secondary vocationally-oriented programs are "cheap" is completely dispelled.

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6) Even these percentages under represent the teacher recruitment : the survey listed former secondary school teachers under "other".

Chapter 7

THE CURRICULUM

This chapter covers the following : programme and course descriptions ; teaching groups according to size and activities ; admissions regulations and procedures, guidance and allocation to alternative courses and programmes ; testing evaluation, examinations, grading, promotion and expulsion regulations. Even to attempt to cover this in detail for the three systems is beyond the scope of this study, so we speak only in general fashion of these matters in each system from evidence of their regulations and documents.

CONTROL OF PROGRAMMES AND COURSES

The range of programmes offered by a college varies directly with the educational role of the institution and its size. Thus, the small college cannot offer as many programmes as the large, however sincerely the authorities wish the college to meet the needs and desires of the community. There is an inescapable dilemma between unit cost and diversity. Even the cheapest courses (where the only cost is the teacher, space and overhead, and the students bring all their work and reference materials) become expensive if they are given for a handful of students. Once the system moves beyond academic courses (where the teachers, a library, some standard teaching spaces, a modest range of audio-visual aids suffice) to technology, business, applied arts, and other courses, it faces a large investment in equipment and specialised facilities and in administrative and placement personnel who complement the in-house teaching with field supervision. To provide a small community and its college with such courses is too expensive, the usual solution being to devise some control system to review new programmes and courses and limit their allocation to one or two centres. Each province has devised its own procedure, although they are all essentially the same. That of Ontario shall be described, followed by brief commentaries on the other two provinces.

Ontario

In September 1968 the director of the Applied Arts and Technology Branch instructed the presidents of the CAATs of the 14 steps necessary for a college wishing to introduce a new course as from September 1970. The first step would have to be taken in January 1969. From the beginning, the review and approval of proposed courses of study of the Ontario colleges were one of the main functions of the Council of Regents. The first reference to this role was in their Minutes of July 20, 1966 and it has continued to be their main responsibility, although no doubt the officials of the Branch have played the role of expert advisor. By February 1968 the format of the application had become regularised and a three-page summary of each proposal identified the new programme by division, length of course and entrance requirement ; aims and objectives, relationship to similar courses in other CAATs and its differences from these courses ; subject courses to be included, by semester, and qualifications of the teachers ; estimated cost of the programme and any additional teachers or equipment required ; employment opportunities for its graduates and numbers of students who might be attracted to it ; and names and positions of the members of the advisory committee who had helped design it.

Some months later the presidents were asked to submit preliminary proposals for new programmes and to obtain a ruling on their acceptability before working out the courses in great detail, because the experience of that spring had revealed many instances "where college staff and advisory committees have duplicated studies already available to the Council of Regents and the Applied Arts and Technology Branch". At the same time a set of "Guidelines for the Development of Curricula" was circulated which are interesting in that they state unequivocally the official position on certain questions which are still in dispute and which, in our impression, were somewhat eroded in the next two years.

The first guideline stated that "programmes of studies should be designed to assist individuals to embark upon or to advance in specific types of careers". This would seem to clarify the question of university transfer programmes, yet widespread conviction still remains that a transfer role is approaching, deplored by most of the CAAT administrators interviewed. Since 1968 a number of general programmes have been developed whose enrolment has so far been severely limited, probably in large part as the result of official disapproval. The Branch also dealt with these programmes as follows :

> The Council of Regents recommends that such program titles as Liberal Arts, General and Applied Arts, General Applied Arts, Sociological Assistant, etc., all be consolidated under the one title - "General Arts and Science".
>
> In accepting the name, General Arts and Science in lieu of several others proposed by the colleges ; and in view of the recent press release from the Committee of University Presidents, the Students and Curriculum Affairs Committee stressed in its recommendation to the Council of Regents that the introduction of such a program should not suggest a more direct route to further education than any other two or three year college course.

The Guidelines, taken together, reveal some dichotomy on this question of general as against vocational education. It is suggested that at least one-third of a total programme should be of a general studies nature, but it might be as much as two-thirds. It is further recommended that the programme be designed to enable a person to find employment in a given occupational field, but "continuing studies" seems also to be included as a permissible immediate post-graduate occupation. One questions whether in one-third of the student's time (particularly for only one or two years) sufficient vocational training will have been received to assist in employment, except in a time of severe labour shortage. In practice, most general arts and science programmes require the student to include some "practical" option, such as drafting or secretarial science or journalism, but the amount of vocational training covered, in comparison with a complete drafting or journalism programme, is quite inadequate. Some colleges tried these programmes and decided to discontinue them in 1970.

The guidelines urge that the year be divided into semesters of approximately 14 weeks and that the programmes be planned in such a manner as to be "feasible", with courses divided into units, and options and core requirements incorporating a variety of class, laboratory, field and private study assignments. In practice, the total number of regulated hours varies from programmes to programmes within a college, and from college to college for a specific programme, with some being much more demanding than others in the time to be spent at the college. The length of the courses is dictated by the requirements of the client industry, the Department of Labour's apprenticeship regulations, and/or the certification requirements of the appropriate craft or professional body. Study and work sequences are interspersed according to the needs of employers so that they are not necessarily optimally arranged from an educational point of view. The study portion may be spread over a few weeks or several years.

In Ontario there has been no attempt to standardise the curriculum of comparable programmes given in the different colleges. Indeed, that seems to run counter to the current educational philosophy which recognises great merit in encouraging innovation and experimentation in the different institutions. However, the resulting variations are considerable, and the student who begins a programme in one college would generally have some "make-up" work to do if he transferred, before completion, to the same type of programme in another college. Without exception, the colleges seemed aware of this great variation in curriculum and even of detailed differences in various programmes.

Ontario's administrators held that the transferring student, inherent in a system of uncontrolled curricula, had been no problem. The incidence of geographical transfer each year, thus far, has been very slight, and they seemed quite prepared to make individual arrangements.

To give some indication of the variance in "weight" (hours of class per week, excluding preparation time) Table 7-1 shows requirements, in each college, for two of the most common programmes. Variations in the number of courses making up a programme may be seen in Table 7.2 which compares two programmes found in almost all CAATs.

Alberta

By contrast, in Alberta the administrators of vocational programmes were unaware of detailed differences between their programmes and comparable ones in the other colleges. The one exception was the field of nursing ; the directors probably have greater knowledge of comparable curricula because all must conform to regulations of the provincial Committee on Nursing Education. Also the administrators of the two institutes of technology, which are considered part of the college system but are directly administered by the Department of Education, coordinate their programmes to minimise duplication. Sometimes duplication is deliberate in order to minimise transfer difficulties.

The course content for the university transfer programmes in Alberta is more standardised because the universities exert real control over what is permitted ; they relate the required and optional courses to their own first-year programmes. In this area, which represents the bulk of their work, the Alberta colleges display little freedom.

Although the programmes, particularly the transfer programmes, seem similar in number of courses, they vary in the amount of attendance required of the student. The semester length is an individual college decision : Lethbridge has a semester of 16 weeks, Mount Royal 15, the others 14. At both NAIT and SAIT the length of a quarter varies from one programme to another. The similarity of the programmes is remarkable, particularly when one remembers that in Alberta there is no general accreditation for transfer work but an individual agreement between a particular college and university. Providing that some general surveillance of standards can be exercised, there would seem to be no reason why these affiliation agreements could not be generalised to a single agreement between the two systems.

Quebec

As in Ontario and Alberta, the CEGEP (1) divided their year into semesters, but the semester is defined for the whole system as 15 weeks of instruction excluding the

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1) Information about the curricula of the CEGEP is contained in a three-volume annual publication of the Ministry of Education entitled Annuaire de l'enseignement collégial. Report I covers the general regulations and programmes ; reports II and III summarise the courses and their reference lists.

Table 7.1

AVERAGE HOURS PER WEEK, FOR SELECTED CAAT PROGRAMMES, BY COLLEGE, 1970-71

CAAT(1)	Programmes	
	Business Administration (Accounting)	Electronics Technology
Algonquin	30	30
Cambrian	25	25
Conestoga	28	28
Confederation	30	30
Durham	30	30
Fanshawe	28	29
Georgian	29	29
Lambton	23	23
Loyalish	30	33
Niagara	24	27
Northern	26	25
St. Clair	25	33
Sheridan	28	30
Sir Sandford Fleming	27	33

Source : 1970/71 calendars.

1) For the six colleges not listed, no data were available.

Table 7.2

NUMBER OF SEMESTER COURSES, IN THE FIRST YEAR OF TWO CAAT PROGRAMMES, BY COLLEGE

CAAT(1)	Business Administration (Accounting)		Electronics Technology	
	Required Courses	Options	Required Courses	Options
Algonquin	13		14	
Cambrian	12		13	
Conestoga	14		16	2
Confederation	14		10	
Durham	16		14	
Fanshawe	12	2	14	2
Georgian	14	2	14	2
Lambton	16		15	
Loyalist	8	2	14	
Niagara	13	1	16	
Northern	13	1	14	
St. Clair	12		11	
St. Lawrence	14		12	
Sheridan	12	2	16	2
Sir Sandford Fleming	16		13	

Source : 1970/71 calendars.

1) For the five colleges not listed, no data were available.

examination periods. In the other two provinces this decision is left to the individual college. In Quebec there is also extensive standardisation of the length of study and hours required (both in the courses which make up programmes and in the course content). Where the programme sequence and actual learning experiences vary because of permitted options, the possibility of transfer is protected by a high level of "system knowledge" and direct administrative control exercised by DIGEC. Only the courses listed in the official publication are offered, and radical deviation from the format is possible only after prior approval by the whole system. Considerable standardisation could hardly be avoided in the general programmes because of the universities' wish for students to have covered prerequisite studies before they enter a particular department or faculty.

DIGEC has defined a subject course as consisting of 45 lessons in the same discipline (usually 3 hours per week), and the normal load in a general programme as six courses per semester plus two hours per week of physical education. The general programmes which require two years of full-time study (i.e. four semesters, since the summer semester is generally reserved for remedial or special courses) include four semester credits in language and literature and four in "philosophy", plus twelve semester credits in a major or "concentration" subject. For the vocational programmes, the major is replaced by a "specialisation" which varies in load depending on the programme. A specialisation is defined as all the courses required for a particular occupational specialty. The general diploma of a CEGEP, therefore, requires completion of 24 courses ; the professional diploma, usually 36. The student's choice of courses in a general programme is seriously constrained by the prerequisites he must take to enter the university programme of his choice. This situation is similar to that of the transfer programme in Alberta.

RANGE OF COURSES

In sheer numbers of course offerings, the new colleges of Quebec are impressive. The 1970-71 publication of the Ministry of Education briefly describes more than 1,450 separate courses to be given in 99 programmes.

The outline or syllabus which all colleges in Quebec are expected to follow for these courses is also published by DIGEC, together with suggested texts. In curriculum terms the CEGEP are intended to be comprehensive institutions. Their general and vocational students take their theoretical work from the same departments, often attending the same classes.

The range of courses offered by the CAATs of Ontario is equally impressive. There is no publication which lists all the courses offered but our estimated total for 1970-71 is 1,800. In Alberta the estimated total is 1,950.

This leads us to question whether the curriculum trend these numbers represent is a wise one. There seems to be a remarkably high level of course specification considering the number of students to be served. One wonders whether courses more broadly defined serving a large number of programmes would not be preferable.

The fragmentation is particularly evident when the number of full-time students and teachers is related to the number of courses offered. Unfortunately it was not possible to obtain all these statistical data for the same years, nor were they based on the same definition of "full-time, post-secondary". Thus the absolute figures and ratios shown in Table 7.3 should not be taken at face value, although the conditions they suggest are real.

Table 7.3

STATISTICS RELATING TO ENROLMENTS, TEACHERS, PROGRAMMES AND COURSES IN SELECTED COLLEGES IN ALBERTA AND ONTARIO

Institution	Full-time Enrolment (1)	Number of Programmes Listed (2)	Number of Courses Listed (3)	Ratio 1:2 (4)	Ratio 1:3 (5)	Total Full-time Teachers (6)	Ratio 1:6 (7)	Ratio 2:6 (8)	Ratio 3:6 (9)
ALBERTA									
Grande Prairie	148	16	108	9:1	1:1	17	9:1	1:1	6:1
Lethbridge	359	19	406	19:1	0.9:1	50	7:1	1:3	8:1
Medicine Hat	237	15	109	16:1	2:1	24	10:1	1:2	4:1
Mount Royal	1,574	35	416	45:1	4:1	97	16:1	1:3	4:1
Red Deer	480	22	217	22:1	2:1	46	10:1	1:2	5:1
ONTARIO									
Algonquin	2,883	58	1,084	50:1	3:1	235	12:1	1:4	5:1
Cambrian	1,800	73	527	25:1	3:1	201	9:1	1:3	3:1
Centennial	1,879	20	579	94:1	3:1	106	18:1		
Conestoga	933	41	1,094	23:1	0.8:1	86	11:1	1:2	13:1
Niagara	1,212	40	744	30:1	2:1	152	8:1	1:4	5:1
Northern	552	38	634	14:1	0.9:1	78	7:1	1:2	8:1
St. Lawrence	1,180	40	588	30:1	2:1	192	6:1	1:5	3:1
Sheridan	1,278	37	766	35:1	2:1	N.A.	-	-	-

Table 7.4

NUMBER OF SEMESTER COURSES BY SUBJECT CATEGORY FOR ALBERTA COLLEGES (1), QUEBEC CEGEP (2), AND SELECTED ONTARIO CAATs (3)

Institution	Applied Arts (1)	Business (2)	Technical (3)	Computer Science, Data Processing (4)	Liberal Arts (5)	Creative Arts (Visual & Performing) (6)	Science & Maths (7)	Education (8)	Physical Education	Total
ALBERTA										
Grande Prairie	6	26	2	1	26	4	33	-	10	108
Lethbridge	44	55	158	11	39	24	64	-	11	406
Medicine Hat	5	24	2	-	40	2	22	2	12	109
Mount Royal	74	55	48	11	108	40	56	3	21	416
Red Deer	19	26	10	1	80	-	60	10	11	217
Total - Alberta	148	186	220 (17.5%)	24	293 (23.3%)	70	235 (18.7%)	15	65	1,256
QUEBEC	46	63	775 (53.6%)	17	302 (20.9%)	35	176 (12.2%)	4	28	1,446
ONTARIO										
Algonquin	77	112	501	32	95	23	235	8	1	1,084
Cambrian	34	69	176	14	47	106	79	2	-	527
Centennial	109	118	166	19	76	-	69	22	-	579
Conestoga	108	106	558	42	120	20	126	14	-	1,094
Niagara	106	105	277	19	66	40	86	45	-	744
Northern	59	105	259	48	34	-	115	10	4	634
St. Lawrence	57	82	239	26	21	32	110	21	-	588
Sheridan	106	156	216	40	22	150	76	-	-	766
Sample Total	656	853 (14.2%)	2,392 (39.8%)	240	481	371	896 (14.9%)	122	5	6,016

1) Compiled from 1970-71 college calendars.

2) Compiled from Enseignement Collégial 1970/71 which lists courses for the entire CEGEP system.

3) Compiled from 1970-71 CAAT calendars. Because of the time involved, only a sample of CAATs were included.

The range of course offering is broadest in Ontario where a spectrum of teaching has been assigned to the CAATs which runs from manpower upgrading and apprenticeship training to general and liberal arts which, in some respects, is similar to the introductory liberal arts work of the universities and which includes many levels of business, technical, artistic, and applied arts study. If the number of courses is taken as an indicator of allocation, it can be seen where the emphasis lies in these systems. Table 7.4 shows the number of semester courses given classified according to subject category. Since there is likely to be double-counting in some institutions, the actual figures are of little value and institutions and categories should be compared only as to proportions.

In the Alberta colleges, the liberal arts courses were the largest category, almost a quarter of the total, followed by the science and mathematics courses. It was somewhat surprising to find that the technical courses ran a close third, representing about 18 per cent of total courses.

Similarly, the number of technical courses in the CEGEP was unexpected. They exceeded one half of the total offering. The liberal arts and science and mathematics courses were less important proportionately than might have been expected.

In Table 7.4 fewer than half of the CAATs were covered, but they are typical of large and small urban and remote institutions so the totals and the general distribution of the courses probably give an accurate picture of the system as a whole. The number of technical courses is impressive (40 per cent), but in absolute terms the numbers of mathematics and science, liberal arts and creative arts are also considerable. These institutions cannot be dismissed as mere trade schools.

LEARNING GROUPS AND TYPE OF LEARNING ACTIVITY

A brief statement on the teaching methods of Humber CAAT, where full-time staff are responsible for in-service teacher training, includes the following :

> The teacher's function must be to organize rather than dictate the learning activity...
>
> Technical resources must include the latest mechanical and electronic devices such as video tapes, filmstrips, overhead projectors, etc.
>
> There must be an appropriate "mix" of individual learning... with group learning...
>
> Wherever manual skills need to be developed, appropriate lab facilities must be provided.
>
> Field work or alternate in-college and on-the-job experience (work-study programs) must be encouraged in as many areas as possible.

In Ontario the Council of Regents gives no specific directives about the size of the learning group. Although work/study issues are concerned with the sequencing of learning experiences rather than the size of the learning group, adoption of a work/study type of curriculum is, in reality, a decision to limit the enrolment in a course to the number of students who can be placed in suitable work settings for the practical experience portion of their training and who can be properly supervised and evaluated by college teachers during this time. Work/study courses in the full-time post-secondary programmes, defined as those in which the students spend at least 25 per cent, and frequently up to 50 per cent, of their total time in the field are relatively new and rare in Ontario. They exist mainly for the applied arts programmes such as nursing, early childhood education and journalism. There are many more programmes where several weeks of field experience have been integrated into the study each term. Lack of staff for the supervisory and placement role, and lack of local work facilities were the reasons given for not extending such arrangements to all programmes. Nowhere was disapproval encountered of the work/study formula, but there was scepticism as to whether experience in Ontario proved their value. On the other hand, in all colleges, students are expected to obtain summer employment related to their studies, and many colleges help them to obtain appropriate jobs.

In Alberta the only real work/study courses, apart from apprenticeship programmes seemed to be those for nurses and medical laboratory technicians, arranged by the hospitals and given in the institutes of technology. For the latter group, the students are already employed by the hospitals and are sent out for periodic study. In Quebec the CEGEP also have work/study programmes in nursing and for medical and laboratory technicians.

The "standard class" in all institutions of all systems seems to be from 20 to 35 students. However, particularly the second year, third year, and option courses given in the programmes of small colleges often have fewer students and prove to be too costly, and in all systems there is pressure to eliminate them by reducing the range of programmes.

Small-group seminar discussion is becoming common, even in the most conservative technical curricula. The humanities and social sciences courses, in particular, make use of tutorials and seminars. Large-group instruction is much less pervasive, partly because staff do not have experience in lecturing to hundreds of students.

ADMISSIONS

In all three systems the general admission requirements are quite restrictive. The CEGEP admit students who have a Quebec high school diploma indicating successful completion of the 11th grade of secondary school (or equivalent study in schools on a list approved by the Ministry) and the provincial matriculation examinations. They also have specific subject prerequisites for most programmes. Only "mature" students can be exempted from these formal requirements and they make up between one and two per cent of the full-time day students.

The general admission requirements of the CAATs are equally specific but less selective since they admit the secondary school graduate stream which lacks the standard admission for university, and there has been a noticeably more generous interpretation of their regulations since 1970. They now pay small attention to the distinction between the Grade 12 graduate of a five-year Ontario high school programme and the Grade 12 graduate of a four-year programme, and specific subject prerequisites are not regarded as so important as the general assessment of the students motivation and competence. More generous use is now being made of the "mature student" regulations : they form about ten per cent of the full-time student body. In Alberta, both SAIT and NAIT give adult students (over 21) special consideration, but they do not waive the specific subject prerequisites ; and each college defines a "mature" student status, but its use has not yet become a device for opening the door. Except for their remedial, "high school" or "combination" courses, mature students are less than five per cent of their enrolment. In NAIT and SAIT mature students equal about five per cent.

Guidance

The CEGEP budget for students services is fixed according to a per capita enrolment formula laid down each year by the DIGEC officials, but the portion allocated to guidance, as distinct from other services, is decided by the college. There is a great shortage of trained guidance personnel in Quebec, and the service is considered to be quite inadequate for testing the preparation, interest and motivation of all incoming students. This is attempted only for mature students or those whose qualification is irregular. For most new students choice of programme and course options is made during registration in September with all the teachers and administrative staff providing advice and information and assisting with registration forms. In some of the small colleges there is a two-tiered admissions process - the formal one through the admissions officer and the decisive one through the teachers of the programmes, and all students are interviewed before acceptance. This is not possible in the large institutions.

In neither Alberta nor Ontario are there guidelines as to the acceptable ratio of numbers of counsellors to numbers of students. In spite of a great deal of "lip service" paid to the importance of counselling it is clear that such service is expendable compared with other activities that require funds.

EVALUATION OF INNOVATIVE EFFORTS

Quebec

On the whole the curricula of the CEGEP have not been innovative. With one or two notable exceptions, they are academically elitist and dominated by the heritage of the classical colleges. This process is rigid, and their courses have a uniformity which is probably unique in North America for institutions of this level. Yet there are forces of change at work. The very centralisation of the system can serve to swing all institutions in a new direction, by coercion if necessary. Curricula are designed by committees of teachers and program chairmen actually involved in teaching the subjects. Only a few forceful, dynamic and imaginative members would be needed to influence the whole committee. With the DIGEC personnel change in the 1969-70 academic year a central authority was created more likely to accept radical change and more aware of the conditions which are a necessary adjunct to successful change.

The strength of authoritarian tradition among Quebec's French-language educators must not be underestimated. There is a strong classical college contingent, and administrators face the officials of DIGEC in concert. However, as long as the innovative teacher shows a concern for quality standards, stays within the cost guidelines, and doesn't challenge any vested interests, he is permitted to try out his idea. And the system's communications are so excellent that the experience of one college will become widely known very rapidly. For the general programmes, the Quebec universities act as a control in much the same manner as the Alberta universities, but the situation of the CEGEP is doubly unfortunate : there are two sets of universities, English and French, with conflicting expectations and prerequisites demanded by almost every institution ; and both university systems are conservative by North American standards. The officials of DIGEC will have to steer their system very tactfully if they are to induce real curriculum change, and they will have to wage a battle on its behalf with the universities. They have at least three "weapons" at their disposal if they care to use them : (1) money - incentive grants for new programmes, withdrawal of funds from recalcitrant institutions; (2) professional development - required retraining of old teachers through study and travel ; (3) research - which will provide for the objective evaluation of both the traditional and the new, for the development of better tests and assessment instruments, for the comparative study of the educational climate of the different institutions and of the gap between their goals and reality.

Ontario

In their first three years the CAATs had a decidedly conservative look, not merely in the range of course titles but also, so far as could be judged from descriptions of their curricula, in their teaching content and methods. In spite of the claims made by spokesmen of the colleges, they cannot be said to have been innovative teaching/learning settings. Their academic courses have stood closer in "teaching method" to the senior high school than to the university, and their technical and business subjects close to the traditional institutes. From the outset there has been an informality - almost a tone of cameraderie - between instructor and student which proclaims the adult institution.

The "schoolroom" atmosphere in courses of the technical and business divisions has been conservative, but not related to the normal "academic" image. The teaching method has been that of the master and his neophytes, with theory accepted not because of any intrinsic fascination with ideas but because of the necessity to know why as well as how. For all their familarity with machines, the teachers themselves scarcely use technology in their work. The business curricula seem to be hybrids, borrowing something from the in-service management training tradition of large corporations and from the work/study tradition of such fields as accounting, and then adding portions of the theoretical study which characterises the university teaching of business administration.

During their first three years, the bulk of the programmes established were technology, business and what might be called academic service courses. The new applied arts programmes could be easily predicted - early childhood education, recreation leadership, teaching assistant, social work assistant, etc. As the colleges were established, one after another followed this route. These applied arts courses had no obvious model to follow, but theoretically sophisticated versions of some did exist, e.g. university degree courses in nursing and diploma courses in early childhood education at the University of Toronto's Institute of Child Study.

Originally there was very little educational innovation in the CAAT system. Although quite clearly the intentions were to innovate, they had not been realised by June 1969. In the effort to establish the system, courses and programmes, methods and philosophy had all been borrowed. During the academic year 1969-70, however, a thorough review of process and of curricula structures was begun. We suggest that real innovation will be no less painful for the CAATs than for the traditional academic sectors such as the high school and the university. It is true that they have recruited a different "teacher", one without the vested interests tied to the traditional teacher roles and status ; but these teachers, drawn from the industrial and business world, have made as yet no imaginative contribution to teaching techniques and programmes. It is true that the CAATs are serving a "new" student, one drawn from economic and social strata who formerly did not study at the post-secondary level ; but these new students, as yet, have not departed from the student/apprentice role.

There are the seeds of innovation here. What seems to be needed are two catalytic agents : (1) pressure of funds which will require the colleges to rationalise their activities and look at them critically in order to do the largest amount of work for the funds available ; and (2) outside research personnel trained to observe the process, make suggestions, identify potentially useful new practices, and evaluate experiments. The first condition looms ahead, the second is not yet apparent.

Alberta

In Alberta it is particularly difficult to speak about the curricula of the college system because, in fact, there is no system in an educational sense. Each institution has been free to adopt programmes at will. Only since June 1969 has the control procedure for new programmes been formalised, and controls have so far been more illusory than real. Nonetheless, the external constraints exerted by other systems have produced remarkable uniformity. Because the courses of the five public colleges have been mainly university transfer, the classes are in the general liberal arts tradition ; but because they are small colleges which were established under the auspices of local school boards, their process is indistinguishable from good high school teaching. Alberta follows firmly the North American tradition of the comprehensive high school which takes responsibility for teaching all the youth of the community : there has long been a commitment to "teaching the student rather than the subject". Viewed as a transition into university work for all but the academic elite, there is much to be said for the process of painstaking teaching and individual attention which characterises the junior college, but it can hardly be said to be an innovation.

Similarly, the two technological institutes, though they have individual programmes which are imaginative, follow firmly the technical teaching tradition of North America.

The chief criticism which might be levelled of the institutions of all three systems is not merely that they show little radical innovation in the teaching process but that they are all extremely expensive. Nowhere are self/study and man/machine processes being attempted which eventually could be offered for a fraction of the cost. Therefore while such colleges are feasible for an affluent society, they offer little which might be of assistance to countries with more restricted financial resources.

Chapter 8

FEES, SALARIES AND FINANCES

All three provincial college systems represent an expansion of their education system at the post-secondary level, undertaken to provide opportunity for advanced studies heretofore not possible for a broad segment of their population. In all systems, therefore, it was considered important that the direct cost to the student be minimal.

FEES

Quebec

The CEGEP of Quebec serve a dual function ; they provide the post-secondary courses which lead to university (and which replace the former private sector of the classical colleges) as well as the vocational courses which lead directly to employment. Full-time day students pay no fees ; the colleges are entirely financed from provincial funds (which incorporate federal grants paid to the provincial government). Courses provided for part-time evening students are expected to be financially self-supporting, so fees are charged. This is also the policy regarding extension or continuing education programmes of the CAATs and the Alberta colleges. The Quebec definition of a full-time student, however, is one who takes four courses credited toward one of the diplomas of the CEGEP. Since there is widespread feeling that it is unjust to subsidize youth for full-time study at the expense of the part-time student, who is frequently an older person with family responsibilities, evening students are often counselled to register for four courses and thus become technically "full-time" (although a full-time day programme is six or more courses). The colleges have a regulation which permits a full-time student to "fail" two courses without being suspended from the programme. Therefore, with the tacit consent of the authorities, the part-time student each year attends two courses (considered a reasonable load) and fails two courses through non-attendance, and thus avoids paying fees. The fees income of a CEGEP is, therefore, only a small portion of its revenue.

When judging the generous policy which has made CEGEP attendance "free" like that of the elementary and secondary school sectors, two factors should be kept in mind. First, in no province has the loss of earnings of post-secondary students been advanced as a strong argument in favour of subsidising them generously (1). Therefore there has been little study of the real "cost" to the student of prolonged post-secondary full-time study ; wide publicity of the opportunity costs and the estimated return to the student on his investment would, however, remove the whole issue from the political realm. Secondly, when the CEGEP student in the general course completes his programme,

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1) However, in Quebec there is widespread acceptance of the notion of free study whereas in Ontario and Alberta, there is little support for the position of free study beyond secondary school based on the conviction that people do not value what they get for nothing.

he will have been provided with thirteen years of education at public expense ; the occupational student will probably have completed his fourteenth year.

Ontario

For their university students, Ontario and Quebec seem to have adopted comparable policies (i.e. "free" education for the thirteen years prior to admission). However, the student entering a CAAT will have completed only twelve years of "free" education if he is registered for a post-secondary programme and has the common admission qualification. The CAATs offer no free courses ; therefore, in an argument based on comparative treatment, the injustice in Ontario stems from providing a free Grade 13 in secondary schools, while charging fees for the thirteenth year of full-time study when taken in a CAAT.

The CAATs on Ontario provide more varied service than the other college systems and have a greater range of fees. Whether full-time day study, part-time study with credit toward diplomas, or part-time study for interest and self improvement alone, all courses carry fees. A recommended fees schedule, which was not mandatory but regarded as standard, was set down by the Council of Regents as early as 1966. Table 8.1 shows the 1970-71 suggested fee schedule and the full-time and part-time fees charged for this year at two large institutions.

Table 8.1

1970-71 SUGGESTED AND ACTUAL CAAT FEES

	Full-Time Fee Per Semester	Part-Time Fee Per Semester Credit	Retraining Programmes Per Week
Council of Regents' Schedule	$ 75.00		
Algonquin CAAT	75.00	$ 5.00	
Seneca CAAT	92.50		$ 3.00

Fees of students in the Manpower Retraining Programs are paid by the federal government if the person has been directed to the programme by the unemployed placement service of the Department of Labour. In such cases students are also eligible for subsistence allowances for themselves and their families while they study full-time. Most of these courses last less than a year. There are also courses given in the extension or continuing education departments, mounted at the request of a local industry or profession, where the employer pays the fee. Other students' fees in full-time, post-secondary certificate and diploma programmes may be paid by municipal or provincial welfare departments or some comparable agency.

Alberta

The majority of the students are admitted both to college and to university after completing their twelfth year of "free" education and all pay fees, although the costs of attending college are much less than those of attending a university. Until recently, most college students were registered in university parallel programmes, or remedial courses of various types which would enable them to enter such programmes, so the parity of treatment with university students was not questioned. The two provincial institutes of technology and the agricultural colleges offer a variety of post-secondary courses which are not designed primarily for transfer to university, and they admit some students

Table 8.2

SEMESTER FEES BY COLLEGE AND COURSE IN ALBERTA, 1970-71

Institution	University Transfer	Full-Time Courses			Nursing	Agriculture	Others	University Transfer	Part-Time Courses		All types
		Business	Applied Arts	Technical-Vocational					Business	Applied Arts	
Grande Prairie	$ 100	$ 75	$ 75	$ -	$ -	$ -	$ -	$ 35	$ 25/20(2)	$ 20	
Lethbridge	-	40	40	30	40	30	-				$ 10
Medicine Hat	80	80	80	-	80	80	-				28
Mount Royal	160	160	160	160	160	-	-				16 per credit
Red Deer	75	75	75	-	75	-	-				45
NAIT							37/29(1)				13
SAIT							40/25(1)				13

1) NAIT and SAIT fees are semester fees : the first for programmes of more than 900 hours annually : the second for those of more than 400 hours annually.

2) $25 for business administration, $20 for secretarial courses.

after Grades 10 or 11, although in 1967-68 approximately 90 per cent of the new students at the institutes had completed their twelfth year of education (2). All educational institutions, except the regular public schools, charge fees which vary from course to course and institution to institution ; there is no central control of college or university fees.

Even when the Alberta colleges were designated junior colleges and were largely feeder institutions for the universities, they played an important role in providing academic high school courses, particularly for students of rural areas where the small high school was considered inadequate. They also served as remedial colleges for students who wished to attend university but whose secondary school work had been inadequate. Fees are charged for these high school programmes even though identical courses are "free" in the regular high schools and, legally, any student under 21 years of age may re-enter high school. Both the Alberta colleges and the CAATs have some complaint that they are required to charge real cost fees (3) for evening students in general interest and cultural courses, while the evening study divisions of the local school system offer comparable courses for nominal fees. The Alberta Colleges Commission and the Ontario Council of Regents discourage such duplication, but it is extremely difficult to eliminate since the school systems, particularly of big cities, have a long tradition of subsidising large evening study programmes.

In Alberta, before the 1969 Act, the fees of public junior colleges had been low because they were subsidised from local educational funds. Private institutions were also able to keep their fees well below cost because they were denominational institutions receiving some income from their sponsoring organisations, and after 1964 most of them were eligible for provincial grants. Now colleges, like universities and institutes, receive the major part of their income from the provincial government ; some of this expenditure is recovered by federal grants to the province for vocational and technical training. All students, except those in manpower retraining programmes, pay fees. College fees for transfer programmes are still substantially lower than fees for comparable university study. Since the province pays each college approved costs after deduction of income from fees, and students are free to attend any college, there is some pressure for uniformity. Table 8.2 shows the semester fees charged in 1970-71. The goal of the Alberta Colleges Commission is, eventually, to have the same fee for similar courses or programmes throughout all institutions in the province, but this will be achieved through negotiation rather than by regulation.

There are a number of general details concerning fees which are of interest and which ought to be mentioned briefly.

First, in none of the systems is there a differential fee according to citizenship or nationality although there is some difference according to residence. The CEGEP, for example, charge fees for students resident outside the province, but not for landed immigrants or foreign nationals who have been residents of Quebec for more than one year. The same fee, or exemption from fee, exists whether the student is attending the college of his locality or one in some other region of the province. CAAT fees are identical for all students of the course, whether they come from the college region or elsewhere and whatever the student's nationality, citizenship or legal residence. In Alberta this is

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2) Although they were not necessarily secondary school graduates.

3) Generally the fees are such that they pay the estimated cost of the instructors and materials, and contribute to overhead and administrative costs.

also the situation at present. Until June 1969, however, the colleges had two fee schedules, the lesser being for students coming from the regions of the contributing Boards of Education.

Secondly, in no system is the income from fees a major source of operating revenue. Table 8.3 shows the percentage of annual operating income provided by fees for each Ontario CAAT in 1969-70. It is evident that there has been no attempt to relieve the public purse by passing on directly to the student more than a modest share of the cost involved. In fact, fees have been diminishing in importance as a source of revenue.

Thirdly, in the systems where full-time students pay fees, students are eligible for student grants and loans on the same basis as university students ; therefore, study is "free" for a portion of their student body. For example, there were 8,580 CAAT students in 1969-70 who received Province of Ontario Student Aid loans (averaging $491 per student) and almost 8,300 students who received grants (averaging $374 per student).

Table 8.3

TOTAL POST-SECONDARY STUDENT FEES AS RELATED TO TOTAL OPERATING EXPENSES IN ONTARIO CAATs, 1969-70

CAAT	Total Post-Secondary Student Fees (1)	Total Operating Expenses	Fees as a percentage of Expenses
Algonquin	$ 639,178	$ 5,833,466	10.96
Cambrian	336,800	3,971,300	8.33
Centennial	414,100	3,318,465	12.48
Conestoga	260,900	2,449,354	10.65
Confederation	129,130	1,866,570	6.92
Durham	115,000	1,410,900	8.15
Fanshawe	320,200	2,815,969	11.37
George Brown	180,000	2,367,480	7.60
Georgian	101,600	1,052,850	9.65
Humber	409,100	2,911,650	14.05
Lambton	157,000	1,720,300	9.13
Loyalist	95,500	1,272,350	7.51
Mohawk	476,200	3,763,940	12.65
Niagara	315,000	2,709,800	11.62
Northern	107,700	1,942,567	5.54
Seneca	507,875	4,466,175	11.37
Sheridan	304,500	3,224,115	9.44
Sir S. Fleming	150,301	1,557,496	9.65
St. Clair	316,500	2,676,430	11.82
St. Lawrence	180,000	2,485,500	7.24
Total	$ 5,516,584	$ 53,816,657	10.25

1) Includes both full-time and extension fees.

In Alberta the initial award is a $200 loan to single students, $700 to married students, the remaining balance necessary being calculated on the basis of one-half grant, one-half loan up to a maximum grant of $800. In Quebec, under a comparable scheme, the CEGEP student is eligible for grants and loans to cover residence, transportation and other living costs.

Table 8.4

CEGEP SALARY SCALES FOR TEACHERS, 1967-68 AND 1968-69

Years of Experience	Years of Schooling									
	11 or Less	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20(1)
1	3,700	4,120	4,545	4,995	5,500	6,055	6,645	7,310	8,030	8,850
2	3,885	4,350	4,735	5,195	5,715	6,290	6,910	7,605	8,355	9,185
3	4,070	4,490	4,925	5,395	5,930	6,525	7,175	7,900	8,860	9,520
4	4,280	4,700	5,140	5,620	6,170	6,785	7,465	8,220	9,030	9,880
5	4,490	4,910	5,355	5,845	6,410	7,045	7,755	8,540	9,380	10,240
6	4,700	5,120	5,570	6,070	6,650	7,305	8,045	8,860	9,730	10,600
7	4,935	5,355	5,810	6,320	6,915	7,590	8,360	9,205	10,105	10,985
8	5,170	5,590	6,050	6,570	7,180	7,875	8,675	9,550	10,480	11,370
9	5,405	5,825	6,290	6,820	7,445	8,160	8,990	9,895	10,855	11,755
10	5,640	6,060	6,530	7,070	7,710	8,445	9,305	10,240	11,230	12,140
11	5,900	6,320	6,795	7,345	8,000	8,755	9,645	10,610	11,630	12,550
12	6,160	6,580	7,060	7,620	8,290	9,065	9,985	10,980	12,030	12,960
13	6,420	6,840	7,325	7,895	8,580	9,375	10,325	11,350	12,430	13,370
14	6,680	7,100	7,590	8,170	8,870	9,685	10,665	11,720	12,830	13,780
15	6,940	7,360	7,855	8,445	9,160	9,995	11,005	12,090	13,230	14,190
Standard Increments	2 x 185	2 x 185	2 x 190	2 x 200	2 x 215	2 x 235	2 x 265	2 x 295	2 x 325	2 x 335
	3 x 210	3 x 210	3 x 215	3 x 225	3 x 240	3 x 260	3 x 290	3 x 320	3 x 350	3 x 360
	4 x 235	4 x 235	4 x 240	4 x 250	4 x 265	4 x 285	4 x 315	4 x 345	4 x 375	4 x 385
	5 x 260	5 x 260	5 x 265	5 x 275	5 x 290	5 x 310	5 x 340	5 x 370	5 x 400	5 x 410

1) This is equivalent to the doctoral level.

Fourthly, there has been some criticism in Quebec that the government, in extending free education to the general students of the CEGEP regardless of income, has, in effect, provided a large subsidy to a very select elite who formerly patronized a private system, the classical colleges.

SALARIES

In an educational institution, a very large proportion of the operating cost per unit of output (taking the output unit as an hour of teaching received) is represented by salaries : administrative, teaching and supporting staff. In all systems the instructors' salaries are closely linked to a combination of paper qualifications and accepted experience. The scales are by category, with a stated minimum and maximum and an annual increment.

Quebec

In the CEGEP, administrators' and teachers' salaries, like other aspects of the system, show great standardisation and uniformity. The teachers salary grid is based entirely on number of years of full-time schooling and years of experience, as may be seen in Table 8.4. Table 8.5 shows part of the CEGEP administrative scales for 1969-70. The authorised number of administrators in a college is determined according to range of course offerings and expected number of students and related budget items are expressed in terms of per capita student to be served.

Ontario

Although the Council of Regents early suggested minimum and maximum salary for administrative positions and defined scales for teachers based on a combination of university degrees, professional qualifications, and numbers of years of approved experience, their "standards" do not seem to be as binding as those of Quebec. Tables 8.6 and 8.7

Table 8.5
CEGEP ADMINISTRATIVE SALARIES, 1969-70
Ministry List

Title	Salary Scale	Minimum Salary Rank
Le directeur général	16,000-19,000	16,000
Le directeur des services pédagogiques	14,000-17,000	14,000
Le secrétaire général	11,000-14,000	11,000
Le contrôleur	11,000-14,000	11,000
Le directeur des services aux étudiants	11,000-14,000	11,000
Le directeur des services de l'équipement	11,000-14,000	11,000
Le directeur de l'informatique	11,000-14,000	11,000
Les directeurs de secteur	10,000-14,000	10,000
		10,000
Les adjoints au directeur des services pédagogiques	10,000-14,000	10,000
Les coordinateurs (d'éducation permanente, etc.)	10,000-14,000	10,000
		10,000
		10,000
Les directeurs de services (psychologie, etc.) dans les services étudiants	9,000-14,000	9,000

Table 8.6
SALARY SCHEDULE FOR CAAT INSTRUCTORS, 1969-70

Rank	Maximum Starting Salary (1)	Maximum of Salary Scale
Affiliate Master	$9,000	$10,800
Assistant Master	$11,000	$11,600
Associate Master	$11,600	$13,000
Master	$12,100	$14,000
Senior College Master	n.a.	Up to four increments of $500 over the above maxima
Master's Degree	Up to $800 over the above maxima.	
Doctorate	Up to $1,200 over the above maxima.	
Northern Allowance	Cambrian, Northern & Confederation Colleges may increase the above maxima by $600.	

1) To be entitled to maximum starting salary, an applicant must have at least eight years of acceptable teaching and/or business or industrial experience in addition to that required under Section 2 - Minimum Qualifications.

Salaries of members of the teaching faculty are reviewed annually. The basic merit increment is $400 which, at the discretion of the Board of Governors, may be increased for outstanding service or decreased.

Table 8.7
SALARY SCHEDULE FOR CAAT ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL, 1969-70

Title	Maximum	Minimum
President	$ 27,400	$ 19,000
Vice-President	23,000	16,800
Dean	21,900	15,800
Chairman of a Department	19,800	13,700
Assistant Chairman	16,400	11,600
Supervisor	(Up to $500 Additional Salary)	
Bursar	16,400	11,600
Registrar	16,400	11,600
Assistant to the President	12,100	8,400
Comptroller	19,800	15,800
Director of Student Affairs	19,800	15,800
Director of the Extension Department	18,800	15,000

give the standard instructor and administrator salary scales for Ontario as recommended by the Council of Regents for 1969-70. There is some evidence of a move in Ontario to standardise the classification of administrators along the lines similar to that of Quebec, where a college of a given size and type is entitled to administrators x, y and z, at given levels of salary, and to codify all administrative positions in colleges according to type and range of responsibility and size of college so that "equivalence" may be established between titles and an accepted hierarchy be made clear. With budget control and a provincial agreement on salary scales, it would then be a short step to ensure that a given college has only a given number of administrators uniformily paid and defined by function. How rapidly such a standardisation is likely to be implemented in Ontario cannot be predicted. At present the actual salaries of college presidents are not reported to the Council of Regents or the Branch.

In Ontario, it is possible to a limited extent to reward CAAT teachers for experience and occupational status prior to employment, but generally there is financial advantage in having higher degrees and the economic penalty for lacking any degree endures throughout employment. The initial salaries of administrators are more subject to negotiation, and their annual increment more a matter of "merit reward" than is the case for teachers.

Alberta

It was not possible to obtain salary data for the entire college system, given the local autonomy which exists in Alberta, but the administrators interviewed claimed that there were differences among colleges of several thousand dollars per year paid to persons of identical qualification and experience for the same instructor rank or administrative office. Salaries are entirely determined locally in negotiations between hiring administrators and job candidates, and hiring Boards and their professional personnel.

FINANCES

The cost of programmes in these systems and the operating and capital expenditures of the different colleges are complicated matters. First, as is not uncommon in educational institutions, the cost accounting systems of these colleges are far from ideal. Unit cost figures are not readily available, and those which can be obtained sometimes do not include items which are part of the general costs. Cost comparisons between the systems are almost meaningless because, although some of the programmes bear similar titles, the details of course content, teaching methods and resources are very different. There might be some validity in comparing unit costs of courses within a single college ; at least one could be certain that the same items were included. Comparison of the per student course costs among the colleges of a system is equally meaningless because of the lack of homogeneity of students, teachers and curricula. Despite these shortcomings which should always be borne in mind, a number of Ontario data are presented and comparisons made with Quebec and Alberta where data permit.

As the reader will recall, the twenty CAATs of Ontario were established in rapid sequence, often using makeshift accommodation, with little time for planning their programmes and assembling their administrative and teaching staff before they opened their door to students.

Very early in their development the colleges proliferated satellite and branch campuses as they tried to serve the various centres of their regions. By 1969-70, these 20 colleges were operating numerous centres, branches and programmes away from their main campus.

It is hardly surprising, therefore, that the detailed financial data of the early years are confused. Colleges developed ad hoc. There was no cost accounting system common to all institutions, nor were they incurring the same type of expense. The colleges were at various stages of evolution. Their first operating estimates by their Boards were forwarded to the Council of Regents and then to the Branch for review and approval.

Since the officials of the Branch had to approve annual expenditure and to review budget estimates, and since they requested financial data in a specified form, they soon became a standardising force ; by 1969 the colleges had adopted common cost accounting systems and were looking forward (with some apprehension) to a funding formula, similar to that used for the university system, which would be based on weighted enrolment and a series of factors such as size and age of college and range of programmes. A great deal of specific data are now available for each college which will permit elaborate analysis of expenditure patterns. The circulation of comparative information about the colleges will create pressure to bring all their expenditures to some common norm or explain why this is not desirable. The next stage in financial control would then be the definition of the degree of acceptable cost variation under specified conditions.

One problem not yet faced, either by the Alberta Commission or the Ontario Branch, is the degree of deficit budgeting which will be permitted and the sanctions employed against it. In Quebec it seems that deficits are simply not allowed. In the two English-language provinces the colleges submit their estimated budgets over a year ahead of time ; when there is over-spending, additional revenue is provided. In Ontario there seems not to have been a flagrant case of over-spending, but it was felt that the Minister would not allow a college to fail to pay its salaries. At least one case of a large annual deficit in Alberta was met by a supplementary grant, which did not seem to be causing undue concern at the college level. Indeed in some Alberta colleges a deficit is regarded as "inevitable", and no real controls seemed to be envisaged. In Ontario, on the other hand, it is commonly expected that financial controls will shortly become more stringent than was feasible during the establishment period.

There is no way, of course, by which programmes costs can be entirely standardised within a college so far as teaching, facilities and equipment are concerned. Some programmes are expensive by their very nature, and most of the additional costs are not passed on to students. Nor does there seem to be any move to set fees at a given proportion of estimated unit cost of the programme, which would have the effect of raising some fees considerably. Both in Alberta and in Ontario, there seems to be complete acceptance of a policy which provides a different level of subsidy for students of different courses in the same college, and a different level of subsidy for students of the same type of programme in different colleges. This is also true of Quebec, but their costs are discussed separately.

The findings of a recent study (4) suggest that there are substantial operating economies of scale enjoyed by the large CAATs ; that these economies of scale are particularly great for their administrative expenses ; and that a constant-grant formula, such as is frequently employed in funding educational institutions, will probably be inefficient and is likely to be inequitable to the small institution.

Table 8.8 gives the 1969-70 approved operating budgets for the different colleges and their estimated costs per student ; the provincial funds necessary for the post-secondary programmes ; and the grants to each college per student.

The approved estimated operating cost per full-time CAAT student for 1969-70 was $1,728 ; the average provincial grant per student required to cover the operating costs was estimated at $1,313. The estimated operating cost per university student (5)

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4) Skolnik, M.L., Economies of Scale in Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology, Department of Educational Planning, Occasional Paper No. 13, O.I.S.E., March 1970.

5) These are "full-time equivalent" students (i.e. full-time + part-time, at a rate of 3.5 part-time = 1 full-time undergraduate and 2 part-time = 1 full-time graduate student).

Table 8.8

1969-70 CAAT OPERATING BUDGETS

CAAT[1]	Total Administrative, Academic, and Rent Expense	Estimated Cost per Full-Time Student	Estimated Cost per Student (Full-Time + Part-Time)	Provincial Grant Funds Required for Post-Secondary Programmes	Grand Cost per Full-Time Student	Grand Cost per Student (Full-Time + Part-Time)
A	$ 5,833,446	$ 1,832.41	$ 1,368.97	$ 5,194,268	$ 1,631.63	$ 1,218.97
B	3,971,300	2,084.31	1,768.69	3,634,500	1,907.54	1,618.69
C	3,318,465	1,453.34	1,202.05	2,904,365	1,271.97	1,052.05
D	2,449,354	1,875.46	1,408.22	2,188,454	1,675.69	1,258.22
E	1,866,570	2,556.94	2,168.24	1,737,440	2,380.05	2,018.24
F	1,410,900	2,074.85	1,840.30	1,295,900	1,905.74	1,690.30
G	2,815,969	1,877.31	1,319.17	2,495,769	1,663.85	1,169.16
H	2,367,480	2,367.48	1,972.90	2,187,480	2,187.48	1,822.90
I	1,052,350	2,105.70	1,554.41	951,250	1,902.50	1,404.41
J	2,911,650	1,617.58	1,067.58	2,502,550	1,390.31	917.58
K	1,720,300	2,422.96	1,643.59	1,563,300	2,201.83	1,493.59
L	1,272,350	2,544.70	1,998.45	1,176,850	2,353.70	1,848.45
M	3,763,940	1,680.33	1,185.62	3,287,740	1,467.74	1,035.62
N	2,709,800	1,806.53	1,290.38	2,394,800	1,596.53	1,140.38
O	1,942,567	2,705.53	2,705.53	1,834,867	2,555.53	2,555.53
P	4,466,175	1,909.30	1,319.08	3,958,300	1,692.18	1,169.08
Q	3,224,115	2,151.81	1,588.23	2,919,615	1,948.58	1,438.23
R	1,557,496	1,901.94	1,554.37	1,407,195	1,718.40	1,404.37
S	2,676,430	1,672.77	1,268.45	2,359,930	1,474.96	1,118.45
T	2,485,500	2,193.09	2,071.25	2,305,500	2,034.27	1,921.25
Total	$ 53,816,657			$ 48,300,073		
Average		$ 1,925.75	$ 1,463.31		$ 1,728.34	$ 1,313.31

1) The names of the CAATs have been replaced by a letter code assigned by the author.

Table 8.9

TOTAL COSTS PER COLLEGE, CEGEP, 1968-69

College	Total Building Costs (in thousand)	Operating Expenses	
		Total (in thousand)	Cost per Pupil
A	$ 166	$ 839	$ 1,443
B	1,108	2,200	1,217
C	906	2,612	1,411
D	751	2,186	1,286
E	512	2,477	1,239
F	1,376	2,015	1,277
G	396	1,436	1,196
H	415	2,663	1,210
I	516	2,510	1,299
J	523	3,684	1,153
K	126	1,232	1,120
L	1,525	2,008	1,271
M	282	906	1,372
N	998	2,031	1,269
O	2,535	1,913	1,196
P		925	1,322
Q	87	990	1,042
R	40	899	1,123
S	500	1,700	1,306
T	490	1,003	1,778
U	494	7,615	1,194
V	323	1,367	1,519
W	278	1,213	1,277

(excluding cost of assistant research) for Canada as a whole was $2774, or about 62 per cent higher than for the CAAT student. If the research costs are included, the cost per student becomes $3210. For Ontario, the total operating cost per university student in 1969-70 was $2954, and the provincial grant per student was $2329.

In 1969-70 the Alberta provincial government's grants for university operating costs totalled $67,832,000. For 32,050 students this would give a unit grant of $2116. In that year the estimated total of grants for public and private junior colleges was $5,852,000 and for technical institutes $14,706,500. With a full-time enrolment of 3,325 and 5,028 this gives a unit grant of $1760 and $2925.

It should be emphasised that cost comparisons between sectors and provinces are very tricky. For example, in these figures, there are probably differences in the definitions of full-time students, the "equivalence" formulae of the part-time students, and the definitions of operating, as distinct from capital, expenditure. It is evident, nevertheless, that in each province the university offers a much more expensive service than the "college transfer", and that technical and business programmes are not cheap to operate. The question is whether the Alberta junior college figure ought to be grouped with the universities (in which case the university provincial grant figure becomes $2083), but if this is done the comparison of the Alberta technical institutes and the Ontario CAATs is misleading because the range of programmes of the latter is much greater.

When the first CEGEP were set up in Quebec, since they were built on existing institutions DIGEC was able to forecast operating expenditure patterns by studying their past budgets. For 1968-69 the Ministry has provided aggregated operating costs by college which are given in Table 8.9. Since the CEGEP budgeting system rests on very specific cost guidelines relating to pupil/teacher ratios, permitted costs of services, salaries, facilities and equipment, the variation seems largely to be a function of college size. However, the data are such that a proper cost analysis cannot be made.

CONCLUSION

The impression we have tried to convey is that recent developments in the post-secondary educational sector in Quebec, Ontario and Alberta represent an effort at expansion and rationalisation. Where before there had been such an agglomeration of types of institutions, public and private, as to defy description, now there is a system. Where before a few thousand students were being educated, now there are tens of thousands. But it is still difficult to define the systems with great precision because the statistics are both incomplete and unnecessarily complicated. Within the Alberta and Ontario systems there is such a variety of nomenclature that it is difficult to compare one institution with another. From Quebec, detailed statistics are simply not available. From one provincial system to another there are such differences by category that meaningful comparison is impossible.

The strongest criticism to be made of these systems, therefore, is that statistical records are of such poor quality that it is difficult to see how administrators can make rational educational policy decisions. Also, the relevant legislation, regulations, staff manuals, calendars, functional descriptions of offices, and public statements of officials of these systems portray a picture which very often differs from that found upon visiting the various institutions.

After visiting the colleges we marvel at the ingenuity with which senior officials make institutions mirror their own philosophy, reinforcing or distorting the system as designed. The regulations of the CAAT system provide for no faculty or student participation in the operation of the college, yet they seem to have at least as important a consultative role as that of their counterparts in the other provinces. The Alberta college system provides officially for student and faculty participation, but from descriptions of procedures obtained in the institutions themselves, their consultative activities seem rather minor and their initiating power less than the actual practice in Ontario. Although formally extremely democratic, most of the French CEGEP actually seem to be run in a quite authoritarian fashion. This state of affairs cannot be assessed other than subjectively, on the basis of the statements of administrators and the documented public stances of the faculty. "Authoritarian" is a measure of the difference between one's expectation of being permitted to participate in decision-making and the degree to which one is given the opportunity to participate. Some faculty and students may hold unrealistically high expectations ; others are content because their expectations are humble. To someone from a university setting, all these institutions and their system's authorities appear conservative and hierarchical.

We found that the officials of these institutions are imbued with a strong sense of "mission" and "social cause". This is particularly true in Ontario where the administrators appear to be convinced that the CAATs will be a liberating force : enabling students to realise ambitions they could never hope to achieve ; enabling faculty to provide a service and enjoy a useful sense of purpose hitherto generally denied to teachers. These colleges, indeed, are serving a broader segment of society than any post-secondary level institution has in the past. They should be able to broaden the horizon for youth whose opportunities have hitherto been too narrowly limited. They are free from many of the constraints of academic tradition, but they are not free from the social constraints which lie beneath some of the academic selection devices. In the past, Canada has been able to provide considerable scope for human development to people from many countries because its rapidly expanding economy created these opportunities ; but in many ways these were not matched with a careful cultivation, through education, of Canada's own human resources. These colleges can do much to redress the balance.

They have immense potential but we would suggest that the revolution which they represent has barely begun. They have, as yet, made virtually no contribution to educational process changes. Their curricula reflect many of the most undesirable features of traditional academic studies ; their programmes are fragmented, with large numbers of courses, class hours and specific assignments. They are really providing very little "freedom of study" for their students. Their institutional structure is formal and expensive, using a very large number of highly paid professional staff with considerable overlapping of administrative authority. During their establishment phase, there was ample opportunity for "empire building" and the duplication which these empires represents will be difficult to eliminate. Their educational process is equally expensive, characterised by a very large number of teachers and expensive machinery and material. This condition may improve if funds become really scarce ; the missionary spirit of the officials of these institutions would really be tested if they were expected to serve many more students on many fewer dollars. In such a situation, they might well become pioneers in reforming traditional teaching/learning processes. At present, in our opinion, they lack two important ingredients to accomplish this : at the college level, faculty commitment to experimentation ; and at the system level, administrative commitment to empirically-based research and evaluation.

Nevertheless, it must be admitted that the creation of these post-secondary systems is a real achievement. They exhibit a keen vitality. In the competition for funds, their very existence should have a catalytic effect on the university system and the secondary school system.

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